



WOMEN AND MEN IN TANZANIA

STATISTICAL PUBLICATION



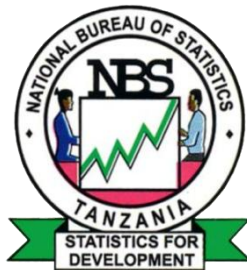
June, 2026



The United Republic of Tanzania

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National bureau of statistics

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FOREWORD

In Tanzania, women and men play a vital roles in shaping families, communities and the nation at large. However, these roles are often influenced by long standing social norms and structures that limit opportunities and resources.

The Women and Men in Tanzania booklet provides facts and figures on the status of women and men in Tanzania. The booklet presents indicators focusing on the following: population, health, vital statistics, education, labour, financial access, agriculture, Information and Communication Technology (ICT), crime, gender-based violence, decision making, governance and Persons with Disabilities (PWDs).

The information has been extracted from various publications produced by the National Bureau of Statistics, administrative data from Ministries and Government Agencies.

I have no doubt that this booklet will be a valuable resource material for gender program designers, implementers, advocates, researchers and the general public to support advancement of the gender agenda in Tanzania.

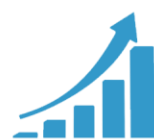


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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AASS	Annual Agriculture Sample Survey
ACRWC	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child
ACHPR	African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights
CRVS	Civil Registration and Vital Statistics
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
FGC/M	Female Genital Mutilation/Cutting
ICESCR	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
ICCPR	International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
LMA	Law of Marriage Act
MEWATA	Medical Women Association of Tanzania
NWGBP	National Women and Gender Development Policy
TAMWA	Tanzania Media Women's Association
PHC	Population and Housing Census
SOSPA	Sexual Offences Special Provisions Act
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
TZM	Tanzania Mainland
UN	United Nations
URT	United Republic of Tanzania
ZNZ	Zanzibar

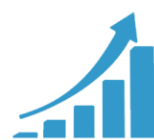


PREFACE

Gender equality refers to the equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities of women and men, and girls and boys. Equality does not mean that women and men will become the same but rather that their rights, responsibilities and opportunities will not depend on whether they are born male or female. Gender equality implies that interests, needs and priorities of both women and men are taken into consideration, recognizing the diversity of different groups of women and men. At the national level, the Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania ensures gender equality by providing equal opportunities for both women and men across all spheres of life. Chapter 3, Article 12(2) of the Constitution safeguards the rights of individuals to be respected as outlined in the International Declaration of Human Rights, 1948. Article 21 underscores the right of all individuals to engage in leadership, either directly or through representation, while Article 22 guarantees equal opportunities for holding public offices.

To address the historic underrepresentation of women in decision-making bodies such as Parliament and Councils, the URT has amended its Constitution to accommodate affirmative actions, including legislative amendments such as Act No. 4/1992, 12/1995, and 3/2000. Additionally, the National Development Vision 2050 places a strong emphasis on gender equality and the eradication of all forms of gender discrimination and violence in the country.

Achieving gender equality and empowering women and girls is a principal component of the United Nations 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. The sex-disaggregated statistics presented in this booklet are an important indicator of Tanzania development, apart from being a reflection of the situation regarding women and men in the country.

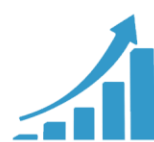


The Need for Gender Statistics

Gender statistics are statistics that accurately reflect the differences and inequalities in the socio-economic situations of women and men across all areas of life. They are a key instrument for identifying and integrating the needs and priorities of women and men, as well as girls and boys, in policy development, and for ensuring fair and equitable distribution of positive policy outcomes for everyone.

Gender statistics aim at producing reliable and adequate data through the use of advanced, gender-sensitive methodologies; to measure and assess the actual social status of women and men; and the overall state of gender equality. Improving the content, methods, classifications, and measurements of gender equality statistics is of critical importance for gender equality professionals, as well as for representatives of legislative bodies, state authorities, and civil society.

Tanzania began implementing the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) shortly after their global adoption in 2015. Following the launch of the SDGs by the United Nations in September 2015, Tanzania committed itself to implement the 2030 Agenda by integrating the SDGs into its national development planning frameworks and strategies from late 2015 onward. Through this integration into the national development agenda, the situation regarding gender equality in the country is expected to improve significantly by 2030. In particular, Goal 5, together with its related targets and indicators, which focuses on achieving gender equality and empowering all women and girls. In addition, gender equality–related targets and indicators are embedded across other SDGs, making their effective implementation and monitoring essential. This publication reflects the linkages between national gender statistics and the SDGs.



Implemented Gender Activities in Tanzania

2007 - Tanzania Government ratified the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (Maputo Protocol) of 2003, reflecting Africa Governments' commitment to women's bodily autonomy, equality, and participation across social, economic, and political spheres.

2003 - Tanzania acceded to the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child, strengthening regional legal protection for girls with long-term implications for gender equality.

1991 - Tanzania ratified the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) of 1989, reinforcing state responsibility to protect girls' rights to education, health, equality, and freedom from harmful practices.

1995 - Tanzania participated in the adoption of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action at the Fourth United Nations World Conference on Women, held in Beijing, China.

1985 - Tanzania acceded to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) of 1979, advancing the recognition and protection of women's rights in all spheres of life.

1985 - Tanzania participated in the Third United Nations World Conference on Women, held in Nairobi, Kenya.

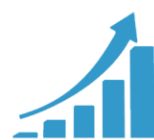
1984 - Tanzania ratified the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights of 1981, affirming commitments to equality, dignity, and women's rights in Africa.

1976 - Tanzania ratified the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) of 1966, thereby committing the state to uphold gender equality in civil and political rights.

1976 - Tanzania ratified the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) of 1966, laying the foundation for women's social and economic empowerment.

1975 - Tanzania participated in the First United Nations World Conference on Women, held in Mexico City, marking the beginning of the United Nations Decade for Women (1975–1985).

1962 - Tanzania ratified the Convention on the Political Rights of Women (1952), legalising women's rights to vote, stand for election, and hold public office.



National Legal, Policy, Political, and Institutional Interventions on Women's Empowerment in Tanzania

2000 - Adoption of the National Women and Gender Development Policy, providing a comprehensive framework for gender-responsive governance in Tanzania.

1999 - Enactment of the Land Act and Village Land Act, marking the first legal recognition of women's land and property rights in Tanzania.

1998 - Enactment of the Sexual Offences Special Provisions Act (SOSPA), the first comprehensive law addressing sexual and gender-based violence in Tanzania.

1988 - Launch of *Sauti ya Siti*, a feminist popular magazine dedicated to women's voices and gender justice (Tanzania Media Women's Association).

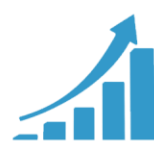
1987 - Founding of the Tanzania Media Women's Association (TAMWA).

1987 - Founding of the Medical Women Association of Tanzania (MEWATA).

1985 - Introduction of Special Seats for Women in Parliament, institutionalizing women's political representation.

1984 - Constitutional entrenchment of gender equality and non-discrimination in the Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania (1977), as amended in 1984.

1971 - Enactment of the Law of Marriage Act, the first comprehensive national law regulating marriage and women's rights in Tanzania.



Important dates for Women in Tanzania since 1920s

2021 - First woman President of the United Republic of Tanzania.

2021 - First woman appointed Minister of Défense and National Service in Tanzania.

2017 - First woman appointed Commissioner General of Immigration in Tanzania.

2015 - First woman to become Vice President of the United Republic of Tanzania.

2010s - Among the earliest Tanzanian women to qualify and serve as commercial pilots in civil aviation.

2010 - First woman elected Speaker of the National Assembly of Tanzania.

2007 - First Tanzanian and African woman appointed Deputy Secretary-General of the United Nations.

2007 - First woman appointed Government Statistician of Tanzania.

2006 - First woman appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs and International Cooperation in Tanzania.

1995 - First woman to become a full Professor of Economics at the University of Dar es Salaam.

1995 - First Tanzanian and African woman to serve as Secretary-General of a United Nations World Conference on Women.

1993 - Tanzania's first female Professor of Medicine.

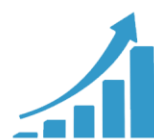
1988 - Among the first Tanzanian women to represent the country in international competitive athletics, including participation in the Olympic Games.

1986 – First woman in Tanzania to earn a Doctorate in Mathematics.

1980 – First woman in Tanzania to attain a First-Class degree in Law.

1975 – First woman appointed Cabinet Minister in Tanzania, serving as Minister of Justice.

1973 – First Tanzanian woman appointed Judge of the High Court of Tanzania.



Early 1970s – Among the first Tanzanian women novelists to publish nationally recognised prose fiction in Kiswahili.

Early 1970s – Among the first Tanzanian women writers to publish nationally recognised feminist drama in Kiswahili.

Early 1970s – Among the first Tanzanian women to be appointed Ambassador, representing the country in international diplomacy.

1965 – First woman Member of Parliament in independent Tanzania.

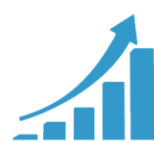
Late 1950s – First woman to attain national trade union leadership, linking labour movements with women's political empowerment.

1955 – First women appointed to the Tanganyika Legislative Council marking the earliest entry of women into legislative politics in Tanganyika.

1954 – First woman to join and assume a national leadership role within a political party in Tanganyika, marking the beginning of organised women's mass mobilization in nationalist politics.

1950s – One of the first Tanzanian women to establish a sustained professional music career and perform publicly at national and international levels.

1928 – First Tanzanian (Zanzibari) woman to record music commercially and achieve international recognition in taarab.

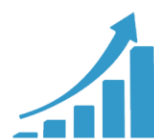


Reader's Guide

“Women and Men in Tanzania” is the fourth statistical publication dedicated to gender equality issues. The statistical data presented reflect key gender equality indicators in Tanzania in 2025.

This publication aims at raising public awareness of gender-related challenges and to support the development of targeted Government policies in the field of gender equality. The data are drawn from different surveys and the 2022 Population and Housing Census conducted by the National Bureau of Statistics, and other administrative sources.

The team of authors would greatly appreciate comments and suggestions regarding the format and content of this publication.



CONCEPT AND DEFINITIONS

Gender

Gender is a socio-cultural construct of the society that determines and identifies, roles or functions, entitlements and deprivation of women and men, and girls and boys in the society. Gender classification changes with time, space and needs of a society.

Sex

Sex is a biological identification of females and males based on their physiological characteristics. Sex characteristics are natural; compared to gender which identifies qualities that are shaped through the history of social relations and interactions.

Gender Roles

The different roles between women and men, which have been identified and maintained socially, for example, cooking, washing, fetching water, and housekeeping, are recognized as gender roles of women rather than as roles for both women and men.

Gender Equality

Gender equality refers to equal access to resources and benefits by women and men. This accelerates the growth of individuals, development of countries and evolution of societies.

Gender Equity

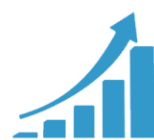
Gender equity denotes the equivalence in life outcomes for women and men, recognizing their different needs and interests, requiring a redistribution of power and resources.

Equality in Education

Women and men, girls and boys should have equal opportunities and conditions in matters education. There is need to empower both women and men through quality education at all levels for personal development and contribute meaningfully to society.

Equal Distribution of Power and Influence

Equal distribution of power and influence ensures that women and men have the same rights and opportunities to be active citizens and be able to take part in decision-making in the society.



Financial Equality

Women and men must have the equal opportunities and terms as regards paid work that provides financial independence throughout their lives.

Gender Mainstreaming

This is an organizational strategy to bring a gender perspective in all aspects of an institution's policy and Gender Equality.

Women Issues

Refers to opportunities, challenges and constraints that affect women and girls only. Women's needs are, therefore, not addressed by relevant organs at all levels due to poor representation and this affects women.

Gender Gaps

Gender gaps refer to the measure of differences between women and men concerning their participation in and benefits from different socio - economic sectors and political issues. Gender gaps come about as a result of unequal power relations between women and men.

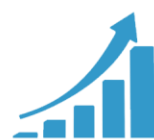
Gender Equality and Statistics

Women and men should be visible in statistics. For this to be possible, statistics must be disaggregated by sex. However, statistics disaggregated by sex alone are not sufficient in addressing gender equality issues. This gives a clear picture of the real situation as it is on the ground through the available data and showing existing gaps.

Population/Demography

Demography is the statistical and mathematical study of the size, composition, and spatial distribution of human populations, and of changes over time in these aspects through the operation of the five processes of fertility, mortality, marriage, migration and social mobility. Demography is useful for governments and private businesses as a means of analyzing and predicting social, cultural, and economic trends related to population.

Population is a group of individuals of same species living in the same geographic area at the same time.



A **population pyramid** is a type of graph that shows the **age and sex structure** of a population.

The **sex ratio** is a statistical measure that shows the number of males per 100 females in a population.

The Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) is the statistical measure of total enrolment in a specific level of education regardless of their age expressed as the percentage of the official school age population for that level.

Net Enrolment Rate (NER) is the statistical measure of total enrolment of the official school age group for a given level of education expressed as the percentage of the corresponding age group in the general population.

Gender-Based Violence (GBV) refers to harmful acts directed at an individual based on their gender, rooted in unequal power relations, social norms, and structural inequalities between men and women. While anyone can experience GBV, women and girls are disproportionately affected.

Poverty Incidence – Is the proportion of families/individuals with per capita income/expenditure less than the per capita poverty threshold to the total number of families/individuals.

Severity of Poverty – This is a measure of how poor a poor person is compared to another person.

Poverty Headcount Rate – This is a measure of the proportion of the population that cannot afford the basic basket of goods measured by the food and overall poverty lines.

Poverty Gap Index – This is a measure of depth of poverty. It provides information on how much poorer the poor people are relative to the poverty line. This measure captures the average expenditure shortfall, or gap, for the poor relative to the poverty line.

Multidimensional poverty encompasses various deprivations experienced by the poor people in their lives such as lack of education, poor health and inadequate living standards among others.

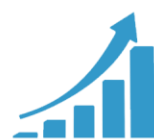
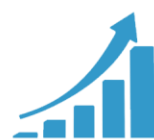
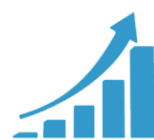


TABLE OF CONTENTS

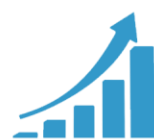
Foreword	i
List of Abbreviations and Acronyms	ii
Preface.....	iii
The Need for Gender Statistics	iv
Implemented Gender Activities in Tanzania	v
Important dates for Women in Tanzania since 1920s.....	vii
Reader's Guide.....	ix
Concept and Definitions	x
List of Tables	xvii
List of Figures	xix
CHAPTER ONE	1
Population and Distribution Characteristics	2
1.0 Introduction.....	2
1.1 Population by Age and Sex.....	3
1.2 Population Pyramid.....	4
1.3 Female and Male Headed Households.....	6
1.4 Sex Ratio.....	8
1.5 Marital Status.....	8
CHAPTER TWO	10
Health.....	11
2.0 Introduction.....	11
2.1 Tanzania Health System	11
2.2 Registration of Births and Deaths	11
2.3 HIV Prevalence	13
2.3.1 Achievement of the 95-95-95 HIV Targets	14
2.4 Infant and Under five Mortality Rates	16
2.5 Maternal Mortality	17
2.6 Number of Deaths	18
2.7 Outpatient Attendance	19
2.8 Use of Tobacco	20
2.9 Number of Neoplasm/Cancer Outpatients	21
2.10 Number of Suicide Deaths	22
2.11 Newly Diagnosed Breast and Cervix Cancer Cases	23
2.12 Use of Contraceptives	24
CHAPTER THREE	26
Disability.....	27
3.0 Introduction.....	27
3.1 Persons with Disability (PWDs)	27
3.1.1 Disability Prevalence by Sex and Region.....	28



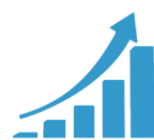
3.2	Persons with Disability by Type of Disability	29
3.3	Prevalence of Albinism by Place of Residence	29
CHAPTER FOUR.....		31
Education		32
4.0	Introduction.....	32
4.1	School Dropouts by Sex.....	32
4.2	Teaching Staffs in Academic Institutions	33
4.3	School Enrolment.....	33
4.3.1	Enrolled in Pre-primary, Primary and Secondary Schools	34
4.3.2	Enrolment in Higher Learning Institutions	35
4.3.3	Enrolment in Technical and Vocational Education	35
4.4	Transition from Primary to Secondary Education	36
4.5	Science and Mathematics Graduates	38
4.6	Graduates from Technical Education Training Institutions	38
4.7	Vocational Education Training Graduates	39
4.8	Graduates in University Institutions	40
4.9	Dropouts at different Levels of Education	40
4.9.1	Dropout in Primary Schools.....	40
4.9.2	Dropouts in Secondary Schools	41
4.10	University Student Dropouts.....	42
4.11	Number of Teachers in Pre-primary, Primary and Secondary Schools	43
4.11.1	Number of Teachers in Pre-primary Schools.....	43
4.11.2	Number of Teachers in Primary Schools	43
4.11.3	Number of Teachers in Secondary Schools	44
4.12	Number of Academic Staff at University Institutions	45
CHAPTER FIVE		45
Labour Force		46
5.0	Labour Force Participation	46
5.1	Unemployment Rate	47
5.2	Employment Pattern.....	47
5.3	Employment by Industry.....	48
5.4	Employment in Paid jobs	49
5.5	Employment by Type of Sector	50
5.6	Usual and Current Hours of Work	51
5.7	Average Monthly Income (TZS) for Employed Persons	52
CHAPTER SIX.....		53
Poverty		53
6.0	Poverty Incidence, Gap and Severity by Gender (SDG 1.2.1)	53
6.1	Incidence of Poverty by Age Group	54
6.2	Incidence of Poverty by Place of Residence	55
6.3	Incidence of Poverty by Sex of Household Head	56



6.4	Household Welfare by Age and Sex of Household Head.....	57
CHAPTER SEVEN		57
Financial Access and Usage.....		58
7.0	Introduction.....	58
7.1	Access to financial Services and Products (Formal).....	58
7.2	Access to Financial Services and Products (Informal)	59
7.3	Excluded Individuals in Accessing Financial Services and Products.....	59
7.4	Access to Financial Services and Products by Type of Provider.....	60
7.5	Need-based Financial Priority.....	61
7.6	Digital Payment Instruments Used to Purchase Goods	62
7.7	Distribution of How Tanzanians Receive Income	63
7.8	Uptake of Financial Services	64
7.9	Distribution of Those Who Claim that They Often/Always Struggle with Regular Expenses	65
CHAPTER EIGHT		66
Agriculture		66
8.0	Introduction.....	66
CHAPTER NINE.....		71
Information and Communication Technology (ICT).....		71
9.0	Introduction.....	71
9.1	Ownership and Use of ICT Equipment.....	71
9.1.1	Ownership of Mobile Phone	72
9.1.2	Ownership of Computers	75
9.2	Use of Mobile Phones.....	75
9.2.1	Use of computers	76
9.2.2	Internet Use Pyramid	77
CHAPTER TEN.....		81
Property Rights and Assets Ownership.....		81
10.0	Introduction.....	81
10.1	Property Rights and Assets Ownership for Women in Tanzania	81
10.2	Land Ownership.....	82
10.3	Ownership of Land Right Documents	82
10.4	Ownership of Household Assets	83
CHAPTER ELEVEN.....		85
Gender Based Violence.....		86
11.0	Introduction.....	86
11.1	Gender Based Violence by Age.....	86
11.2	Genital Cutting (FGC/M).....	89
CHAPTER TWELVE.....		92
Decision Making.....		92
12.0	Introduction.....	92



12.1	12.2 Number of Cabinet Ministers by Sex.....	92
12.2	Number of Judiciary Staff by Sex.....	93
12.3	Participation in Leadership Positions in Public Service	94
12.4	Participation in Councillor Positions	94
CHAPTER THIRTEEN.....		97
Crime.....		98
13.0	Introduction.....	98
13.1	Number of Reported Murder Cases	98



LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1	Number and Percentage Distribution of Projected Population by Sex and Five-Year Age Groups; Tanzania, 2025.....	4
Table 1.2	Sex Ratio by Five Year Age Groups; Tanzania 2022 PHC	8
Table 1.3	Percentage Distribution of Population Aged 15 Years and Above by Sex and Marital Status; Tanzania, 2022 PHC.....	9
Table 2.1	Registered Births by Sex and Specific Age Groups; Tanzania, 2023 and 2024..	12
Table 2.2	Number of Registered Deaths and Percent Change by Sex and Specific Age Group; Tanzania Mainland, 2023 and 2024.....	13
Table 3.1	Disability Prevalence by Sex and Place of Residence; Tanzania, 2022 PHC	27
Table 3.2	Number and Percentage of Persons with Albinism by Sex and Place of Residence; Tanzania, 2022 PHC.....	30
Table 4.1	Gross and Net Enrolment Rates for Pre-primary, Primary and Secondary Schools by Sex; Tanzania, <i>BEST</i> 2025	34
Table 4.2	Number and Percentage of Students' Enrolment in Government and Non-Government Pre-Primary, Primary and Secondary Schools by Sex; Tanzania, <i>BEST</i> 2025.....	34
Table 4.3	Students' Enrolment in Higher learning Institutions by Sex and Type of Ownership; Tanzania, <i>BEST</i> 2025.....	35
Table 4.4	Number and Percentage of Students' Enrolled in Technical and Vocational Education by Sex; Tanzania, <i>BEST</i> 2025.....	35
Table 4.5	Number of Dropouts in Primary Education by Sex and Grade; Tanzania, <i>BEST</i> 2024.....	41
Table 4.6	Number of Dropouts in Secondary Education by Sex, Reason and Grade; Tanzania, <i>BEST</i> 2024	42
Table 4.7	Number and Percentage of University Student Dropouts by Sex and Reason; Tanzania, <i>BEST</i> 2023/24	43
Table 5.1	Unemployment Rates by Geographical Residence, Age Group and Sex Tanzania, <i>ILFS</i> 2024	47
Table 5.2	Percentage Distribution of Employed Persons by Occupations, Geographical Areas and Sex; Tanzania, <i>ILFS</i> 2024.....	48
Table 5.3	Percentage Distribution of Employed Persons by Sex and Industry; Tanzania, <i>ILFS</i> 2024	49
Table 5.4	Percentage Distribution of Employed Persons by Sex and Type of Paid Employment; Tanzania, <i>ILFS</i> 2024	50
Table 6.1	Poverty Incidence, Gap and Severity by Sex; Tanzania, 2017-18 <i>HBS</i>	53
Table 6.2	Lower Poverty Incidence, Lower Poverty Gap and Lower Severity of Poverty by Sex and Selected Age Groups; Tanzania, 2018-17 <i>HBS</i>	54
Table 6.3	Poverty Incidence, Gap and Severity by Sex and Place of Residence; Tanzania, 2017-18 <i>HBS</i>	55
Table 6.4	Incidence of Poverty by Sex of Household Head and Place of Residence; Tanzania, 2017-18 <i>HBS</i>	56

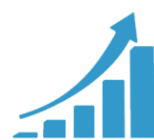
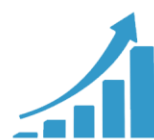


Table 6.5	Monthly Total Household Consumption by Sex and Age of Household Head, Mean and Median; Tanzania, 2017-18 HBS.....	57
Table 7.1	Proportion of Individuals Access Financial Services by Type of Service Provider; FinScope Tanzania, 2023	61
Table 8.1	Percentage Distribution of Agricultural Households by Sex of Household Head; Tanzania Mainland, 2022/23 and 2023/24 Annual Agricultural Sample Surveys	67
Table 9.1	Percentage of Population Aged 15 Years and Above Owning Mobile Phones by Sex, Place of Residence and Regions; Tanzania, 2022 PHC.....	74
Table 10.1	Number of Men and Women Headed Households by Type of Legal Right Document Possessed over the Land where the Main House is Built; Tanzania, 2022 PHC	83
Table 12.1	Number of Judiciary Staff by Sex; Tanzania Mainland, 2020 -2024	93
Table 12.2	Participation of Women and Men in Managerial Positions; Tanzania, 2025	94
Table 12.3	Percentage of Women and Men in Councillor Positions; Tanzania, 2025	95
Table 13.1	Number of Deaths and Injuries due to Land Disputes; Tanzania, 2024	99
Table 13.2	Convicted Adults and Children by Type of Crime; Tanzania, 2024.....	101



LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1	Population Distribution (in millions) in Tanzania; 2002 – 2022 Censuses and the 2025 Projected Population	2
Figure 1.2	Population Pyramid, Tanzania, 2012	5
Figure 1.3	Population Pyramid, Tanzania. 2002	5
Figure 1.4	Population Pyramid, Tanzania, 2025	5
Figure 1.5	Population Pyramid; Tanzania, 2022	5
Figure 1.6	Percentage Distribution of Households by Sex of Household Head and Place of Residence; Tanzania, 2022 PHC	7
Figure 1.7	Trends of Women and Men Headed Households; Tanzania, 2002,2012 and 2022 PHCs	7
Figure 2.1	Percentage of Registered Births of Children under Age Five; Tanzania, 2022 ..	12
Figure 2.2	HIV Prevalence by Age and Sex; Tanzania, 2022 TDHS – MIS	14
Figure 2.3	Achievement of the 95-95-95 HIV Targets by Sex	15
Figure 2.4	Trends in Infant mortality Rates by Sex; Tanzania, 2010, 2015 and 2022 TDHSs	16
Figure 2.5	Under-five mortality per 1,000 live births	17
Figure 2.6	Maternal Mortality Ratio; Tanzania, 2010, 2015/16 and 2022 TDHSs	18
Figure 2.7	Number of Deaths by Sex; Tanzania, 2020-2024	19
Figure 2.8	Out Patient Attendance (*000) (2020–2024)	20
Figure 2.9	Prevalence of Current Tobacco Smokers among Population Aged 18 to 69 Years by Sex and Age Group; Tanzania, STEPS 2023	21
Figure 2.10	Number of Neoplasm/ Cancer Outpatients; Tanzania, MoH 2024	22
Figure 2.11	Number of Suicide Deaths; Tanzania, MoH 2020-2024	23
Figure 2.12	Newly Diagnosed Breast and Cervix Cancer Cases; Tanzania, MoH 2020 - 2024 24	
Figure 2.13	Percentage of women Aged 15-49 Years Using Any Contraceptive Method; Tanzania, MoH 2020-2024	25
Figure 3.1	Prevalence of People with Disability by Type of Disability; Tanzania, 2022 PHC	29
Figure 3.2	Prevalence of Albinism by Place of Residence; Tanzania, 2022 PHC	30
Figure 4.1	Percentage of Pupils/Students Enrolled in Different Levels of Education by Sex; Tanzania, BEST 2025	36
Figure 4.2	Trends in Science and Mathematics Teacher Graduates by Sex; Tanzania, BEST 2025	38
Figure 4.3	Trends of Graduates from Technical Education Training Institutions by Sex; Tanzania, BEST 2025	39
Figure 4.4	Trends of Vocational Education Training Graduates by Sex; Tanzania, BEST 2025	39
Figure 4.5	Trends in University Institution Graduates by Sex; Tanzania, BEST 2025	40
Figure 4.6	Number of Dropouts in Primary School Education by Sex and Grade; Tanzania, BEST2024	41

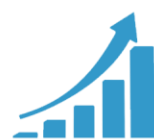


Figure 4.7	Percentage of Secondary School Student Dropouts by Sex and Grade; Tanzania, BEST 2024	42
Figure 4.8	Number of Teachers in Pre-primary Schools by Sex; Tanzania, BEST2025	43
Figure 4.9	Percentage of Teachers in Primary Schools by Sex; Tanzania, BEST 2025	44
Figure 4.10	Percentage of Secondary School Teachers by Sex; Tanzania, BEST, 2025	44
Figure 4.11	Percentage of Academic Staff at University Institutions by Sex; BEST 2025 ...	45
Figure 5.1	Labour Force Participation Rates by Sex and Geographical Areas; Tanzania, ILFS 2024	46
Figure 5.2	Employment to Population Ratio by Sex and Geographical Areas; Tanzania, ILFS 2024	46
Figure 5.3	Percentage Distribution of Employed Persons by Sex and Sector of Employment; Tanzania, ILFS 2024	51
Figure 5.4	Percentage of Employed Persons by Sex and Hours of Work; Tanzania, ILFS 2024.....	52
Figure 5.5	Average Monthly Incomes (TZS) of Persons in Paid Employment by Sex; Tanzania, ILFS 2024	52
Figure 6.1	Percentage of Population Living below the National Poverty Line by Sex; Tanzania, 2017-18 HBS	53
Figure 6.2	Percentage of Population Living below the National Poverty Line by Sex and Selected Age Group; Tanzania, 2017-18 HBS	54
Figure 6.3	Poverty Incidence, Gap and Severity by Sex and Place of Residence; Tanzania, 2017-18 HBS.....	55
Figure 6.4	Incidence of Poverty by Sex of Household Head and Place of Residence; Tanzania, 2017-18 HBS	56
Figure 6.5	Monthly Total Household Consumption by Sex and Age of Household Head, Mean and Median Monthly Consumption; Tanzania, 2017-18 HBS	57
Figure 7.1	Percentage of Individuals Accessing Financial Services and Products; FinScope, Tanzania 2017 – 2023.	58
Figure 7.2	Percentage of Individuals Accessing Informal Financial Services and Products; FINSCOPE, Tanzania, 2017 – 2023	59
Figure 7.3	Percentage Excluded Individuals in Access to Financial Services and Products by Sex; FINSCOPE, Tanzania excluded, 2017 – 2023.....	60
Figure 7.4	Percentage of Individuals by Sex and Type of Need-based Financial Priority; FINSCOPE Tanzania, 2023	61
Figure 7.5	Percentage of Individuals Using Digital Payment Instruments to Purchase Goods by Sex and Type of Instrument Used; FinScope Tanzania, 2023	62
Figure 7.6	Percentage distribution of Tanzanians by Sex and How They Receive Income; FinScope Tanzania, 2017 and 2023	63
Figure 7.7	Percentage of individuals by Sex and Uptake of Financial Services; FinScope, Tanzania 2017 and 2023	64
Figure 7.8	The percentage of Individuals who Claim to Struggle with Regular Expenses; FinScope Tanzania 2017 and 2023	65

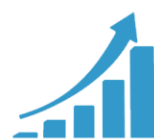


Figure 8.1	Percentage of Agriculture Households Engaged in Crop Production by Sex of Household Head; Tanzania Mainland, 2022/23 and 2023/24 Annual Agricultural Surveys,.....	67
Figure 8.2	Percentage of Agriculture Households Engaged in Aquaculture Farming by Sex of Household Head; Tanzania Mainland, 2022/23 and 2023/24 Agricultural Surveys.....	68
Figure 8.3	Percentage of Agricultural Households Engaged in Livestock Rearing by Sex of Household Head; Tanzania Mainland, 2022/23 and 2023/24 Annual Agricultural Surveys.....	68
Figure 8.4	Percentage of Employed Population Aged 15 Years and Above Engaged in Agriculture by Sex; Tanzania Mainland, 2022 PHC	69
Figure 8.5	Percentage of Employed Population Aged 15 Years and Above Working in Their Own Farms by Sex; Tanzania Mainland, 2022 PHC	69
Figure 9.1	Percentage of Households Owning ICT Equipment by Type of Equipment and Headship; Tanzania, 2022 PHC	72
Figure 9.2	Percentage of Persons Aged 15 Years and Above Owning Mobile Phones by Sex; Tanzania, 2022 PHC	73
Figure 9.3	Percentage of Population Aged Four Years and Above Owning Computers by Sex and Place of Residence; Tanzania, 2022 PHC	75
Figure 9.4	Percentage of Individuals Aged Four Years and Above Using Mobile Phones by Type, Sex and Place of Residence; Tanzania, 2022 PHC.....	76
Figure 9.5	Percentage of Individuals Aged Four Years and Above Using Computers by Sex and Place of Residence; Tanzania, 2022 PHC	77
Figure 9.6	Internet Use Pyramid; Tanzania, 2022 PHC	78
Figure 10.1	Percentage of Persons Aged 15 Years and Above Owning Land by Sex and Place of Residence: Tanzania, 2022 PHC.....	82
Figure 10.2	Percentage of Women and Men Headed Households Owning Selected Assets by Type of Asset; Tanzania, 2022 PHC.....	84
Figure 11.1	Percentage of Women Aged 15-49 who have Ever Experienced Physical Violence since Age 15; 2010, 2015/16 and 2022 TDHSs	87
Figure 11.2	Percentage of Women Age 15-49 who have ever Experienced Sexual Violence; Tanzania, TDHS 2010, 2015/16 and 2022.....	88
Figure 11.3	Percentage of Women Age 15-49 who Experienced Violence by Type of Violence Tanzania, 2022 TDHS-MIS.....	88
Figure 11.4	Percentage of Women Aged 15-49 years who have Ever Experienced Physical or Sexual Violence by Their Help Seeking Behaviour	89
Figure 11.5	Proportion of Women Age 15-49 who have Undergone Female Genital Mutilation/cutting; 1996, 2010, 2015/16 and 2022 TDHSs.....	90
Figure 12.1	Percentage of Cabinet Ministers by Sex; Tanzania, 2025.....	93
Figure 13.1	Number of Reported Murder Cases and Number of Suspects; Tanzania, 2024 .	98
Figure 13.2	Number of Deaths and Injured Persons due to Traffic Offences by Sex; Tanzania; 2024	100
Figure 13.3	Number of Deaths and Injured Persons and Casualties due to Motorcycle Accidents by Sex; Tanzania, 2024	100

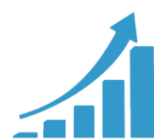
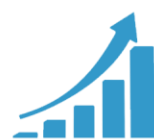


Figure 13.4	Number of Convicted Prisoners in Prisons by Age Group and Sex; Tanzania, 2024.....	103
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List of Maps

Map 1.1	Population by Sex and Region; Tanzania, 2022 PHC	3
Map 3.1	Disability Prevalence by Sex and Region; Tanzania, 2022 PHC.....	28
Map 4.1	Transition Rates from Primary School to Lower Secondary School Level by Sex and Region; Tanzania, BEST 2025	37



CHAPTER ONE

POPULATION AND DISTRIBUTION CHARACTERISTICS



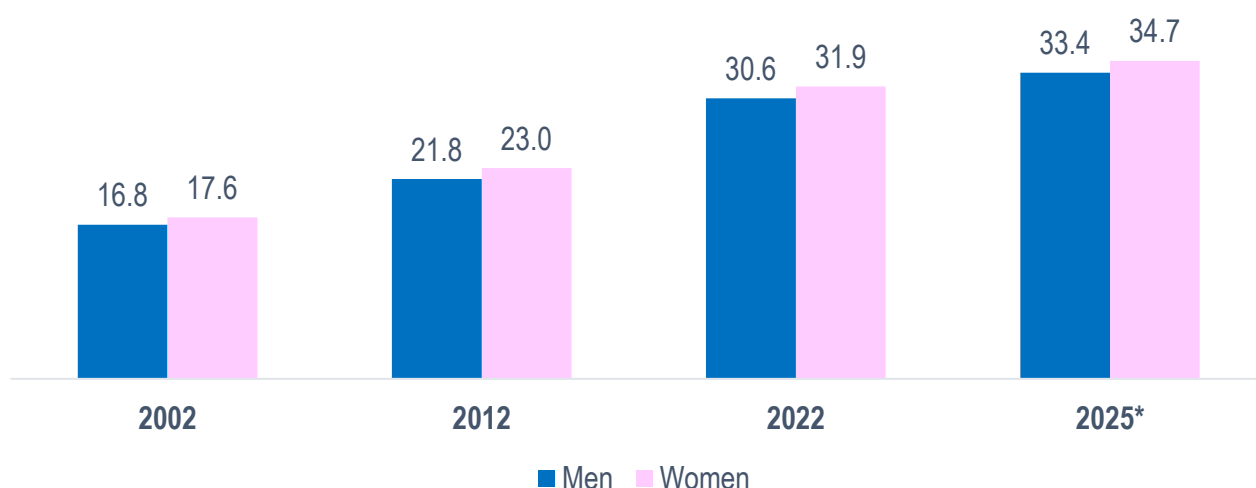
CHAPTER ONE

POPULATION AND DISTRIBUTION CHARACTERISTICS

1.0 Introduction

Chapter one presents information on the size and distribution of the Tanzanian population from the 2022 PHC and previous Censuses, the projected age and sex profiles of population for the 2025 together with the distribution of female and male headed households, sex ratios and marital status of the population. Figure 1.1 shows a steady increase of population for both men and women over time. Women consistently increased more than men across all census years, with the gap remaining modest but persistent.

Figure 0.1 Population Distribution (in millions) in Tanzania; 2002 – 2022 Censuses and the 2025 Projected Population

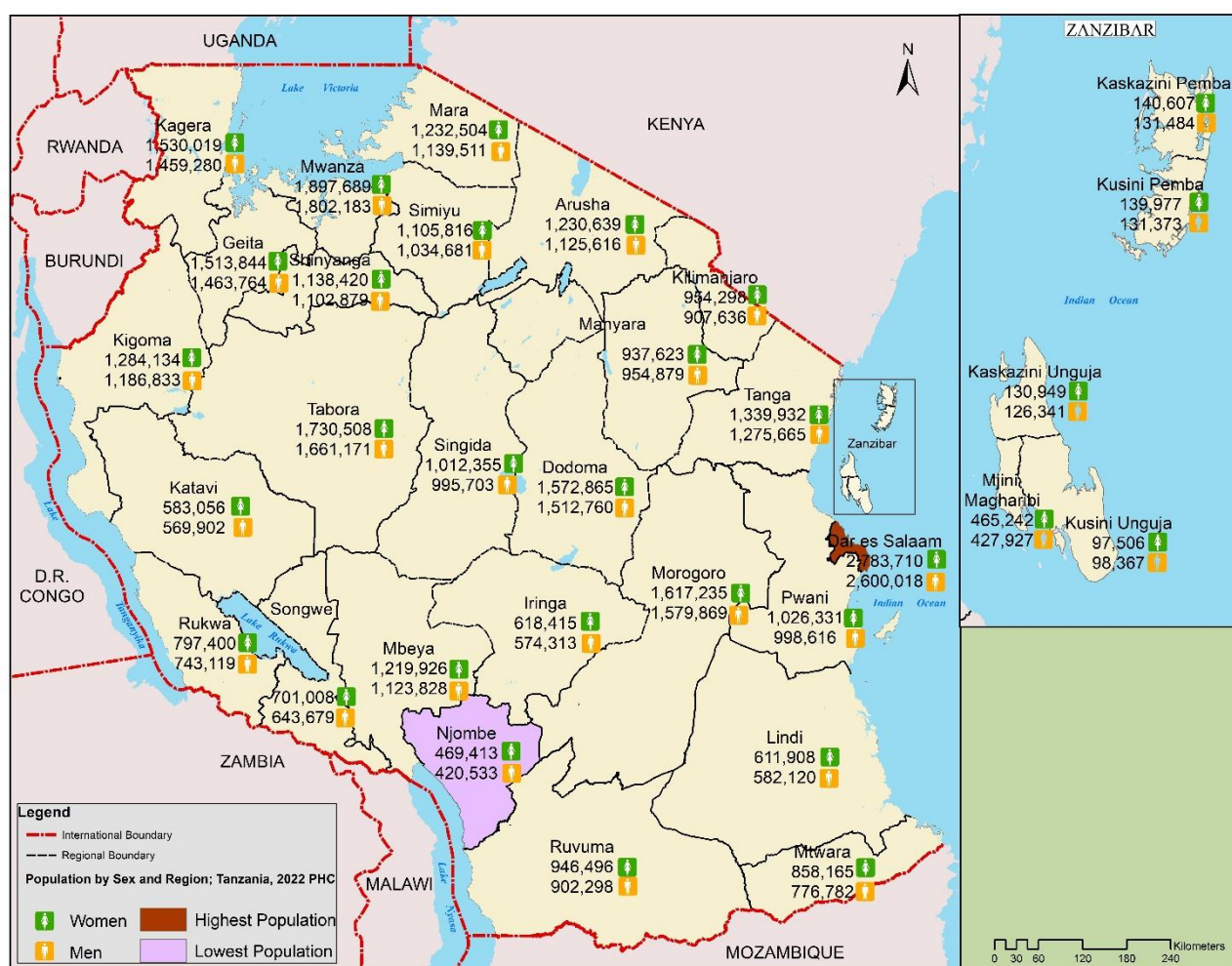


Note: 2002, 2012, 2022 Census Year 2025* * Projected population

Source: 2022 PHC



Map 0.1 Population by Sex and Region; Tanzania, 2022 PHC



1.1 Population by Age and Sex

Information on age and sex is fundamental in gender analysis because as it helps identifying differences in needs and roles; highlighting inequalities and disparities in areas like education, health and access to resources; supporting targeted interventions; tracking progress overtime; and improving policy and planning.

Table 1.1 indicates that the population is almost evenly distributed by sex, with slightly more women than men. Men are more represented in younger age groups (0-19 years), while women increasingly dominate older age groups, particularly from age 60 and above.

Table 0.1 Number and Percentage Distribution of Projected Population by Sex and Five-Year Age Groups; Tanzania, 2025

Age Groups	Both Sexes	Women		Men	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	68,153,004	34,732,602	100.0	33,420,402	100.0
0 - 4	11,435,281	5,663,970	16.3	5,771,311	17.3
5- 9	9,681,131	4,799,613	13.8	4,881,518	14.6
0-14	8,589,876	4,255,485	12.3	4,334,391	13.0
15-19	7,142,237	3,555,875	10.2	3,586,362	10.7
20-24	5,779,802	3,016,507	8.7	2,763,295	8.3
25-29	5,126,790	2,776,151	8.0	2,350,639	7.0
30-34	4,305,726	2,261,678	6.5	2,044,048	6.1
35-39	3,549,969	1,846,920	5.3	1,703,049	5.1
40-44	2,903,055	1,514,382	4.4	1,388,673	4.2
45-49	2,463,299	1,264,486	3.7	1,198,813	3.6
50-54	2,055,097	1,052,024	3.0	1,003,073	3.0
55-59	1,525,587	781,486	2.3	744,101	2.2
60-64	1,125,370	578,447	1.8	546,923	1.6
65-69	907,340	478,227	1.4	429,113	1.3
70-74	569,106	308,201	0.9	260,905	0.8
75-79	475,929	264,105	0.8	211,824	0.6
80+	517,409	315,045	0.9	202,364	0.6

Source: 2022 PHC

1.2 Population Pyramid

A population pyramid provides a snapshot of the population age and sex structure which is a useful insight in the pattern of vital events (fertility, mortality and migration). Figures 1.2, 1.3, and 1.4 are population pyramids for 2002, 2012 and 2022 Population and Housing Censuses and Figure 1.5 is the pyramid for the 2025 projected population. All four pyramids indicate that the Tanzania population is characterised by young age structure.



