



**UNITED NATIONS
TANZANIA**



Common Country Analysis

Latest Edition: 26 November 2021



Contents

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY	4
Formulation Process	4
Summative Analysis	4
Identifying Accelerators/Catalytic Development Solutions	7
INTRODUCTION	9
Formulation Process	9
Report Structure	9
PART I: TANZANIA’S CURRENT DEVELOPMENT TRAJECTORY	11
Understanding Poverty in Tanzania	11
Realising a Demographic Dividend	15
Social Development in Tanzania	15
Education (Pre-Primary, Primary and Secondary Levels).....	15
Health	18
HIV/AIDS	23
Nutrition	25
Water, Sanitation and Hygiene (WASH)	27
Public Financing of Social Development	29
Enhanced Capabilities.....	29
Economic Transformation and Employment in Tanzania	31
Labour Force Participation, Employment and Unemployment	32
Agriculture and Fisheries	34
Industrial Sector.....	37
Tourism	37
MSMEs	38
Trade & Integration	39
Infrastructure & Access to Energy	42
Access to Finance.....	42
Digital Economy	44
Environment, Climate Change and Resilience in Tanzania	45
Environment & Natural Resources	45
Pollution.....	47
Climate Change.....	47
PART II: TANZANIA’S DEVELOPMENT - THE ENABLING ENVIRONMENT	51
System of Governance	51
Local Government.....	52
Justice System.....	53
Membership/Contribution to Inter-Governmental Bodies	53
The Fifth & Sixth Phase Administrations	54
Governance Assessment	54
Security & the Rule of Law: Access to Justice	55
Security & the Rule of Law: Accountability, Transparency & Anti-Corruption	56

Security & the Rule of Law: Security & Safety	57
Participation, Rights & Inclusion	58
Participation, Rights & Inclusion: Women & Children	60
Violence Against Women and Children	62
Participation, Rights & Inclusion: Persons with Disabilities (PWD) & People with Albinism	65
Participation, Rights & Inclusion: Refugees & Migrants	67
National Development Priorities & SDG Localisation	69
The Financing Landscape & Opportunities	73
The Financing Mix	74
Government Development Budget	74
Domestic Revenue	75
Public Debt	75
Official Development Assistance	76
Private Finance	76
Private Domestic Finance	77
PART III: TANZANIA’S DEVELOPMENT – A WAY FORWARD	79
Potential Accelerators	80
Potential Accelerator I	80
Potential Accelerator II	80
Potential Accelerator III	81
Potential Accelerator IV	82
Potential Accelerator V	82
Potential Accelerator VI	83
Potential Accelerator VII	84
Potential Accelerator VIII	84
Potential Accelerator IX	85
Potential Accelerator X	86
Ensuring No One is Left Behind	86
Conclusions	90
ANNEX I: MAKING OF THE MODERN STATE	92
ANNEX II: PARTNERS CONSULTED	95
ANNEX III: MULTIDIMENSIONAL RISKS, RISK FACTORS & ASSESSMENT OF LIKELY IMPACT	98
ANNEX IV: ACRONYMS	109
ANNEX V: REFERENCES	114
ANNEX VI: ENDNOTES	124

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The Common Country Analysis (CCA) is an independent, impartial and collective review by the United Nations Country Team of Tanzania's progress towards the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and the United Nations (UN) norms and standards. Once drafted, the CCA is reviewed and updated on an annual basis. The primary purpose of the CCA is to serve as the evidence base of the UN Sustainable Development Cooperation Framework (UNSDCF). It is through this Framework that the UN articulates and regularly renews its collective offer to Tanzania to support national challenges and priorities on its journey towards the SDGs.