Figure 0.3 Population Pyramid, Tanzania. 2002

Figure 0.2 Population Pyramid, Tanzania, 2012

NUMBERS IN 000s AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION

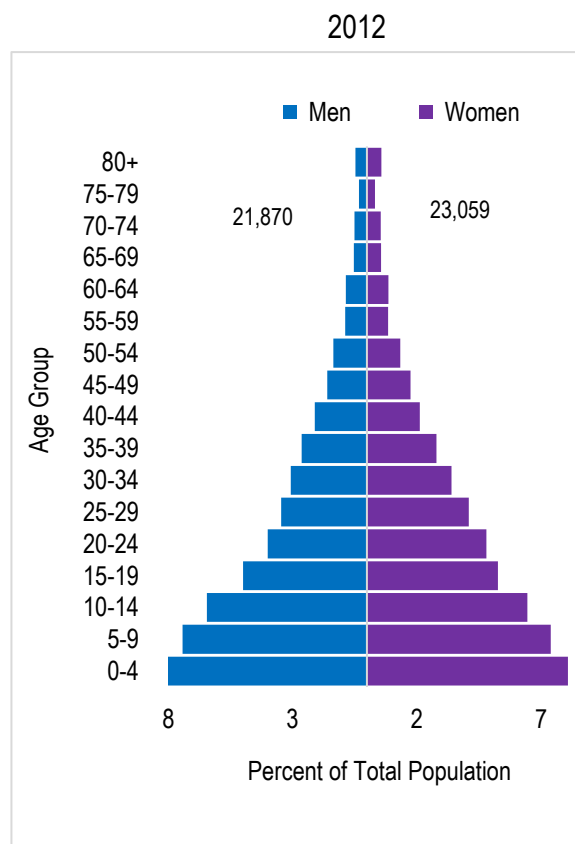
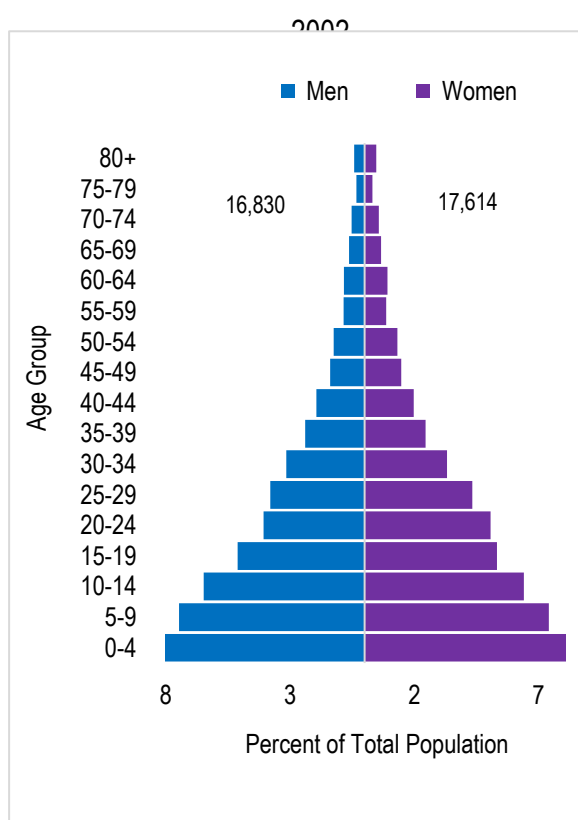
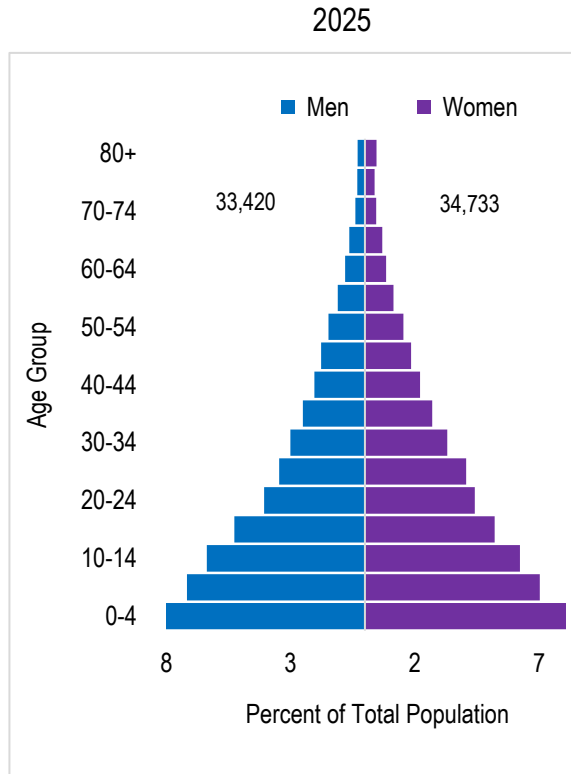
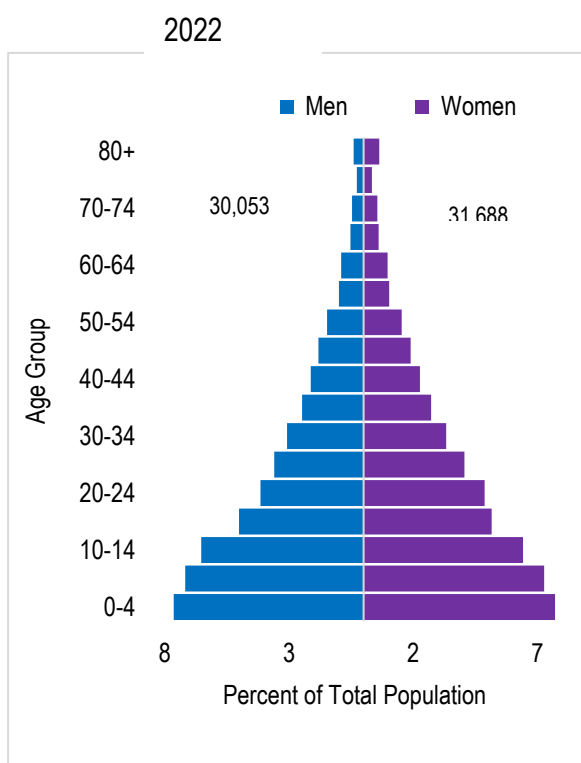


Figure 0.5 Population Pyramid; Tanzania, 2022

Figure 0.4 Population Pyramid, Tanzania, 2025



1.3 Female and Male Headed Households

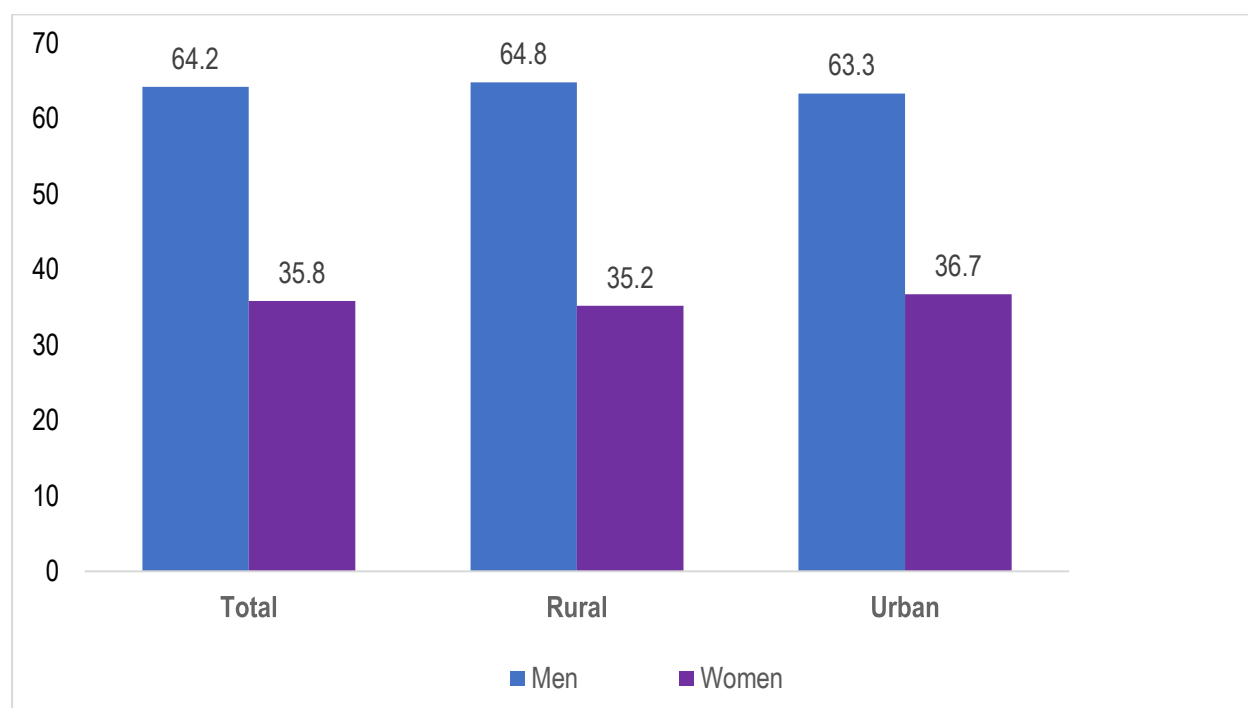
Information on male- and female-headed households is very useful because it helps in revealing differences in social, economic, and power dynamics that might otherwise be hidden. In particular, it helps in;

- i) Identifying inequalities and vulnerabilities in relation to accessing income, land credit or employment opportunities;
- ii) Informing targeted policies and planning, whereby Governments and organizations can use the information to design more effective interventions (e.g., social protection, livelihood support, education programs, etc);
- iii) Supporting gender responsive planning whereby planners are able to allocate resources more equitably by recognizing that households are not homogeneous and gender roles influences economic capacity and well-being;
- iv) Giving highlights on power and decision-making dynamics as household headship often reflects who has authority and control over resources;
- v) Improving poverty and welfare analysis as it helps in identifying who is most at risk and why; and
- vi) Tracking progress towards gender equality goals as it provides measurable indicators for monitoring progress in areas like economic empowerment, social inclusion and gender equality commitments.

Figure 1.6 indicates that most (64.2%) households in Tanzania are headed by men. The percentage of men headed households is slightly higher (64.8%) in rural areas than in urban areas (63.3%), whereas the percentage of women headed households is slightly higher (36.7%) in urban areas than in rural areas (35.2%).



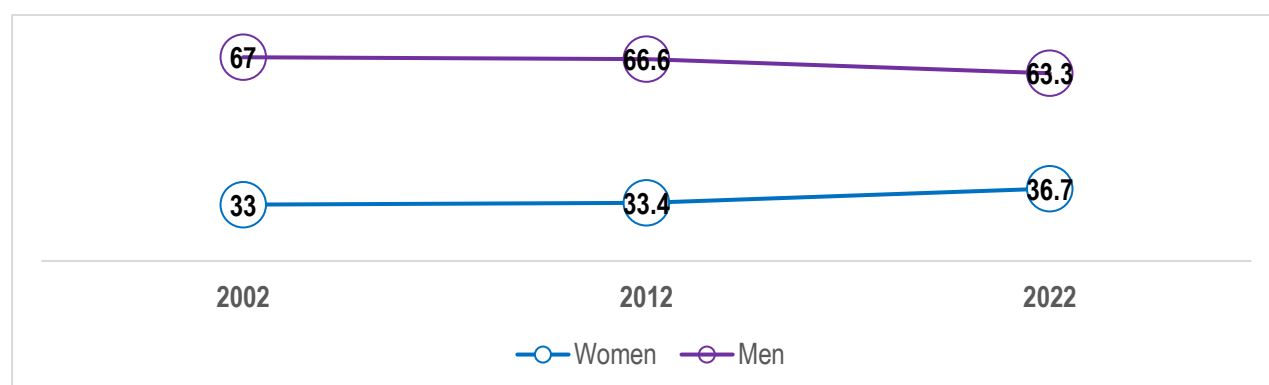
Figure 0.6 Percentage Distribution of Households by Sex of Household Head and Place of Residence; Tanzania, 2022 PHC



Source: 2022 PHC

Figure 1.7 presents the percentage of women and men headed households in 2002, 2012 and 2022 PHCs. The figure indicates a slowly declining trend (from 67.0% in 2002 to 63.3% in 2022) for men headed households and an increasing trend (from 33.0% in 2002 to 36.7% in 2022) for women headed households.

Figure 0.7 Trends of Women and Men Headed Households; Tanzania, 2002,2012 and 2022 PHCs



Source: 2022 PHC



1.5 Sex Ratio

The sex ratio for Tanzania and Tanzania Mainland is 95 males per 100 females whereas that of Tanzania Zanzibar is 94 males per 100 females. It is higher in urban areas than in rural areas. Normally sex ratios decrease with age.

Table 1.2 shows that among younger age groups, sex ratios are above 100, implying that there were more males than females in those age groups. In urban areas, sex ratios for the population in age groups 45-49, 50-54 and 55-59 are higher than a 100 indicating that there are more males than females in those age groups probably due to rural urban migration that is more pronounced among males than female.

Table 0.2 Sex Ratio by Five Year Age Groups; Tanzania 2022 PHC

Age Group	Tanzania			Tanzania Mainland			Tanzania Zanzibar		
	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban
Total	95	97	93	95	97	93	94	97	92
0-4	100	100	100	100	100	100	101	101	100
5-9	99	100	98	99	100	98	100	102	98
10-14	102	106	95	102	106	95	101	105	97
15 - 19	98	105	85	98	106	85	94	100	88
20 - 24	86	88	82	86	88	82	88	90	86
25 - 29	89	90	88	89	90	88	90	90	89
30 - 34	93	93	93	93	93	93	91	93	89
35 - 39	92	91	94	92	91	94	88	90	86
40 - 44	95	93	97	95	93	98	91	93	89
45 - 49	97	94	100	97	95	101	91	89	93
50 - 54	96	94	101	96	94	102	91	87	94
55 - 59	97	96	100	98	96	101	92	90	95
60 - 64	94	93	94	93	93	94	103	107	98
65 - 69	89	87	93	89	87	92	92	87	98
70 - 74	86	85	88	86	85	88	95	101	89
75 - 79	81	81	80	81	81	80	77	77	77
80+	64	66	57	64	66	57	63	68	58

Source: 2022 PHC

1.5 Marital Status

The term "marital status" refers to the state of being unmarried, married, widowed, separated or divorced. Marital status is one of the most important factors in population dynamics as it affects fertility and other social and economic characteristics such as school attendance and labour force participation.



The 2022 PHC results show that among Tanzanians aged 15 years and above, men are more likely than women to have never married (51.1% vs. 39.9%), while women are more likely to be married, divorced, separated, or widowed. Widowhood is particularly higher among women (6.5%) than men (1.0%), reflecting a higher life expectancy for women. Similar patterns are observed in Tanzania Mainland and Tanzania Zanzibar (Table 1.3).

Table 0.3 Percentage Distribution of Population Aged 15 Years and Above by Sex and Marital Status; Tanzania, 2022 PHC

Marital status	Tanzania		Tanzania Mainland		Tanzania Zanzibar	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Never married	39.9	51.1	39.8	51.0	41.3	53.5
Married	43.2	40.6	39.8	40.5	46.6	43.0
Living together	4.6	4.3	4.7	4.4	0.6	0.6
Divorced	3.9	2.0	3.8	2.0	6.8	2.3
Separated	1.9	1.0	1.9	1.0	0.5	0.2
Widowed	6.5	1.0	6.6	3.9	4.3	0.5

Source: 2022 PHC



CHAPTER TWO

HEALTH



CHAPTER TWO HEALTH

2.0 Introduction

This chapter presents information gender mainstreaming in health-related issues including birth and death registrations; infant and under-five mortality; maternal mortality; number of deaths; outpatient attendance; HIV prevalence; percentage of smokers; number of neoplasm/cancer patients; number of suicide cases; new breast and cervix cancer cases diagnosed; and contraceptive prevalence.

2.1 Tanzania Health System

Gender mainstreaming in Tanzania is a key priority for the health-related sectors. The main focus is to enable increased understanding of gender equity in relation to family life improvements by using multi-sectoral agencies from the community level to the household level. The sector continues to promote gender equity and equal opportunities to access health services for all people.

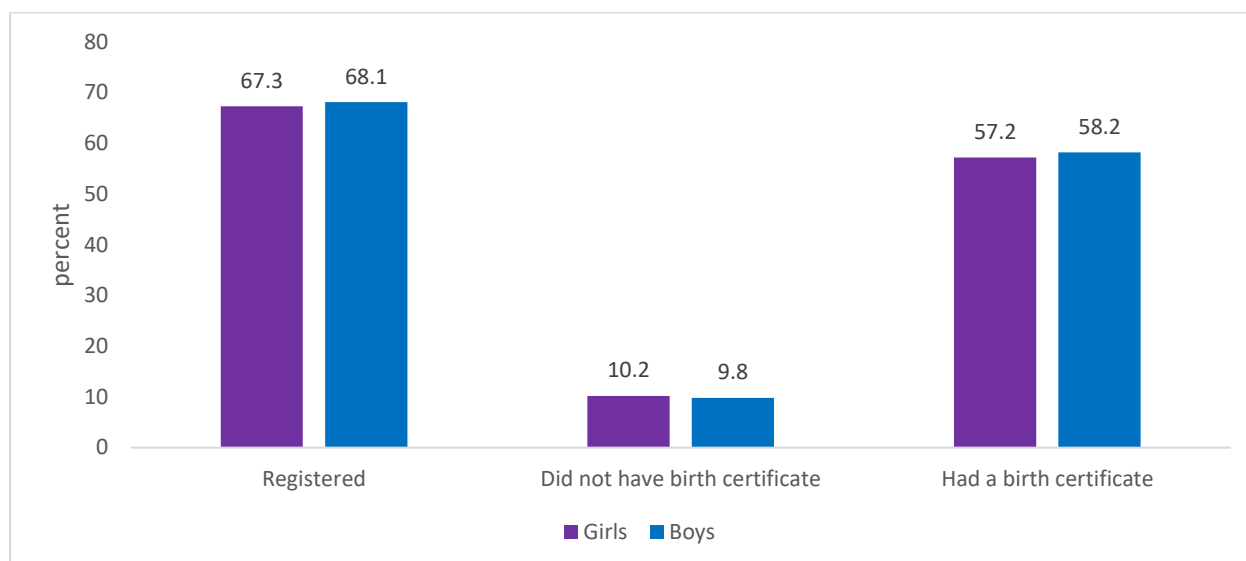
The emphasis is on female empowerment in decision making about health issues and to insure male involvement in the care of the family health. Both national and international plans such as Sustainable Developments Goals (SGDs), Five Year Development Plan II (FYDP II) and Mkakati wa Kukuza Uchumi na Kupunguza Umaskini Tanzania (MKUKUTA II) emphasize health in relation to gender related issues. Gender statistics from surveys and routine data are essential tools for making decisions in respect to the needs of men and women.

2.2 Registration of Births and Deaths

Birth and death registration (often referred to as **civil registration and vital statistics – CRVS**) are foundational for gender statistics because they provide continuous, reliable, and disaggregated data. Their benefits go well beyond administration as they directly strengthen gender analysis, planning, and policy. Figure 2.1 shows that in Tanzania, there is no significant difference in acquiring birth certificates among girls and boys aged less than five years.



Figure 2.1 Percentage of Registered Births of Children under Age Five; Tanzania, 2022



Source: 2022 TDHS – MIS

Table 2.1 shows that there was a significant increase in the total number of registered births from 1,279,946 in 2023 to 1,682,214 in 2024; and increase of 402,268 births equivalent to 31.4 percent. This growth was primarily driven by the 0-4 age group, which registered the largest number of births both in 2023 (801,798 births) and in 2024 (1,109,710). This is an increase of 307,914 births equivalent to a 38.4 percent increase. Within this infant and toddler demographic, female registrations slightly outnumbered males in both years. However, for older age groups (i.e., the 18-25 age group), male registrations (160,439 births in 2024) significantly exceed female registrations (115,035 births in 2024).

Table 0.4 Registered Births by Sex and Specific Age Groups; Tanzania, 2023 and 2024

Age Group	2023			2024			Change					
	Number of Persons			Number of Persons			Number of Persons			Percent		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Total	654,922	625,024	1,279,946	864,112	818,102	1,682,214	209,190	193,078	402,268	31.9	30.9	31.4
0-4	391,986	409,812	801,798	548,312	561,398	1,109,710	156,326	151,586	307,912	39.9	37.0	38.4
5-17	67,175	71,183	138,358	77,902	81,106	159,008	10,727	9,923	20,650	16.0	13.9	14.9
18-25	138,408	99,896	238,304	160,439	115,035	275,474	22,031	15,139	37,170	15.9	15.2	15.6
26+	57,353	44,133	101,486	77,459	60,563	138,022	20,106	16,430	36,536	35.1	37.2	36.0

Source: RITA 2024



Table 2.2 shows that registered deaths in Tanzania Mainland increased from 34,223 deaths in 2023 to 39,089 deaths in 2024; an increase of 4,866 deaths equivalent to an increase of 14.2 percent. There is a pronounced gender disparity in the number of deaths with men accounting for 70.6 percent (27,602 deaths) of the deaths registered in 2024, whereas women accounted for only 29.4 percent (11,487 deaths). Registration of deaths is higher among the adult population, specifically those aged 25 and older, accounting for over 90.00 percent of the total registered deaths in 2024. In contrast, registered deaths for children aged 0-4 remained relatively low, with 1,080 deaths registered in 2023 and 1,097 deaths in 2024.

Table 0.5 Number of Registered Deaths and Percent Change by Sex and Specific Age Group; Tanzania Mainland, 2023 and 2024

Age Group	2023			2024			Change					
	Number of Persons			Number of Persons			Number of Persons			Percent		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Tanzania Mainland	23,730	10,494	34,223	27,602	11,487	39,089	3,872	993	4,866	16.3	9.3	14.2
0-4	597	483	1,080	621	476	1,097	24	-7	17	4.0	-1.4	1.6
5-17	278	209	487	263	177	440	-15	-32	-97	-5.4	-15.3	-9.7
18 - 25	438	341	779	495	370	865	57	29	86	13.0	8.5	11.0
26+	22,416	9,461	31,877	26,223	10,464	36,687	3,807	1,003	4,810	17.0	10.6	15.1

Source: RITA 2024

2.3 Causes of Death

The 2022 PHC collected information on causes of death among total population. The question asked was “What was the main cause of death”, the responses were in closed ended where respondents required to answer only one reason which are; road accidents, other accidents (including fall down or drowning, fire, poison, suffocation, animal related injury and other), suicide, domestic violence or homicide, sickness or disease (including all types of sickness/disease such as malaria, tuberculosis, corona, diabetic, etc.). Other responses are maternal death, killed and unspecified reasons. Unspecified reasons include reasons that respondents could not know including sudden death, corpse being brought to the household for burial and did not know any other cause of death. The results show that, sickness or disease was the leading cause (83.7%) for all reported deaths in Tanzania. It was higher among females (86.2%) than males (81.7%). The



percentage of reported sickness or diseases as the cause of deaths in Tanzania Mainland, is almost the same as Tanzania (83.9%) while it was 78.1 percent and higher for females (80.8%) than males (75.7%) in Zanzibar. The results also show that, 6.9 percent of reported deaths were due to unspecified causes of death and higher in males (7.2%) than females (6.6%) (Table 2.3).

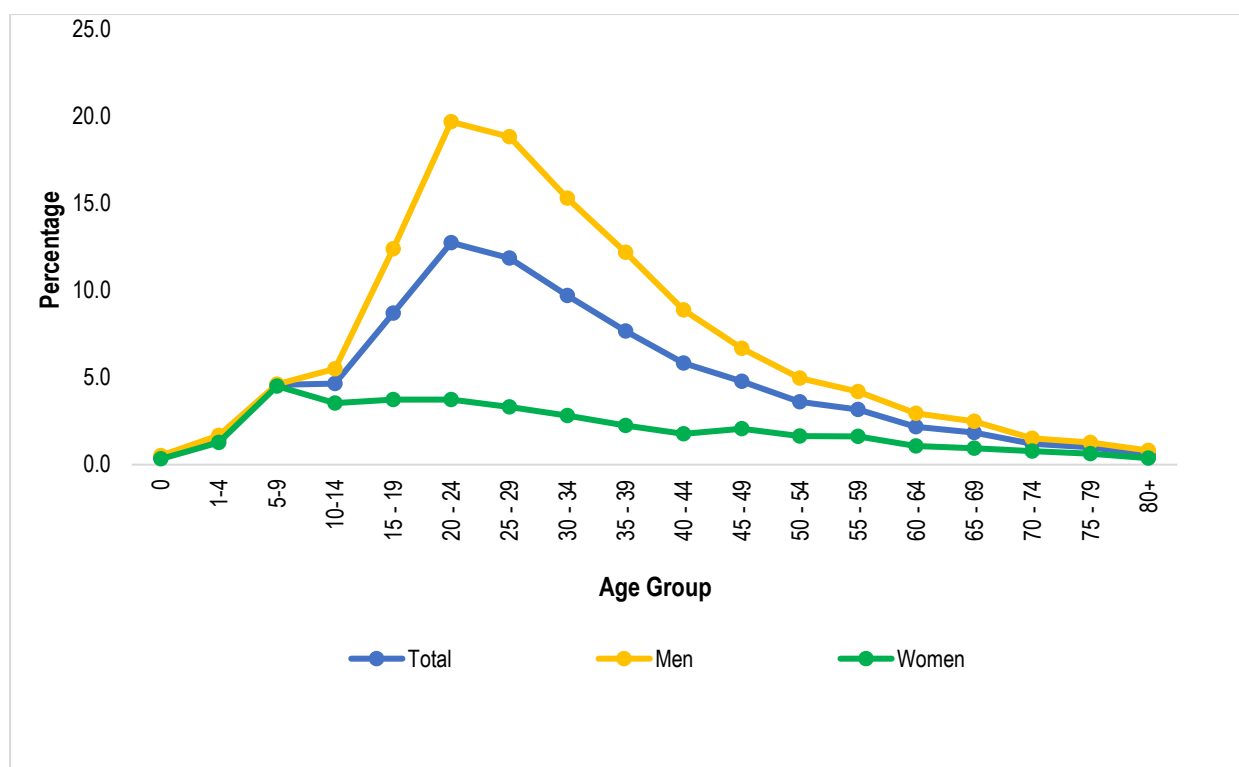
Table 2. 1: Percentage Distribution of Reported Deaths by Sex and Causes of Death; Tanzania 2022 PHC

Cause of Death	Tanzania Total			Tanzania Mainland			Tanzania Zanzibar		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Road Accident	3.2	4.7	1.3	3.2	4.7	1.3	3.0	4.4	1.3
Other Accidents	2.9	3.7	1.9	2.9	3.7	1.9	2.9	4.1	1.5
Suicide	0.5	0.8	0.3	0.6	0.8	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.1
Domestic Violence/Homicide	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1
Sickness/Disease	83.7	81.7	86.2	83.9	81.9	86.4	78.1	75.7	80.8
Maternal Death	1.2	0.0	2.7	1.2	0.0	2.7	1.2	0.0	2.6
Killed	1.3	1.7	0.7	1.3	1.7	0.7	2.1	2.5	1.6
Unspecified reasons	6.9	7.2	6.6	6.7	7.0	6.4	12.4	12.8	12.0
Total Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Cause of Death (Number)	460,694	254,672	206,022	447,159	247,356	199,803	13,535	7,316	6,219

Figure 2.2 shows the distribution of reported road accidents, disaggregated by sex and age groups. The results show that, males are at a higher risk of dying in road accident when they in the age groups 20-24, 25-29 and 30-34 years. Although the age pattern of the cause of deaths is almost the same in males and females, they almost have the same proportions of deaths caused by road accident at age group 5-9 years and declining to age group 10-14 years where it had lower proportion of females than males.



Figure 2. 2: Percentage of All Reported Deaths Caused by Road Accidents by Sex and Age Groups; Tanzania, 2022 PHC



2.4 HIV Prevalence

Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) is a virus that attacks the body's immune system weakening its ability to fight infections and diseases. If untreated HIV can progress to acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS), the most advanced stage of infection. HIV is primarily transmitted through unprotected sexual contact, sharing contaminated needles, blood transfusions with infected blood and from mother to child during pregnancy, childbirth or breastfeeding.

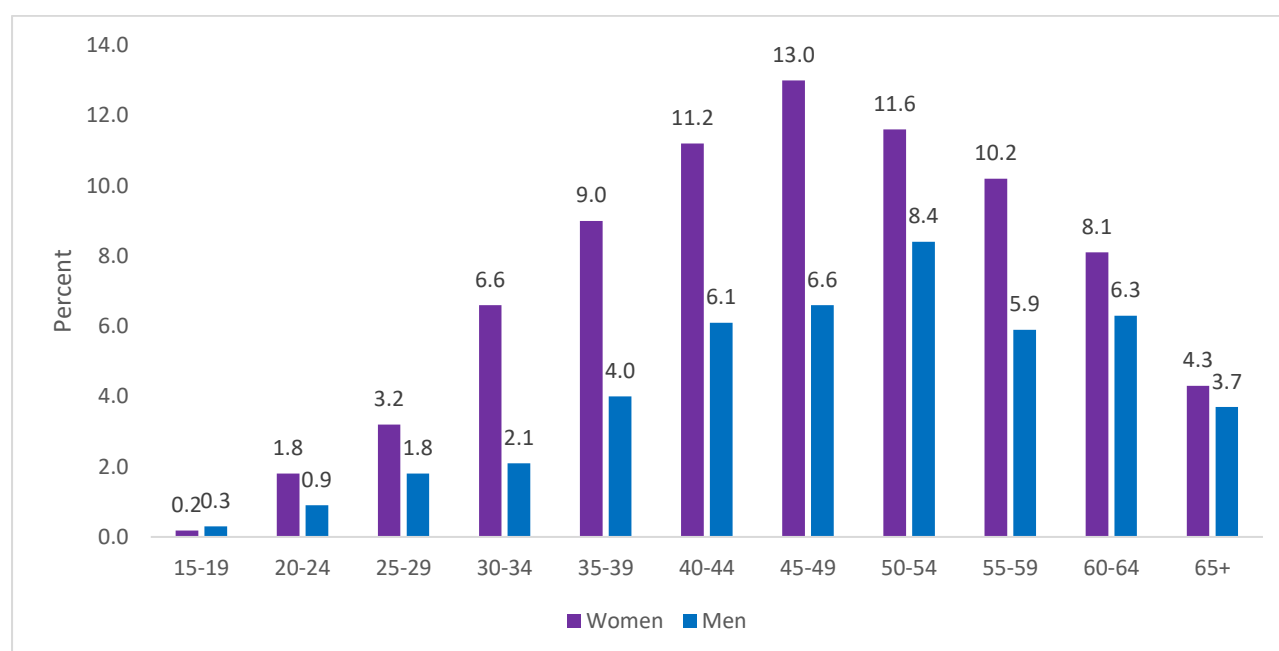
From a gender perspective, HIV is not only a health issue, but also a social one, as differences in biological vulnerability, gender norms, power relations and access to resources often place women and girls – especially in many developing context- at higher risk of infection compared to men.

Figure 2.3 shows that HIV prevalence increases with age up to age 45-49 for women and age 50-54 for men and thereafter decreases gradually for both sexes. Across all age groups, HIV



prevalence is higher among women than among men. Among women, HIV prevalence ranges from 0.8 percent among those aged 15-19 years to 13.0 percent among those aged 45-49 years. Among men, it ranges from 0.3 percent among those aged 15-19 years to 8.4 percent among those aged 50-54 years. HIV prevalence is markedly higher among women and men in the age groups 30-34 to 50-54 years.

Figure 2.3 HIV Prevalence by Age and Sex; Tanzania, 2022 TDHS – MIS



Source: 2022 TDHS - MIS

2.4.1 Achievement of the 95-95-95 HIV Targets

The 95–95–95 target is a global HIV control strategy led by UNAIDS to help end the HIV/AIDS as a public health threat. It sets three linked goals for people living with HIV:

- 95 percent know their HIV status;
- 95 percent of those diagnosed are on antiretroviral therapy (ART); and
- 95 percent of those on treatment achieve viral suppression.

If these three targets are met, about 86 percent of all people living with HIV would have suppressed viral loads, which significantly reduces new infections and HIV-related deaths.

In terms of HIV prevalence analysis, the 95–95–95 framework is important because:

- It helps explain why prevalence may remain stable or even increase (people are living longer due to effective treatment);

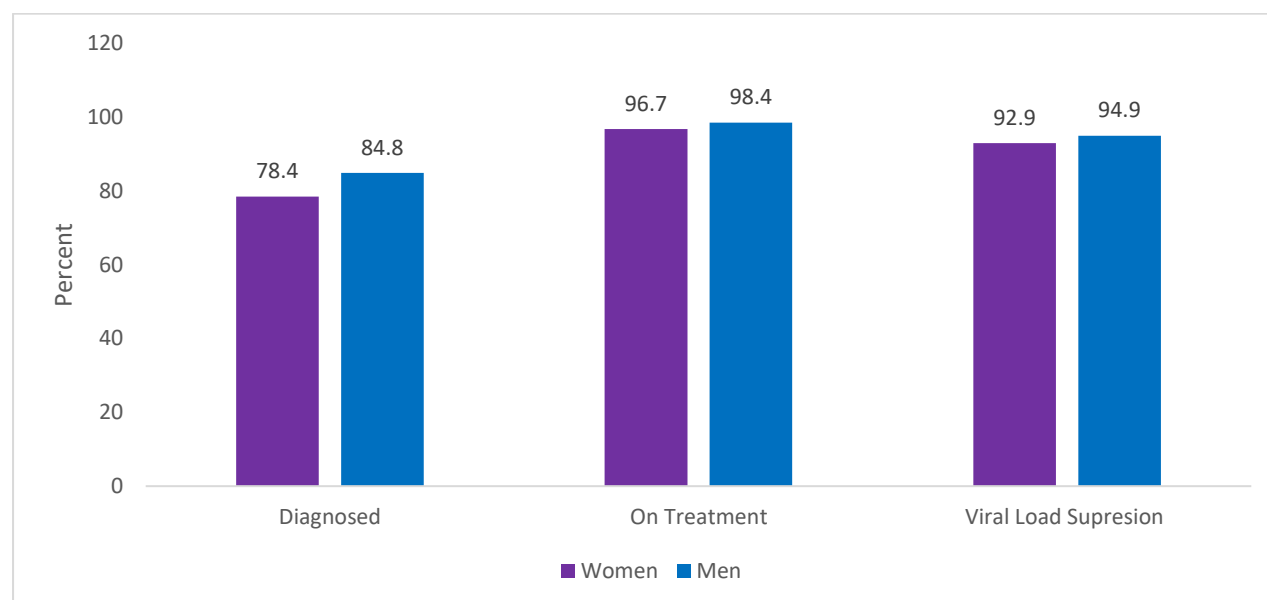


- It provides key indicators for monitoring program performance beyond just prevalence rates; and
- It highlights gaps by gender, age, or location, which is especially useful in gender statistics and inequality analysis.

Figure 2.4 indicate that 84.8 percent of adult women living with HIV are aware of their HIV status. Of those diagnosed, treatment uptake is very high, with approximately 98.4 percent receiving antiretroviral therapy (ART). Viral load suppression among women on treatment is 94.9 percent, indicating strong adherence and effective continuity of care once women are engaged in HIV services.

In contrast, men showed lower performance across all cascade indicators. Only 78.4 percent of men living with HIV knew their HIV status, representing the largest gap when compared to women. Among those diagnosed men, 96.7 percent are on ART, and 92.9 percent of those on treatment have achieved viral load suppression. Although treatment coverage and viral suppression among men in care are high, they remained consistently below the levels observed among women.

Figure 2.4 Achievement of the 95-95-95 HIV Targets by Sex



Source: 2022 TDHS - MIS

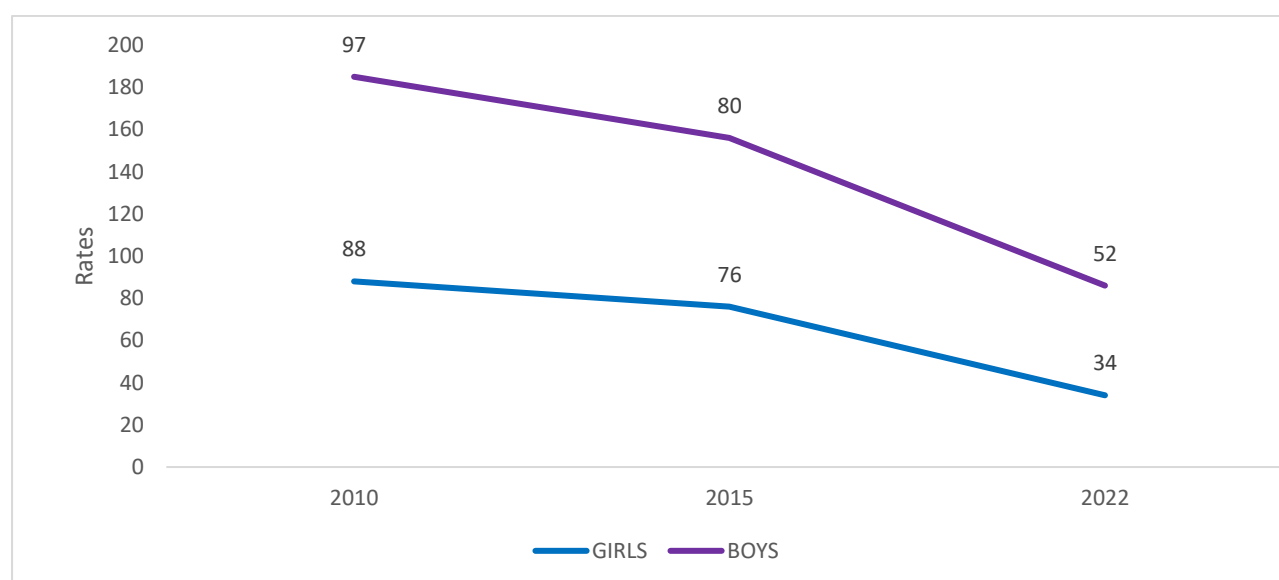


2.5 Infant and Under five Mortality Rates

From a gender perspective, **infant mortality rate (IMR)** and **under-five mortality rate (U5MR)** are not just child health indicators they also reflect inequalities in women's health, access to services, and broader gender dynamics in society. Gender norms can limit women's access to HIV testing, antenatal care, and treatment. Where women have less decision-making power or limited financial autonomy, they may not access prevention of mother-to-child transmission (PMTCT) services. This increases the likelihood of HIV infection in infants and poorer survival outcomes.

In Tanzania the Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) for boys declined from 97 deaths per 1,000 live births in 2010 to 52 deaths per 1000 live births in 2022. In the same period IMR for girls declined from 88 deaths per 1000 live births to 34 deaths per 1000 live births, reflecting higher IMR among boys and persistent sex differences in early childhood survival (Figure 2.5).

Figure 2.5 Trends in Infant mortality Rates by Sex; Tanzania, 2010, 2015 and 2022 TDHSs

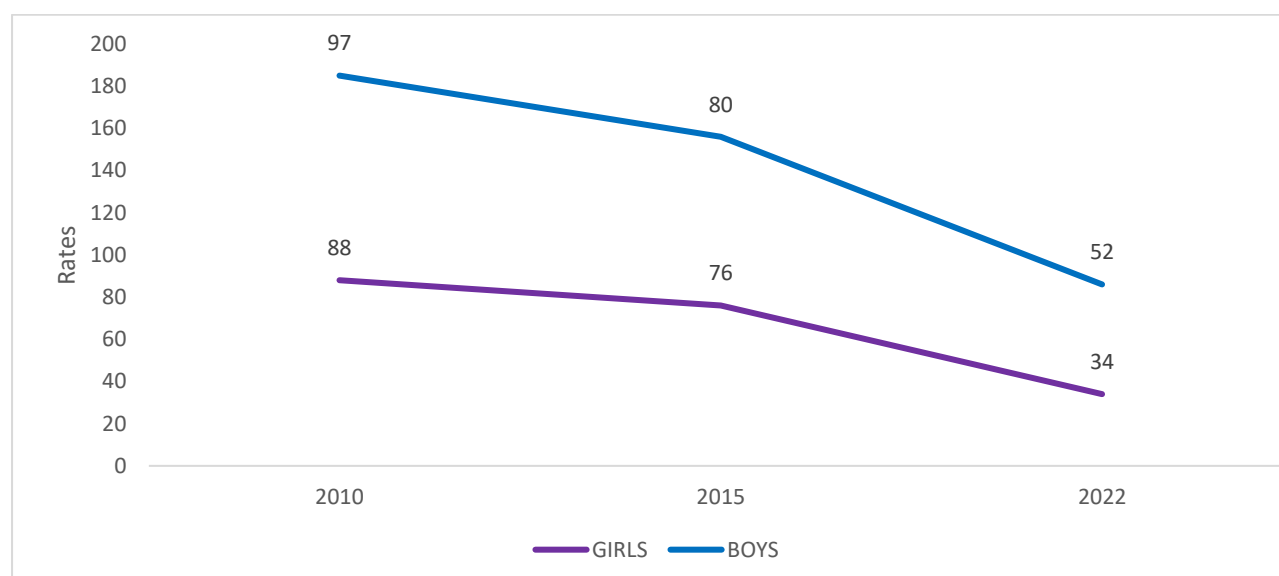


Source: TDHS

Figure 2.6 shows that Under-five mortality decreased markedly over time, with boys experiencing higher mortality than girls. In 2022, under-five mortality was 52 per 1,000 live births among boys and 34 among girls.



Figure 2. 6 Under-five mortality per 1,000 live births



Source: TDHS

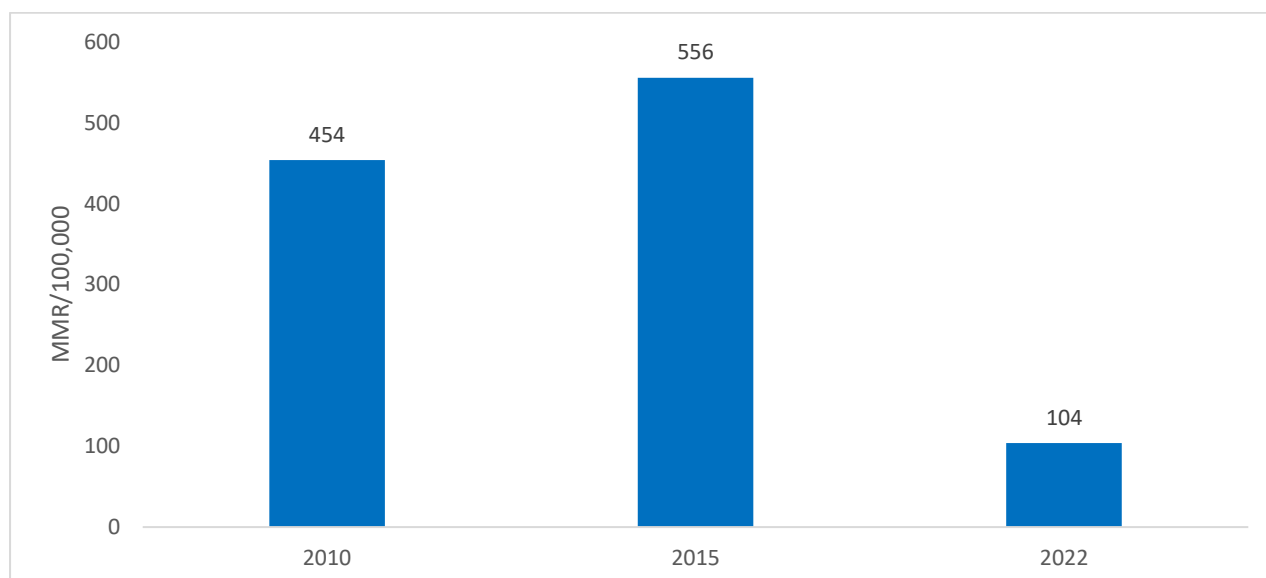
2.6 Maternal Mortality

Maternal mortality, commonly measured by the maternal mortality ratio (MMR) - apart from being a medical issue - is deeply rooted in gender inequalities as it reflects how social, economic, and cultural disadvantages faced by women increase their risk of dying during pregnancy, childbirth, or shortly after. From this perspective, reducing maternal mortality requires more than improving healthcare it demands addressing gender inequality, including empowering women, improving girls' education, ensuring access to reproductive health services, and promoting shared decision-making within households.

Analysis of maternal mortality data across the three reference periods shows a marked and consistent decline in maternal mortality over time. The maternal mortality indicator decreased from 454 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2010 to 104 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2022, reflecting a substantial reduction in maternal deaths between 2010 and 2022. This suggests that the observed decline in maternal mortality is not attributable to reduced fertility or fewer pregnancies, but rather to improvements in the quality and effectiveness of maternal health services (Figure 2.7).



Figure 2.7 Maternal Mortality Ratio; Tanzania, 2010, 2015/16 and 2022 TDHSs



2.7 Number of Deaths

Information on births and deaths are essential in understanding population growth, for studying health inequalities and population mortality rates.

Deaths (mortality data) are a key tool for studying health inequalities because they show differences in who dies, at what age, and from which causes across population groups. By comparing mortality rates by sex, age, socioeconomic status, and location, it becomes possible to identify disparities in health outcomes and access to care. Therefore, analyzing mortality patterns helps reveal and monitor inequalities and provides evidence for targeted health policies and interventions.

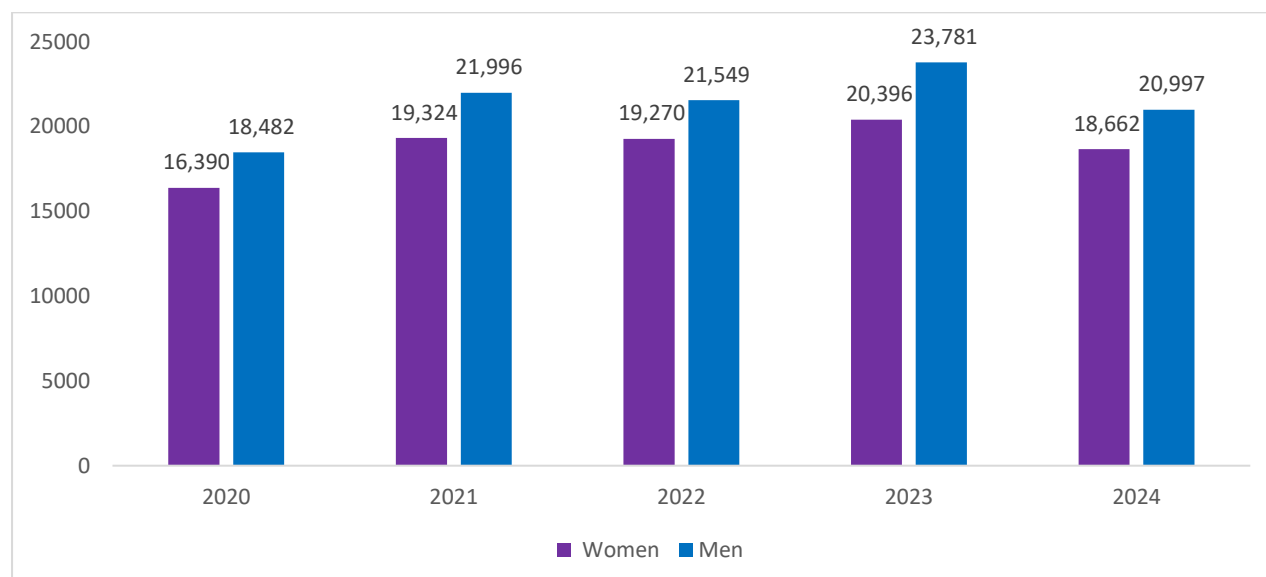
Figure 2.8 illustrates the trend in the number of deaths by sex in Tanzania for the period 2020–2024. Across all five years, males consistently recorded a higher number of deaths than females, indicating a persistent sex differential in mortality. In 2024, a total of 39,659 deaths were reported; 18,662 female deaths (47.1%) and 20,997 male deaths (52.9%).

The total number of male deaths increased from 18,482 in 2020 to 23,781 deaths in 2023 thereafter declining to 20,997 deaths in 2024. The female deaths followed a similar pattern, increasing from 16,390 deaths in 2020 to 20,396 deaths in 2023 and thereafter declining to 18,662 deaths in 2024.



The highest number of deaths for both sexes was recorded in 2023 with female deaths peaking at 20,396, and male deaths peaking at 23,781, representing the maximum mortality burden during the five-year period.

Figure 2. 8 Number of Deaths by Sex; Tanzania, 2020-2024



Source: MoH 2024

2.8 Outpatient Attendance

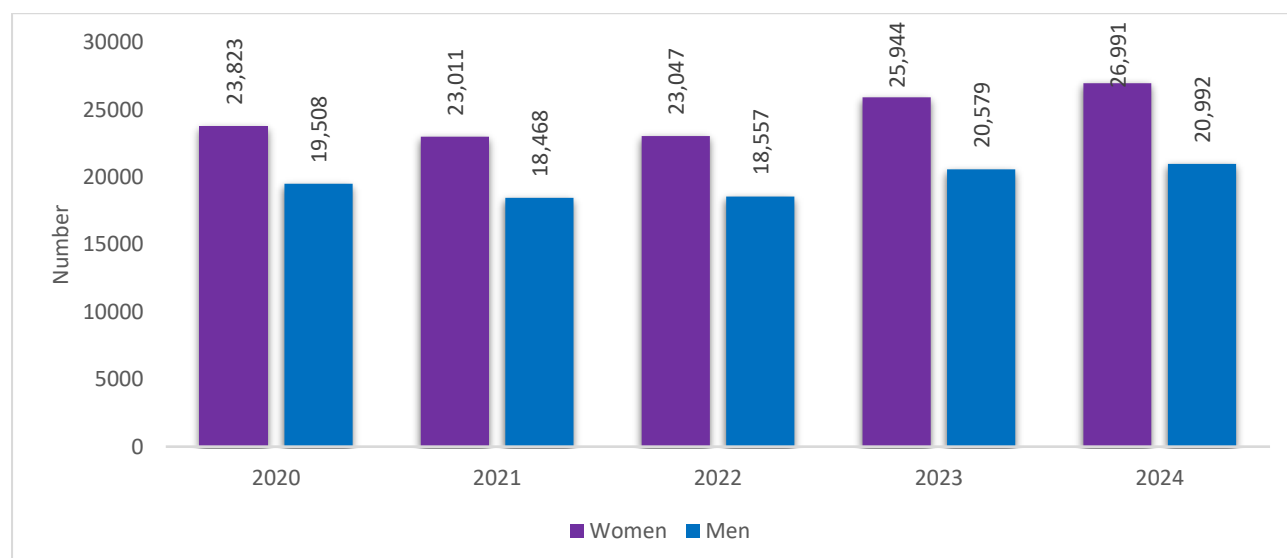
Outpatient Department (OPD) visits are important in gender analysis because they show how women and men access and use healthcare services differently. By examining OPD data disaggregated by sex and age it is possible to identify patterns such as higher utilization by women due to reproductive health needs or lower utilization among men due to social norms that discourage care seeking. Differences in the types of conditions treated during OPD visits can also highlight gender specific health risks and needs. Overall, OPD data help in revealing inequalities in health care access, health seeking behaviour and service delivery, providing evidence for designing more equitable and gender responsive health interventions.

Figure 2.9 shows that women are consistently more likely to make OPD visits than men. OPD attendance for women increased from 23.8 million in 2020 to 27.0 million in 2024 whereas for males, the visits increased from 19.5 million to 21.0 million during the same period, indicating higher health service utilization among women.



This may indicate better access and utilization among women but also signal unmet healthcare needs or underuse of services among men – both of which are important for designing gender responsive health policies.

Figure 2. 9 Out Patient Attendance (‘000) (2020–2024)



Source: MoH 2024

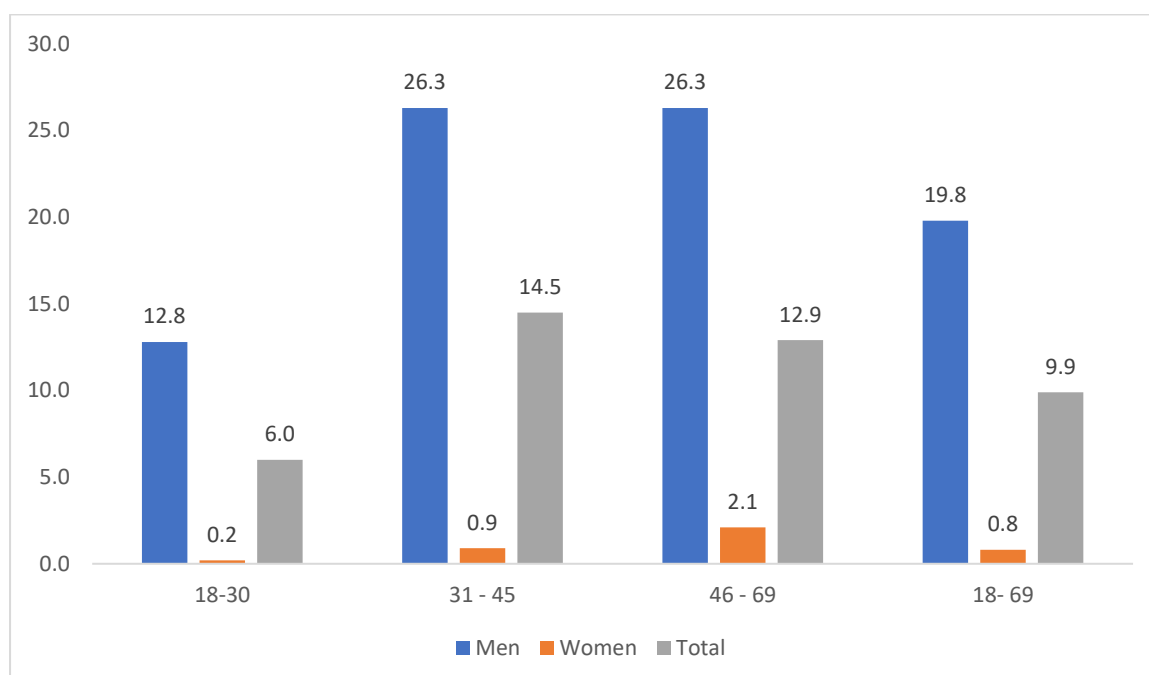
2.9 Use of Tobacco

Tobacco use is important in gender analysis as it highlights differences in health behaviours, risks and outcomes between women and men. Tobacco consumption is often higher among men influenced by social norms, marketing and cultural acceptance while women’s use may be lower but increasing in the same settings. These differences affect patterns of disease – such as cancers, respiratory illness and cardiovascular conditions –and ultimately mortality rates. Analysing tobacco use by sex and age helps in identifying vulnerable risk factors and design targeted public health interventions, policies and awareness campaigns that address these inequalities.

The prevalence of tobacco smoking in Tanzania is 9.9 percent, with the highest rate among those aged 31- 45 years (14.5%) followed by those aged 46 - 69 years (12.9%) and those aged 18 - 30 years (6.0%). Additionally, male smokers outnumber female smokers by 25 times (Figure 2.10).



Figure 2. 10 Prevalence of Current Tobacco Smokers among Population Aged 18 to 69 Years by Sex and Age Group; Tanzania, STEPS 2023



Source: STEPS 2023

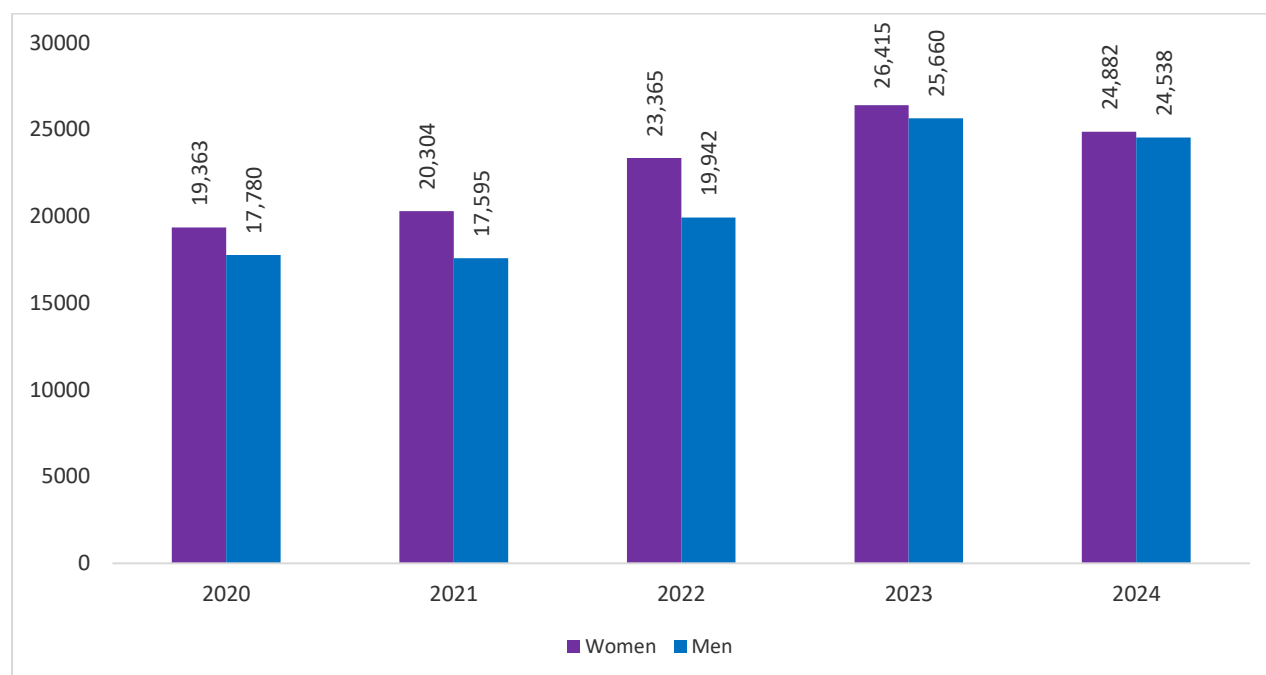
2.10 Number of Neoplasm/Cancer Outpatients

Neoplasms (cancers) are a key area in gender analysis because both biological differences (sex) and social factors (gender) influence who gets cancer, how early it is detected, and survival outcomes. Some cancers are sex-specific—such as breast and cervical cancer in women, and prostate cancer in men—while others (like lung cancer) affect both sexes but show different patterns. For example, women may have higher rates of certain cancers linked to reproductive health, while men often have higher mortality rates due to later diagnosis and riskier health behaviours. Therefore, analysing cancer data by sex helps in identifying gaps in prevention; early detection and treatment; ultimately guiding more equitable health policies and interventions.

Figure 2.11 shows that in Tanzania, the number of cancer (neoplasm) clients who attended OPD from 2020 to 2024 increased for both women and men. In 2020, the total number of OPD cancer attendance was 37,143; 19,363 (52.1%) women and 17,780 (47.9%) men. Attendance rose steadily, peaking at 26,415 (50.7%) women and 25,660 (49.3%) men in 2023. In 2024, a slight decline was observed, with 24,882 (50.3%) women and 24,538 (49.3%) men attending OPD for cancer-related services.



Figure 2. 11 Number of Neoplasm/ Cancer Outpatients; Tanzania, MoH 2024



Source: MoH

2.11 Number of Suicide Deaths

Suicide is a critical indicator in gender analysis because it reflects how both social roles (gender) and biological factors (sex) shape mental health risks, coping mechanisms, and access to support.

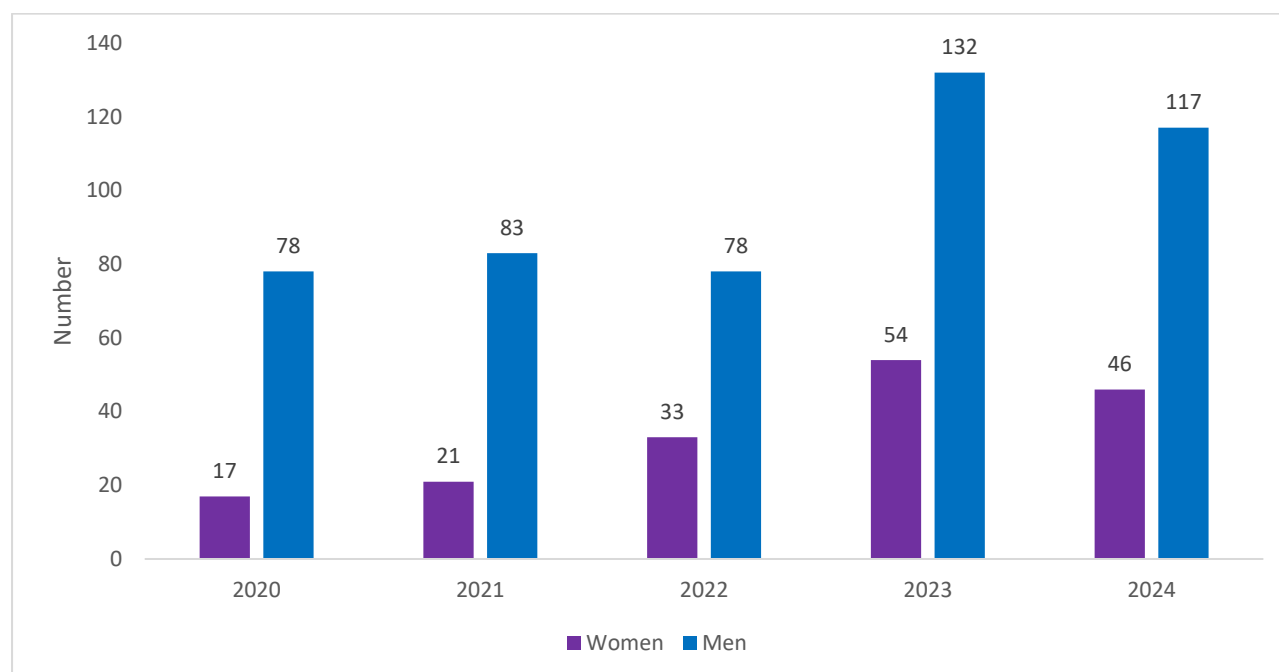
Globally, a consistent pattern is that men have higher suicide mortality rates, while women report higher rates of suicidal thoughts and attempts. This difference is often explained by method choice (men tend to use more lethal means), as well as gender norms that discourage men from seeking help or expressing emotional distress. Expectations around masculinity such as being strong, self-reliant, and the main provider can increase vulnerability when men face unemployment, financial stress, or social isolation. For women, although suicide death rates are generally lower, risk factors include gender-based violence, economic dependence, care giving burdens, and mental health conditions such as depression and anxiety.

Gender analysis of suicide data highlights the need for targeted interventions: encouraging help-seeking among men, addressing gender-based violence and mental health support for women, restricting access to lethal means, and improving community awareness. Disaggregating suicide data by sex, age, and socio-economic factors is essential for identifying at-risk groups and designing effective, gender-responsive prevention strategies.



Figure 2.12 shows that the number of suicide deaths was substantially higher for men than for women throughout the 2020 - 2024 period. In 2024, a total of 163 suicide deaths were reported; 117 (71.2%) male deaths and 46 (28.2%) female deaths, highlighting a significant gender gap and the need for targeted mental health interventions particularly for men.

Figure 2. 12 Number of Suicide Deaths; Tanzania, MoH 2020-2024



Source: MoH

2.12 Newly Diagnosed Breast and Cervix Cancer Cases

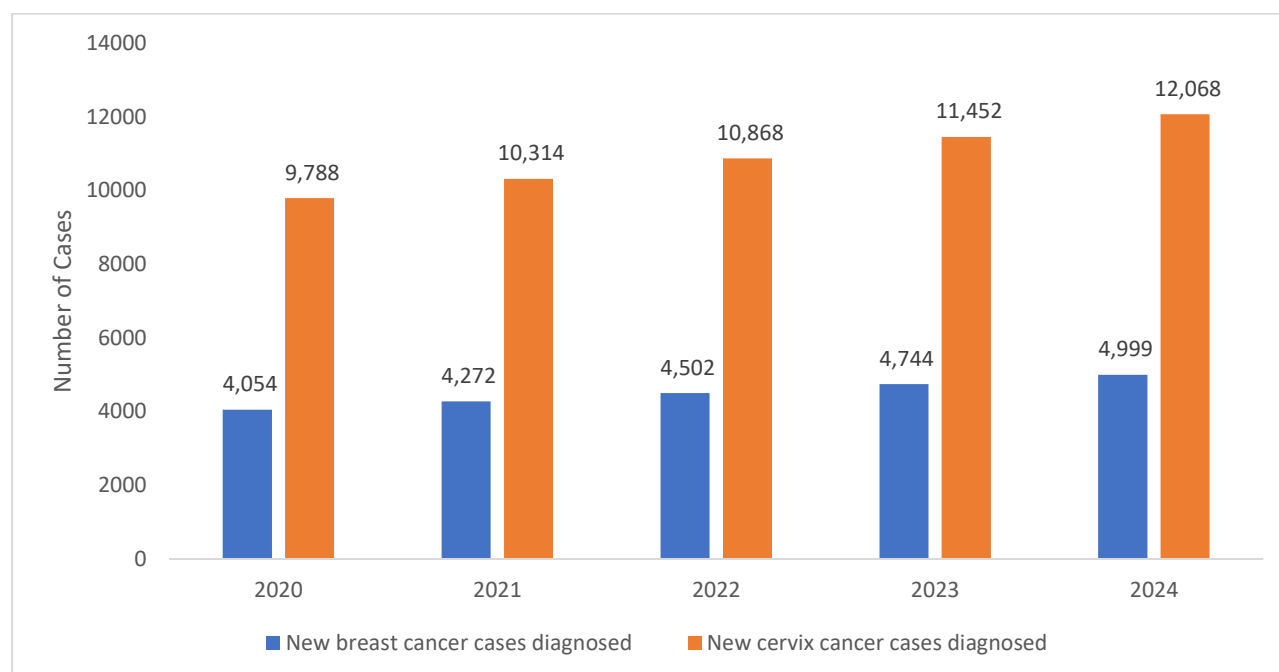
Newly diagnosed breast and cervical cancer cases are closely linked to women's biology, therefore analyzing these cases is central to gender analysis because their occurrence and outcomes are strongly affected by gender inequalities. Both breast and cervical cancers are major causes of illness and death among women, so tracking new cases helps assess women's health status and unmet needs. Cervical cancer, in particular, is largely preventable through Human Papillomavirus (HPV) vaccination and screening, so high numbers of new cases often signal gaps in access to preventive services.

Figure 2.13 shows that in Tanzania, the 2020 – 2024 period was marked by a steady increase in the number of newly diagnosed cervical and breast cancer cases indicating a growing health burden among women. Newly diagnosed cervical cancer cases increased from 9,788 in 2020 to 12,068 cases in 2024 whereas breast cancer cases increased from 4,054 cases in 2020 to 4,999 cases in 2024. Cervical cancer remained significantly higher than breast cancer, suggesting gaps in prevention measures such as HPV vaccination and screening services.



The upward trend may also reflect improved detection, but it can point to delayed diagnosis due to gender-related barriers like limited access to healthcare, financial constraints, and social stigma. Overall, the data highlights the need for strengthened, gender-responsive interventions focused on prevention, early detection, and improved access to treatment services

Figure 2. 13 Newly Diagnosed Breast and Cervix Cancer Cases; Tanzania, MoH 2020 - 2024



Source: MoH 2024

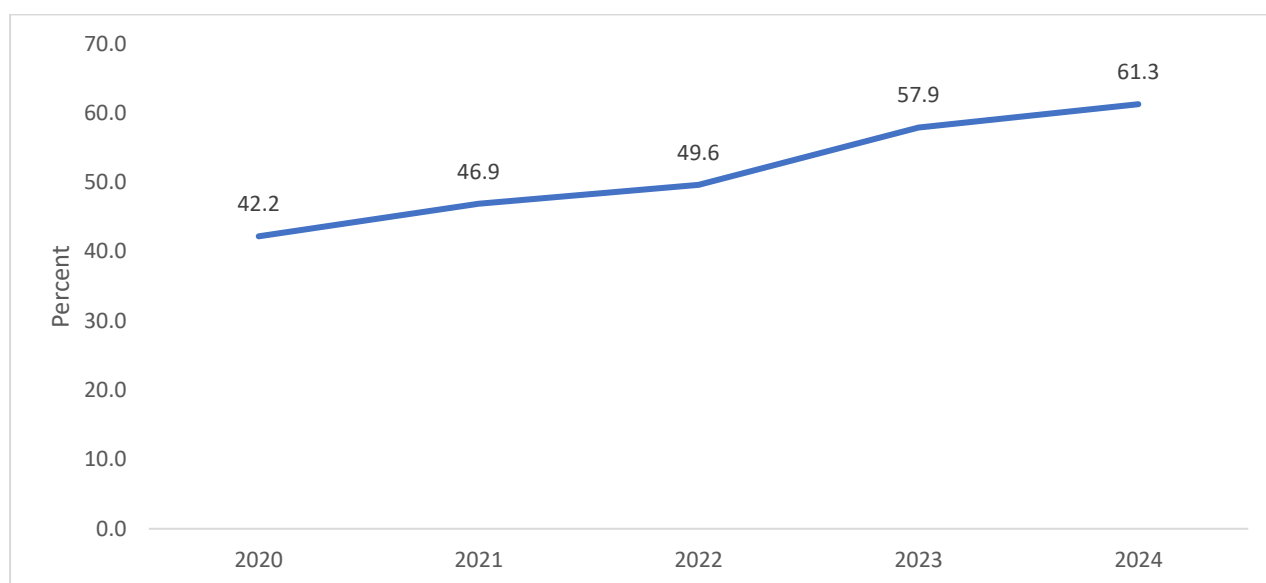
2.13 Use of Contraceptives

The use of contraceptives is a key indicator in gender analysis because it reflects women's autonomy, access to reproductive health services, and power in decision-making. Higher contraceptive use generally indicates improved access to information and services, enabling women to plan and space births, pursue education, and participate in economic activities. However, disparities in use often reveal gender inequalities—such as limited decision-making power, partner opposition, cultural or religious norms, and unequal access to services.

Figure 2.14 shows that the use of any contraceptive method increased steadily from 42.2 percent in 2020 to 61.3 percent in 2024, indicating improved access to and uptake of family planning services among women.



Figure 2. 14 Percentage of women Aged 15-49 Years Using Any Contraceptive Method; Tanzania, MoH 2020-2024



Source: MoH 2024



CHAPTER THREE

DISABILITY



CHAPTER THREE

DISABILITY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter presents information on disability including prevalence of disability by sex. Disability is a broad term with various definitions depending on different aspects at international, regional and national levels. For instance; the Washington Group on disability statistics defines Persons with Disabilities (PWDs) as *“all those persons who are at greater risk than the general population in experiencing restrictions in completing specific tasks or activities due to limitations in their basic functioning such as walking, seeing, hearing or memory – even if such limitations are ameliorated by use of assistive devices, a supportive environment or plentiful resources”*.

According to the United Nations, 2001 Persons with Disabilities (PWDs) include those who have long-term physical, mental, intellectual or sensory impairments which, in interaction with various barriers, may hinder their full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others”. The Tanzania National Policy on Disability of 2004 defines disability as a loss or limitation of opportunities to take part in the normal life in their community on an equal level with others due to physical, mental or social factors. All three definitions use the concept of activity limitation in defining disability rather than physical impairment.

Disability is not experienced in the same way by men and women; instead, gender roles, norms, and inequalities shape risks, opportunities, and

outcomes. According to the United Nations framework in the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, disability results from the interaction between impairments and societal barriers many of which are gendered.

Women and girls with disabilities often face **double discrimination** both as females and as persons with disabilities. They are more likely to experience limited access to education, healthcare, and employment, and are at higher risk of poverty and gender-based violence. Social norms may restrict their mobility and decision-making power, making it harder to access services, including sexual and reproductive health care.



On the other hand, men with disabilities may face challenges linked to societal expectations of masculinity, such as being providers or physically strong. When they are unable to meet these expectations, it can lead to social exclusion, unemployment, and mental health issues. However, men may still have relatively more access to resources and opportunities compared to women with disabilities.

3.1 Persons with Disability (PWDs)

Table 3.1 shows that 5.3 million persons in Tanzania - which is equivalent to 11.2 percent of the total population aged 7 years and above have some form of disability. Disability prevalence is slightly higher in rural areas (11.5%) than in urban areas (10.6%) and among women (11.6%) than among men (10.9%).

Table 0.1 Disability Prevalence by Sex and Place of Residence; Tanzania, 2022 PHC

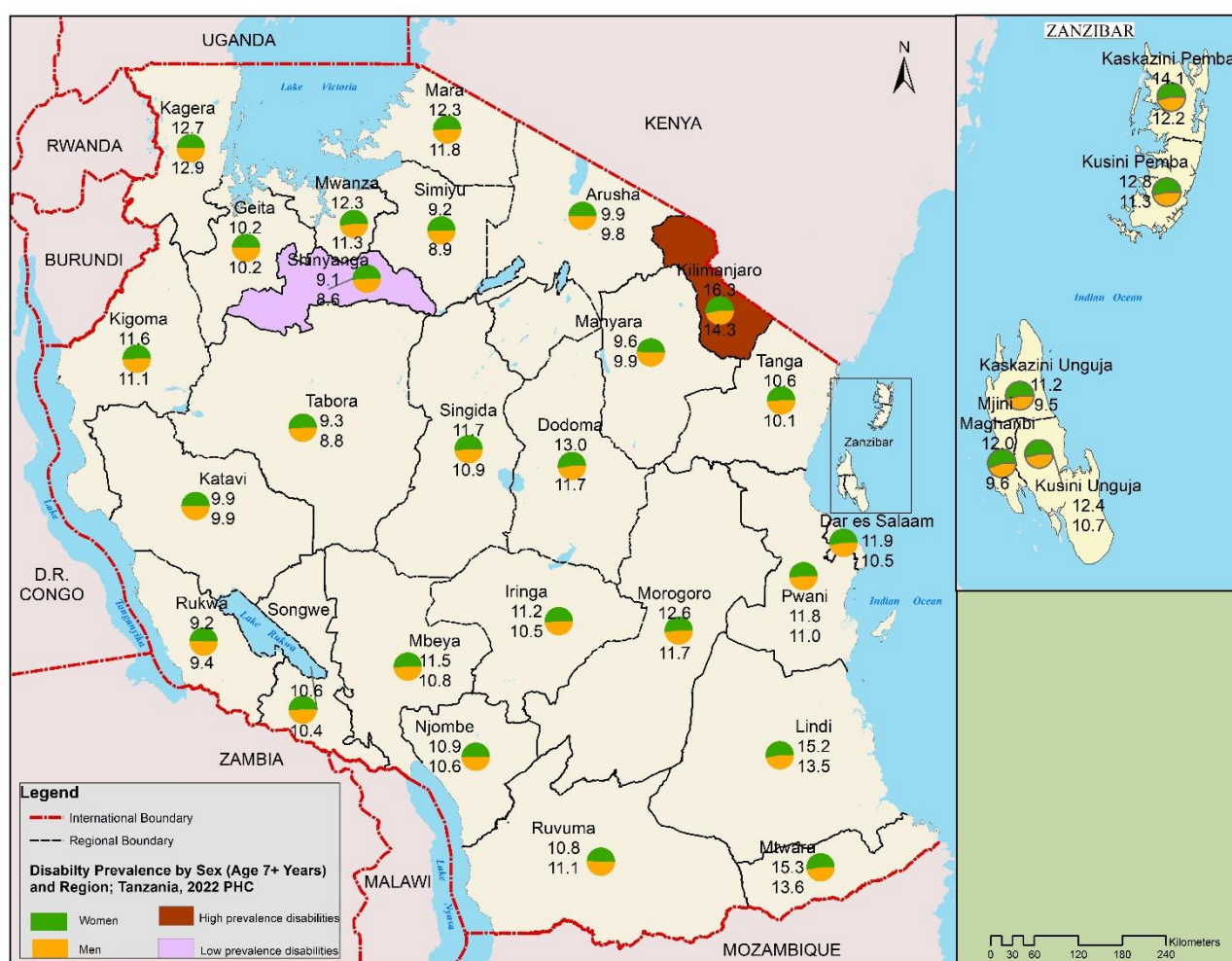
	Number of Persons			Percent		
	Both sexes	Men	Women	Both sexes	Men	Women
Tanzania	5,347,397	2,483,510	2,863,887	11.2	10.9	11.6
Rural	3,525,394	1,662,850	1,862,544	11.5	11.2	11.9
Urban	1,822,003	820,660	1,001,343	10.6	10.2	11.0



3.1.1 Disability Prevalence by Sex and Region

Map 3.1 presents the percentage of PWDs by sex and region. The prevalence of disability varies across regions, ranging from 8.8 percent in Shinyanga to 15.3 percent in Kilimanjaro. In most of the region's disability prevalence is higher among women than men. Only four regions of Ruvuma (men 11.1%, women 10.8%), Rukwa (men 9.4%, women 9.2%), Kagera (men 12.9%, women 12.7%) and Manyara (men 9.9%, women 9.6%) have slightly higher proportion of men with disabilities than women. Kilimanjaro Region has the highest proportion of women (16.3%) and men (14.3%) with disability, followed by Mtwara (women 15.3%, men 13.6%) and Lindi (women 15.2%, men 13.6%) regions. On the other hand, Shinyanga Region has the lowest proportion (women 9.1%, men 8.6%), followed by Simiyu (women 9.2%, men 8.9%) and Tabora (women 9.2%, men 8.9%) regions (Map 2).

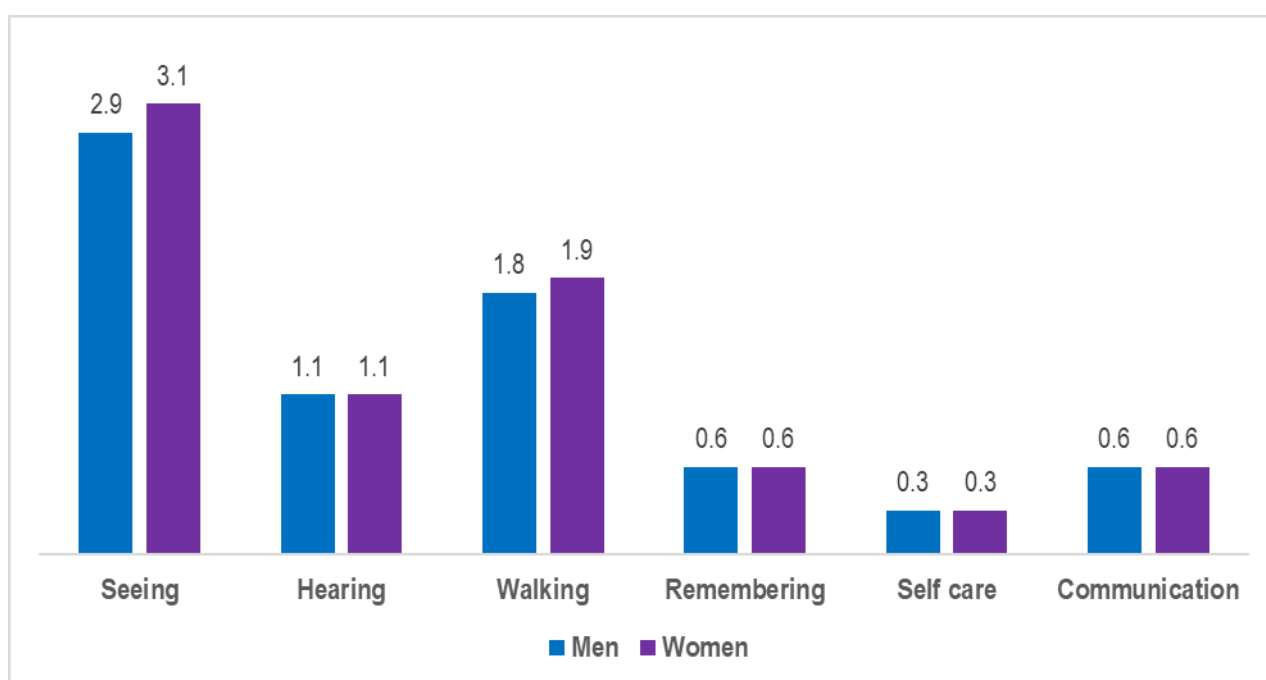
Map 0.1 Disability Prevalence by Sex and Region; Tanzania, 2022 PHC



3.2 Persons with Disability by Type of Disability

The most common form of disability among women and men in Tanzania is difficulty in seeing (3.1% for women and 2.9% for men). This is followed by difficulty in walking, (with nearly equal proportions among women (1.9%) and men (1.8%)). In contrast, self-care is the least common type of disability, affecting a relatively small percentage of both women and men (0.3% each).

Figure 0.1 Prevalence of People with Disability by Type of Disability; Tanzania, 2022 PHC



Source: 2022 PHC

3.3 Prevalence of Albinism by Place of Residence

Albinism is a rare genetic condition caused by mutations, or changes, of certain genes that affect the amount of melanin your body produces. Melanin controls the pigmentation (colour) of skin, eyes and hair. People with albinism have extremely pale skin, eyes and hair. They're at an increased risk of vision, skin and social issues.

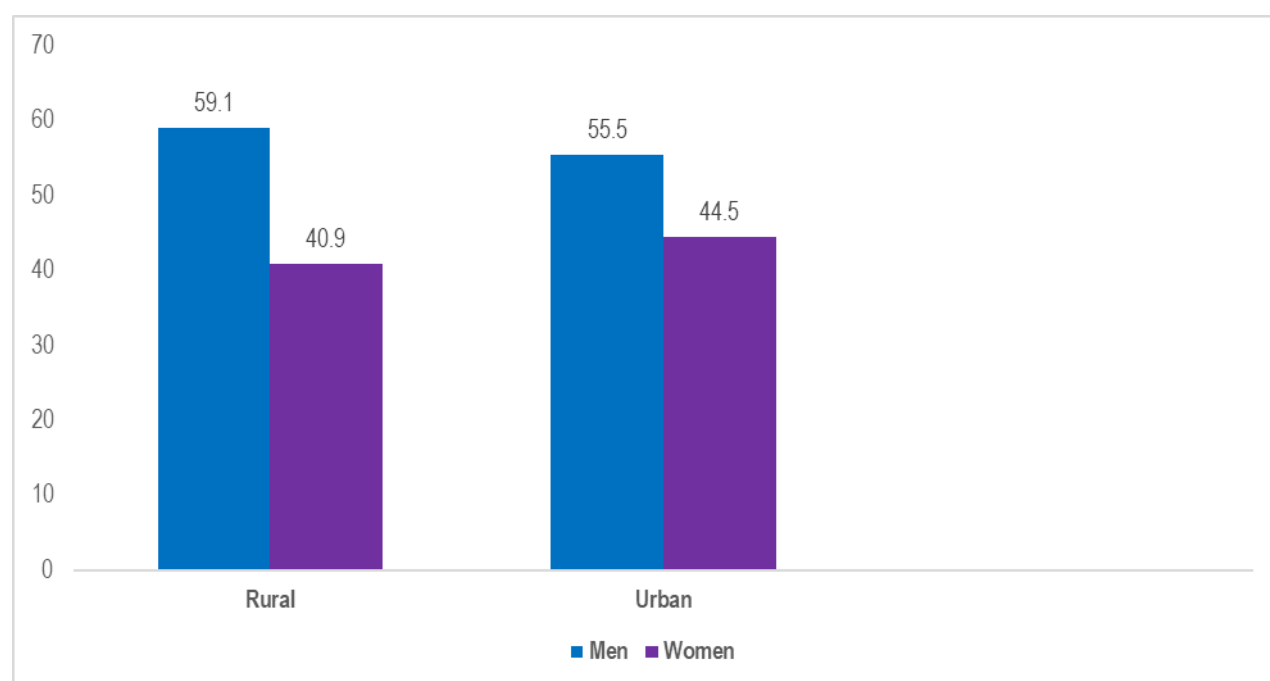
Tanzania has a total of 74,273 persons with albinism (equivalent to 0.12 percent of the total population). Out of those, 42,686 persons (57.5%) are males and 31,587 (42.5%) are females. Over fifty percent of people with albinism are living in rural areas (55.1 %) (Table 3.1 And Figure 3.2).



Table 0.2 Number and Percentage of Persons with Albinism by Sex and Place of Residence; Tanzania, 2022 PHC

Place of Residence	Albinism					
	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Tanzania	74,273	0.12	42,686	0.15	31,587	0.1
Rural	40,889	0.1	24,147	0.12	16,742	0.09
Urban	33,384	0.16	18,539	0.18	14,845	0.15

Figure 0.2 Prevalence of Albinism by Place of Residence; Tanzania, 2022 PHC



Source: 2022 PHC



CHAPTER FOUR

EDUCATION



CHAPTER FOUR EDUCATION

4.0 Introduction

Access and equity in education are key educational policy priorities aimed at ensuring that all children, regardless of their background, have access to quality education. This is consistent with Sustainable Development Goal 4 (SDG 4), which promotes inclusive and equitable quality education and lifelong learning opportunities for all, recognizing the transformative role of education for individuals and societies.

In Tanzania, the Gender Parity Index (GPI) is 1:1 from pre-primary to lower secondary education, indicating equal participation of girls and boys at these levels.

In the 2024/25 academic year, total enrolment in vocational education reached 462,224 students, of whom 261,770 were men and 200,454 were women, showing higher male participation. Clear gender differences exist by field of study, Women are more concentrated in health, social welfare, business, administration and law, and service-related programmes whereas men dominate the fields of engineering, manufacturing, construction, and Information and Communication Technology (ICT) programmes.

In Technical education, the total enrolment in 2024/25 was 217,204 (men 115,159 and women 102,045) indicating higher male enrolment.

In higher learning institutions, the total enrolment in 2024/25 was 361,257 students; 196,239 women and 165,018 men, indicating an overall higher female enrolment. Women are more likely to enroll in business and law, arts and humanities, and science programmes, while men continued to dominate engineering, manufacturing, and construction fields. A similar pattern of enrollment is observed at the doctoral level, where men remain overrepresented in technical disciplines.