Formulation Process

The CCA was developed across three principal phases. During the first, relevant UN entities consulted their constituencies to inform their primary analysis. In the second phase, the RCO collated and augmented summaries of each CCA element to create a zero draft which was then subject to a series of internal reviews and revisions. In Phase III, Heads of Agencies led consultations across the themes of: Healthy Nation and Education; Inclusive Growth; Resilience; Democratic Governance, Human Rights and Gender Equality. Stakeholders were invited to participate in a deeper interrogation of the country's development challenges, the principal bottlenecks, government priorities and possible entry points for the UN to support acceleration of the 2030 Agenda. Particular attention was afforded to those interventions with the most potential to achieve development results at scale with minimum trade-offs in-country and realise the promise to leave no-one behind.

Summative Analysis

Tanzania's economy was ranked as the eighth largest in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) according to real GDP (USD 56,593 billion) in 2020. Since the turn of the century until 2019 inclusive, the annual GDP growth rate averaged 6.67 percent, with an annual per capita GDP growth rate of 3.51 percent. The World Bank estimates that Tanzania is to remain one of the top three growth performers in East Africa, despite the global economic downturn caused by the COVID-19 pandemic. Reflecting the country's strong performance, the World Bank announced the upgrading of the Tanzanian economy to lower-middle income status on 1 July 2020; a central objective of the URT Vision 2025 and Zanzibar's Vision 2020. Notwithstanding—under the broader conditions prescribed by the Committee for Development Policy mandated by the UN General Assembly and the Economic and Social Council to review the list of Least Developed Countries every three years—Tanzania is some years from graduation of the category. This is partially due to a higher threshold for GNI per capita but also significantly a shortfall in the Human Assets Index.¹

In 2018, the national poverty rate on the mainland was 26.4 percent of the population or 13.9 million Tanzanians. When using the international poverty threshold of living on less than USD 1.90 per day, this figure rises to 49 percent of the population or 26 million Tanzanians. This compares to an average 30 percent poverty rate for a country that has just reached lower middle income country status by World Bank standards. It also represents the fourth-largest poor population in SSA.² If the population growth matches the Government's projection of 75.4 million and the rate of poverty reduction remains fixed at current levels, the mainland poverty rate will reduce to 24.8 percent but an additional 4.8 million (18.7 million in total) Tanzanians will be living in poverty by 2030. The low rate of poverty reduction relative to average economic growth suggests the latter is largely benefitting wealthier urban households, who are better placed to make use of emerging (employment) opportunities. Meanwhile those living in rural households with 7 or more children, containing persons with disabilities, headed by those with limited or no education and/or by females who have less access to productive assets are much more likely to be experiencing extreme deprivation. Further, 92 percent of Tanzanians are below the threshold for economic security with evidence of significant mobility in and out of poverty. This indicates not only a lack of sustainable decent employment opportunities for the majority but also inadequate coverage of a social protection floor to reduce high vulnerability to income, health or climate change related shocks.

Given the high rates of urbanisation, largely driven by the search for more decent employment opportunities, a demographic shift is predicted with the highest proportion of the poor living in unplanned urban or peri-urban settlements. At present, these settlements are ill-served by public services. This can be partially attributed to the absence of a clear policy to both empower and finance urban authorities to undertake robust development planning and engage in the critical partnerships required. This is becoming ever more urgent, with an added concern for resilience as natural disasters induced by climate change are on the increase.

A lo-tech agricultural sector with high rates of post-harvest losses and weak value chain linkages, ill-equipped to respond

to natural disasters and/or climate change,³ continues to be the largest employer across the country as well as the source of livelihoods for over 75 percent of the poor in Tanzania. Most agricultural production in Tanzania still occurs within smallholder units. Approximately two fifths of smallholder households surveyed in 2020 asserted that they do not have enough money for food; another two-fifths have money only for food and clothes.⁴ In industry and service sectors, growth achieved in recent years has not been matched by an increase in employment opportunities outside of the principal urban centres. Rates of productivity across all three sectors have stayed largely the same since the turn of the century and the informal economy accounts for almost one quarter of employment for those aged 15 years and above. MSMEs' currently contribute 35 percent to GDP and serve as the source of income for 23.4 percent of the population; most are led by women and youth. However, current survival rates are less than 40 percent beyond the first five years. Many owners cite challenges in accessing productive resources (including land and credit), availability of needs-based technical and business skills development services, complex formalisation processes and inadequate coverage of essential infrastructure (including electricity, connectivity and transport).