4.1 School Dropouts by Sex

The number of students dropping out of school due to various reasons including teenage pregnancy, early pregnancy, indiscipline, and deaths has continued to decline in both primary and secondary schools. This reduction is largely attributed to the strengthening of guidance and counselling services, education on the prevention of gender-based violence, and the provision of Reproductive Health Education and Life Skills programmes in schools.



In 2024, a total of 139,192 pupils dropped out of primary schools; 79,107 boys, and 60,085 girls, indicating that boys are more likely to drop out of school than girls. In secondary schools, the total number of dropouts in 2024 was 100,998 students; 50,939 boys, and 50,059 girls, showing a near gender balance, with boys dropping out slightly more than girls. At the university level, students dropped out for reasons such as academic dismissal due to failure to meet minimum academic requirements, course failures, deaths, and other personal or institutional factors. In the 2023/24 academic year, total university dropouts numbered 3,025 students; 1,712 men, and 1,313 women, indicating higher dropouts among men students.

4.2 Teaching Staffs in Academic Institutions

The education sector remains one of the largest employers in the country, with teachers forming the largest category of employees. In basic education, the total number of teachers is 394,856, of whom 222,072 (56.2%) are men, and 172,784 (43.8%) are women. This indicates that men outnumber women in basic education teaching positions.

In technical education, there are 13,175 teachers in total 7,159 (54.4%) are men, and 6,016 (45.7%) are women, showing a higher representation of men compared to women. In higher education, the total number of teachers is 8,709, comprising 6,009 (69.0%) men, and 2,700 (31.0%) women, indicating a substantial gender gap in favour of men.

Overall, men outnumber women across all levels of the teaching workforce, including basic, technical, and higher education, highlighting persistent gender imbalances in academic and instructional staffing.

4.3 School Enrolment

School enrolment is highest in primary ages (6–13), steadily declining with age, with girls slightly outpacing boys in early years but both dropping sharply by late teens.

Enrolment drops sharply after primary school, with girls slightly ahead of boys. Very few students reach advanced secondary levels.



Table 0.1 Gross and Net Enrolment Rates for Pre-primary, Primary and Secondary Schools by Sex; Tanzania, BEST 2025

Level of school	NER		GER	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Pre primary	51.5	50.6	84.1	84.8
Primary	79.3	74.3	83.1	78.0
Lower Secondary	45.0	37.0	57.9	48.4
Advanced Secondary	7.1	6.3	9.6	10.1

Source: MOEVT & PMO-RALG, BEST 2025

4.3.1 Enrolled in Pre-primary, Primary and Secondary Schools

Table 4.2 indicates that in 2025, over 90.0 percent of pre-primary and primary pupils were enrolled in Government owned schools and 8.0 percent were enrolled in non- Government owned schools. In the pre - primary school enrolment, boys outnumbered girls both in government and non- government owned schools, whereas in the primary schools enrolment, girls outnumbered boys. Enrolment in Government owned schools for the lower secondary schools accounts for 90.6 percent and in advanced secondary level it accounted for 84.9 percent of total enrolment. Whereas enrolment in lower secondary schools favoured girls, in the advanced level, it favoured boys.

Table 0.2 Number and Percentage of Students' Enrolment in Government and Non-Government Pre-Primary, Primary and Secondary Schools by Sex; Tanzania, BEST 2025.

Level of Education	Type of Ownership	Number of Persons			Percent		
		Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men
Pre - Primary	Government	1,523,955	751,683	772,272	92.0	49.3	50.7
	Non-Government	132,771	64,986	67,785	8.0	48.9	51.1
	Total	1,656,726	816,669	840,057	100.0	49.3	50.7
Primary	Government	10,709,153	5,486,281	5,222,872	93.7	51.2	48.8
	Non- Government	719,271	360,416	358,855	6.3	50.1	49.9
	Total	11,428,424	5,846,697	5,581,727	100.0	51.2	48.8
Lower Secondary	Government	2,879,066	1,558,856	1,320,210	90.6	54.1	45.9
	Non-Government	297,389	158,722	138,667	9.4	53.4	46.6
	Total	3,176,455	1,717,578	1,458,877	100.0	54.1	45.9
Advanced Secondary	Government	211,625	104,806	106,819	84.9	49.5	50.5
	Non- Government	37,742	17,186	20,556	15.1	45.5	54.5
	Total	249,367	121,992	127,375	100.0	48.9	51.1

Source: MOEVT & PMO-RALG, BEST 2025



4.3.2 Enrolment in Higher Learning Institutions

Overall, higher education is male-dominated, with Government institutions enrolling the majority (72.8%), while non-government institutions show slightly higher female participation (Table 4.3).

Table 0.3 Students' Enrolment in Higher learning Institutions by Sex and Type of Ownership; Tanzania, BEST 2025.

Type of Ownership	Number of Persons			Percent		
	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men
Government	262,924	117,872	145,052	72.8	44.8	55.2
Non-Government	98,333	47,146	51,187	27.2	47.9	52.1
Total	361,257	165,018	196,239	100.0	45.7	54.3

Source: MOEVT & PMO-RALG, BEST 2025

4.3.3 Enrolment in Technical and Vocational Education

Table 4.4 shows a clear gender disparity in both technical and vocational education with men consistently outnumbering women. In technical education women accounts for 47.0 percent of students compared with 53.0 percent for men, indicating a relatively smaller gap but still suggesting that women are underrepresented. In vocational education, the disparity is wider with women accounting for only 43.4 percent and men 56.6 percent indicating a more pronounced gender gap. This pattern implies that women have lower participation in skill-based and career-oriented trainings particularly in vocational.

Table 0.4 Number and Percentage of Students' Enrolled in Technical and Vocational Education by Sex; Tanzania, BEST 2025.

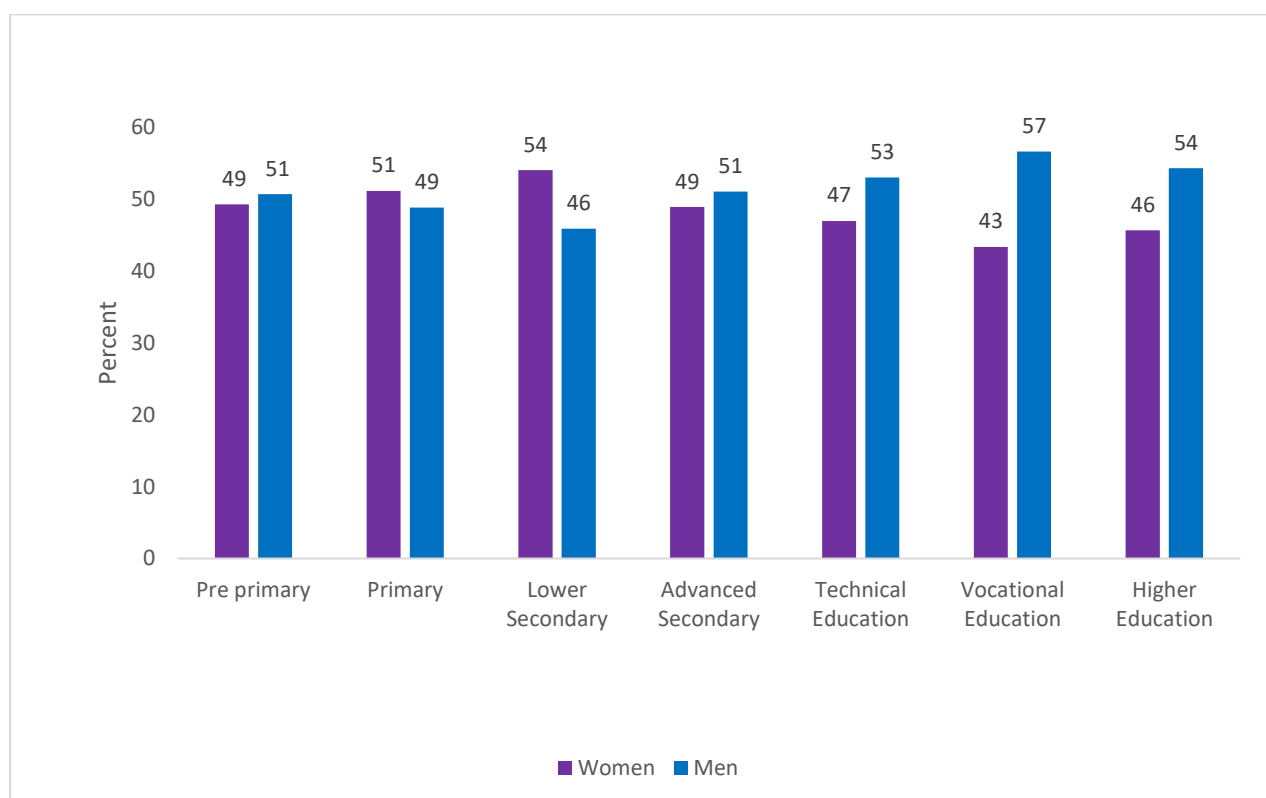
Level of Education	Number of Students			Percent		
	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Total
Technical education	102,045	115,159	217,204	47.0	53.0	100.0
Vocational education	200,454	261,770	462,224	43.4	56.6	100.0

Source: MOEVT, BEST 2025

Overall, enrolment in different levels of education shows that girls slightly outnumber boys in primary and lower secondary levels of education, whereas men participation is higher in pre-primary, advanced secondary, technical, vocational, and higher education (Figure 4.1).



Figure 0.1 Percentage of Pupils/Students Enrolled in Different Levels of Education by Sex; Tanzania, BEST 2025



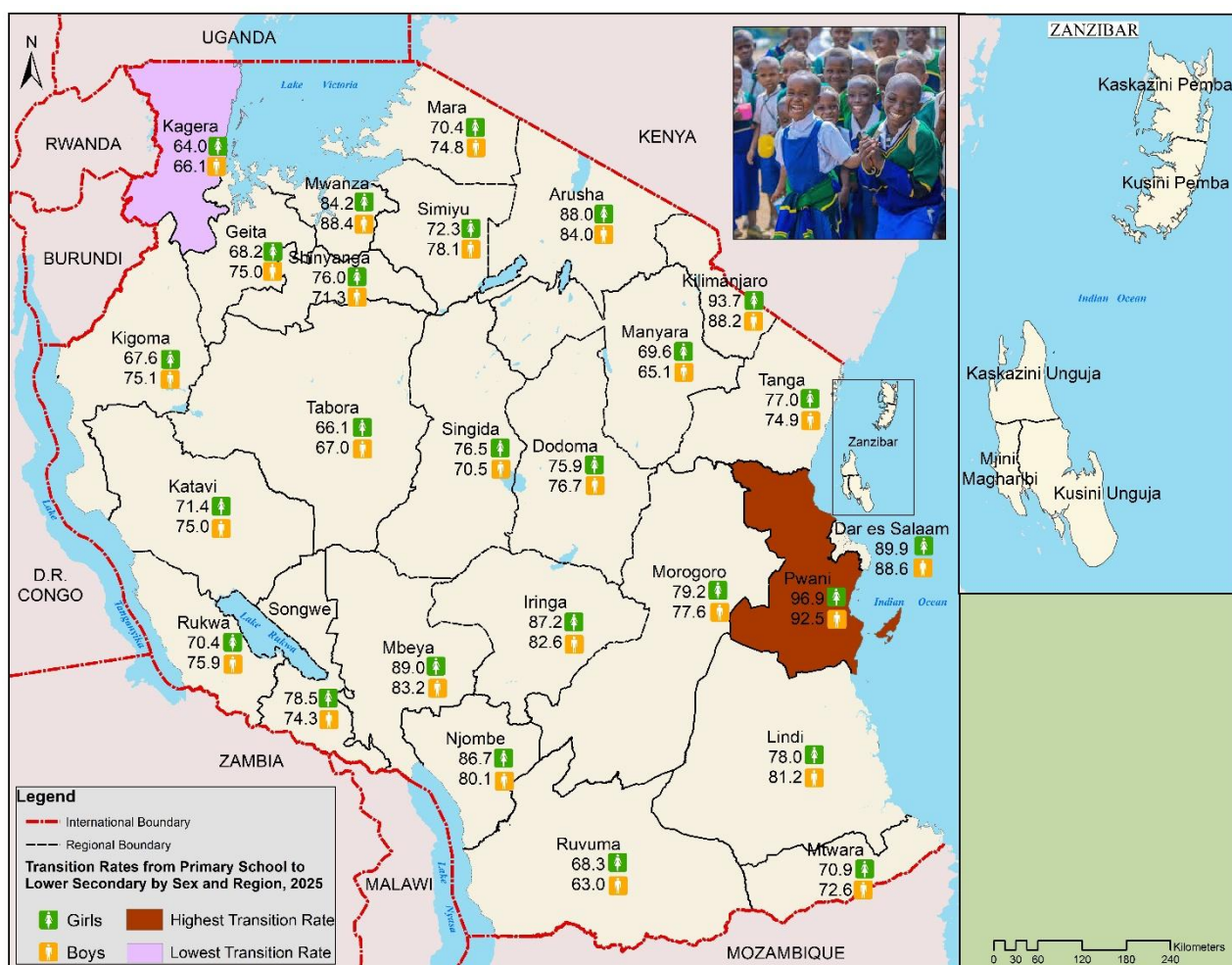
Source: MOEVT, BEST 2025

4.4 Transition from Primary to Secondary Education

Map 4.1 presents transition rates from primary to lower secondary school level by sex and region. The findings indicate that in 2025, the national transition rates were similar for boys and girls (77.7% each), but in fourteen regions (Arusha, Dar es Salaam, Iringa, Pwani, Kilimanjaro, Manyara, Mbeya, Morogoro, Njombe, Ruvuma, Shinyanga, Singida, Songwe and Tanga) girls outnumbered boys) while in twelve regions (Dodoma, Geita, Kagera, Katavi, Kigoma, Lindi, Mara, Mtwara, Mwanza, Rukwa, Simiyu and Tabora) boys outnumber girls.



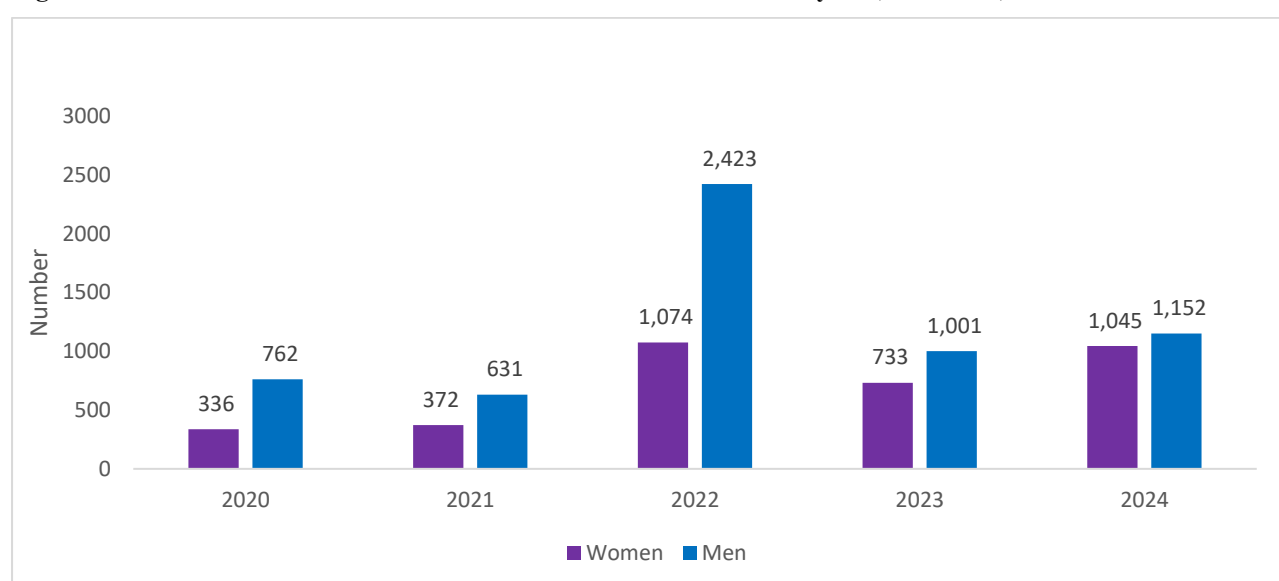
Map 0.1 Transition Rates from Primary School to Lower Secondary School Level by Sex and Region; Tanzania, BEST 2025



4.5 Science and Mathematics Graduates

The percentage of science and mathematics teacher graduates decreased from 69.4 percent in 2020 to 50.2 percent in 2024 for men whereas for women it increased from 30.6 percent in 2020 to 49.8 percent in 2024. From 2020 to 2021 men science and mathematics teacher graduates outnumbered women graduates. The largest gender gap of 38.8 percentage points was experienced in 2020 whereas the smallest gap of 0.4 percentage points was experienced in 2024 reflecting a narrowing gender gap with an almost balanced gender participation in 2024 (Figure 4.2).

Figure 0.2 Trends in Science and Mathematics Teacher Graduates by Sex; Tanzania, BEST 2025



Source: MOEVT & PO-RALG, BEST 2025

4.6 Graduates from Technical Education Training Institutions

In the 2020 – 2024 period, women graduate from technical education training institutions outnumbered men graduates in 2020, 2023 and 2024 whereas men graduate outnumbered women graduate in 2021 and 2022. The largest gender gap was experienced in 2024 whereby women graduate outnumbered men graduate by 5.6 percentage points implying that the gender gap is increasing instead of decreasing (Figure 4.3).

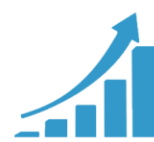
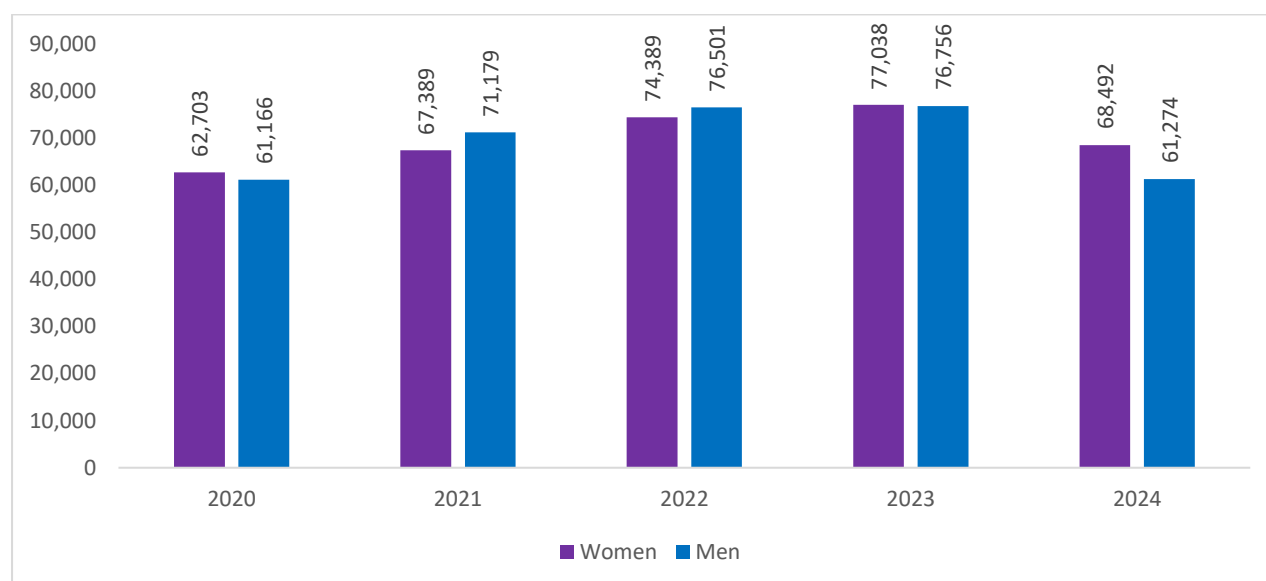


Figure 0.3 Trends of Graduates from Technical Education Training Institutions by Sex; Tanzania, BEST 2025

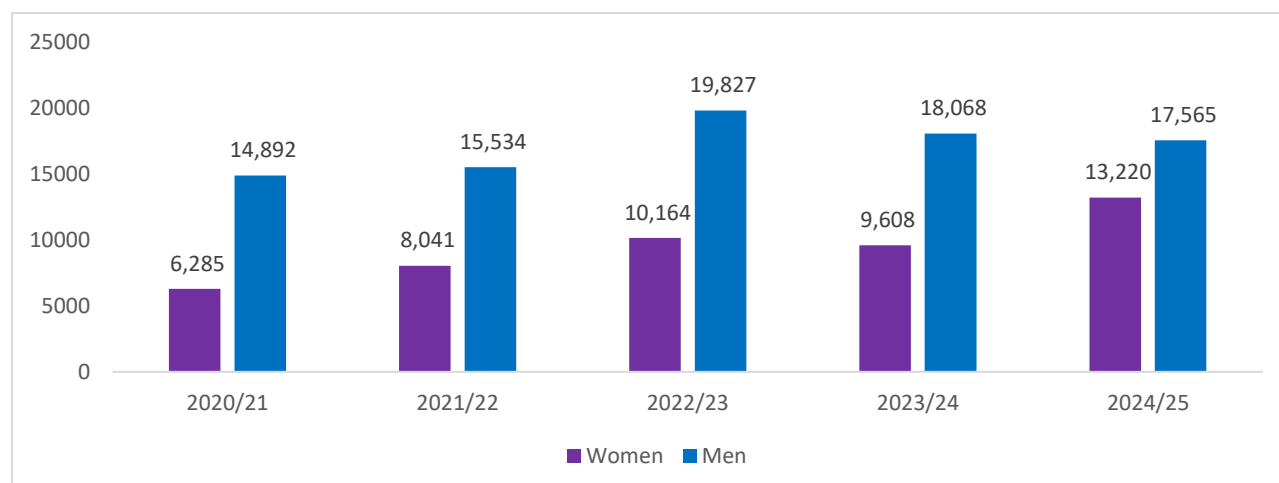


Source: MOEVT & PO-RALG, BEST 2025

4.7 Vocational Education Training Graduates

The percentage of vocational education training graduates decreased from 70.3 percent in 2020 to 57.1 percent in 2024 for men whereas for women it increased from 29.7 percent in 2020 to 42.9 percent in 2024. During the reference period, men graduate outnumbered women graduate with the largest gender gap of 40.6 percentage points experienced in 2020 and the smallest gap of 14.2 percentage points experienced in 2024 reflecting a narrowing gender gap.

Figure 0.4 Trends of Vocational Education Training Graduates by Sex; Tanzania, BEST 2025



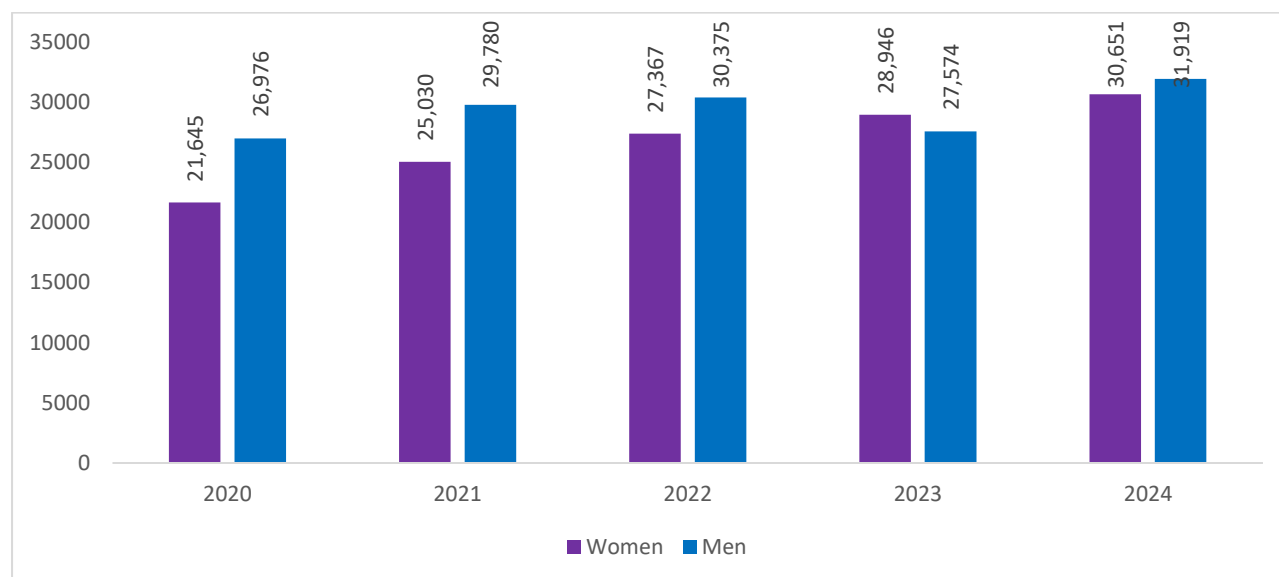
Source: MOEVT, BEST 2025



4.8 Graduates in University Institutions

The percentage of men graduates in university institutions decreased from 55.5 percent in 2020 to 48.8 percent in 2023, thereafter increased to 51.0 percent in 2024. In the same period the percentage of women graduates increased from 44.5 percent to 49.0 percent indicating a narrowing gender gap.

Figure 0.5 Trends in University Institution Graduates by Sex; Tanzania, BEST 2025



Source: MOEVT, BEST 2025

4.9 Dropouts at different Levels of Education

4.9.1 Dropout in Primary Schools

Dropouts for boys and girls are more pronounced in lower educational grade (Standard I to Standard IV). Boys are more likely to drop out of school than girls in most educational grades, with the largest number of dropouts observed in Standard IV for both boys and girls. Girls' dropouts are smaller and more consistent across grades (Table 4.5).

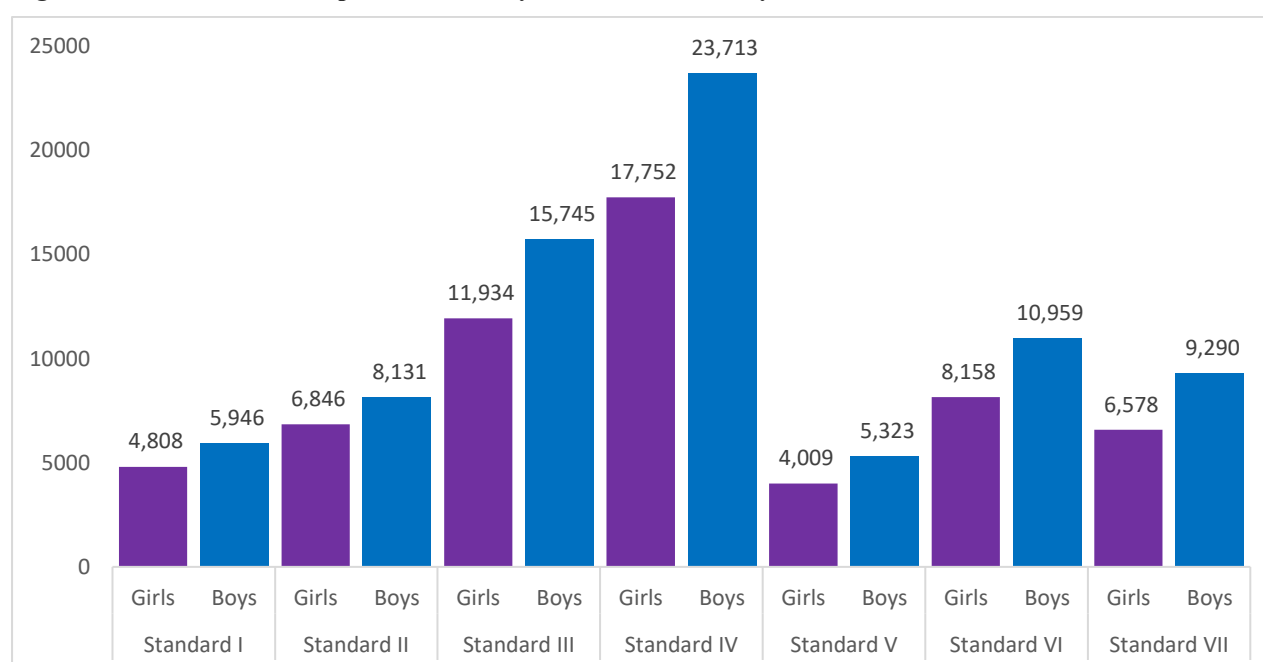


Table 0.5 Number of Dropouts in Primary Education by Sex and Grade; Tanzania, BEST 2024

Reasons for Dropout	Grade													
	Standard I		Standard II		Standard III		Standard IV		Standard V		Standard VI		Standard VII	
	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys
Death	41	70	62	78	60	72	48	69	39	49	32	56	19	24
In-displine	24	17	84	83	25	25	113	113	18	25	25	35	22	28
Pregnancy			1				9		11		37		38	
Truancy	4,743	5,859	6,699	7,970	11,849	15,648	17,582	23,531	3,941	5,249	8,064	10,868	6,499	9,238
Grand Total	4,808	5,946	6,846	8,131	11,934	15,745	17,752	23,713	4,009	5,323	8,158	10,959	6,578	9,290

Source: MOEVT & PO-RALG, BEST 2025

Figure 0.6 Number of Dropouts in Primary School Education by Sex and Grade; Tanzania, BEST2024



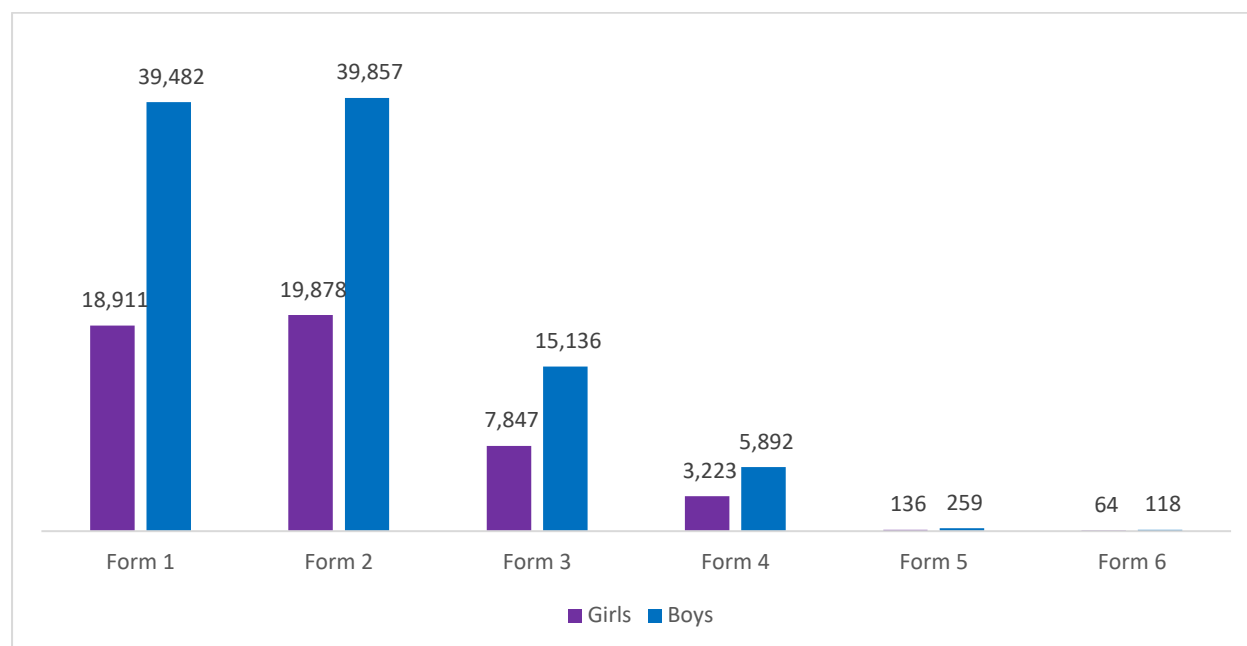
Sources: MOEVT & PO-RALG, BEST 2025

4.9.2 Dropouts in Secondary Schools

Figure 4. 7 presents percentages of secondary students dropouts by sex and grade for year 2024. Across all secondary school grades, boys are more likely to drop out of schools than girls.



Figure 0.7 Percentage of Secondary School Student Dropouts by Sex and Grade; Tanzania, BEST 2024



Sources: MOEVT & PO-RALG, BEST 2025

The most common reason for dropouts in secondary education for both girls and boys is truancy followed by indiscipline. Boys slightly outnumber girls in secondary school dropouts, in both cases, while dropout of girls is also driven by pregnancy, especially in Form 2–4.

Table 0.6 Number of Dropouts in Secondary Education by Sex, Reason and Grade; Tanzania, BEST 2024

Grade	Death		Indiscipline		Pregnancy		Truancy	
	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys
Form 1	36	67	276	361	232		18,367	20,210
Form 2	62	69	320	398	421		19,075	19,581
Form 3	35	58	146	294	504		7,162	6,995
Form 4	34	43	83	191	452		2,654	2,478
Form 5	11	9	5	25	82		38	98
Form 6	7	8	3	22	33		21	32
Grand Total	185	254	833	1,291	1,724		47,317	49,394

Sources: MOEVT & PO-RALG, BEST 2025

4.10 University Student Dropouts

Men university student dropouts outnumber women dropouts, with discontinuation being the main reason, followed by deregistration, while deaths are minimal for both sexes.



Table 0.7 Number and Percentage of University Student Dropouts by Sex and Reason; Tanzania, BEST 2023/24

Reason for Dropout	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Total
Discontinuation	1,015	1,304	2,319	43.8	56.2	100.0
Deregistration	180	243	423	42.6	57.4	100.0
Abscondment	110	159	269	40.9	59.1	100.0
Deceased	8	6	14	57.1	42.9	100.0
Total	1,313	1,712	3,025	43.4	56.6	100.0

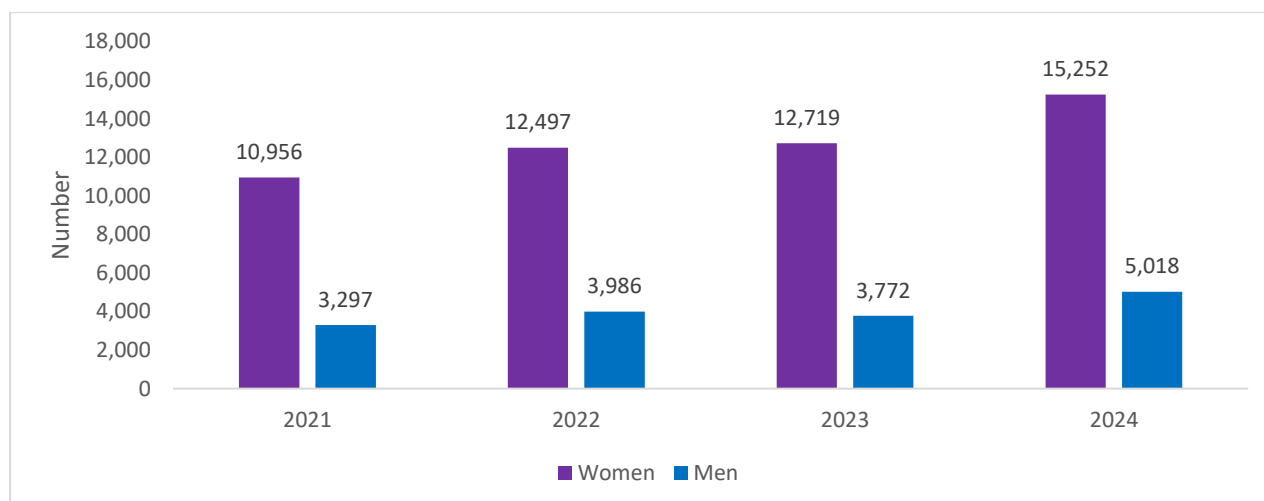
Sources: MOEVT, BEST 2025

4.11 Number of Teachers in Pre-primary, Primary and Secondary Schools

4.11.1 Number of Teachers in Pre-primary Schools

In the 2021-2024 period, the percentage of women teachers in pre-primary schools increased from 67.4 percent in 2021 to 77.1 percent in 2023 and thereafter decreased to 75.2 percent in 2024 whereas that of men decreased from 32.6 percent in 2021 to 22.9 percent 2023 and then increased to 24.8 percent in 2024. This reflects women teacher dominance in pre-primary educations (Figure 4.8).

Figure 0.8 Number of Teachers in Pre-primary Schools by Sex; Tanzania, BEST2025



Sources: MOEVT & PO-RALG, BEST 2025

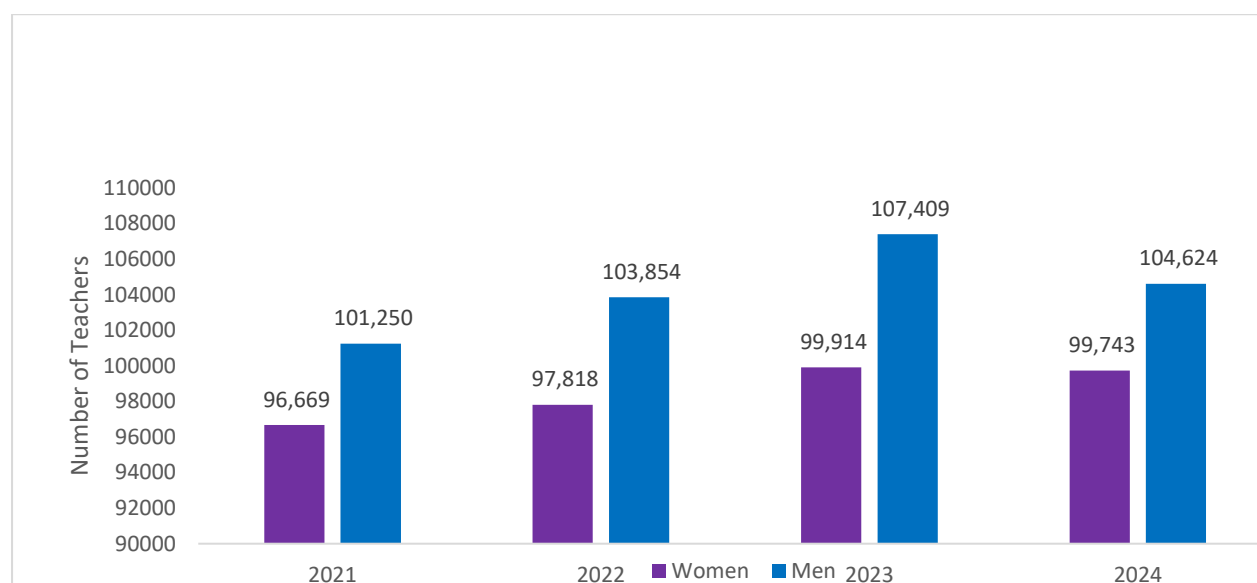
4.11.2 Number of Teachers in Primary Schools

The percentage of men primary school teachers increased slightly from 51.2 percent in 2021 to 51.8 percent in 2023 then decreased to 51.2 percent in 2024. In regard to women the percentage decreased from 48.8 percent in 2021 to 48.2 percent in 2023 and then increased to 48.9 percent



in 2024. This pattern reflects a dominance of men teachers over women teachers in primary schools in the 2021 – 2024 period (Figure 4.9).

Figure 0.9 Percentage of Teachers in Primary Schools by Sex; Tanzania, BEST 2025

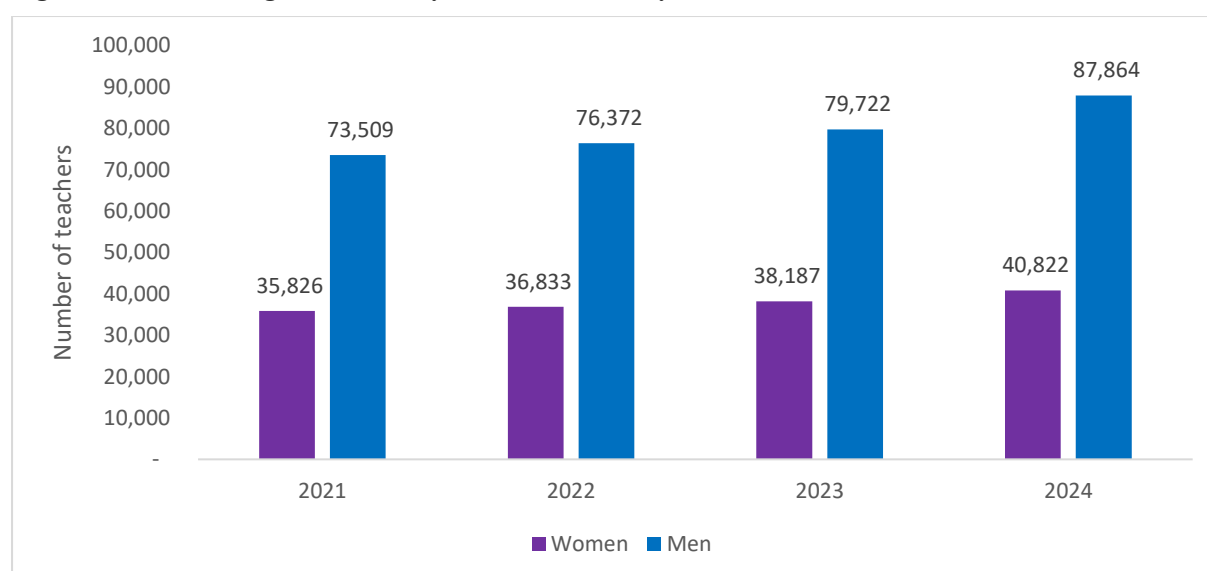


Sources: MOEVT & PO-RALG, BEST 2025

4.11.3 Number of Teachers in Secondary Schools

From 2021 to 2024, the percentage of secondary school teachers steadily increased, with men consistently outnumbering women by a large margin, while female teacher numbers were gradually decreasing reflecting a widening gender gap. This calls for targeted interventions to bring about a balanced participation for both sexes (Figure 4.10).

Figure 0.10 Percentage of Secondary School Teachers by Sex; Tanzania, BEST, 2025



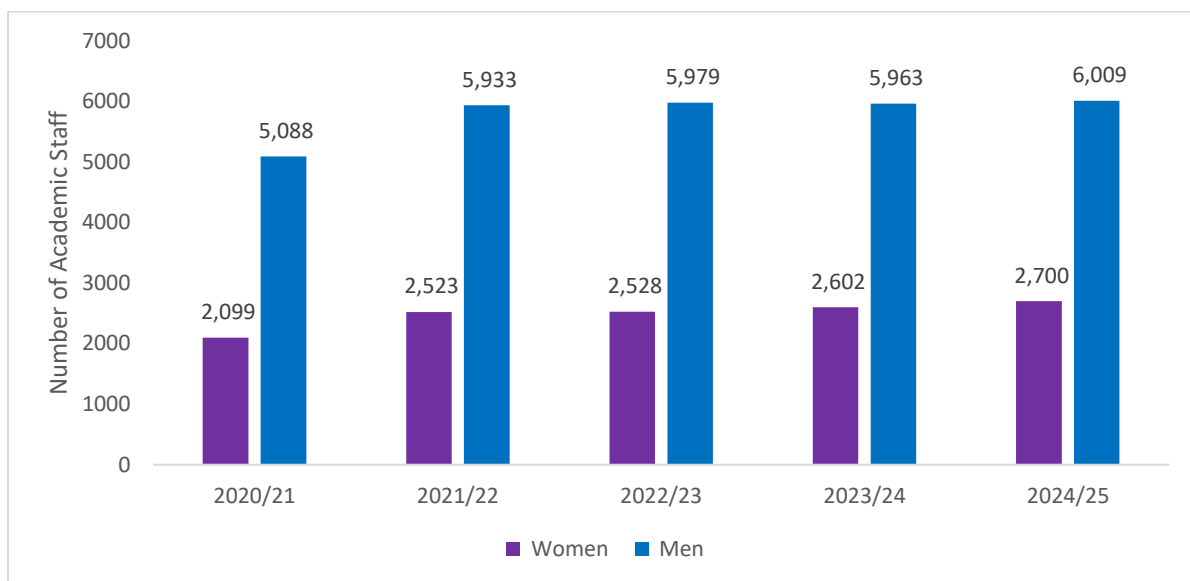
Sources: BEST 2025



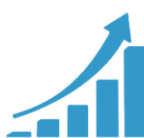
4.12 Number of Academic Staff at University Institutions

The percentage of men academic staff at university institutions increased from 70.8 percent in the 2020/21 academic year to 72.0 percent in the 2022/23 academic year, thereafter decreased to 69.0 percent in the 2024/25 year. During the same period, women academic staff increased from 29.8 percent to 31.0 percent. During the reference period men academic staff consistently outnumbered women academic staff reflecting a gender gap

Figure 0.11 Percentage of Academic Staff at University Institutions by Sex; BEST 2025



Sources: BEST 2025



CHAPTER FIVE

LABOUR FORCE



CHAPTER FIVE

LABOUR FORCE

5.0 Labour Force Participation

Labour market participation, defined as engagement in employment or active job search is a key indicator of economic inclusion and gender equality. In Tanzania, the labour market is men dominated across all geographical areas. Higher labour force participation rates and employment to population ratios for men indicate persistent gender inequality in access to and participation in the labour market (Figures 5.1 and 5.2).

Figure 0.1 Labour Force Participation Rates by Sex and Geographical Areas; Tanzania, ILFS 2024

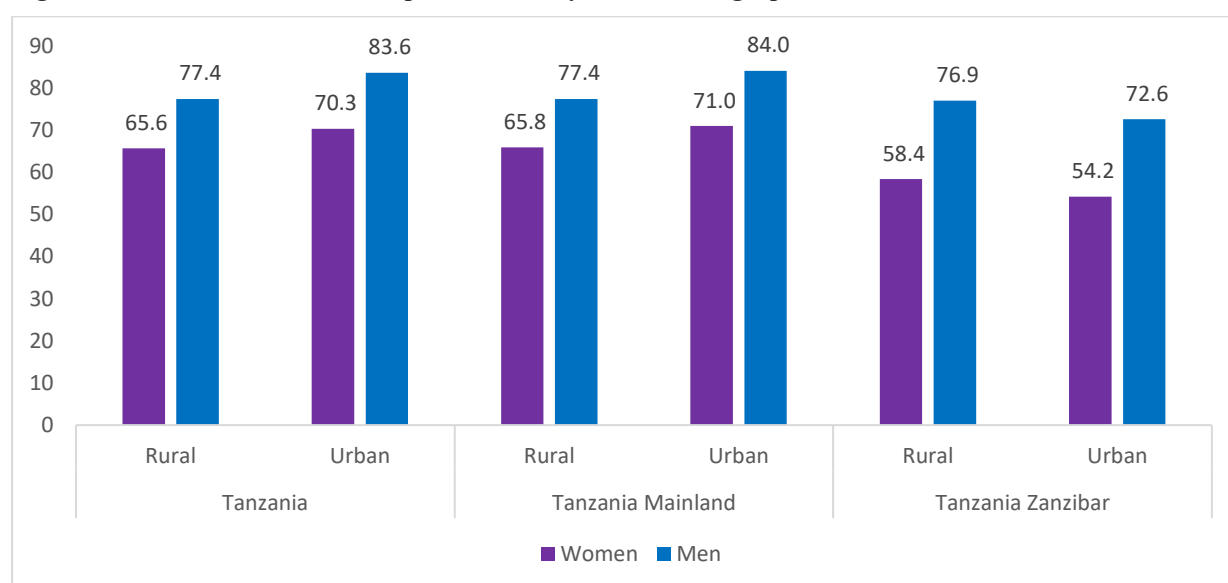
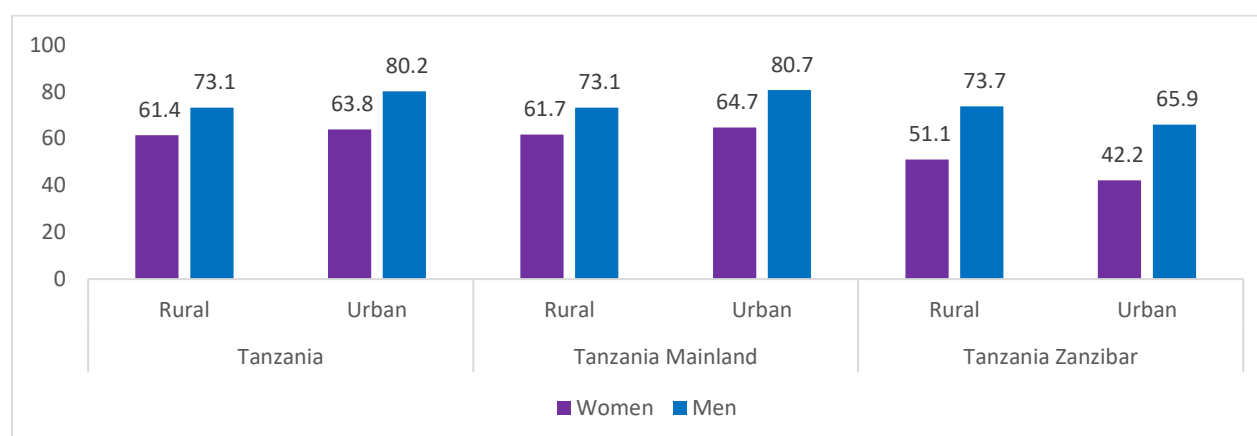


Figure 0.2 Employment to Population Ratio by Sex and Geographical Areas; Tanzania, ILFS 2024



5.1 Unemployment Rate

Unemployment rates are consistently higher among women than men in both Tanzania Mainland (TZM) and Tanzania Zanzibar (ZNZ). At the national level (URT), the unemployment rate among women (7.5%) exceeds that of men (4.9%), with the disparity more pronounced in urban areas, where unemployment among women accounts for 9.2 percent compared to a rate of 4.1 percent among men. In Tanzania Zanzibar, unemployment levels are substantially higher, particularly for among women residing in urban areas (22.0%) compared to men (9.1%), indicating significant spatial and gender-based vulnerabilities.

Age-disaggregated data further show that youth aged 15–24 years' experience the highest unemployment rates across all areas. Young women are disproportionately affected, with unemployment reaching 33.9 percent in Zanzibar compared to 17.9 percent among their male counterparts. Although unemployment declines with age for both sexes, women consistently record higher rates than men across all age groups, highlighting persistent barriers to labour market entry for females (Table 5.1).

Table 0.1 Unemployment Rates by Geographical Residence, Age Group and Sex Tanzania, ILFS 2024

Residence and Age group	Tanzania		Tanzania Mainland		Tanzania Zanzibar	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Rural	6.5	5.5	6.4	5.5	12.5	4.2
Urban	9.2	4.1	8.8	3.9	22.0	9.1
Age						
15-24	12.1	8.1	11.6	7.8	33.9	17.9
25-35	9.3	4.4	9.0	4.4	21.5	4.9
36+	4.0	3.5	4.0	3.6	5.8	2.1

ILFS 2024

5.2 Employment Pattern

Employment patterns by occupation demonstrate clear gender segmentation. In the United Republic of Tanzania, women are overrepresented in skilled agricultural and fishery work (54.4%) and elementary occupations (17.5%), while men dominate craft and related trades (12.0%) and plant and machine operation (5.9%). Women also account for a higher percentage of service and sales workers (18.2%) compared with men (12.8%), reflecting concentration in lower-skilled and customer roles.



Professional and managerial occupations remain male-dominated nationally, with women accounting for only 0.3 percent of legislators and managers compared with 0.7 percent among men. Although Zanzibar shows relatively higher female participation in professional and technical occupations, overall representation of women in high-skilled and decision-making roles remains limited (Table 5.2).

Table 0.2 Percentage Distribution of Employed Persons by Occupations, Geographical Areas and Sex; Tanzania, ILFS 2024

Occupations	URT		TZM		ZNZ	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Legislators, administrators and managers	0.3	0.7	0.3	0.7	0.3	0.6
Professionals	1.5	2.3	1.5	2.3	3.5	2.2
Technicians and associate professionals	2.1	2.3	1.9	2.2	8.5	3.8
Clerks	0.7	0.4	0.7	0.4	1.0	0.8
Service workers and shop sales workers	18.2	12.8	17.9	12.5	29.0	21.9
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	54.4	51.6	55.4	52.7	11.1	17.4
Craft and related workers	4.9	12.0	4.6	11.8	16.0	19.1
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	0.5	5.9	0.5	5.9	0.1	8.8
Elementary occupations	17.5	11.9	17.2	11.5	30.7	25.4

5.3 Employment by Industry

Employment by industry helps in revealing how men and women are distributed across different sectors of the economy and whether opportunities are equal. In Tanzania, the industry-level analysis indicates that agriculture, forestry, and fishing employ the majority of both women and men, particularly in Tanzania Mainland, where 56.2 percent of women and 52.5 percent of men are engaged in this sector. Women are more engaged in accommodation and food services (7.7%); wholesale and retail trade (17.3%); and other service activities (5.8%), whereas men dominate construction (6.6%), transportation and storage (7.1%), mining (2.2%), and manufacturing (5.5%) sectors.

In Tanzania Zanzibar, women employment is notably higher in manufacturing (16.4%); accommodation and food services (17.7%); whole sale and retail trade (14.4%); education (9.8%); and other services (8.8%), reflecting among other things, the importance of tourism-related activities. However, men maintain higher representation in capital-intensive and infrastructure-related industries, reinforcing gender-based sectoral segregation (Table 5.3).



Table 0.3 Percentage Distribution of Employed Persons by Sex and Industry; Tanzania, ILFS 2024

Industry	Tanzania		Tanzania Mainland		Tanzania Zanzibar	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	56.2	52.5	56.9	53.1	24.4	32.8
Mining and quarrying	0.3	2.2	0.3	2.3	0.4	1.0
Manufacturing	4.4	5.5	4.1	5.5	16.4	5.1
Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.1
Water supply; sewage, waste management and remediation activities	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.4
Construction	0.3	6.6	0.3	6.4	0.2	12.9
Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	17.3	12.8	17.3	12.8	14.4	14.6
Transportation and storage	0.3	7.1	0.3	7.0	0.4	11.2
Accommodation and food service activities	7.7	1.5	7.5	1.4	17.7	4.8
Information and communication	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.6	0.6
Financial and insurance activities	0.6	0.4	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.5
Real estate activities	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1
Professional, scientific and technical activities	0.3	0.6	0.3	0.6	0.3	0.5
Administrative and support service activities	2.8	2.5	2.8	2.5	2.4	3.6
Public administration and Defense; compulsory social security	0.3	1.2	0.3	1.1	2.2	5.6
Education	2.0	2.1	1.8	2.0	8.9	3.0
Human health and social work activities	1.0	0.8	1.0	0.8	1.9	1.3
Arts, entertainment and recreation	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2
Other service activities	5.8	2.8	5.7	2.9	8.8	1.7

5.4 Employment in Paid jobs

Gender disparities are also evident in employment status. In Tanzania, men are more likely to be employed in paid jobs (21.7%) and as employers (9.7%) indicating access to formal and income generating opportunities. On the other hand, women are heavily concentrated in vulnerable forms of employment particularly as contributing family workers (31.5%) and own-account workers (50.7%), often with low or no earnings.

This pattern suggests existence of structural barriers such as limited access to resources, finance and formal employment opportunities for women making them more economically vulnerable (Table 5.4).



Table 0.4 Percentage Distribution of Employed Persons by Sex and Type of Paid Employment; Tanzania, ILFS 2024

Paid Employment	Tanzania		Tanzania Mainland		Tanzania Zanzibar	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Employees	13.1	21.7	12.8	21.5	26.8	27.2
Employers	4.7	9.7	4.8	9.7	1.8	9.5
Own-account workers	50.7	54.9	50.3	54.7	66.5	60.3
Contributing family workers	31.5	13.8	32.1	14.1	4.9	2.9

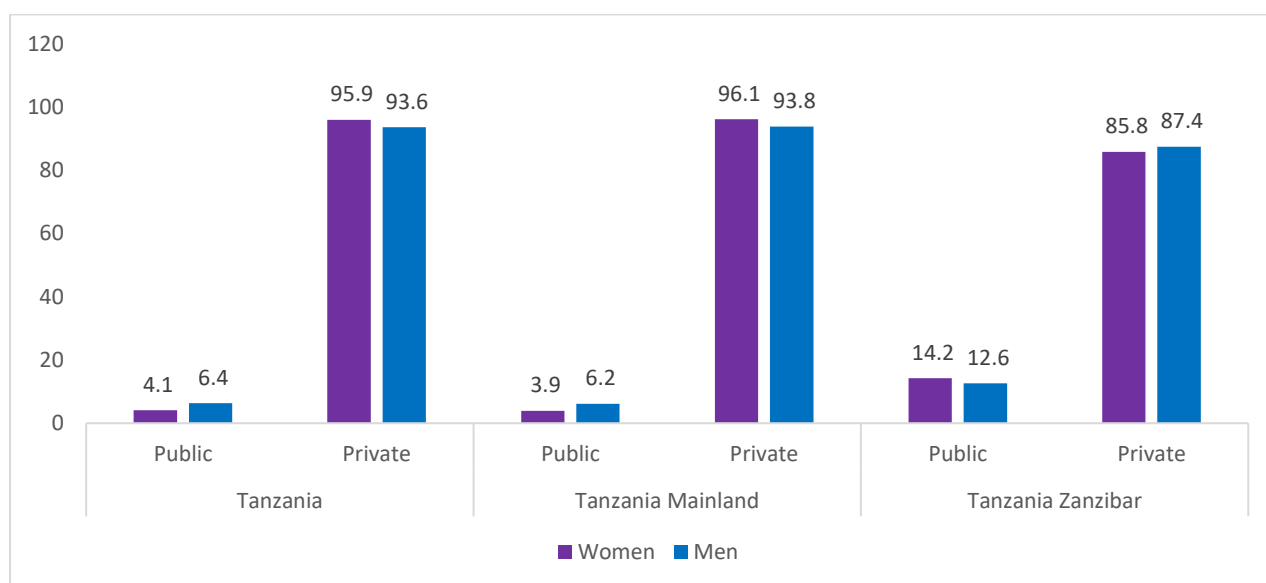
5.5 Employment by Type of Sector

Employment by type of sector (public and private) reveals important gender disparities in job quality and access to opportunities. The public sector is generally associated with more stable employment and better working conditions and higher female representation may indicate greater. The private sector in Tanzania employs more than 90.0 percent (96.1% of women and 93.8% of men) of employees in Tanzania Mainland and over 85.0 percent (85.8% of women and 87.4% of men) of those in Tanzania Zanzibar. On the other hand, only 3.9 percent of women and 6.2 percent of men in Tanzania Mainland; and 14.2 percent of women and 12.6 percent of men in Tanzania Zanzibar are employed by the public sector.

Employment in the private sector in Tanzania Mainland is dominated by women whereas in Tanzania Zanzibar, it is dominated by men. On the other hand employment in the public sector in Tanzania Mainland is dominated by men whereas in Zanzibar, it is dominated by women. These patterns reflect limited access to secure and well paid jobs for women in Tanzania Mainland whereas for those in Tanzania Zanzibar it indicates greater gender inclusiveness (Figure 5.3).



Figure 0.3 Percentage Distribution of Employed Persons by Sex and Sector of Employment; Tanzania, ILFS 2024



5.5 Usual and Current Hours of Work

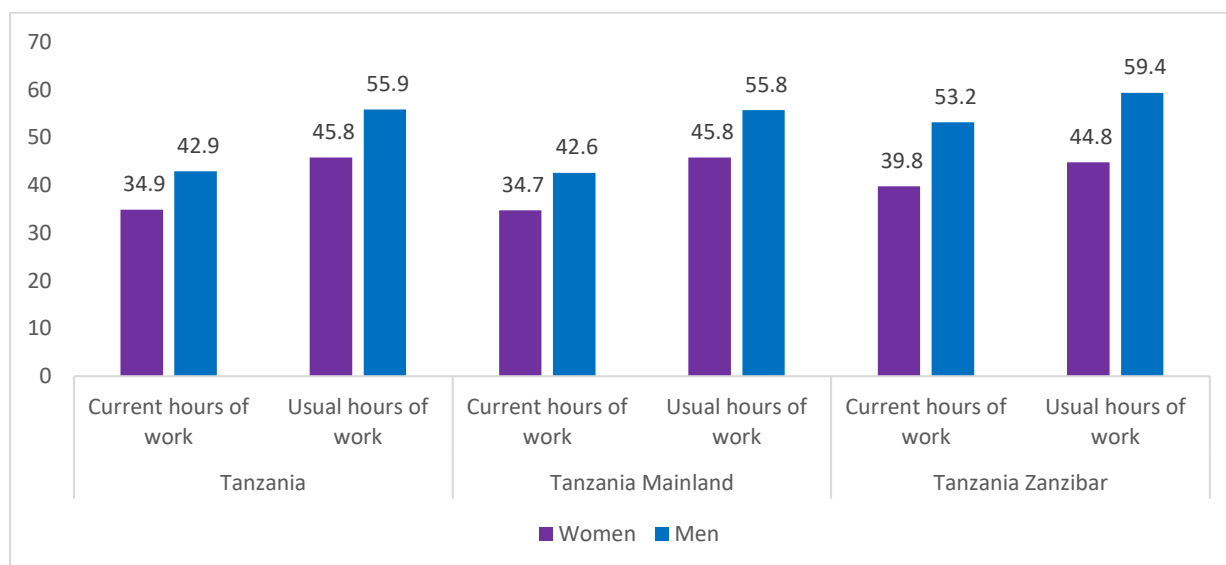
In labour and gender analysis, **current hours of work** and **usual hours of work** help in distinguishing between short-term work patterns and long-term employment conditions.

Current hours of work refer to the number of hours a person actually worked during a specific reference period (usually the last week). **Usual hours of work** refer to the typical number of hours a person normally works in a week over a longer period.

In Tanzania, men are more likely to have higher current and usual hours of work compared with women. The lower current hours for women may be attributed to interruptions such as childcare, household responsibilities, or informal work arrangement whereas the lower usual hours of work may reflect part-time work or limited access to full-time employment (Figure 5.4).



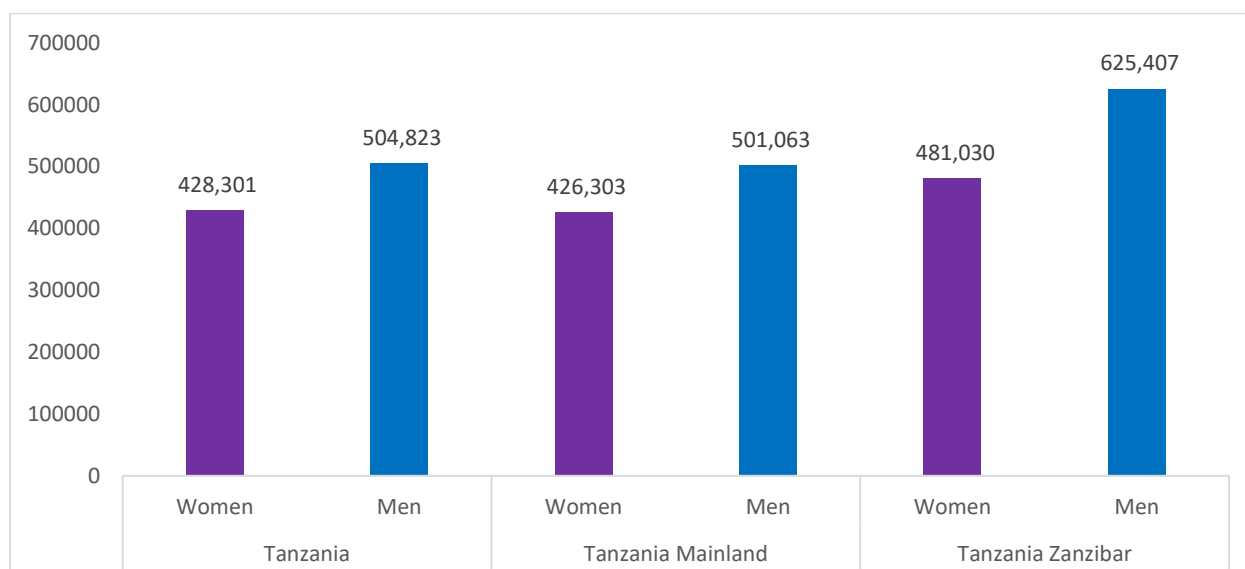
Figure 0.4 Percentage of Employed Persons by Sex and Hours of Work; Tanzania, ILFS 2024



5.6 Average Monthly Income (TZS) for Employed Persons

The average monthly income for men in paid employment in Tanzania is 504,823 TZS compared with 428,301 TZS paid to women. The difference in average monthly income between men and women in paid employment indicates a gender wage gap, with women earning 84.6 percent of men's income. This disparity reflects structural inequalities such as differences in working hours, occupational segregation and limited access to higher-paying opportunities for women. The gap has significant implications for women's economic empowerment, increasing their vulnerability to poverty and limiting their financial independence (Figure 5.5).

Figure 0.5 Average Monthly Incomes (TZS) of Persons in Paid Employment by Sex; Tanzania, ILFS 2024



CHAPTER SIX

POVERTY



CHAPTER SIX POVERTY

6.0 Poverty Incidence, Gap and Severity by Gender (SDG 1.2.1)

Figure 6.1 shows minimal gender differences in poverty, with headcount rates of 26.5 percent for men and 26.3 percent for women, and an overall poverty rate of 26.4 percent. Similarly, the poverty gap (6.2% for men and 6.1% for women) and severity (2.1% for both) indicate comparable depth and intensity of poverty across genders. These findings demonstrate no significant gender-based disparities and align with SDG 1 on ending poverty in all its forms.

Figure 0.1 Percentage of Population Living below the National Poverty Line by Sex; Tanzania, 2017-18 HBS

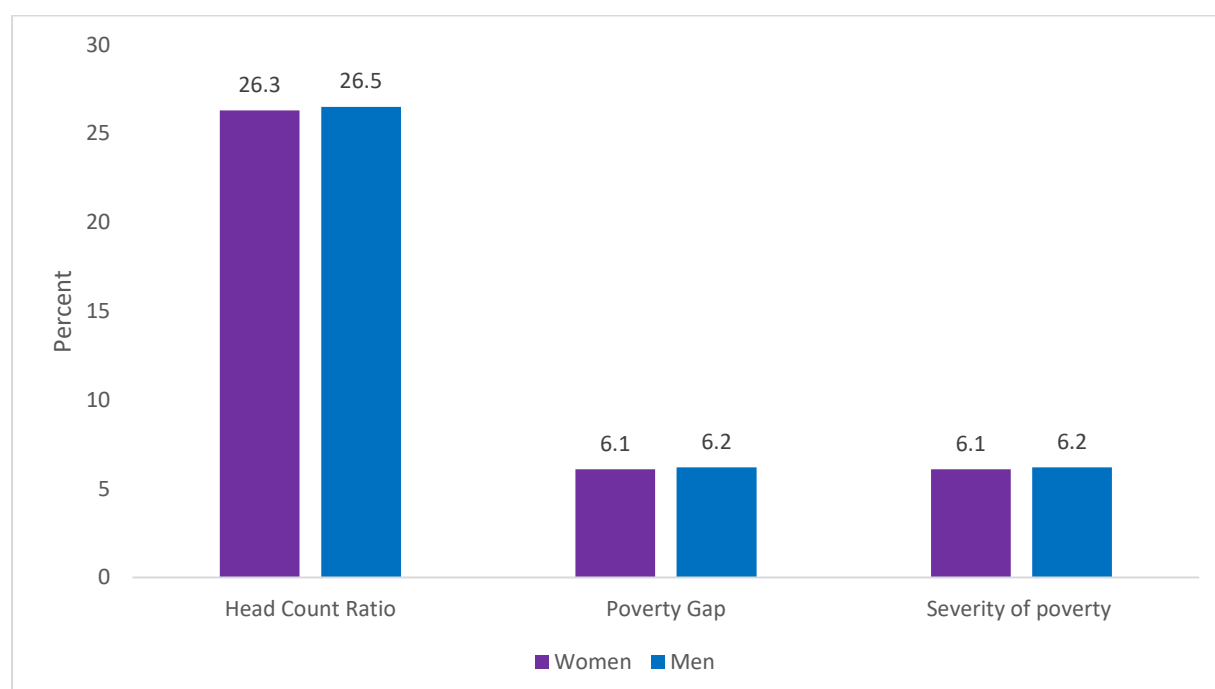


Table 0.1 Poverty Incidence, Gap and Severity by Sex; Tanzania, 2017-18 HBS

Gender	Headcount Rate (HCR)	Poverty gap (PG)	Severity of poverty (PSG)
Men	0.265	0.062	0.021
Women	0.263	0.061	0.021
Total	0.264	0.062	0.021

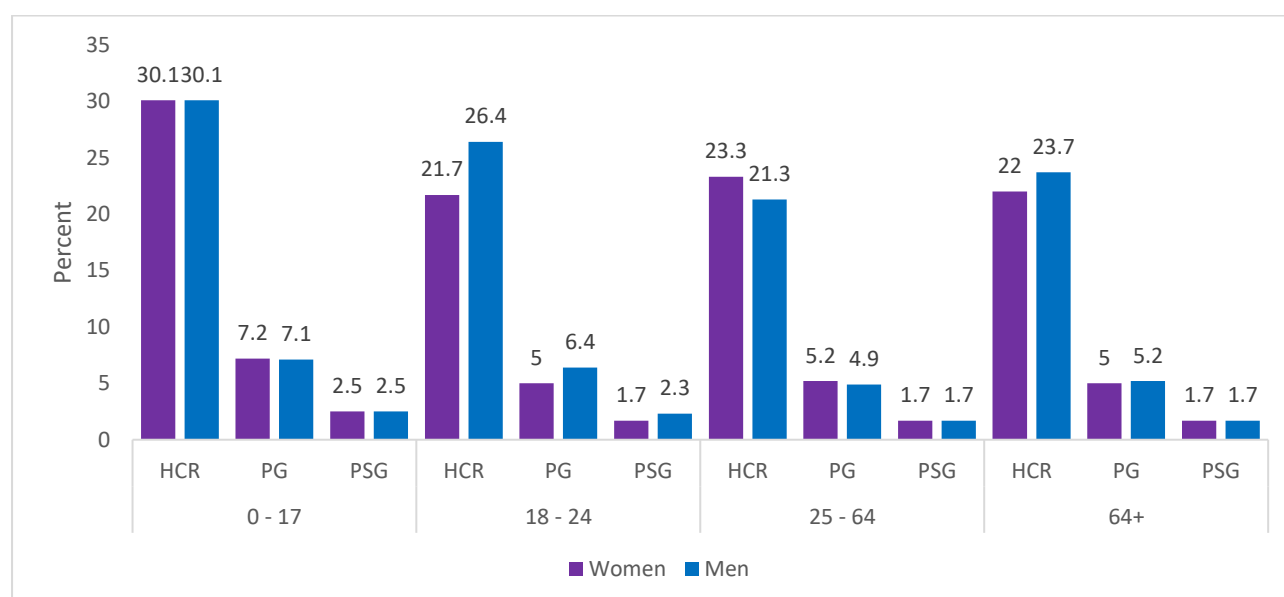
Source, HBS 2018-17



6.1 Incidence of Poverty by Age Group

Figure 6.1 shows that with respect to poverty, children and the youth are the most vulnerable groups. Poverty is higher among children aged 0 to 17 years; declines among young adults (age 18–24 years) (23.9%), where men are more affected than women, and further declines among the working-age population 25–64 years (22.4%), with slightly higher rates among women. Among the elderly (age 65 years and above), poverty incidence stands at 22.8 percent, with marginally higher levels among men.

Figure 0.2 Percentage of Population Living below the National Poverty Line by Sex and Selected Age Group; Tanzania, 2017-18 HBS



Source, HBS 2018-17

Table 0.2 Lower Poverty Incidence, Lower Poverty Gap and Lower Severity of Poverty by Sex and Selected Age Groups; Tanzania, 2018-17 HBS

Age group	Sex	Lower Poverty Incidence	Lower Poverty G	Lower Severity of Poverty
0 - 17	Men	.3007	.0708	.0246
	Women	.3008	.0718	.0251
	Total	.3008	.0713	.0249
18 - 24	Men	.2640	.0640	.0226
	Women	.2169	.0496	.0169
	Total	.2385	.0562	.0195
25 - 64	Men	.2125	.0493	.0167
	Women	.2332	.0521	.0173
	Total	.2236	.0508	.0170
64+	Men	.2374	.0517	.0167
	Women	.2201	.0498	.0175
	Total	.2276	.0506	.0172
Total	Men	.2645	.0620	.0214
	Women	.2632	.0612	.0210
	Total	.2639	.0616	.0212

Source, HBS 2018-17



6.2 Incidence of Poverty by Place of Residence

Figure 6.3 indicates that in Tanzania, geographical location is a stronger determinant of poverty than gender. Poverty incidence is higher in rural areas (31.4%) than in urban areas (15.8%). In rural settings, poverty affects men and women almost equally, with similar poverty gaps (7.4%) and severity (2.6%), indicating deeper and more intense deprivation compared to urban areas. Urban poverty is relatively lower, with only marginal gender differences, where women recorded a slightly higher poverty rate than men.

Figure 0.3 Poverty Incidence, Gap and Severity by Sex and Place of Residence; Tanzania, 2017-18 HBS

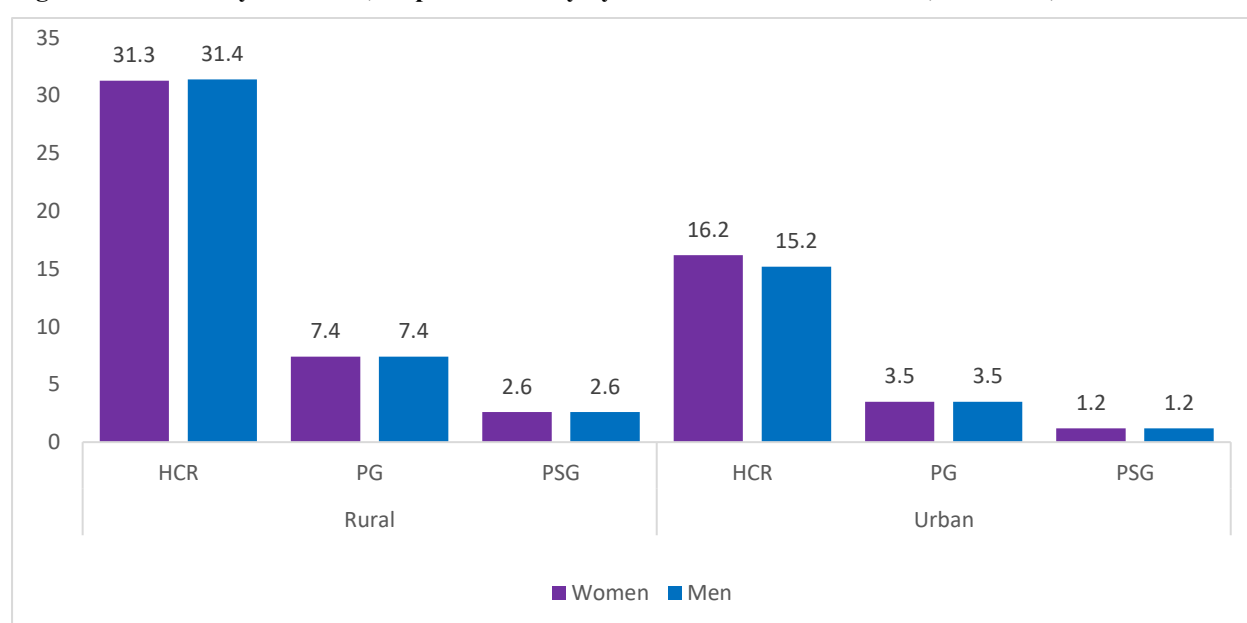


Table 0.3 Poverty Incidence, Gap and Severity by Sex and Place of Residence; Tanzania, 2017-18 HBS

Place of Residence	Sex	Lower Poverty Incidence	Lower Poverty Gap	Lower Severity of Poverty
Rural	Men	.3139	.0742	.0258
	Women	.3130	.0739	.0256
	Total	.3135	.0740	.0257
Urban	Men	.1525	.0346	.0115
	Women	.1621	.0354	.0117
	Total	.1577	.0351	.0116
Total	Men	.2646	.0621	.0215
	Women	.2632	.0612	.0210
	Total	.2639	.0616	.0212

Source, HBS 2018-17



6.3 Incidence of Poverty by Sex of Household Head

Figure 6.4 presents poverty patterns by location and sex of household head. Nationally, poverty is slightly higher in women-headed households (27.4%) than in men-headed households (26.1%). There is a pronounced rural–urban disparity, with significantly higher incidence in rural areas (31.4% than in urban areas (15.8%). In rural settings, poverty affects men- and women-headed households almost equally, with similar poverty gap (7.4% each) and severity (2.5% and 2.6%), indicating deep deprivation regardless of the sex of household head. In urban areas, women-headed households are notably more vulnerable (20.3%) than men-headed households (14.0%), coupled with higher poverty depth and severity (Figure 6.4 and Table 6.4).

Figure 0.4 Incidence of Poverty by Sex of Household Head and Place of Residence; Tanzania, 2017-18 HBS

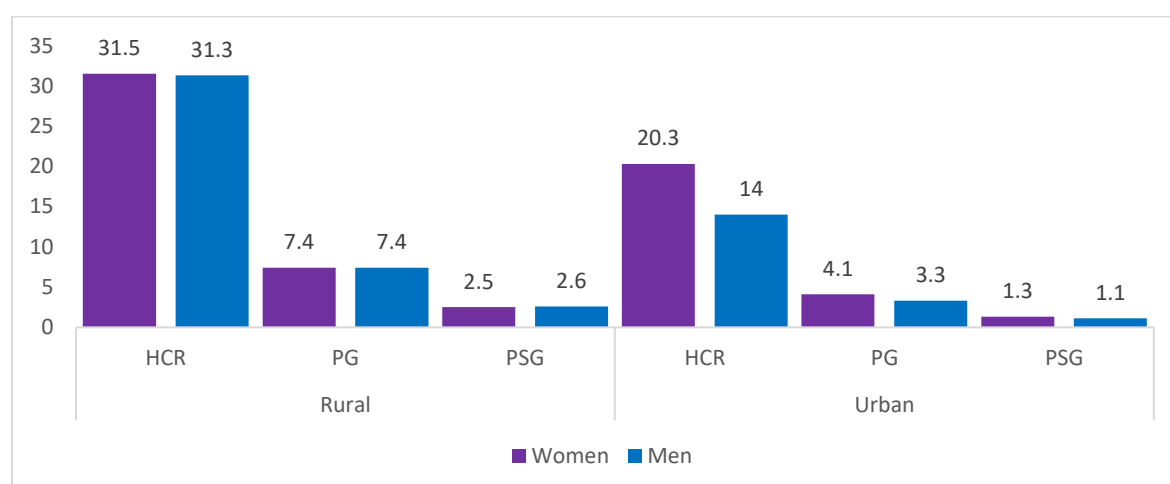


Table 0.4 Incidence of Poverty by Sex of Household Head and Place of Residence; Tanzania, 2017-18 HBS

Place of Residence	Sex of Household Head	Lower Poverty Incidence	Lower Poverty Gap	Lower Severity of Poverty
Rural	Men	.3130	.0741	.0258
	Women	.3151	.0737	.0254
	Total	.3135	.0740	.0257
Urban	Men	.1401	.0330	.0111
	Women	.2034	.0405	.0128
	Total	.1577	.0351	.0116
Total	Men	.2607	.0617	.0214
	Women	.2739	.0614	.0208
	Total	.2639	.0616	.0212

Source, HBS 2018-17



6.4 Household Welfare by Age and Sex of Household Head

Household welfare varies by age and sex of household head. Overall, men-headed households have higher average and median consumption than women-headed households. Households headed by younger women (age 0–24 years) have higher mean consumption, but from age 25 years and above, men-headed households consistently record higher mean and median consumption levels. The men-headed households aged 25–64 years and those aged 65 years and above have better welfare outcomes than women-headed households of similar age groups (Figure 6.5).

Figure 0.5 Monthly Total Household Consumption by Sex and Age of Household Head, Mean and Median Monthly Consumption; Tanzania, 2017-18 HBS

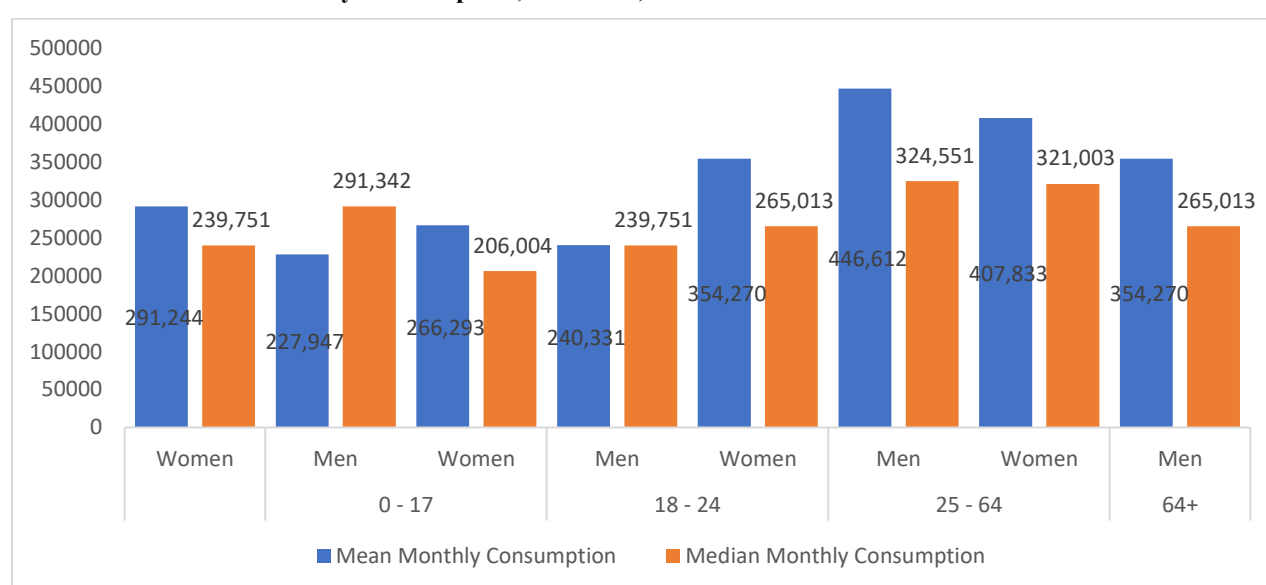


Table 0.5 Monthly Total Household Consumption by Sex and Age of Household Head, Mean and Median; Tanzania, 2017-18 HBS

Age group	Sex	Mean	Median
0 - 17	Men	227,947	291,342
	Women	291,244	239,751
	Total	262,931	291,342
18 - 24	Men	240,331	193,169
	Women	266,293	206,004
	Total	246,029	196,302
25 - 64	Men	446,612	324,551
	Women	354,270	265,013
	Total	426,178	311,231
65+	Men	407,833	321,003
	Women	339,088	238,024
	Total	382,557	288,813
Total	Men	438,192	320,808
	Women	349,625	257,928
	Total	416,927	306,070



CHAPTER SEVEN

FINANCIAL ACCESS AND USAGE



CHAPTER SEVEN

FINANCIAL ACCESS AND USAGE

7.0 Introduction

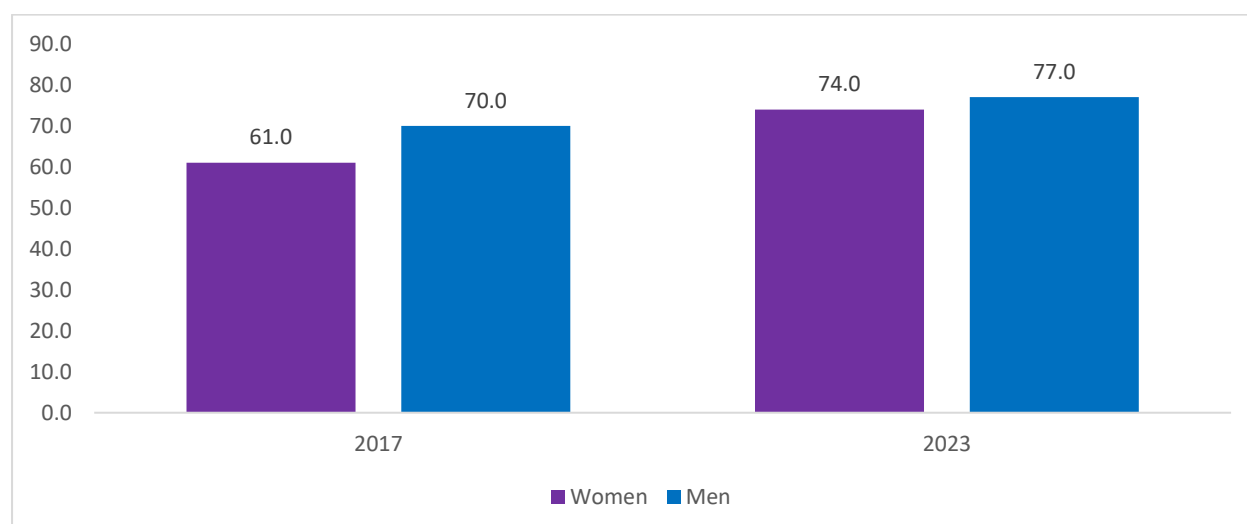
Financial access refers to individuals, businesses, and communities being able to obtain financial services and products, including banking for savings and transactions, credit for loans or lines of credit, insurance for risk protection, investment options like stocks and retirement accounts, and secure payment systems. It is essential for promoting economic growth and stability, as it enables people and enterprises to manage resources effectively, capitalise on opportunities, and mitigate risks. Lack of financial access can lead to increased poverty, inequality, and decreased economic mobility.

Financial usage refers to how individuals and organizations utilise financial services and products, including spending for daily expenses, saving for future needs, investing in assets, borrowing through loans or credit, and purchasing insurance for protection against financial loss. It is essential for understanding financial literacy and effective resource management.