Across the social sector significant strides have been made by Tanzania over the past decade. These have included rises in life expectancy, reductions in child mortality and stunting plus increases in school enrolment with near gender parity at primary level. However, despite progress made, Tanzania is still pegged at 0.39 in the latest Human Capital Index (women 0.40; men 0.38),⁵ with inadequacies in the quality, accessibility and integration of services acting as major impediments. Growing inequities and vulnerabilities demand better targeting, reach and response to the specific needs of those currently left behind, namely: poorer households; those living in remote communities; AGYW; out of school children and youth; people living with HIV; key and vulnerable populations; persons with disabilities; refugees, asylum seekers and irregular migrants. Rapid population growth require more investment to keep up with both need and demand across the social sector. However, increases in government funding have not kept pace perpetuating significant dependency on unpredictable external aid. There is also a consistent pattern of under-execution, suggesting important gains could be made with existing financial resources through institutional capacity development, strengthened transparency and accountability.

Tanzania is endowed with abundant natural resources which are key for the country's economic development and the nation's well-being. Tanzania's forests play an integral role in terms of water catchment, flood prevention and support to economic activities including hydro-electric power generation. Moreover, 50 percent of Tanzania's tourist sub-sector—the country's second largest contributor to GDP and third largest contributor to employment—is centred around the country's wildlife. However, in recent years, the country's environment and the natural resources therein have been under increasing pressure. Rapid population growth, the expanding number of unplanned human settlements (due to high numbers of rural-urban migrants in search of employment opportunities), a high dependence on charcoal for household energy needs, the expansion of agricultural land (in lieu of increased productivity), over-grazing, over-fishing and pollution coupled with a weak regulatory framework and inadequacies in land management have contributed to significant land degradation, deforestation and loss of biodiversity across Tanzania.

In the 2018 Notre Dame Global Adaptation Initiative (ND-GAIN) Country Index, Tanzania ranked 148 of 181 countries, representing a steady decline of 10 places since 1995. Currently, more than 70 percent of all-natural disasters in Tanzania are climate change-related and linked to recurrent droughts and floods, with many affected areas experiencing high levels of poverty. The situation is compounded by the increased incidence of agricultural diseases in tropical climates, especially those which are vector-borne, with serious implications for health and labour productivity. Further, there are predictions that those areas that are currently highly productive, namely the southern and northern highlands, will experience declining rainfall, frequent droughts and significantly more spatial and temporal rainfall variability.⁶ Countrywide, on average 11.8 million people (21.7 percent of the total population of 2018) are annually exposed to droughts. By 2050, this number is expected to increase to 33 percent (on average 43.6 million people if population growth is accounted for), with national food production commensurately decreasing by 8–13 percent. The rangelands used by livestock-keeping communities are expected to shrink which is likely to exacerbate conflicts with farmers. Whilst floods affect considerably less of the population—an average 150,000 people at a cost of 215 million USD per annum—by 2050 the numbers of those affected are likely to double and the effect on GDP multiplied by at least 15.

Efforts to accelerate sustainable development across economic, social and environmental dimensions will need to be particularly attentive to the needs of youth, women and girls, as well as persons with disabilities. At present, they are consistently worse off across key socio-economic indicators. Under the UN medium variant, youth aged 15-34 years could be as much as 62 million by 2065. This could have a significant destabilising effect on the country. As a 2018 DfID report⁷ highlights, a large youth bulge relative to total adult population is associated with increased risk of conflict and high rates of criminal violence. This is especially true when young people lack opportunities in terms of education,

training and employment.