7.1 Access to financial Services and Products (Formal)

Access to formal financial services and products in Tanzania has seen significant improvements for both women and men from 2017 to 2023. The percentage of women with access to formal financial services and products increased from 61.0 percent in 2017 to 74.0 percent in 2023, whereas for men it increased modestly from 70.0 to 77.0 percent during the same period.

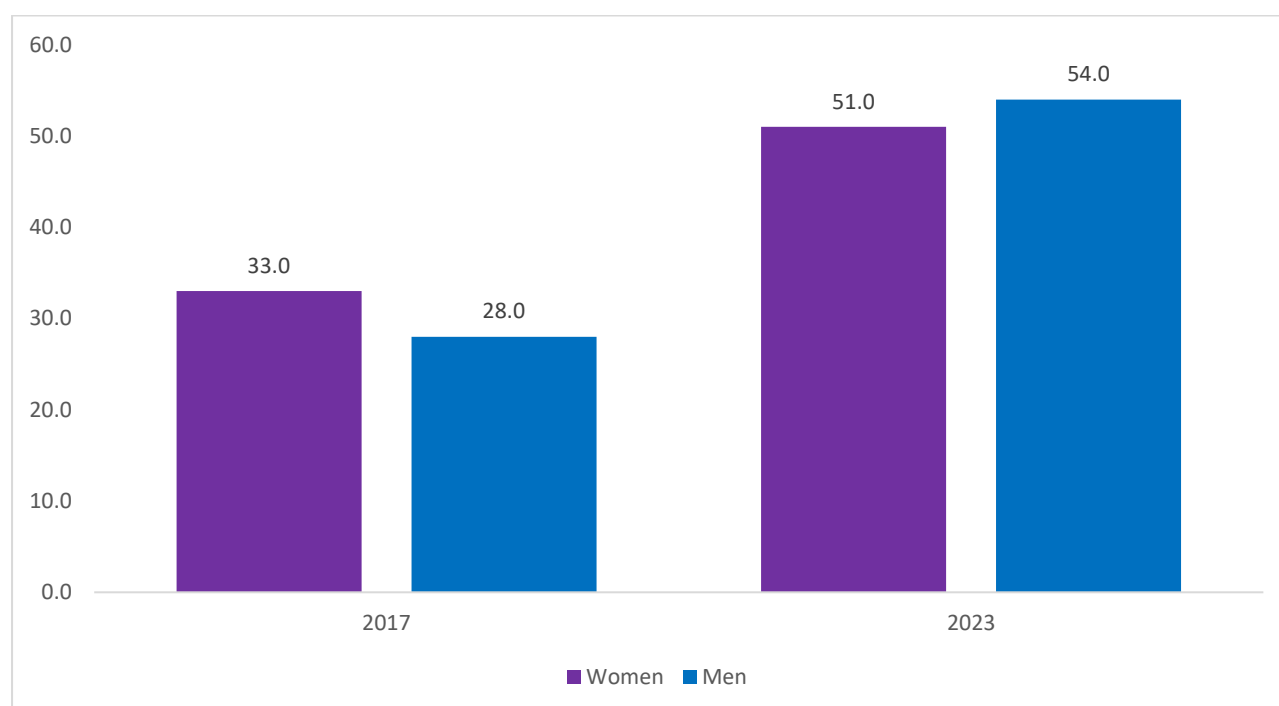
Figure 0.1 Percentage of Individuals Accessing Financial Services and Products; FinScope, Tanzania 2017 – 2023.



7.2 Access to Financial Services and Products (Informal)

Access to informal financial services and products has also improved for both women and men from 2017 to 2023. The share of women using these services and products increased from 33.0 percent in 2017 to 51.0 percent in 2023, whereas men's access increased from 28.0 percent to 54.0 percent in the same period (Figure 7.2).

Figure 0.2 Percentage of Individuals Accessing Informal Financial Services and Products; FINSCOPE, Tanzania, 2017 – 2023

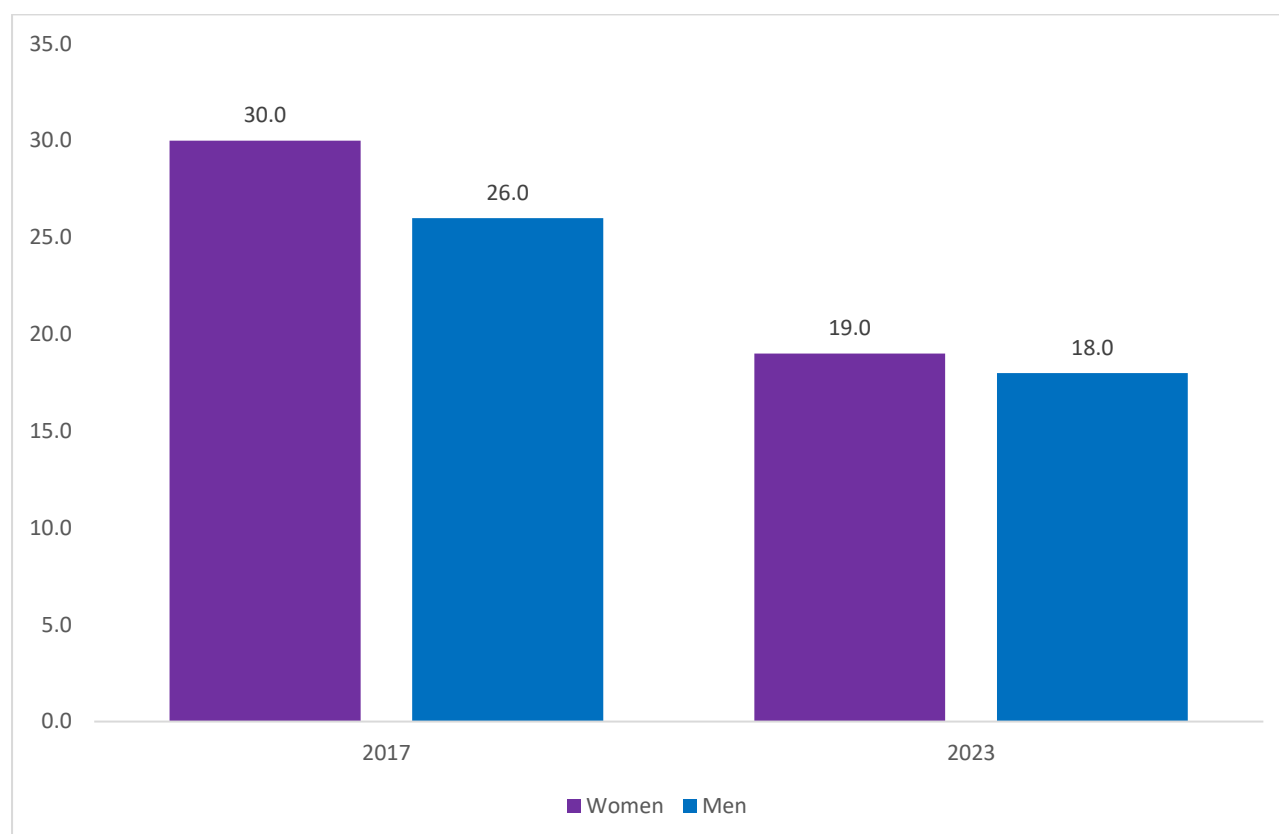


7.3 Excluded Individuals in Accessing Financial Services and Products

Access to financial services and products among excluded individuals has shown a decline from 2017 to 2023. For women, the percentage of those excluded fell from 30.0 percent to 19.0 percent, whereas for men, it decreased from 26.0 percent to 18.0 percent. The decline in financial exclusion from 2017 to 2023 indicates improved access to financial services for both men and women. However, women remain slightly more excluded than men, highlighting persistent gender disparities. The faster reduction in exclusion among women suggests progress in closing the gap, but structural barriers such as lower income and limited access to resources continue to affect women's financial inclusion (Figure 7.3).



Figure 0.3 Percentage Excluded Individuals in Access to Financial Services and Products by Sex; FINSCOPE, Tanzania excluded, 2017 – 2023



7.4 Access to Financial Services and Products by Type of Provider

Between 2017 and 2023, access to various financial services in Tanzania showed similar trends for both women and men. Women's access to bank services rose from 12 percent in 2017 to 18 percent in 2023, while their insurance uptake declined from 15 percent to 10 percent in the same period. During the same period, men's access to banks increased from 21 percent to 27 percent, while their insurance access decreased from 16 percent to 11 percent.

The increase in access to bank services alongside the decline in insurance uptake indicates uneven financial inclusion. While more women and men are entering the formal financial system, fewer are using risk protection services such as insurance. Women remain less likely than men in accessing banking services reflecting persistence gender disparity. The decline in insurance coverage raises concern about increased vulnerability particularly for women, highlighting the need for affordable and gender responsive financial products (Table 7.1).



Table 0.1 Proportion of Individuals Access Financial Services by Type of Service Provider; FinScope Tanzania, 2023

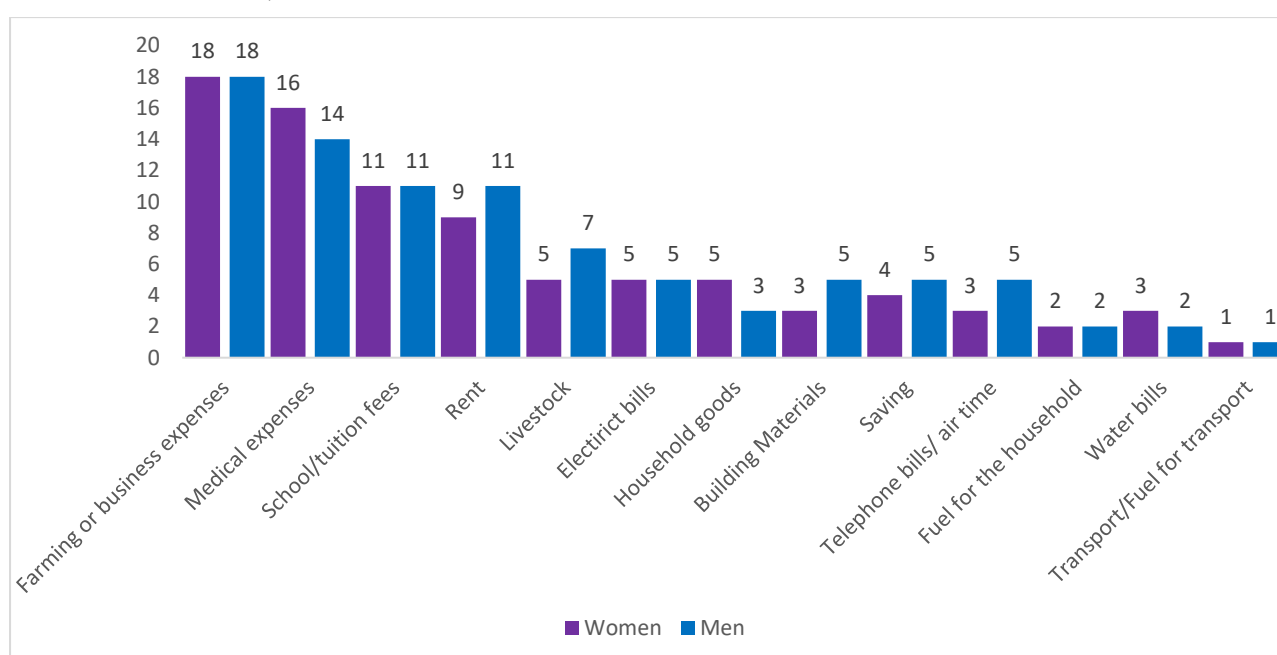
Service Provider	2017		2023	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Bank	12	21	18	27
Insurance (Including NHIF)	15	16	10	11
Mobile Money	55	66	70	74
MFIs	5	8	7	8
SACCOs	1	2	1	1
CMGs / Savings groups	20	12	15	8
Pension	2	6	2	5

Source: FinScope Tanzania 2023

7.5 Need-based Financial Priority

Need-based financial priorities refer to allocating financial resources first toward essential expenses required for basic living and well-being, before spending on non-essential wants or luxuries. In 2023, both women and men identified similar need-based financial priorities, with farming and business expenses topping the list at 18 percent for both women and men. Medical expenses followed closely, accounting for 16 percent of women and 14 percent of men. School and tuition fees accounted for 11 percent each, highlighting the importance of education. Other notable expenses included rent, livestock, and utility bills, reflecting the essential financial burdens faced by households in managing daily living and investment needs (Figure 7.4).

Figure 0.4 Percentage of Individuals by Sex and Type of Need-based Financial Priority; FINSCOPE Tanzania, 2023

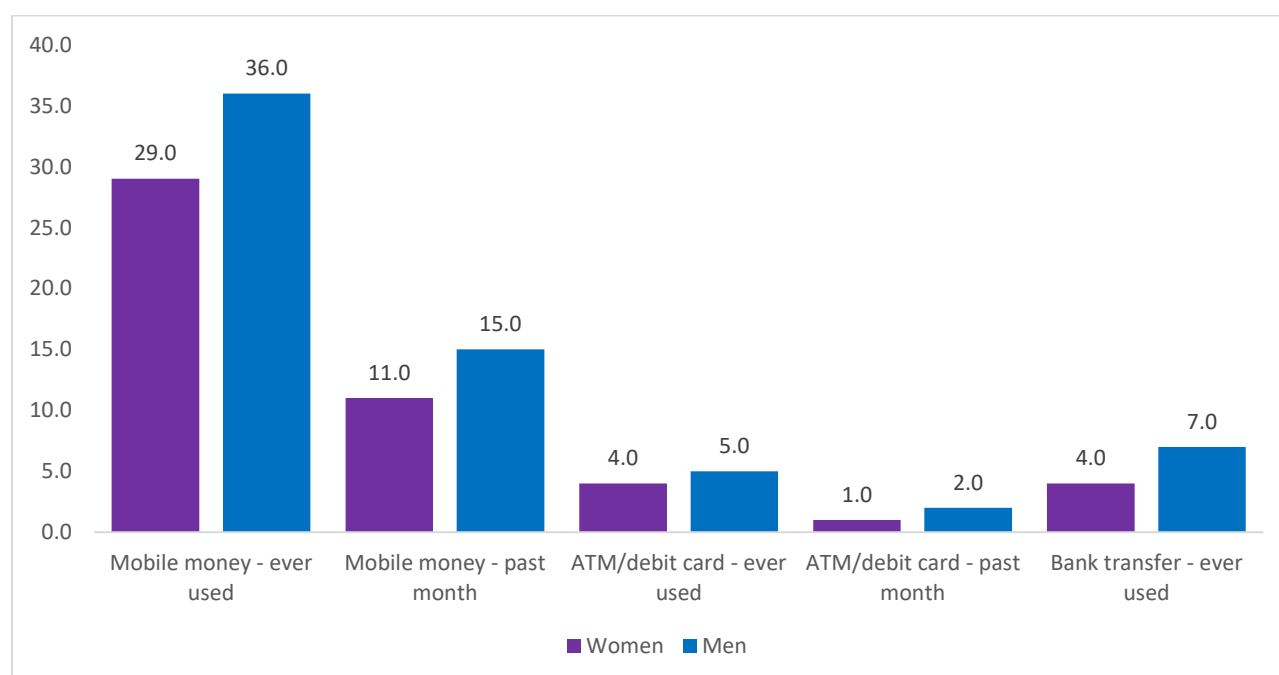


7.6 Digital Payment Instruments Used to Purchase Goods

In 2023, the use of digital payment instruments highlighted notable gender disparities in financial behaviour. Among women, 29 percent reported having ever used mobile money, in contrast to 36 percent of men. Monthly usage of mobile money was lower, with only 11 percent of women and 15 percent of men utilizing these services. Access to traditional banking tools like ATM/debit cards was minimal, with only 4 percent of women and 5 percent of men having ever used them, and even fewer using them in the past month (1% for women and 2% for men). Bank transfers were also infrequently used, with 4 percent of women and 7 percent of men reporting usage.

The relatively low usage rates among women and men especially for bank-related services suggests that a large portion of the population remains outside or only weakly connected to the formal financial system. Second, the consistent differences between women and men (29% of women against 36% of men ever using mobile money, and monthly use by 11% of women against 15% of men use) imply that women face greater constraints in accessing and using financial services. The very low use of ATMs, debit cards, and bank transfers indicates that formal banking services are underutilized by both women and men possibly due to limited infrastructure, high transaction costs, or preference for cash-based transactions (Figure 7.5).

Figure 0.5 Percentage of Individuals Using Digital Payment Instruments to Purchase Goods by Sex and Type of Instrument Used; FinScope Tanzania, 2023

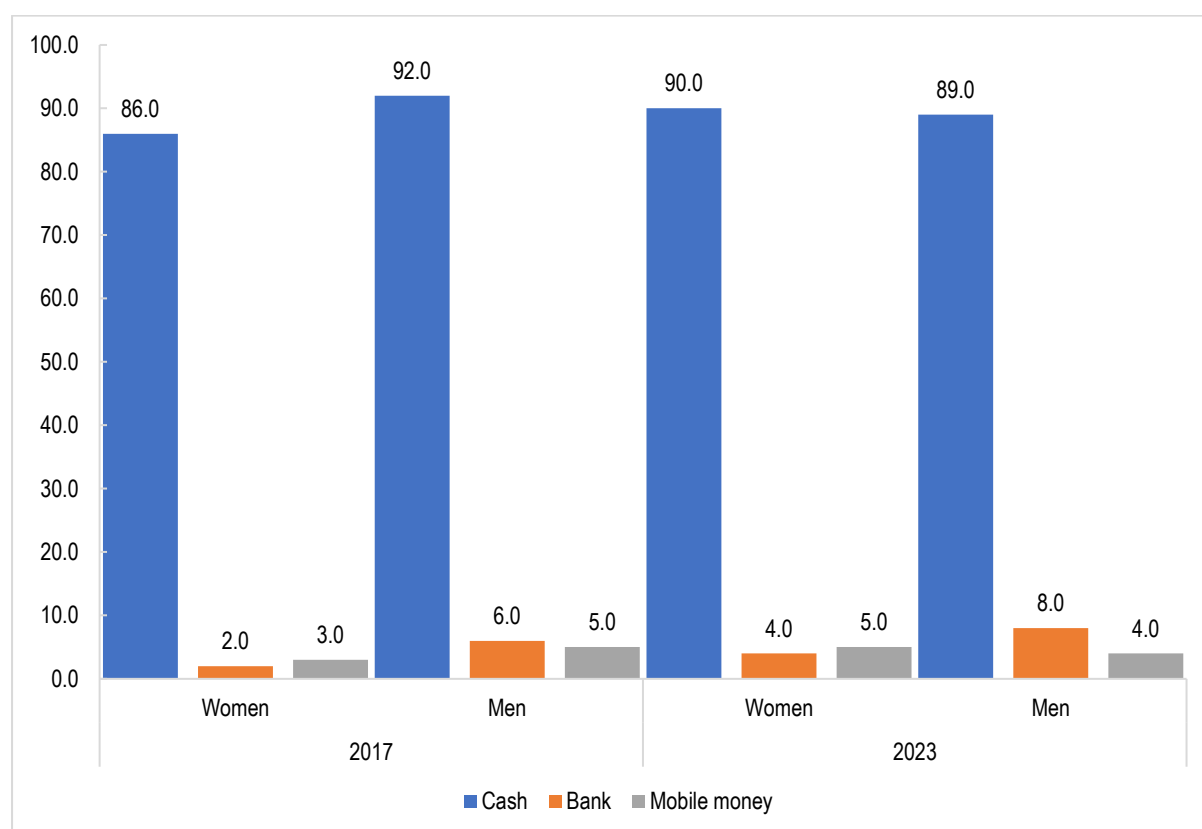


7.7 Distribution of How Tanzanians Receive Income

The percentage distribution of individuals by income receipt methods in Tanzania shows a notable stability in cash reliance from 2017 to 2023. In 2017, 86 percent of women and 92 percent of men received money in cash, which slightly increased to 90 percent for women but decreased to 89 percent for men by 2023. The use of bank transfers saw a modest increase, with the percentage of women rising from 2 to 4 percent and that of men increasing from 6 to 8 percent. Mobile money usage remained relatively low, with slight fluctuations; it increased among women from 3 to 5 percent and that of men dropping slightly from 5 to 4 percent (Figure 7.6).

The data indicate that both women and men are shifting towards mobile money as the primary channel for receiving income. Although access to formal banking has improved, men continue to have higher participation than women indicating a gender gap.

Figure 0.6 Percentage distribution of Tanzanians by Sex and How They Receive Income; FinScope Tanzania, 2017 and 2023

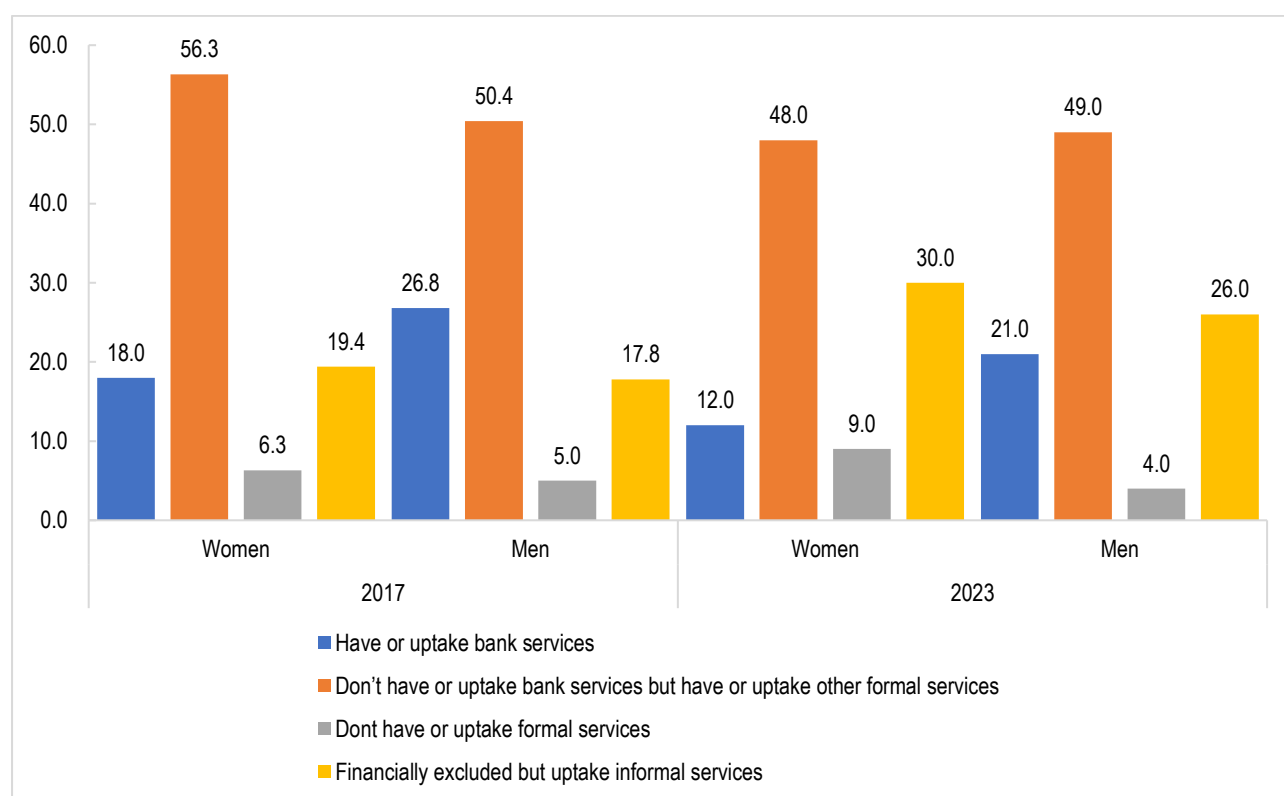


7.8 Uptake of Financial Services

The data from 2017 to 2023 reveals shifts in banking participation among women and men, highlighting changes in financial inclusion. For women, those using bank services decreased from 18 to 12 percent, while the percentage relying on other formal services fell from 56 to 48 percent. Interestingly, the proportion of individuals who do not use formal services but engage in informal ones increased significantly, from 19 to 30 percent among women and from 18 to 26 percent among men. Men also experienced a decline in bank service uptake, dropping from 27 to 21 percent, but they maintained a relatively stable use of other formal services at around 49 Percent (Figure 7.7).

The data indicate decline in the use of formal financial services particularly banking for both women and men, and a notable increase in reliance on informal financial mechanisms which may increase financial vulnerability particularly for women.

Figure 0.7 Percentage of individuals by Sex and Uptake of Financial Services; FinScope, Tanzania 2017 and 2023



Source: FinScope Tanzania 2023

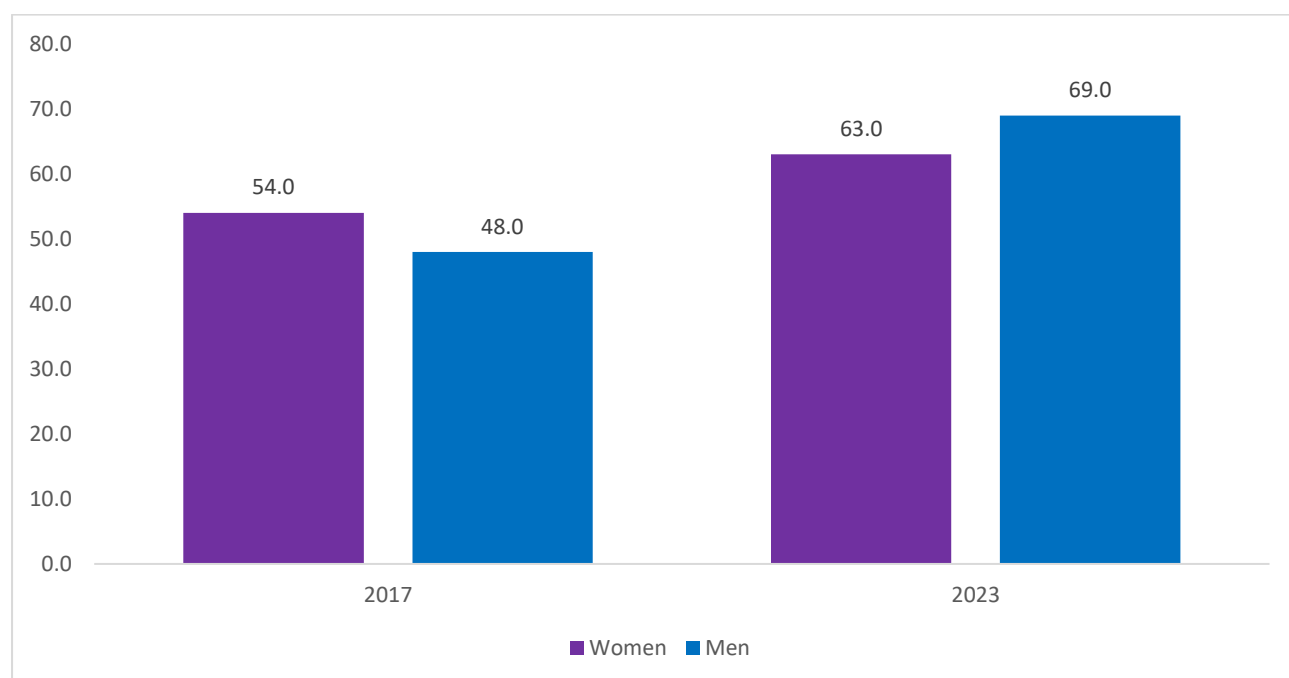


7.9 Distribution of Those Who Claim that They Often/Always Struggle with Regular Expenses

The percentage of Tanzanians who say they often struggle with regular expenses has increased from 2017 to 2023. For women, it rose from 54 to 63 percent, while for men, it went up from 48 to 69 percent (Figure 7.8).

This trend shows that financial pressures are becoming harder for both sexes, with a more noticeable increase among men. It highlights the growing economic challenges people are facing and the need for better financial support to help manage everyday expenses.

Figure 0.8 The percentage of Individuals who Claim to Struggle with Regular Expenses; FinScope Tanzania 2017 and 2023



Source: FINSCOPE Tanzania 2023



CHAPTER EIGHT

AGRICULTURE



CHAPTER EIGHT AGRICULTURE

8.0 Introduction

Agriculture remains one of the most important sectors in the economy and a major source of employment. According to the 2022 Population and Housing Census (PHC), 62.6 percent of the employed population aged 15 years and above are engaged in agriculture, forestry, and fishing, indicating that the majority of the workforce depends on this sector for their livelihoods. Overall, agriculture dominates employment, with 57.6 percent of employed persons working directly in agricultural activities. In terms of economic contribution, national economic profiles show that agriculture accounts for approximately 26.5 percent of the GDP.

8.1 Households Engaged in Agriculture

Both men and women play a critical role in agricultural production. Women account for 64.2 percent of the agricultural labour force, particularly in subsistence farming, while men represent approximately 61.0 percent. These figures demonstrate the significant contribution of women to agricultural activities. However, despite their substantial involvement, women face persistent structural inequalities, including limited access to land ownership, financial services, modern inputs, and other productive resources, which constrain their productivity and economic returns.

Adopting a gender sensitive perspective is therefore essential in agricultural policy formulation and sector planning. Addressing gender-based inequalities is important in enhancing agricultural productivity, improve household welfare, and strengthen national food security. Continuous statistical monitoring of gender disparities in agriculture is also crucial for tracking progress towards Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 2 (Zero Hunger) and SDG 5 (Gender Equality), while providing an evidence base for inclusive and sustainable agricultural development interventions.

Table 8.1 indicates that men headed households dominate agriculture in Tanzania. In the 2022/23 agricultural year, 72.9 percent of agricultural households were headed by men, while 27.1 percent were headed by women. By 2023/24, the proportion of men-headed households had increased slightly to 75.7 percent, while women-headed households had declined to 24.3 percent.



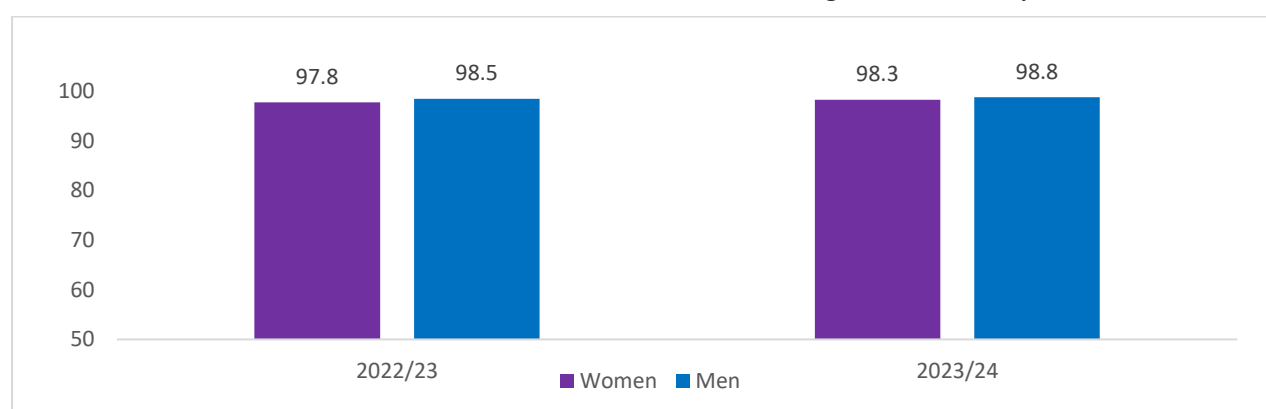
Table 0.1 Percentage Distribution of Agricultural Households by Sex of Household Head; Tanzania Mainland, 2022/23 and 2023/24 Annual Agricultural Sample Surveys

Sex	2022/2023		2023/2024	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Women	2,388,421	27.1	2,140,424	24.3
Men	6,423,840	72.9	6,681,176	75.7

Source: NBS, Annual Agricultural Sample Survey 2022/2023 and 2023-24 – National Reports,

Almost all households (97.8% of women-headed households and 98.5% of men-headed households) engaged in agricultural production in 2022/23 practiced crop production. In 2023/24, participation increased slightly to 98.8 percent for men headed households and 98.3 percent for women headed households (Figure 8.1).

Figure 0.1 Percentage of Agriculture Households Engaged in Crop Production by Sex of Household Head; Tanzania Mainland, 2022/23 and 2023/24 Annual Agricultural Surveys,

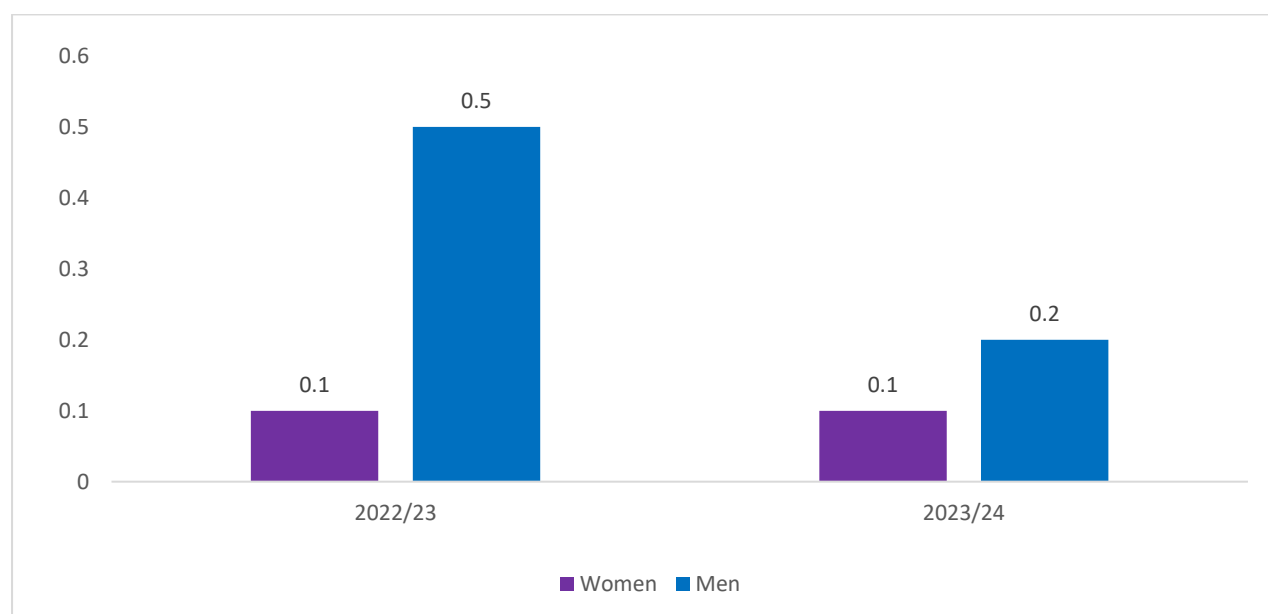


8.2 Households Engaged in Aquaculture

Figure 8.2 indicates that in Tanzania Mainland, aquaculture participation among agricultural households is very low for both men- and women-headed households. In 2022/23, only 0.5 percent of men-headed households and 0.1 percent of women-headed households were engaged in aquaculture. In 2023/24, participation declined further to 0.2 percent of men-headed households but remained unchanged at 0.1 percent for women-headed households.



Figure 0.2 Percentage of Agriculture Households Engaged in Aquaculture Farming by Sex of Household Head; Tanzania Mainland, 2022/23 and 2023/24 Agricultural Surveys



8.3 Households Engaged in Rearing of Livestock

In the 2022/23 agricultural year, 62.9 percent of men-headed households reared livestock, compared with 54.3 percent of women-headed households. By 2023/24, the proportion of households rearing livestock had decreased to 60.0 percent among men-headed households and 48.6 percent among women-headed households (Figure 8.3).

Figure 0.3 Percentage of Agricultural Households Engaged in Livestock Rearing by Sex of Household Head; Tanzania Mainland, 2022/23 and 2023/24 Annual Agricultural Surveys

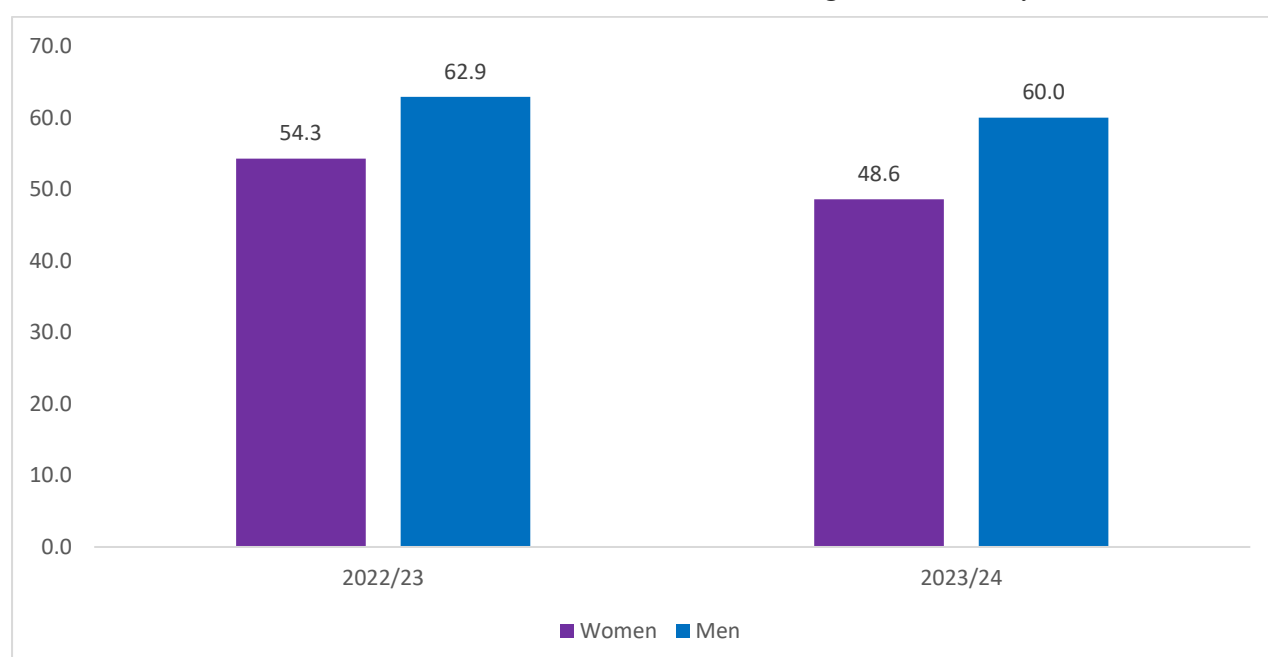


Figure 8.4 results depict that agriculture remains the main source of employment in Tanzania Mainland, engaging 62.6% of the employed population. Women are more likely to be involved in agriculture (64.2%) than men (61.0%), indicating a higher dependency of women on the sector for livelihood.

Figure 0.4 Percentage of Employed Population Aged 15 Years and Above Engaged in Agriculture by Sex; Tanzania Mainland, 2022 PHC

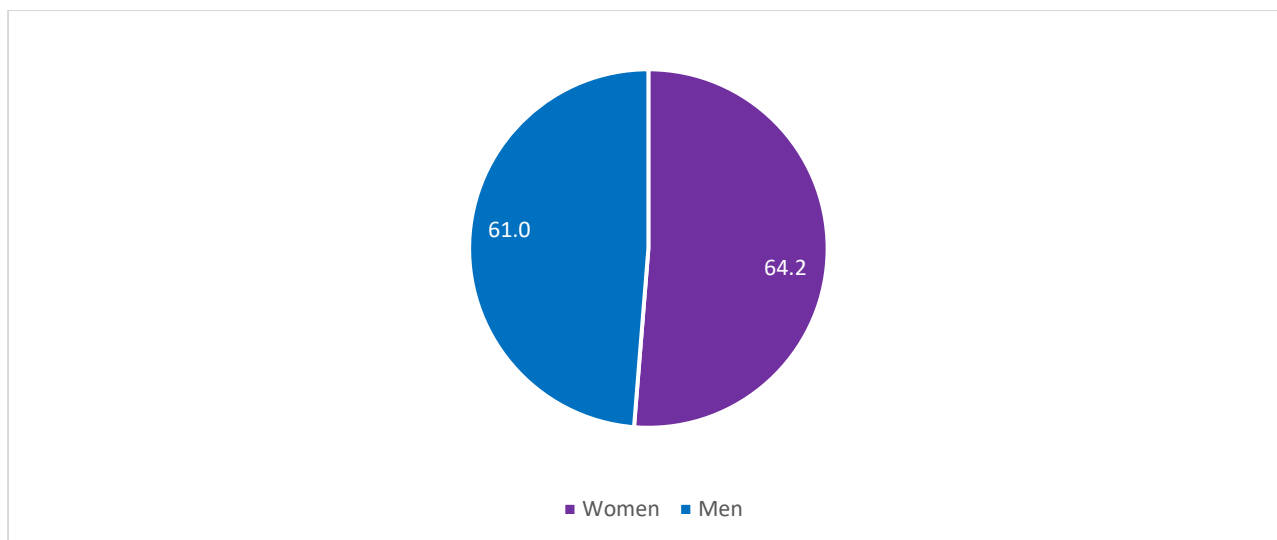
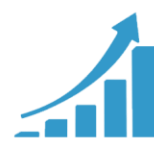
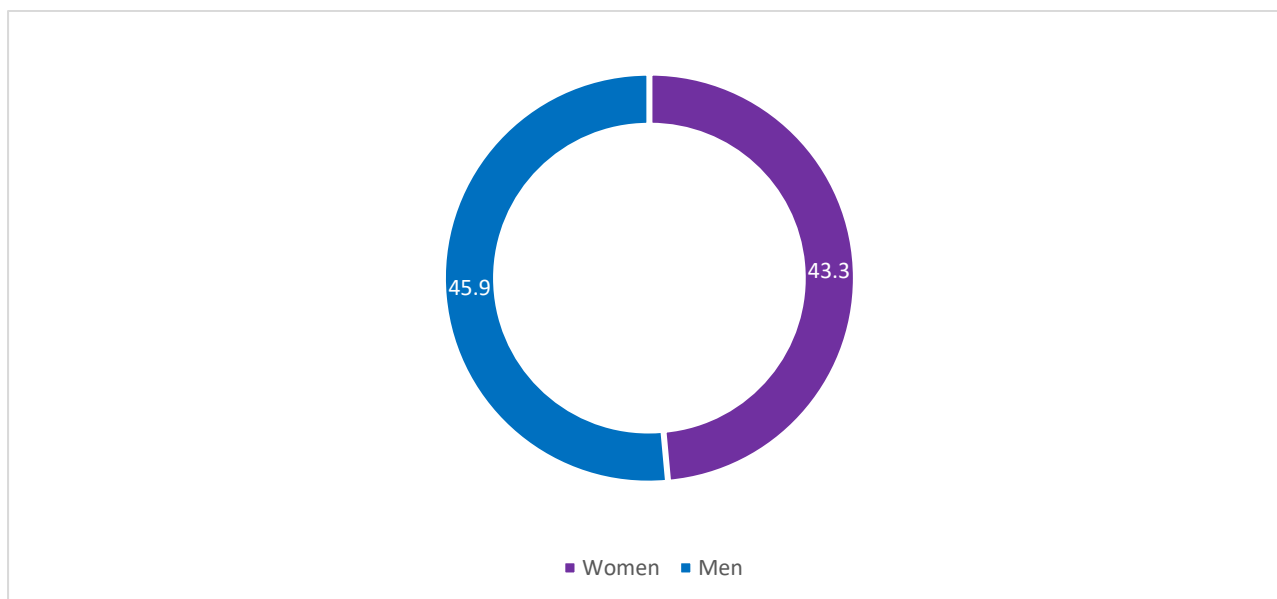


Figure 8.5 presents the percentage of the employed population aged 15 years and above working of their own farm by sex. The results show that in 2022 men are more likely (45.9%) to operated their own farms than women (43.3%).