Meanwhile socialization into traditional gender roles (including taking on a disproportionate share of unpaid care work in the home) continue to reduce women's and girls' agency and by extension their life chances in Tanzania. Most women and girls operate as own account workers or contributing family workers. These are therefore least likely to have access to benefits or social protection programmes and most at risk of the effects of economic shocks. Share of managerial positions is commensurately low, with evidence to suggest negative attitudes towards women's suitability are still prevalent. Women's lack of secure and independent incomes and dependency on men exacerbates their vulnerability to violence and sexual harassment. The 2015 Demographic and Health Survey exposed the high prevalence of gender based violence in-country. It found that 40 percent of women aged 15-49 years have ever experienced physical violence, and 17 percent have ever experienced sexual violence, a sizeable majority from current or former husbands/partners. The country has one of the highest child marriage prevalence rates in the world despite a decline from 41.1 percent in 2005 to 30.5 percent in 2015 whilst 1 in 10 women have undergone Female Genital Mutilation despite its criminalisation in 1998.⁸ Less than 1 percent of girls aged 15-19 are both in school and married whilst child marriage is the likely cause of approximately two thirds of all instances of early childbearing.⁹ Increasing rates of early¹⁰ and unintended¹¹ pregnancies, high prevalence of HIV among women¹² and FGM¹³ are all contributing to high and stagnant levels of maternal mortality and morbidity and other poor sexual and reproductive health outcomes for women and girls

Several studies have found that PWDs constitute one of the most marginalised groups in the country.¹⁴ Both on the mainland and Zanzibar, PWDs experience significant stigma, discrimination and violence, which hinders the realisation of their rights. PWDs face difficulties in realising education and employment opportunities and have less access to support networks and social capital than those without disabilities.¹⁵ They are therefore more likely to be food insecure and vulnerable to all kinds of shocks. Women and girls with disabilities, persons with albinism, and children with autism are especially vulnerable to violence and specifically at high risk of sexual violence or of being threatened, mistreated or abandoned.¹⁶ Access to specialized services, including health facilities, police, legal aid, public information are limited by insufficient financial resources, awareness and capacity of service providers.

In terms of governance and broader considerations around SDGs 5 and 16, Tanzania is a stable, parliamentary democracy which has held multi-party elections every five years since 1995, all of which been won by Chama cha Mapinduzi (CCM). Advancements towards 50/50 representation have been made, but this has been primarily through the application of special seats for women, which do not hold the same authority. The under-representation of women in leadership and decision-making is due to many factors including: institutional and structural constraints; prohibition of private candidates; gender-insensitive political parties; gender gaps in laws and policies; lack of capacity and necessary skills among women; gender stereotypes, cultural practices and attitudinal norms that suggest women should not have a role in public life. Violence against women in politics (VAWP) also prevents women from exercising and realizing their rights to leadership roles.

The key institutions of governance are in place but need strengthening, especially in areas such as public administration. Robust routinely generated data is currently constrained by inadequate coverage, reliability and timeliness, with variations in standards used across MDAs and LGAs. The National Statistical System is fragmented, with multiple sectoral and sub-national systems developed using different technologies hindering interoperability or the establishment of a one stop data portal. Existing surveys such as the HBS, DHS and ILFS obtain estimates at relatively high levels of aggregation (for example rural, Other Urban and Dar es Salaam) and therefore do not facilitate consideration of marginalised or vulnerable groups, perpetuating institutional and social blindness to their needs.

In terms of security and the rule of law, particularly fighting corruption within the public service, progress has been made. However, access to justice remains a challenge for many due to: low levels of educational attainment (affecting comprehension of legal procedures and technicalities); distance to legal services and court buildings for those in rural areas; traditions, beliefs and customs which discriminate against women, girls and marginalised or vulnerable groups. At the institutional level, there are also problems in terms of: the availability of independent, impartial and fully resourced tribunals and courts; sufficient numbers of qualified lawyers; capacity and discriminatory attitudes of judicial staff;¹⁷ data collection and management; application of international human rights standards in the law; adoption by relevant authorities of proactive judicial decisions; full roll-out of criminal justice reforms. Key justice institutions are largely operating in silos, with bottlenecks in one institution impacting the entire system.¹⁸

Furthermore, despite URT being a party to the ICESCR (1966), many socio-economic rights are not enforceable in Tanzania because they are not contained in the requisite Bill of Rights segment of the Constitution.¹⁹ In addition, whilst

the URT is party to several international and regional instruments, multiple provisions have not been domesticated which is a prerequisite for enforceability under the Constitution. Moreover, some discriminatory laws and policies persist (including provisions in customary law) which contravene the constitution and international human rights standards plus in certain circumstances give legal basis to practices such as expulsion of pregnant schoolgirls or corporal punishment. In recent years, there also have been a number of legislative amendments (such as the Political Parties Act, Statistics Act and the Media Services Act) that have adversely impacted upon the civic space.

Whilst Tanzania is largely peaceful, it remains at risk of terrorist threats due to its proximity to Kenya, Somalia, and Mozambique, where al-Qaeda, al-Shabaab, Ansar Sunna, and other terrorist organizations have expanded their presence. Studies indicate that these terror groups are recruiting young people in Tanzania. The volatile situation in the Cabo Delgado region in Northern Mozambique remains of concern with reports of asylum seekers being denied access to the Tanzanian territory. Since June 2018, all key border entry/reception points remain closed to new asylum seekers. The result has been a number of unregistered individuals finding their way into the refugee camps, but unable to access essential services or receive humanitarian assistance.

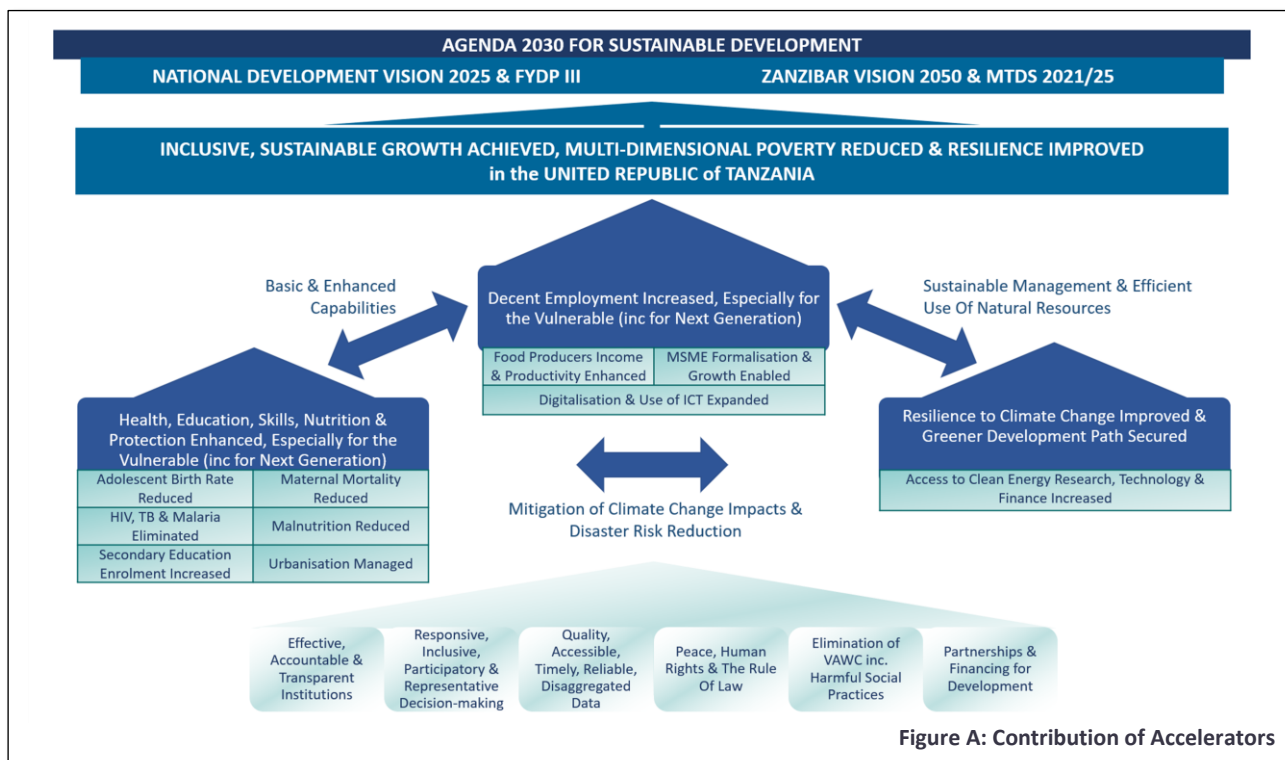
Tanzania currently has 246,399 Persons of Concern and hosts 205,596 camp-based refugees.²⁰ These are all in need of durable solutions. The strict encampment policy and emerging administrative directives on refugee matters have significantly reduced the protection space. They have also impacted on access to basic services as well as livelihoods and self-reliance opportunities, heightening the risk of exploitation and abuse, as many persons of concern adopt negative coping mechanisms. The presence of refugees has put a strain on the host community in Kigoma Region where the Human Development Index is estimated to be one of the lowest in Tanzania. There has been an increase in localised conflicts such as those related to marriage, family issues, land and associated resources.