Figure 0.5 Percentage of Employed Population Aged 15 Years and Above Working in Their Own Farms by Sex; Tanzania Mainland, 2022 PHC



CHAPTER NINE

INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY (ICT)



CHAPTER NINE

INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY (ICT)

9.0 Introduction

Tanzania is operating within an increasingly dynamic global knowledge-based economy in which science, technology and innovation play a central role in driving productivity, efficiency and economic growth. Digital and emerging technologies are transforming economic structures, governance systems and service delivery models, reshaping how societies produce, communicate and access opportunities. This transformation highlights the growing relevance of gender considerations in shaping equitable access to digital opportunities.

In Tanzania, the use of ICT has increased steadily over time, with several gender-disaggregated indicators showing broadly comparable levels of access between women and men, particularly in relation to ownership of digital devices and access to the internet across age groups. This expansion across education, commerce, business activities and communication underscores the role of ICT as a key enabler of more equal access to opportunities for both women and men.

These developments align with Tanzania's long-term development aspirations as articulated in Vision 2050, which seeks to transform the country into a technologically empowered, resilient and inclusive nation capable of driving sustainable growth, enhancing human development and promoting good governance. In this regard, Tanzania is strongly committed to gender equality, equity and the empowerment of women, youth, people with disabilities and older persons in line with the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG), particularly SDG 5 and SDG 9 which underscore the role of ICT in expanding inclusive access to opportunities, reducing structural inequalities, and enabling participation in the digital economy.

The patterns of ICT access and use presented in the tables and figures below indicate a high degree of gender parity, which provides a promising foundation for advancing inclusive digital development in the future.

9.1 Ownership and Use of ICT Equipment

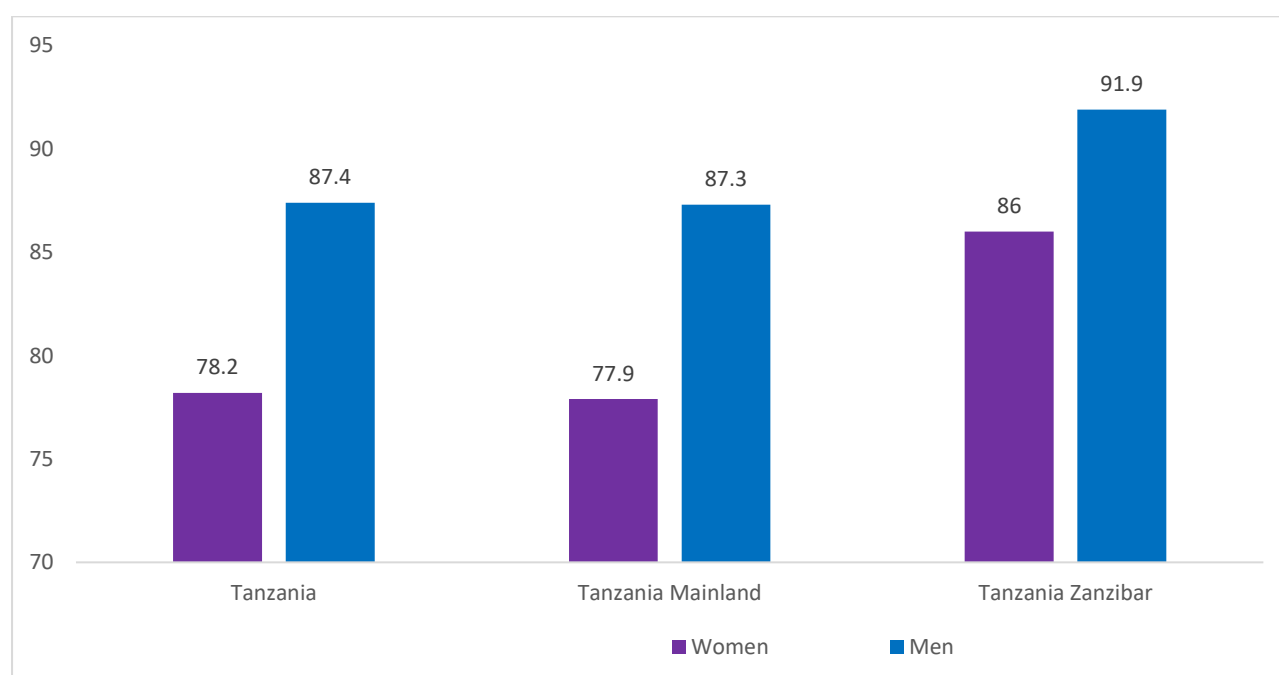
ICT ownership and use highlights persistent inequalities in access to and utilization of digital technologies. Generally, men are more likely than women to own and use devices such as mobile phones, computers and the internet for productive and economic purposes (i.e, on line business, banking, job search) while women may use it for communication. Women especially



in rural settings often face barriers such as lower income, limited digital skills and restrictive social norms which reduce both ownership and effective use of ICT.

In Tanzania ownership of ICT equipment (radio, landline phone, mobile phone and television) is higher among men-headed households than women headed household (Figure 9.1).

Figure 9.1 Percentage of Households Owning ICT Equipment by Type of Equipment and Headship; Tanzania, 2022 PHC



9.1.1 Ownership of Mobile Phone

Mobile phone ownership is an important indicator in gender analysis because it reflects access to technology, information, and economic opportunities. Mobile phone ownership from a gender perspective reveals persistent inequalities in access to digital technology, with women generally less likely than men to own and effectively use mobile devices, particularly smartphones. This gap is driven by factors such as lower income, limited digital literacy, and socio-cultural norms that restrict women's access to resources. As a result, women are often excluded from critical services such as mobile banking, online education, and health information.

Figure 9.2 presents the percentage distribution of persons aged 15 years and above owning mobile phones by place of residence and sex in Tanzania. The 2022 PHC revealed that more than four-fifths (82.5%) of the Tanzanian population aged 15 years and above own mobile phones. Men are more likely (87.4%) to own mobile phones than women (78.2%). Similar



patterns are observed in Tanzania Mainland (87.3% for men and 77.9% for women) and Tanzania Zanzibar (91.9% for men and 86.0% for women). Proportions of men and women owning mobile phones are higher in Tanzania Zanzibar than in Tanzania Mainland. In Tanzania, where mobile phones are key tools for financial inclusion and communication, the disparity in mobile phone ownership between men and women limits women's economic empowerment and participation in the digital economy. Addressing the mobile gender gap is therefore essential for promoting gender equality, improving livelihoods, and supporting inclusive development.

Figure 9.2 Percentage of Persons Aged 15 Years and Above Owning Mobile Phones by Sex; Tanzania, 2022 PHC

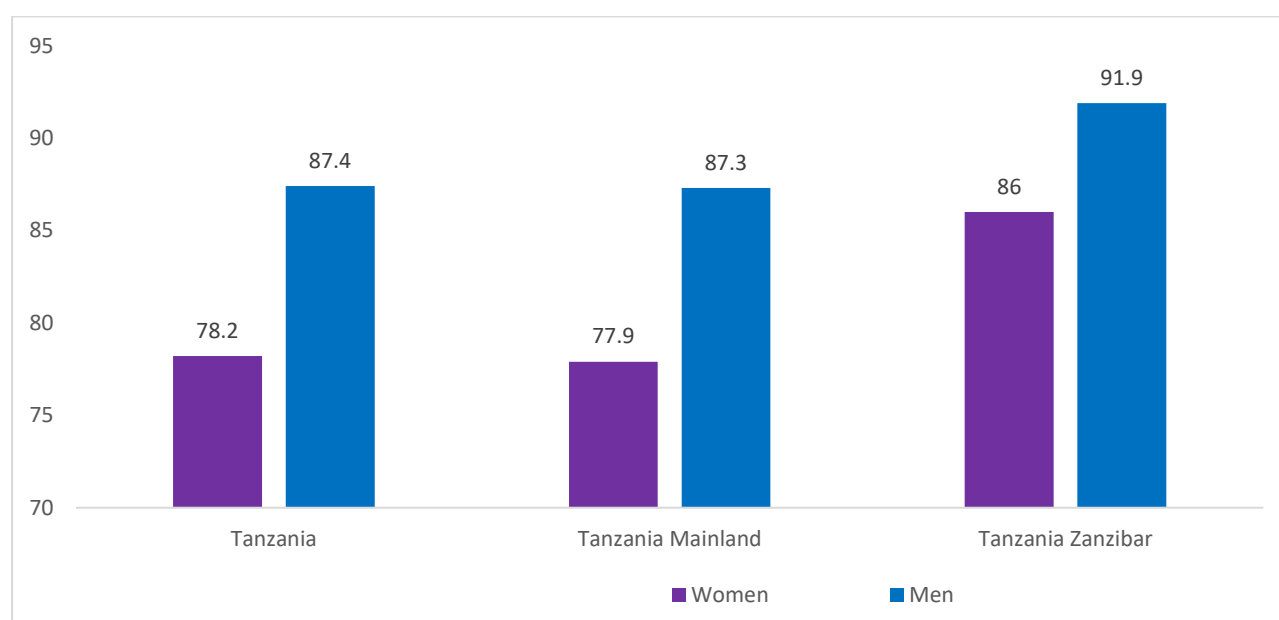


Table 9.1 presents the percentage of Tanzanian population aged 15 years and above owning mobile phones by sex, place of residence and region in 2022. Ownership of mobile phones differs between rural and urban areas with urban areas having higher ownership rates than rural areas. In both rural and urban areas and across all regions, men have persistently higher proportions of mobile phone ownership than women. The largest gender gap in mobile phone ownership for persons aged 15 years and above is observed in the Rukwa Region (a gap of 19.8 percentage points), followed by the Katavi (17.7 percentage points) and the Tabora (a gap of 15.4 percentage points) regions. Regions with relatively small mobile phone gender gaps are Dar es Salaam (with a gap of 1.9 percentage points), Kilimanjaro (with a gap of 2.0 percentage points), Mjini Magharibi (with a gap of 2.9 percentage points) and Arusha (with a gap of 3.7 percentage points).



Table 0.1 Percentage of Population Aged 15 Years and Above Owning Mobile Phones by Sex, Place of Residence and Regions; Tanzania, 2022 PHC

Region	Number of Persons			Percent			Gender Gap
	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female	
Tanzania	34,475,324	16,285,772	18,189,552	82.5	87.4	78.2	9.2
Rural	21,291,058	10,140,173	11,150,885	78.1	84.8	72.0	12.8
Urban	13,184,266	6,145,599	7,038,667	89.7	91.7	87.9	3.8
Tanzania Mainland	33,389,842	15,778,198	17,611,644	82.3	87.3	77.9	9.4
Rural	20,765,719	9,892,223	10,873,496	77.9	84.7	71.8	12.9
Urban	12,624,123	5,885,975	6,738,148	89.6	91.6	87.8	3.8
Dodoma	1,752,814	839,444	913,370	81.9	87.8	76.5	11.3
Arusha	1,357,602	621,326	736,276	88.4	90.5	86.8	3.7
Kilimanjaro	1,183,637	560,994	622,643	89.4	90.4	88.4	2.0
Tanga	1,492,654	702,417	790,237	84.0	88.1	80.4	7.3
Morogoro	1,878,981	911,183	967,798	82.5	88.1	77.2	7.7
Pwani	1,221,650	584,431	637,219	87.2	90.3	84.3	6.0
Dar es Salaam	3,629,802	1,723,508	1,906,294	94.0	95.0	93.1	1.9
Lindi	752,005	357,829	394,176	80.3	86.9	74.3	12.6
Mtwara	1,047,289	481,716	565,573	78.2	86.2	71.3	14.9
Ruvuma	1,087,814	519,604	568,210	80.7	87.8	74.3	13.5
Iringa	709,617	331,587	378,030	85.2	88.5	82.3	6.2
Mbeya	1,367,262	632,740	734,522	86.4	90.1	83.2	6.9
Singida	1,048,606	510,333	538,273	78.8	84.7	73.2	11.5
Tabora	1,682,972	800,191	882,781	75.2	83.3	67.9	15.4
Rukwa	767,252	359,692	407,560	72.1	82.6	62.8	19.8
Kigoma	1,151,439	526,836	624,603	77.4	84.8	71.1	13.7
Shinyanga	1,173,044	563,149	609,895	76.6	83.5	70.2	13.3
Kagera	1,601,205	762,007	839,198	77.6	84.7	71.1	13.6
Mwanza	1,979,253	932,268	1,046,985	81.6	85.3	78.3	7.0
Mara	1,209,964	552,109	657,855	78.3	81.8	75.3	6.5
Manyara	1,004,101	498,435	505,666	82.2	85.8	78.6	7.2
Njombe	537,780	244,418	293,362	85.2	88.6	82.3	6.3
Katavi	562,111	273,095	289,016	75.3	84.4	66.7	17.7
Simiyu	996,485	452,587	543,898	75.4	81.9	69.9	12.0
Geita	1,468,756	704,343	764,413	77.6	83.3	72.4	10.9
Songwe	725,747	331,956	393,791	82.3	88.9	76.7	12.2
Tanzania Zanzibar	1,085,482	507,574	577,908	88.8	91.9	86.0	5.9
Rural	525,339	247,950	277,389	85.8	90.5	81.6	8.9
Urban	560,143	259,624	300,519	91.6	93.3	90.2	3.1
Kaskazini Unguja	146,000	69,728	76,272	86.1	91.4	81.3	10.1
Kusini Unguja	113,469	55,420	58,049	91.8	94.7	89.1	5.6
Mjini Magharibi	545,327	254,467	290,860	92.2	93.7	90.8	2.9
Kaskazini Pemba	140,219	63,972	76,247	81.8	87.2	77.3	9.9
Kusini Pemba	140,467	63,987	76,480	83.0	87.6	79.2	8.4

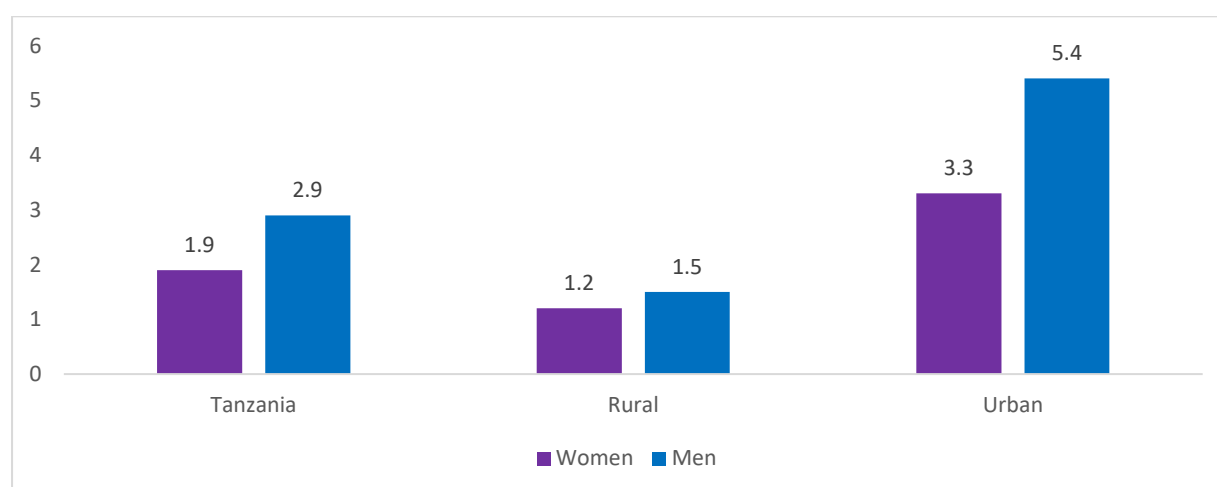


9.1.2 Ownership of Computers

Ownership and use of computers vary significantly by age, sex, and place of residence, with younger, urban, and men populations more likely to own and use computers compared to older, rural, and women counterparts. These disparities have important policy implications. Governments and stakeholders must implement inclusive digital policies that target underserved groups through investments in rural ICT infrastructure, gender-responsive programs, and age-appropriate digital literacy training.

Ownership of computers typically varies significantly between rural and urban areas, driven by factors like income, electricity access, education levels, and digital infrastructure. Figure 9.3 show that overall 1.9 percent of women and 2.9 percent of men aged four years and above own computers. In both rural and urban areas ownership of computers among men outnumber that of women by a significant margin man reflecting gender disparities.

Figure 9.3 Percentage of Population Aged Four Years and Above Owning Computers by Sex and Place of Residence; Tanzania, 2022 PHC



9.2 Use of Mobile Phones

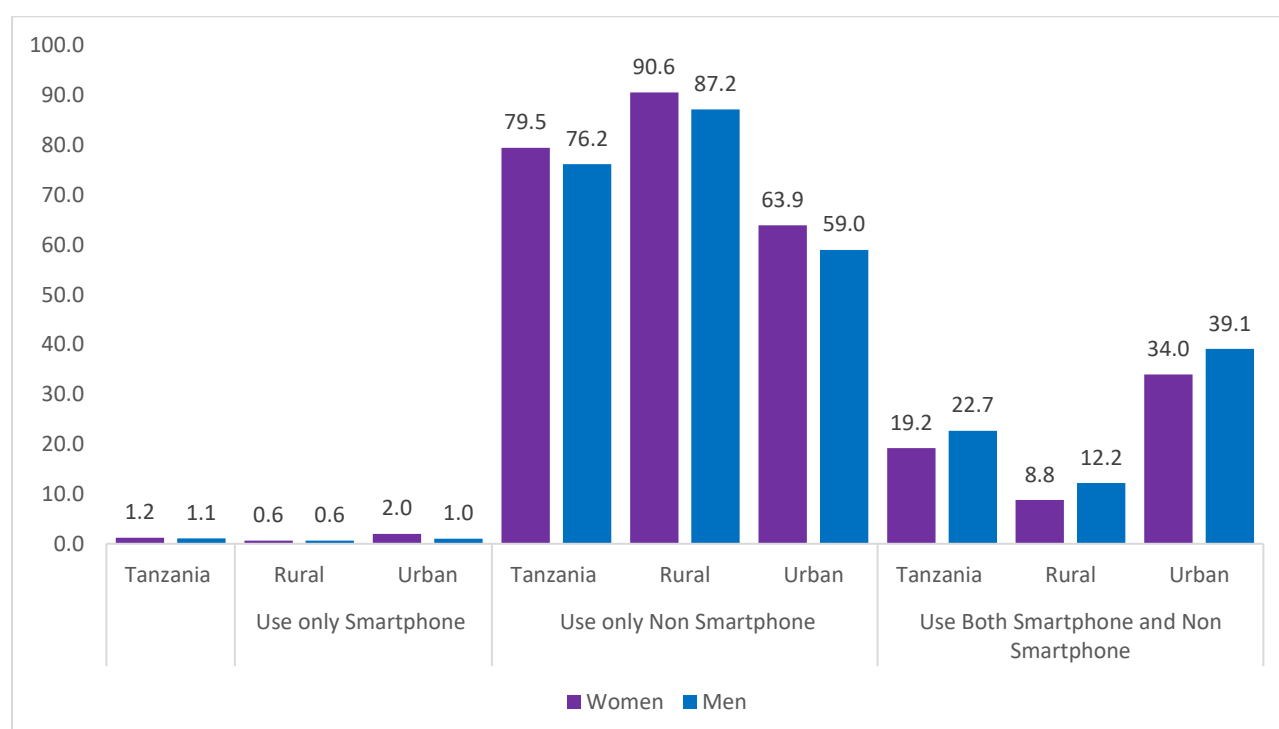
Use of mobile phones enables communication, access to information, financial services, education, and social interaction. Individuals use mobile phones for various purposes such as making calls, sending messages, browsing the internet, using social media, mobile banking, and accessing Government or health services.



Mobile phone use differs by phone type, sex, and place of residence. Use of smartphones is generally higher in urban areas than in rural areas and among males than females, whereas non-smart phones are more common in rural areas and among males. These differences reflect variations in income, education, and access to technology (Pew Research Center, 2023).

The 2022 PHC results reveal clear disparities in mobile phone use across different population groups. Non-smartphone usage in both rural and urban areas is higher among women (90.6% and 63.9% respectively) than among men (87.2% and 59.0% respectively). Conversely, In urban areas, women are more likely to use smart phones (2.0%) compared with men (1.0%) (Figure 9.4). These differences highlight significant gaps in digital access, emphasizing the need for targeted policies to promote mobile technology use among rural populations and females.

Figure 9.4 Percentage of Individuals Aged Four Years and Above Using Mobile Phones by Type, Sex and Place of Residence; Tanzania, 2022 PHC



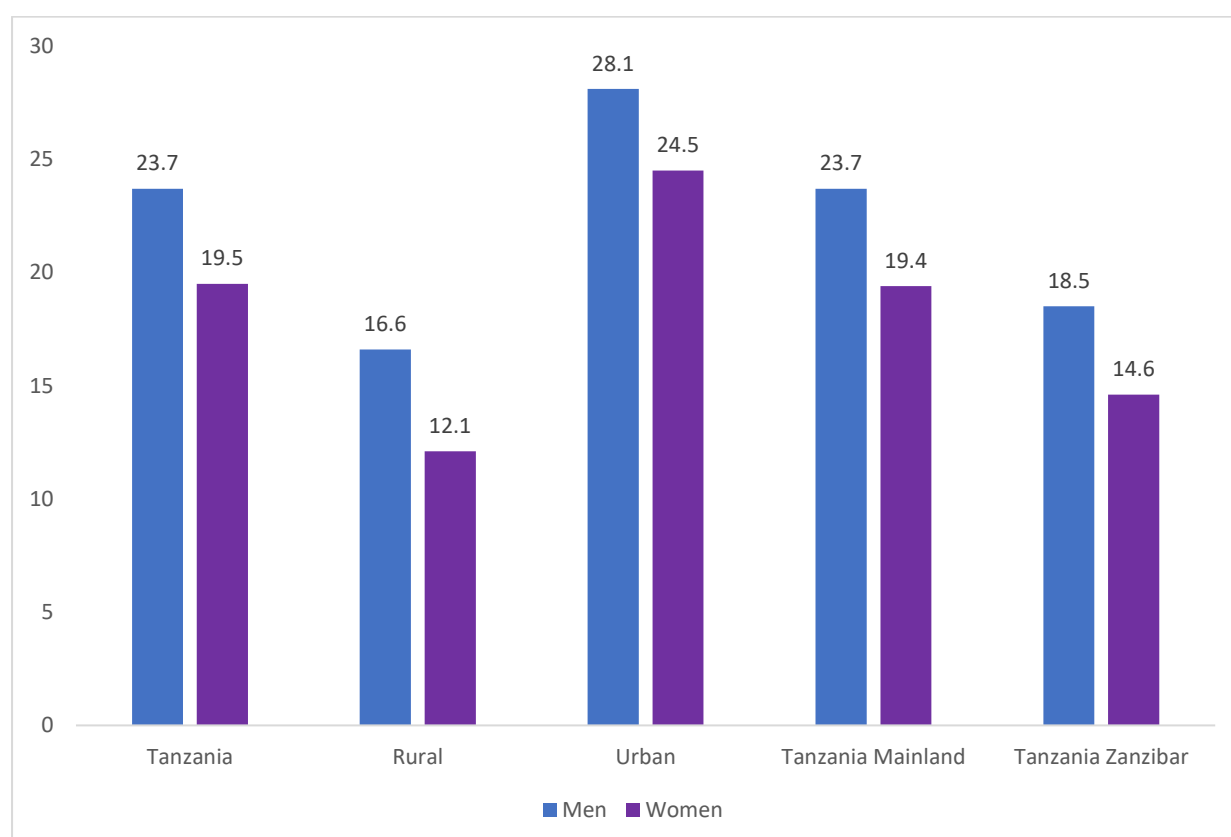
9.2.1 Use of computers

At the individual level, computer use plays a crucial role in daily life across various domains. People use computers for education, work, communication, entertainment, financial management, health tracking, shopping, creative work, personal organization and social participation.



Figure 9.5 indicates that use of computers among individuals aged four years and above is higher (23.7%) among men than among women (19.5%) both in rural and urban areas. Use of computers is also higher in urban areas than in rural areas with men outnumbering women in both areas.

Figure 9.5 Percentage of Individuals Aged Four Years and Above Using Computers by Sex and Place of Residence; Tanzania, 2022 PHC



9.2.2 Internet Use Pyramid

The internet use pyramid illustrates different levels of digital access and engagement within a population. At the base are non-users with no internet access, followed by basic users who engage in limited activities such as messaging or social media and at the top are advanced users who utilize the internet for productive purposes like business and digital services. Women are more concentrated at lower levels due to barriers such as cost, limited digital skills and social norms, while men are more represented among advanced users (Figure 9.6). This highlights the digital services not only about access but also about the quality and extent of internet use reinforcing broader socio-economic inequalities.



Figure 9.6 Internet Use Pyramid; Tanzania, 2022 PHC

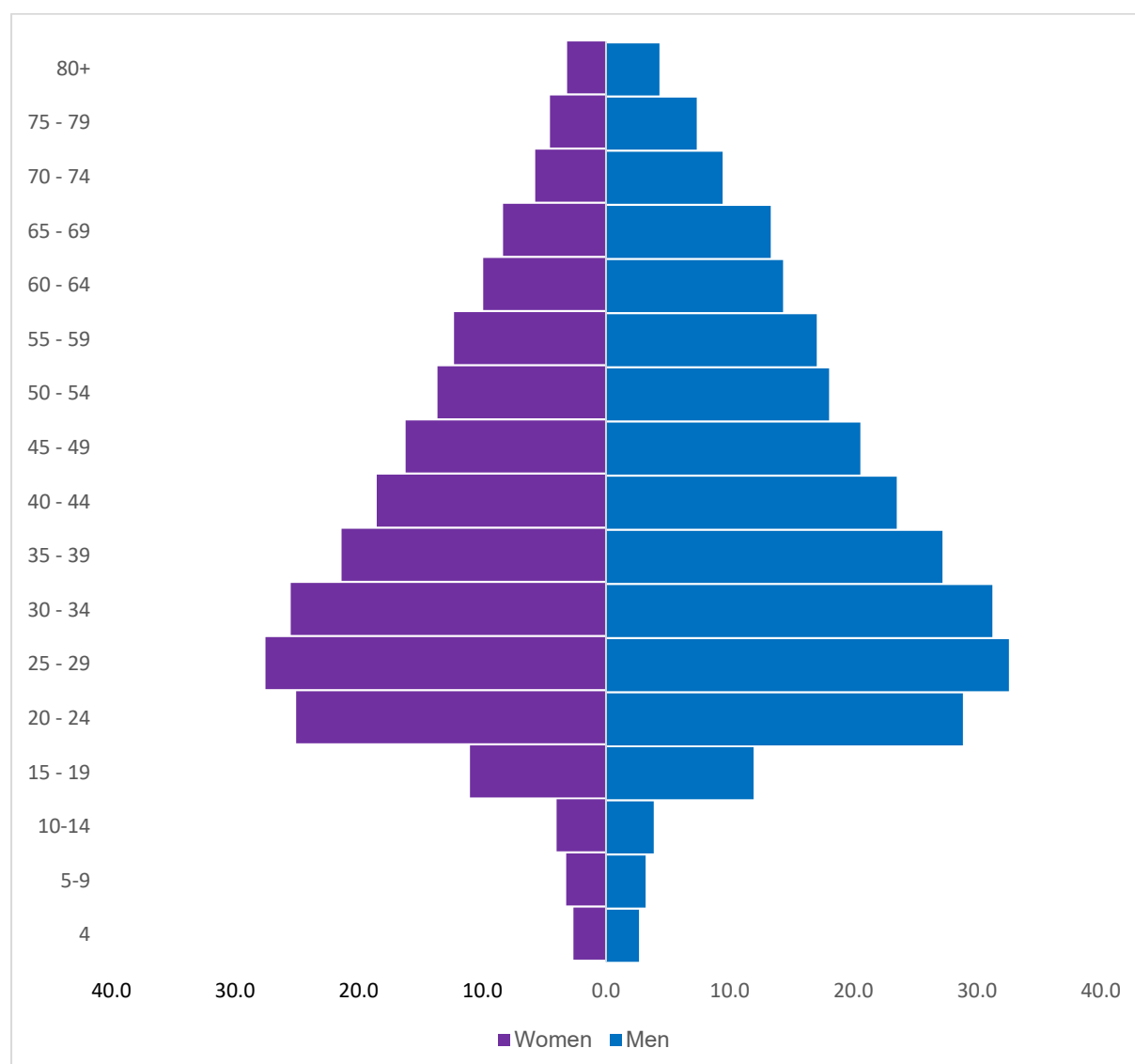
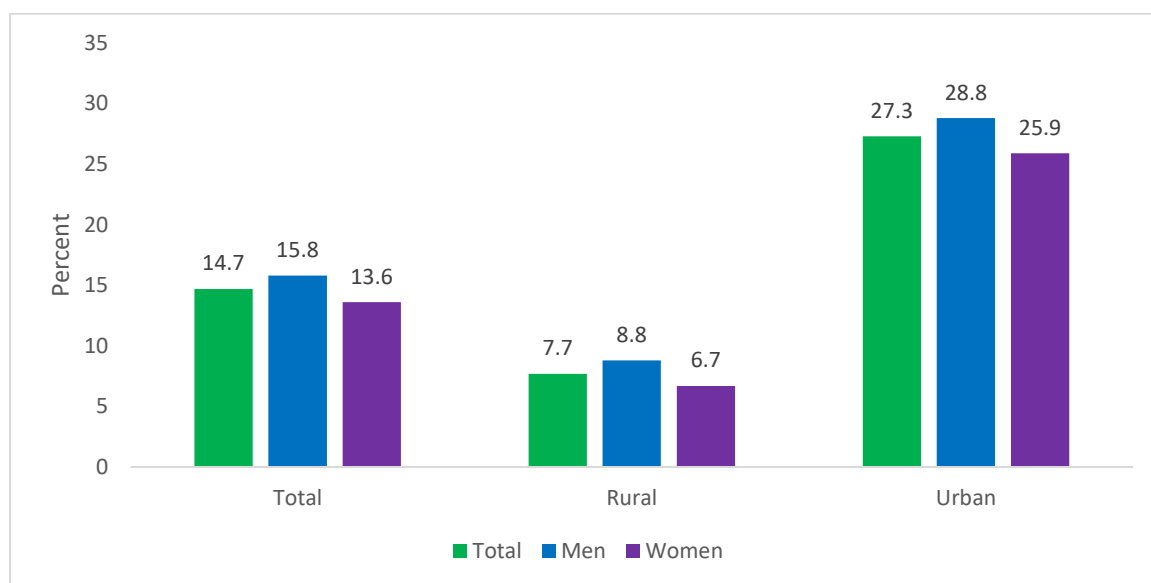


Figure 9.7 present the differences in internet usage between various demographic groups and area. According to the 2022 Population and Housing Census results, 14.7 percent of individuals aged four years and above in Tanzania use internet, with higher among males (15.8%) compared with females (13.6%). Internet usage in urban areas is more than three times (27.3%) than of rural areas (7.7%).



Figure 9. 7: Percentage of Persons Aged Four Years and Above Using Internet by Sex; Tanzania, 2022 PHC



CHAPTER TEN

PROPERTY RIGHTS AND ASSETS OWNERSHIP



CHAPTER TEN

PROPERTY RIGHTS AND ASSETS OWNERSHIP

10.0 Introduction

Property rights and asset ownership together define the framework of economic control and security of women and men. Property rights are the legal rules that determine how individuals or organizations can use, manage, and transfer property, while asset ownership refers to the actual possession and control of resources, whether physical (such as land, housing, and livestock), or financial (such as bank accounts and shares). In essence, property rights establish the legal authority to claim and protect assets, and asset ownership represents the practical reality of holding and benefiting from those resources.

10.1 Property Rights and Assets Ownership for Women in Tanzania

Tanzania continues to advance in ensuring equal protection of property rights for all citizens, regardless of gender. Its achievements, aligned with SDG Goal 5 on Gender Equality and SDG Goal 10 on Reduced Inequalities, include the ratification of key international and regional instruments, which are outlined in the matrix below.

Legal Instrument	Article/Section	Provision Supporting Property Rights
Constitution (1977)	Article 13	Equality before the law
Constitution (1977)	Article 24	Right to own property and protection against deprivation
Land Act No. 4 (1999)	Section 3	Equal rights to acquire, hold, and use land
Village Land Act No. 5 (1999)	Section 3(2)	Customary law must not discriminate against women
Village Land Act No. 5 (1999)	Section 20	Women's participation in land councils
Law of Marriage Act (1971)	Various sections	Rights to matrimonial property

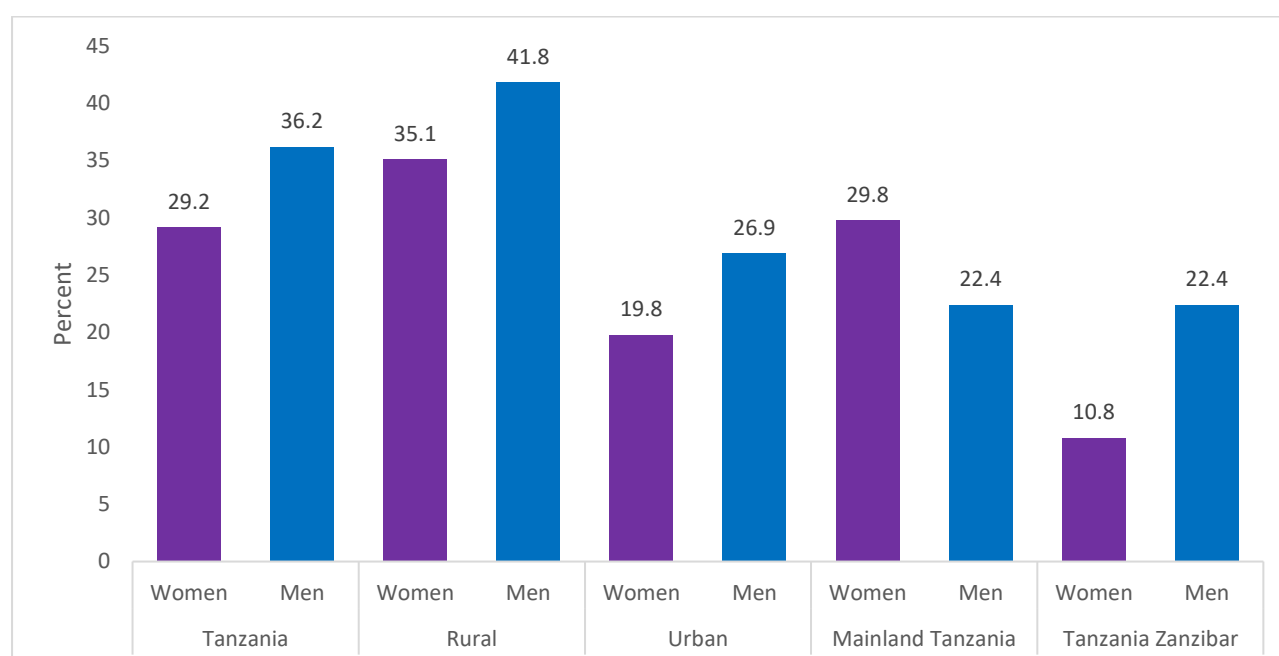
Source: *Land Act No. 4 of 1999*



10.2 Land Ownership

Land ownership refers to who actually controls or claims over land. Land ownership status is categorised based on the population in the private households owning land alone; jointly; both alone and jointly; or do not own land. Figure 10.1 presents the percentage of Tanzanians aged 15 years and above owning land by sex and place of residence. The figure indicates that men are more likely (36.2%) to own land than women (29.2%). The likelihood of owning land is higher in rural areas than in urban areas with men consistently outnumbering women. Similar patterns are observed in Tanzania Mainland and in Tanzania Zanzibar.

Figure 0.1 Percentage of Persons Aged 15 Years and Above Owning Land by Sex and Place of Residence: Tanzania, 2022 PHC



Source: 2022 PHC

10.3 Ownership of Land Right Documents

Land rights documents (i.e., title deeds, certificates of occupancy, or customary land certificates) transform land ownership from a social or informal claim into a legally protected right. In many contexts, women may use or access land but lack formal documentation in their names.

In Tanzania, most households have customary type of ownership (33.8% of women-headed households and 33.6% of men-headed households) as legal rights documents to the land where their main dwellings are built. Women-headed households are more likely (12.9%) to have title



deeds than men-headed households (11.8%). They are also more likely to have acknowledgement letters and customary type of ownership documents than men-headed households (Table 10.1).

However, the high percentage of households with no legal rights to the land where their main dwellings are built calls for targeted policy interventions to promote possession of legal rights documents over the land where the household's main dwelling is built. This will help in strengthening ownership rights and improving both women and men's access to land documentation (e.g., joint titling, legal reforms, awareness) which is essential for achieving gender equality in land ownership.

Table 0.2 Number of Men and Women Headed Households by Type of Legal Right Document Possessed over the Land where the Main House is Built; Tanzania, 2022 PHC

Type of Legal Right	Tanzania		Tanzania Mainland		Tanzania Zanzibar	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Number of Households	3,282,771	5,916,437	3,200,536	5,730,443	82,235	185,994
Title deed	12.9	11.8	12.4	11.2	34.3	32.8
Residential License	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9	0.7	0.9
Letter of offer or acknowledgement of payment	3.7	3.8	3.7	3.8	3.0	3.4
Customary ownership	33.8	33.6	34.2	34.2	16.7	16.4
Contract	3.6	3.9	3.6	3.9	2.7	3.2
Land Registration Card (Zanzibar)	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.7	0.8
Official document from Mtaa/Kijiji/Shehia	12.4	13.0	12.5	13.2	7.3	8.3
No legal right	31.7	31.9	31.6	31.8	34.5	34.2

10.4 Ownership of Household Assets

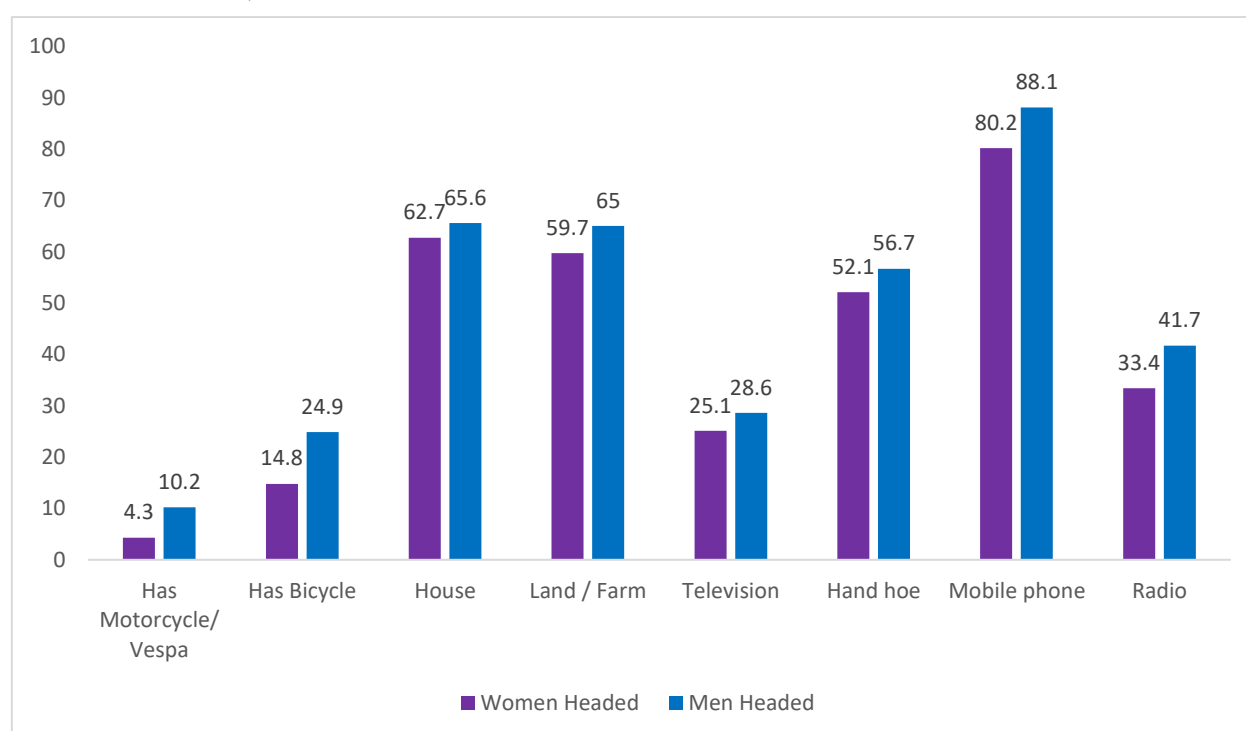
Ownership of household assets refers to possession of any personal property regardless of the purpose it serves. It is a key indicator of economic security and social wellbeing. It reflects the distribution of resources within families and communities, highlighting disparities across



gender, age, and locality. Monitoring asset ownership contributes to understanding progress toward development priorities, particularly SDG Goal 1 (No Poverty) and SDG Goal 10 (Reduced Inequalities), which emphasize equitable access to resources and opportunities for all.

In the 2022 PHC, any asset owned by any member of the household was treated as a household asset. The data shows that the most common assets owned by both men-headed and women-headed households are mobile phones, houses and land/farm. The data also reveal that men-headed households control ownership of all selected assets including the more and higher-value assets, while women-headed households tend to have fewer resources, reflecting broader gender inequalities in access to property, finance, and economic opportunities (Figure 10.2).

Figure 0.2 Percentage of Women and Men Headed Households Owning Selected Assets by Type of Asset; Tanzania, 2022 PHC



Source: 2022 PHC



CHAPTER ELEVEN

GENDER BASED VIOLENCE



CHAPTER ELEVEN

GENDER BASED VIOLENCE

11.0 Introduction

Gender Based Violence (GBV) can take many forms, including physical, sexual, psychological, and economic violence. Examples include domestic violence, sexual assault and rape, harmful traditional practices, emotional abuse, denial of resources or opportunities, and coercive control. GBV may occur in private spaces such as homes, as well as in public settings, workplaces, schools, and online environments.

The consequences of GBV are severe and far reaching. Survivors may suffer physical injuries, mental health challenges, social exclusion, and economic hardship. At a broader level, GBV undermines human rights, public health, social cohesion, and sustainable development.