Finally, Tanzania is becoming increasingly reliant on domestic revenue for development financing. This trend is actively pursued by the two governments in line with the Addis-Ababa Action Agenda (AAAA) spirit and objectives. The collection of tax and non-tax revenue require strengthening and broadening, and other traditional sources such as ODA will still be relied upon (especially in the social sector), as new forms of government financing take time to bed in. The DFA for the mainland and the future one for Zanzibar afford recommendations to ensure any increases in available public and private flows translate into human development gains through strengthened connections with pro-poor growth policy frameworks and budgets to enable Tanzania to 'build back better' in the global post-COVID era.

Under the respective themes of '*Realising Competitiveness and Industrialisation for Human Development*' (Five Year Development Plan 2021/22-2025/26, FYDP III) and '*Blue Economy for Inclusive Sustainable Growth and Development*' (Medium Term Development Strategy 2021-25, MTDS), the Governments of the URT and Zanzibar have renewed their commitment to transform the economy and decouple economic growth from environmental degradation. Further, whilst the emphasis is upon a shift to a diversified and semi-industrialized economy with sizeable investments in innovation and technology, there are also pledges to contribute to good governance and the rule of law, human capital and wider social development. The latter reflects an acknowledgement that an inclusive, greener economic growth not only rests upon a strong enabling environment but will be accelerated through poverty reduction and social development strategies that can improve the productive capacity of youth, women and people with disabilities with a positive, circular impact upon human development.

Identifying Accelerators/Catalytic Development Solutions

Through the Common Country Analysis ten possible accelerators or catalytic development solutions emerge for Tanzania. These reflect key bottlenecks/challenges (identified in the main text) to the achievement of the 2030 Agenda plus national objectives as defined in the visions and planning documents, through the lens of leaving no-one behind. These can be grouped into three key components. The first requires all those living in Tanzania, including the most vulnerable and marginalised, to be able to engage in and benefit from good health, education, skills, nutrition and protection. This means addressing concerns such as the high rates of adolescent births, maternal mortality and malnutrition. It also means improving take-up of quality secondary education, eliminating key communicable diseases and responding to the needs of the increasing proportion of the (poor) population living in urban and peri-urban centres. With enhanced basic and enhanced capabilities, those living in Tanzania can improve social and economic outcomes for themselves, their children and the nation as a whole.



Equally, inclusive, sustainable development and reduced multi-dimensional poverty relies upon the pursuit of a greener development path as well as improved resilience to natural disasters or climate change impacts. Access to clean energy has been highlighted as one area which, if secured, could significantly ameliorate the destruction of the natural environment in Tanzania (deforestation, land degradation and pollution) whilst fuelling economic transformation and growth. The population will also need support to adopt new practices and technology better suited to the changing climate plus safeguarding from the (related) increased number and severity of natural and man-made disasters.