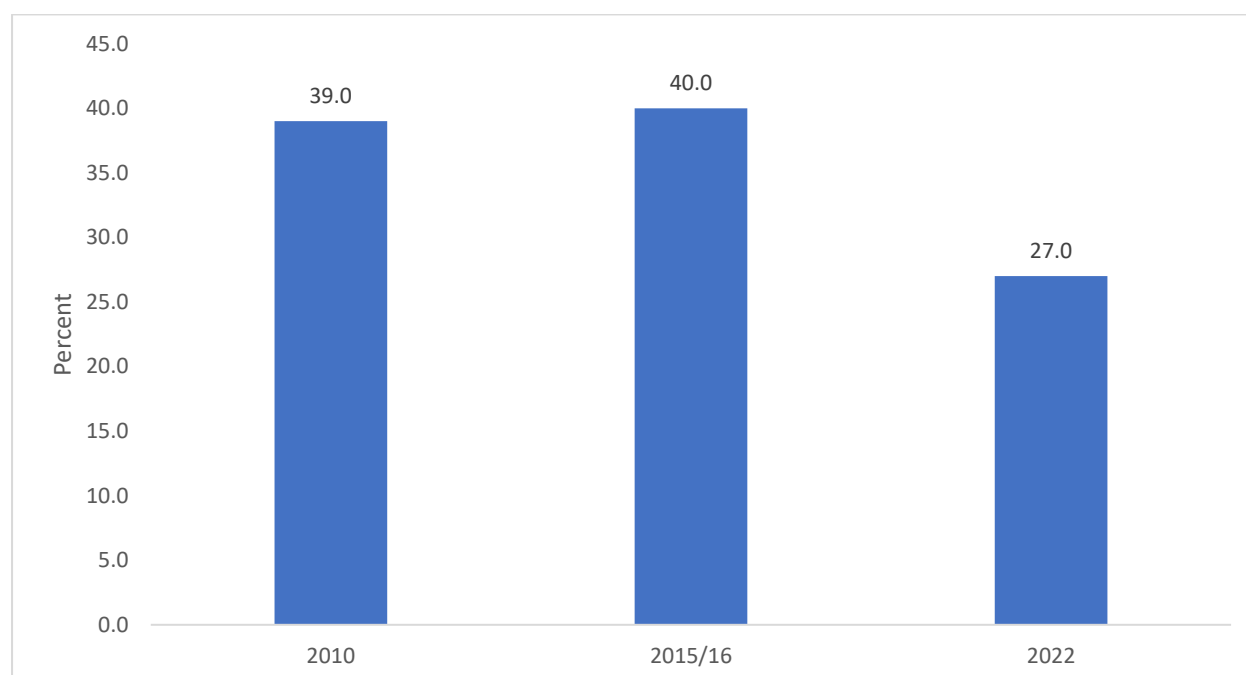
11.1 Gender Based Violence by Age

Analysis of Gender Based Violence (GBV) in relation to age helps reveal how risks, forms of violence, and impacts vary across the life cycle. Age is a critical factor because exposure, vulnerability, and consequences of GBV are not the same for children, adolescents, adults, and older persons. GBV risks and forms change across age groups, young girls face higher risks of sexual violence and harmful practices, adults experience more intimate partner violence, and older individuals face neglect and economic abuse. A life cycle approach is essential for effective gender analysis and intervention.

Figure 11.1 presents trends in the percentage of women age 15-49 that have ever experienced physical violence since age 15. The figure shows that between 2010 and 2015/16 the GBV prevalence remained almost unchanged (39.0% to 40.0%), indicating that little progress was made in reducing violence during that period. This could reflect persistent social norms, weak enforcement of laws, or increased willingness to report cases. However, between 2015/16 and 2022, there is a significant decline from 40.0 percent to 27.0 percent, suggesting a substantial reduction in reported violence, which may be linked to stronger interventions such as awareness campaigns, legal reforms, improved support services or prevention programs.



Figure 0.1 Percentage of Women Aged 15-49 who have Ever Experienced Physical Violence since Age 15; 2010, 2015/16 and 2022 TDHSs



Source: TDHS (2010, 2015/16 and 2022)

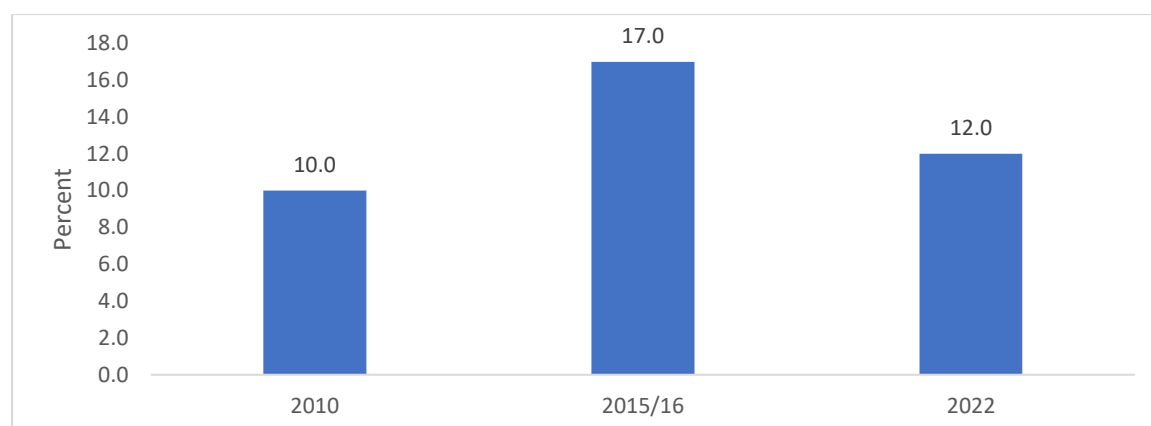
11.1.1 Sexual Violence

Figure 11.2 presents the percentage of women aged 15-49 years who have ever experience sexual violence. The data shows that between 2010 and 2015/16 sexual violence prevalence among women increased from 10.0 percent in 2010 to 17.0 percent in 2015/16 and thereafter decreased to 12.0 percent in 2022.

The increased prevalence from 10.0 percent in 2010 to 17.0 percent in 2015/16 may be attributed to either a real rise in incidents, improved reporting, or both. This period may reflect growing awareness, reduced stigma, or strengthened data collection systems, which often lead to more women coming forward to report experiences of violence. An increase in reported sexual violence against women implying changes in reporting behaviour. The sharp decline from 17.0 percent in 2015/16 to 12.0 percent in 2022 indicates a positive shift. This could point to the impact of interventions such as stronger laws, prevention programs, community awareness campaigns, and support services for survivors. It may also reflect changing social norms that discourage gender-based violence.



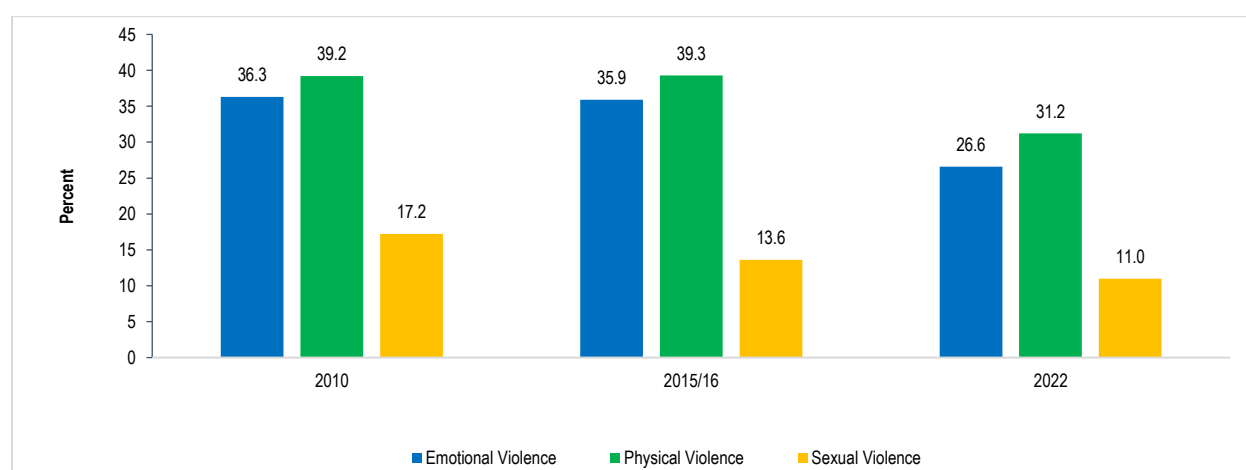
Figure 0.2 Percentage of Women Age 15-49 who have ever Experienced Sexual Violence; Tanzania, TDHS 2010, 2015/16 and 2022



Source: TDHS (2010, 2015/16 and 2022)

The most prevalent form of violence committed by husbands/partners is physical violence reported by 31.2 percent of women aged 15-49 followed by emotional violence (26.6%) and sexual violence (11.0%). Between 2010 and 2015/16 the physical and emotional violence prevalence did not change (36% for emotional violence and 39% for physical violence each), but prevalence for sexual violence decreased from 17.2 percent in 2010 to 11.0 percent in 2022 (Figure 11.3).

Figure 0.3 Percentage of Women Age 15-49 who Experienced Violence by Type of Violence Tanzania, 2022 TDHS-MIS



Source: TDHS (2010, 2015/16 and 2022)

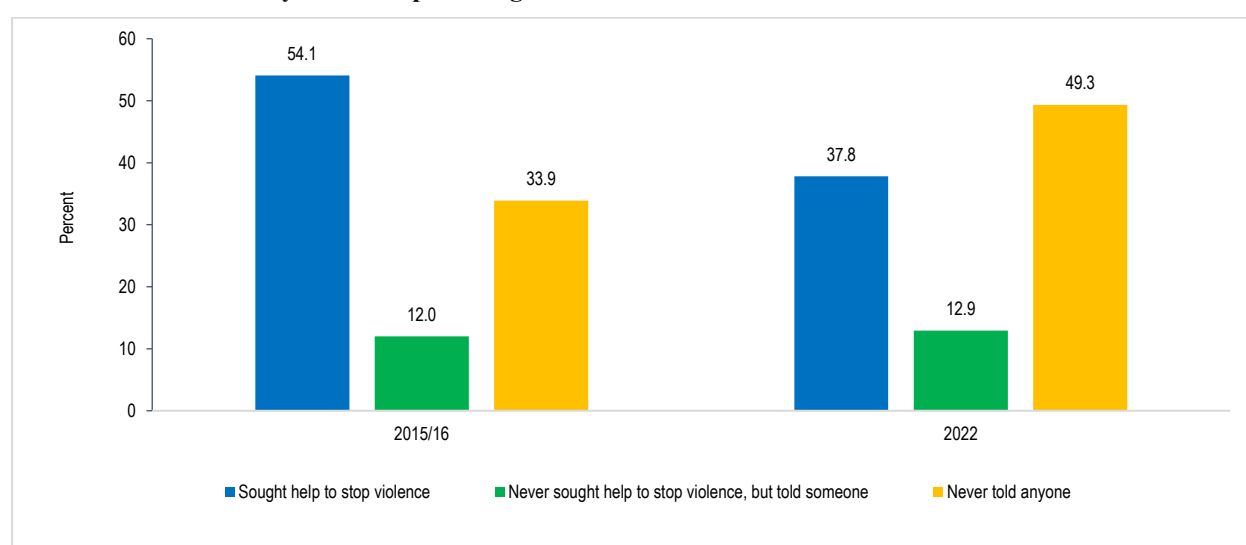
The percentage of women aged 15-49 years who have ever experienced physical or sexual violence and decided to seek help decreased from 54.1 percent in 2015/16 to 37.8 percent in 2022 whereas the percentage of those who never told anyone increased from 33.9 percent in



2015/16 to 49.3 percent in 2022. The percentage of those who never sought help but told someone remained almost unchanged (Figure 11.4).

The drop in women who sought help (from 54.1% in 2015/16 to 37.8% in 2022) indicates that fewer survivors are accessing formal or informal support services. At the same time, the sharp rise in those who never told anyone (from 33.9% in 2015/16 to 49.3% in 2022) suggests increasing silence around violence. This is a concerning trend because it points to hidden violence, where survivors are more isolated and less supported.

Figure 0.4 Percentage of Women Aged 15-49 years who have Ever Experienced Physical or Sexual Violence by Their Help Seeking Behaviour



Source: TDHS (2015/16 and 2022)

11.2 Genital Cutting (FGC/M)

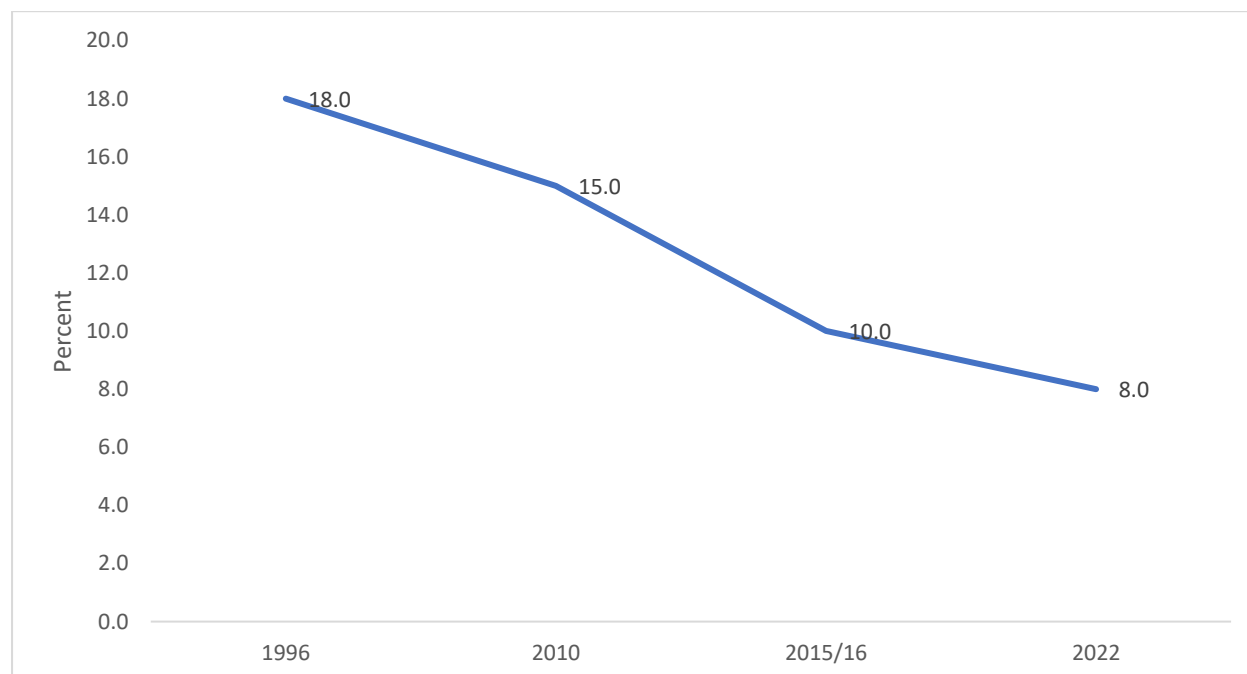
Female Genital Cutting (FGC/M) involves cutting some part of the clitoris or labia for non-therapeutic reasons, usually as part of a rite of passage into adolescence. The practice is widely acknowledged as a violation of children and women's rights, and it has the potential of causing serious medical complications. The Tanzanian Special Provision Act, a 1998 amendment to the penal code, specifically prohibits FGC/M (National Legislative Bodies, 1998). However, while the practice has been outlawed for almost two decades, it is still prevalent in many areas in Tanzania. FGC/M is considered compulsory in some communities, but in others it is optional.

Figure 11.5 indicates that the proportion of women who have undergone female genital mutilation decreased from 18.0 percent in 1996 to 8.0 percent in 2022. The downward trend is encouraging and reflects effective interventions, but continued, targeted efforts are needed to

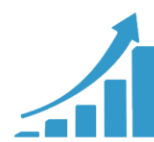


fully eradicate FGC/M, particularly by focusing on high-prevalence areas, strengthening enforcement of laws, and engaging communities to sustain behaviour change.

Figure 0.5 Proportion of Women Age 15-49 who have Undergone Female Genital Mutilation/cutting; 1996, 2010, 2015/16 and 2022 TDHSs



Source: TDHS (1996, 2010, 2015/16 and 2022)



CHAPTER TWELVE

DECISION MAKING



CHAPTER TWELVE DECISION MAKING

12.0 Introduction

Leadership positions in Tanzania, both in political and public service sectors, are critical indicators of gender equality and women's empowerment. This subsection presents data on the representation of women and men across various levels of leadership, including Members of Parliament, Cabinet positions, Judiciary, Local Government and Managerial level in public service roles.

12.2 Number of Cabinet Ministers by Sex

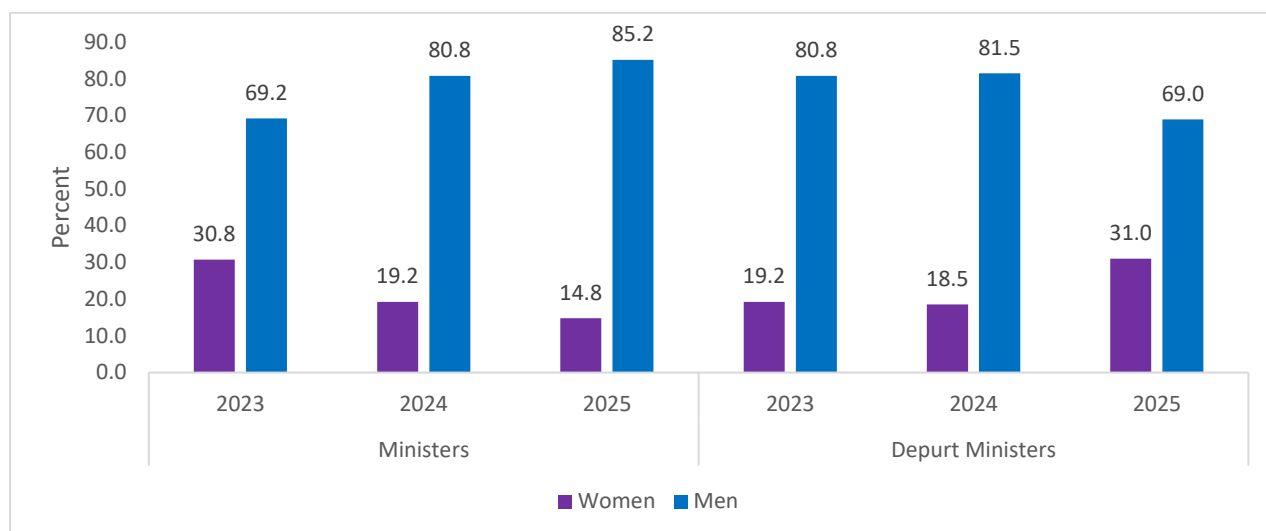
Figure 12.1 illustrates trends in the gender composition of Cabinet positions in Tanzania from 2023 to 2025, showing a persistent dominance of men alongside mixed progress for women. Among Ministers, women's representation declined steadily from 30.8 percent in 2023 to 14.8 percent in 2025, while men's share increased correspondingly from 69.2 percent to 85.2 percent, indicating a widening gender gap at the ministerial level.

In contrast, among Deputy Ministers, women's participation remained relatively stable increasing significantly from 19.2 percent in 2023 to 31.0 percent in 2025, reflecting notable improvement at this level. On the other hand, the percentage of men deputy Ministers decreased from 80.8 percent to 69.0 percent.

Overall, the data shows that while there is some progress in increasing women's participation in the Government, the decline in full minister positions suggests that gender equality in political power and influence is not yet achieved. The focus should not only be on numbers, but also on ensuring that women occupy positions with real authority and decision-making power.



Figure 0.1 Percentage of Cabinet Ministers by Sex; Tanzania, 2025



Source: PO-PSMGG, 2025

12.3 Number of Judiciary Staff by Sex

During the year under review, number of Judicial staff increased from 1,559 in 2023 to 1,651 in 2024 representing a 5.9 percent increase. Table 12.1 demonstrates the slight decrease in number of Primary Court Magistrates by 15.6 percent and slightly increased number of staff in Resident Magistrate by 7.2 percent. The table also shows that more men (52.8%) than women (47.2%) worked in the judiciary system in 2024.

Table 12.1 Number of Judiciary Staff by Sex; Tanzania Mainland, 2020 -2024

Staff category	2020			2021			2022			2023			2024		
	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Total
Justices of Appeal	7	10	17	10	15	25	13	18	31	13	22	35	12	27	39
Judges of the high court	23	49	72	27	57	84	30	58	88	40	66	106	40	65	105
Registrars	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	1	2	1	2	3
Deputy Registrars	22	31	53	26	39	65	21	30	51	8	29	37	39	39	78
Resident Magistrates	486	505	991	545	553	1,098	559	564	1,123	575	573	1,148	604	627	1,231
Primary court Magistrates	127	168	295	118	153	271	102	138	240	102	129	231	84	111	195
Total	666	765	1,431	727	819	1,546	726	810	1,536	739	820	1,559	780	871	1,651

Source: Judiciary of Tanzania, 2024



12.4 Participation in Leadership Positions in Public Service

Table 12.2 indicates that leadership positions in public service in both 2024 and 2025 remained largely men-dominated, although some positions recorded gradual improvements in women's representation. Among Permanent Secretaries, the participation of women increased slightly from 22.2 percent in 2024 to 24.1 percent in 2025, while women's representation among Deputy Permanent Secretaries declined from 21.4 percent in 2024 to 20.6 percent in 2025. No change was observed for Regional Commissioners, with women consistently accounting for 26.9 percent in both years. In contrast, women's representation among Regional Administrative Secretaries declined from 46.2 percent to 38.5 percent, and among District Administrative Secretaries from 36.7 percent to 31.7 percent.

At the district level, women's participation improved modestly among District Commissioners (from 26.6% to 28.8%) and District Executive Directors (from 28.3% to 33.2%). Notably, a substantial increase was observed among Heads of Departments in LGAs, where women's participation rose from 20.3 percent in 2024 to 33.3 percent in 2025. Overall, the data reflect uneven progress, with gains in some leadership categories been offset by stagnation or declines in others.

Table 12. 2 Participation of Women and Men in Managerial Positions; Tanzania, 2025

Position	2024				2025			
	Number		Percent		Number		Percent	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Permanent Secretaries	6	21	22.2	77.8	7	22	24.1	75.9
Deputy Permanent Secretaries	6	22	21.4	78.6	7	27	20.6	79.4
Regional Commissioners	7	19	26.9	73.1	7	19	26.9	73.1
Regional Administrative Secretaries	12	14	46.2	53.8	10	16	38.5	61.5
District Commissioners	37	102	26.6	73.4	40	99	28.8	71.2
District Administrative Secretaries	51	88	36.7	63.3	44	95	31.7	68.3
District Executive Directors	52	132	28.3	71.7	61	123	33.2	66.8
Head of Departments LGAs	670	2,631	20.3	79.7	926	1,855	33.3	66.7

Source: PO-PSMGG, 2025

12.5 Participation in Councillor Positions

Table 12.3 shows in both 2015 and 2025, Tanzania women remained underrepresented in councillor positions, although there was a slight improvement over time. In 2015, women



accounted for 30.1 percent of all councillors, while men represented 69.9 percent. By 2025, women's share increased marginally to 31.1 percent, with men accounting for 68.7 percent. The results indicate slow progress toward gender balance in local Government leadership, with men continuing to hold the majority of councillor positions.

Table 12.3 Percentage of Women and Men in Councillor Positions; Tanzania, 2025

Type of Councillor	Year	Number			Percent	
		Total	Women	Men	Women	Men
Elected	2015	3,946	204	3,742	5.2	94.8
	2020	3,953	260	3,693	6.6	93.4
	2025	3,950	283	3,667	7.2	92.8
Special Seats	2015	1,404	1,404	-	100.0	0.0
	2020	1,374	1,374	-	100.0	0.0
	2025	1,387	1,387	-	100.0	0.0
Total	2015	5,350	1,608	3,742	30.1	69.9
	2020	5,327	1,634	3,693	30.7	69.3
	2025	5,337	1,670	3,667	31.3	68.7

Source: PO-PSMGG, 2025

12.6 The Parliament

This chapter discusses how Parliament has taken gender issues into account while carrying out its functions. Gender mainstreaming in Parliament goes hand in hand with the history of the Parliament of Tanzania, where representation in Parliament has considered the strategic needs of both women and men.

The integration of gender issues into the monitoring and evaluation of national activities is one of the strategies for achieving global gender equality, as emphasized in the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), which was adopted during the United Nations Conference of 1979. Furthermore, Tanzania has ratified this convention and taken into account other international and regional gender related agreements by formulating policies, plans, and strategies. In 2018, Parliament launched the Gender Strategy and Action Plan aimed at integrating gender issues into the implementation of its functions.

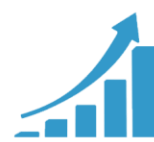
After independence, the number of women Members of Parliament has continued to increase, alongside their appointment to various leadership positions during every parliamentary term. As shown in Table 12.4



Table 12. 4: Women Members of Parliament and Their Leadership Positions in Different Parliamentary Terms

Year	All Members of Parliament	Women Members of Parliament	Ministers	Deput Ministers	Speaker of the Parliament	Deput Speaker
1955 - 1960	82	4	-	-	-	-
1961 - 1962	81	7	-	-	-	-
1963 - 1965	98	6	-	-	-	-
1965 - 1970	190	4	-	1	-	-
1970 - 1975	202	4	-	1	-	-
1975 - 1980	227	13	2	-	-	-
1980 - 1985	226	12	2	-	-	-
1985 - 1990	239	24	5	-	-	-
1990 - 1995	233	22	5	-	-	-
1995 - 2000	268	41	6	-	-	-
2000 - 2005	289	62	4	5	-	-
2005 - 2010	318	94	6	6	-	1
2010 - 2015	350	122	8	4	1	-
2015 - 2020	393	145	4	7	-	1
2020 - 2025	393	147	7	5	1	-

Source: Parliamentary Members Lists and Official Parliamentary Reports, from 1955 to 2024.



CHAPTER THIRTEEN

CRIME



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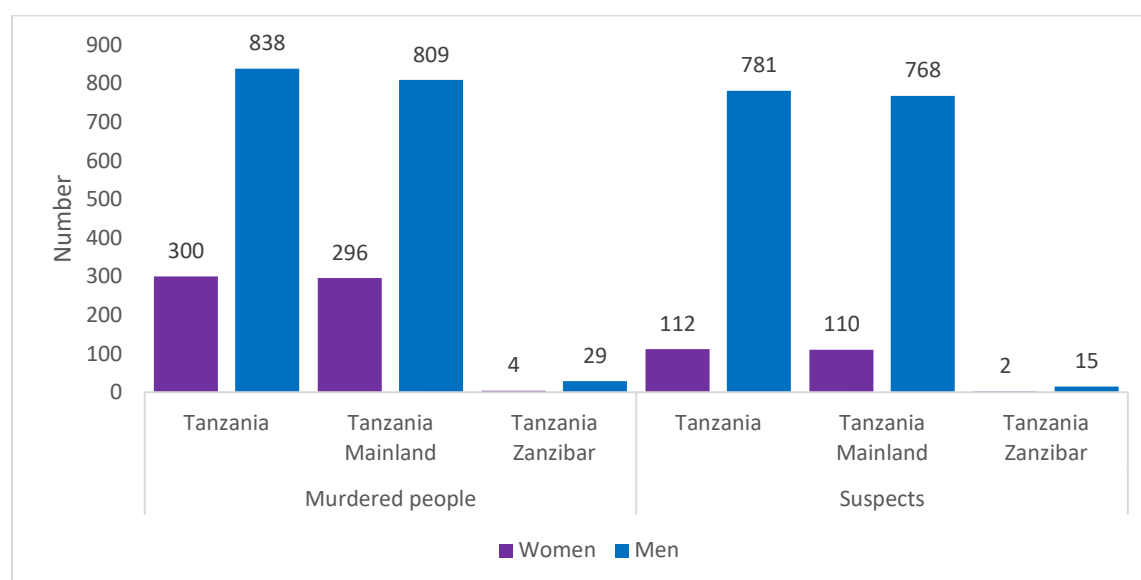
13.0 Introduction

Men are far more likely to commit crimes worldwide, and this pattern is also observed in Tanzania. Rapid technological advancement and globalization have significantly contributed to the rise in crime in the country. Common offences include murder, gender-based violence, cybercrime, unlawful possession of firearms, illegal immigration, illicit drug trafficking, human trafficking, extrajudicial incidents, and land disputes.

13.1 Number of Reported Murder Cases

Figure 13.1 shows that in 2024, 1,138 murder cases were reported; 300 cases (26.4%) were women and 838 cases (73.6%) were men. Similar patterns are observed in Tanzania Mainland (26.8% women and 73.2% men) and in Tanzania Zanzibar (12.1% women and 87.9% men). In regard to suspects, the patterns are similar to that of murder cases with relatively smaller number of cases. In general, men outnumber women in both the number of reported murder cases and suspects.

Figure 0.1 Number of Reported Murder Cases and Number of Suspects; Tanzania, 2024



Source: Tanzania Police Force

In 2024, 18 persons (2 women and 16 men) were murdered and 18 injured (1 woman and 17 men) due to land disputes. Geita, Njombe and Tabora reported three deaths each, whereas Morogoro reported five injuries, Lindi and Mbeya reported three injuries each and Kagera



reported two injuries. The data indicate that men are more likely to die or to be injured due to land disputes than women.

Table 0.1 Number of Deaths and Injuries due to Land Disputes; Tanzania, 2024

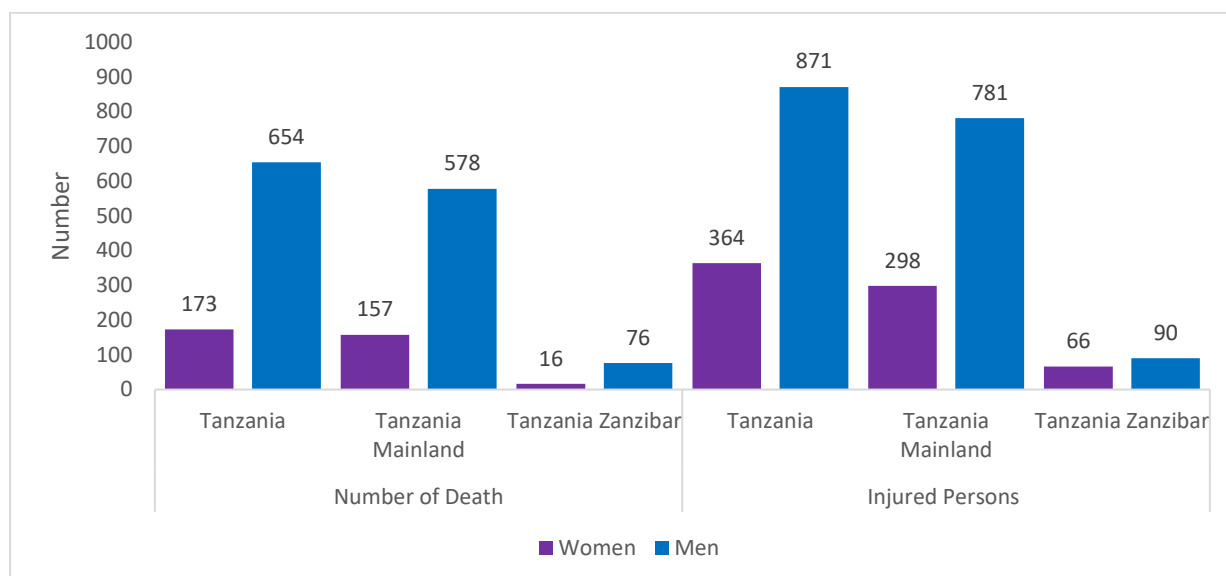
Region	Number of Deaths		Number of Injuries	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Arusha	0	0	1	0
Temeke	0	0	0	0
Geita	1	3	0	0
Kagera	0	1	0	2
Katavi	0	1	0	0
Lindi	0	0	0	3
Mara	0	0	0	1
Manyara	0	1	0	0
Mbeya	0	1	0	3
Morogoro	1	1	0	5
Mtwara	0	0	0	1
Mwanza	0	1	0	0
Njombe	0	3	0	0
Songwe	0	0	0	1
Tabora	0	3	0	1
Tanga	0	1	0	0
Total	2	16	1	17

Source: Tanzania Police Force

Figure 13.2 presents the number of deaths and injured persons due to traffic offences for year 2024. The data indicate that 827 persons (173 women and 654 men) died and 1, 235 (364 women and 871 men) persons were injured in 2024, due to traffic offences. In both cases men outnumbered women by a large margin.



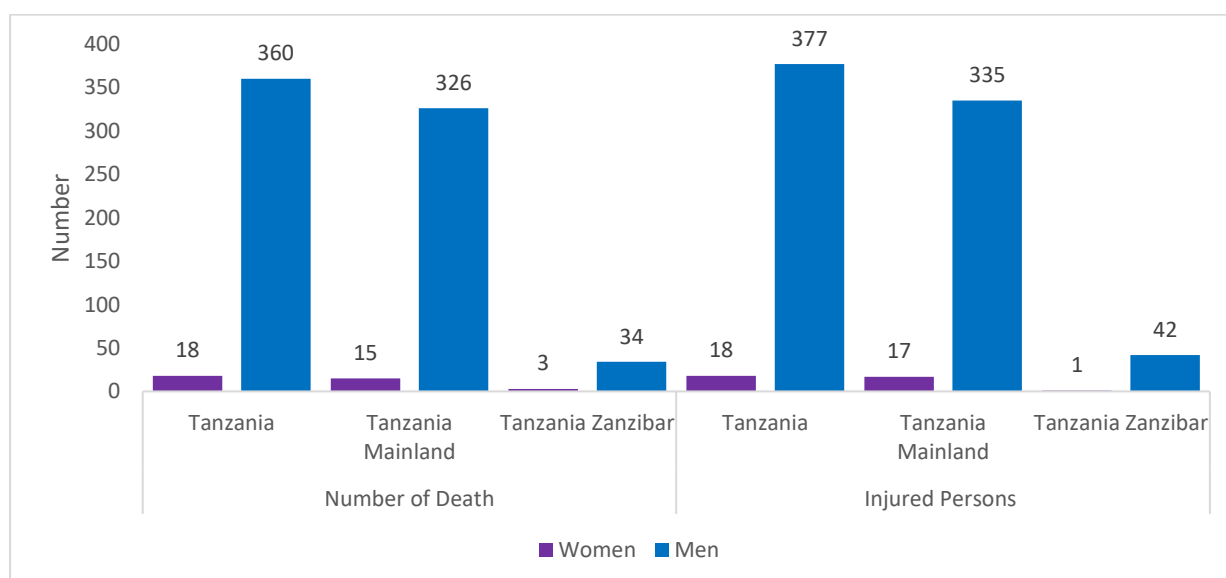
Figure 0.2 Number of Deaths and Injured Persons due to Traffic Offences by Sex; Tanzania; 2024



Source: Tanzania Police Force

Figure 13.3 presents the number of deaths and injured persons due to motorcycle accidents and casualties for year 2024. A total of 378 deaths (18 women and 360 men) and 341 casualties (15 women and 326 men) were reported in 2024, due to motorcycle accidents. The data show that men are more likely to die or to be injured due to motorcycle accidents than women.

Figure 0.3 Number of Deaths and Injured Persons and Casualties due to Motorcycle Accidents by Sex; Tanzania, 2024



Source: Tanzania Police Force

Table 13.2 shows that in 2024; there were 18,870 convicted adults in Tanzania out of which 522 (equivalent to 2.8%) were women and 18,348 (equivalent to 97.2 %) were men. The number of convicted children was 92, out of which 24 (equivalent to 26.1%) were girls and 68



(equivalent to 73.9%) were boys. The data show that for both adults and children, men and boys outnumber women and girls irrespective of the type of crime.

Table 0.2 Convicted Adults and Children by Type of Crime; Tanzania, 2024

Type of Offence	Adult		Percent		Child		Percent	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys
Murder	46	844	5.2	94.8	0	0		
Murder commuted	0	89	-	100.0	0	0		
Manslaughter	22	301	6.8	93.2	4	8	33.3	66.7
Attempt murder	4	142	2.7	97.3	0	2		100.0
Armed robbery	3	721	0.4	99.6	0	3		100.0
Drugs trafficking	45	485	8.5	91.5	0	2		100.0
Corruption	3	78	3.7	96.3	0	0		
Possession of fire arms and ammunition	2	86	2.3	97.7	0	0		
Possession of narcotic drugs	26	305	7.9	92.1	0	2		100.0
Theft	93	4,985	1.8	98.2	6	19	24.0	76.0
Possession of government trophies	11	452	2.4	97.6	0	0		
Rape	5	845	0.6	99.4	0	5		100.0
Sodomy	0	12	-	100.0	0	0		
wounding	67	1,842	3.5	96.5	0	0		
Arson	8	96	7.7	92.3	0	0		
Human trafficking	0	6	-	100.0	0	0		
Road traffic	0	63	-	100.0	0	0		
Unlawful entry into the game reserve	3	92	3.2	96.8	0	0		
Illegal fishing	0	63	-	100.0	0	0		
Economic crime	9	54	14.3	85.7	0	0		
Money laundering	0	41	-	100.0	0	0		
Forgery	0	69	-	100.0	0	0		
Possession of forest goods	0	245	-	100.0	0	0		
Child negligence	4	6	40.0	60.0	0	0		
Criminal trespass	3	112	2.6	97.4	0	0		



Type of Offence	Adult		Percent		Child		Percent	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys
Unlawful entry in the country	26	184	12.4	87.6	0	0		
Possession of illicit liquor	24	284	7.8	92.2	0	0		
Loitering	9	425	2.1	97.9	3	5	37.5	62.5
Burglary	24	1,787	1.3	98.7	0	4		100.0
Threat to kill	2	36	5.3	94.7	0	0		
Obtaining money by false pretense	4	37	9.8	90.2	0	0		
Contempt of court order	4	29	12.1	87.9	0	0		
Cause commotion	3	54	5.3	94.7	0	0		
Destroy property	4	65	5.8	94.2	2	5	28.6	71.4
Threat to kill by words	2	105	1.9	98.1	0	0		
Abusive language	9	145	5.8	94.2	0	0		
Possession of stolen product	0	136	-	100.0	0	0		
Cattle theft	0	168	-	100.0	0	0		
Other offences	57	2,859	2.0	98.0	9	13	40.9	59.1
Total	522	18,348	2.8	97.2	24	68	26.1	73.9

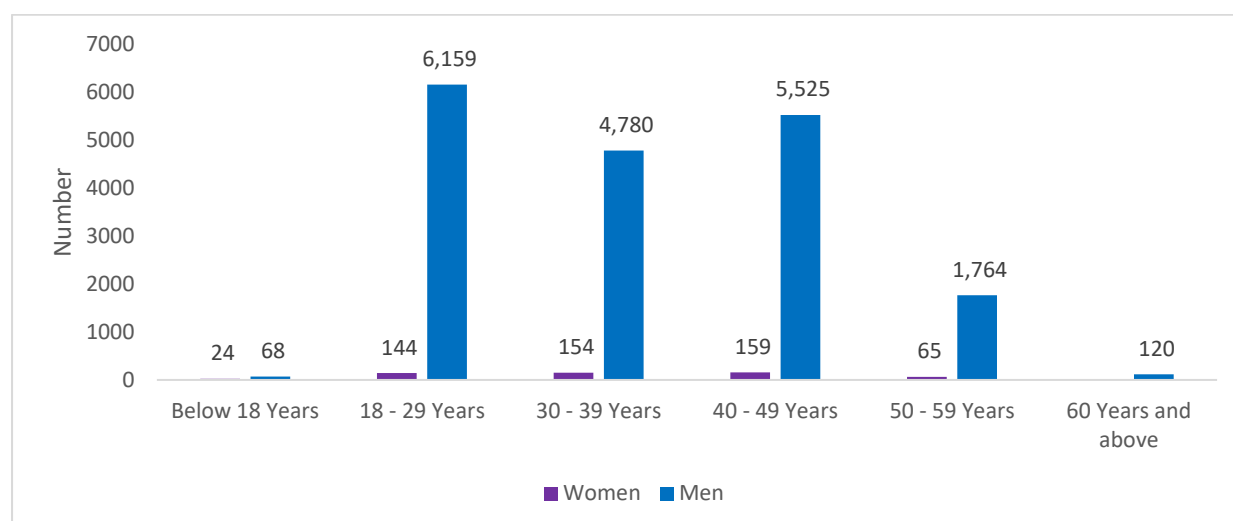
Source: Tanzania Prisons Service, 2024

Figure 13.4 indicates most of the convicted prisoners in 2024 were aged 18-29 years (6,303 prisoners; 144 women and 6,159 men), followed by those aged 40-49 years (5,684 prisoners; 159 women and 5,525 men), those aged 30-39 years (4,934 prisoners; 154 women and 4,780 men) and those aged 50-59 years (1,829 prisoners; 65 women and 1,764 men). Across all these age groups, men outnumber women by a large margin.

The imprisonment of a large number of men in their productive years affects families and communities reducing household in burdens on women. The data therefore calls for a need for targeted interventions focused on young men such as employment programs, behavioural change initiatives, and crime prevention strategies while also addressing structural inequalities and harmful gender norms.



Figure 0.4 Number of Convicted Prisoners in Prisons by Age Group and Sex; Tanzania, 2024



Source: Tanzania Prisons Service



Appendix 1: Target for Sustainable Development Goals

SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOAL INDICATORS

3. Good health and well-being

	Sex		Table/ Figure
	Men	Women	
3.1.1 Maternal mortality ratio	na	104	Figure 2.7
3.2.1 Under-5 mortality rate	52.0	34.0	Figure 2.6
3.7.1 Proportion of women of reproductive age (aged 15–49 years) who have their need for family planning satisfied with modern methods	na	61.3	Figure 2.14
3.a.1 Age-standardized prevalence of current tobacco use among persons aged 15 years and older	19.8	0.8	Figure 2.10

5. Gender equality

5.2.1 Proportion of ever-partnered women and girls aged 15 years and older subjected

a) Physical violence	na	27.0	Figure 11.1
b) Sexual violence	na	12.0	Figure 11.2
c) Psychological violence	na	11.0	Figure 11.3

5.3.2 Proportion of girls and women aged 15–49 years who have undergone female genital mutilation/cutting

na	8.0	Figure 11.5
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5.6.1 Proportion of women aged 15–49 years who make their own informed decisions regarding sexual relations, contraceptive use, and reproductive health care

na	61.3	Figure 2.14
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5.b.1 Proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone¹⁵

16. Peace, justice, and strong institutions

16.2.3 Proportion of young women aged 18–29 years who experienced sexual violence by age 18

na	12.0	Figure 11.2
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16.9.1 Proportion of children under 5 years of age whose births have been registered with a civil authority

Sex		Figure 2.1
Girl	Boy	
67.3	68.1	

17. Partnerships for the goals

	Sex		
	Men	Women	
17.8.1 Proportion of individuals using the internet ¹⁷	15.8	13.6	Figure 9.7