Given a significant majority of income-generating opportunities for those living in Tanzania (particularly the poor, women and youth) are currently within the agricultural sector and through the establishment of MSMEs, these areas need particular assistance to ensure they provide decent employment opportunities for all. This would feed into better socio-economic outcomes at the individual level as well as for the next generation whilst supporting real economic transformation and growth for the country as a whole.

Finally for the full achievement of these three mutually dependent and reinforcing components, it is assumed that a strong enabling environment will be required. This encompasses: institutions fit for purpose; opportunities for participation; robust data; peaceful co-existence; compliance with human rights norms and standards; the elimination of VAWC and other harmful social norms and practices; strong partnerships and financing for development.

Taken together, these components should enable achievement of a more inclusive and sustainable economic growth, with sizeable reductions (if not elimination) of multi-dimensional poverty and improved resilience for those living in Tanzania. The particular role that the UN decides to play (if any) in advancing the accelerators and for whom under the UNSDCF 2022-2027 with partially depend upon our comparative advantage and the availability of robust, disaggregated data. Importantly, such strategic prioritisation will also rely upon further consultation with our partners and stakeholders, in particular on how best to align our Framework to ensure full cooperation and support for agreed national priorities.

INTRODUCTION

The Common Country Analysis (CCA) is an independent, impartial and collective review by the United Nations Country Team of Tanzania's progress towards the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and the United Nations (UN) norms and standards. Once drafted, the CCA is reviewed and updated on an annual basis.

The analysis adopts a broad, holistic approach, which reflects the interlinkages and integrated nature of the SDGs. It aims to foster a common understanding of the country's development trajectory, and of those groups that are currently being left behind or at risk of being left behind, the underlying drivers of their exclusion, their vulnerabilities and needs.

The primary purpose of the CCA is to serve as the evidence base of the UN Sustainable Development Cooperation Framework (UNSDCF). It is through this Framework that the UN articulates and regularly renews its collective offer to Tanzania to support national challenges and priorities on its journey towards the SDGs.

Formulation Process

The CCA was developed across three principal phases. During the first, relevant UN entities (resident and non-resident) consulted their constituencies (both state and non-state) to inform their primary analysis. These submissions were then converted into summaries for each element of the CCA by technical leads, drawn from across the UN Development System. In the second phase, the RCO collated and augmented the summaries to create a zero draft which was then subject to a series of internal reviews and revisions.

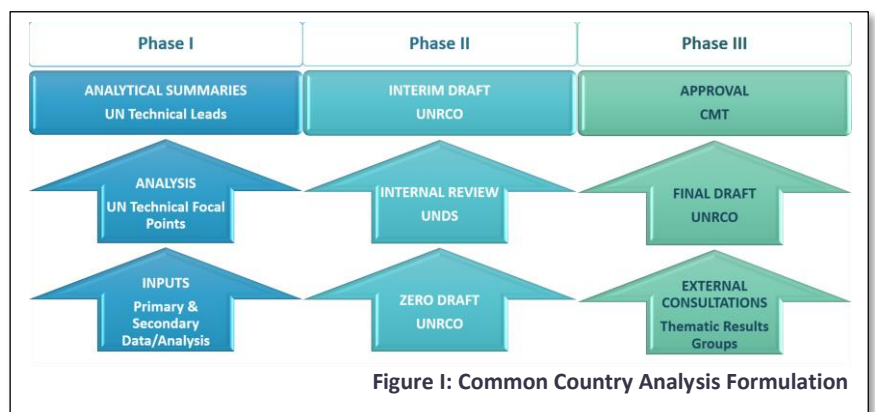


Figure I: Common Country Analysis Formulation

In Phase III, Heads of Agencies led consultations across the themes of: Healthy Nation and Education; Inclusive Growth; Resilience; Democratic Governance, Human Rights and Gender Equality. Stakeholders were invited to participate in a deeper interrogation of the country's development challenges, the principal bottlenecks, government priorities and possible entry points for the UN to support acceleration of the 2030 Agenda. Particular attention was afforded to those interventions with the most potential to achieve development results at scale with minimum trade-offs in-country and realise the promise to leave no-one behind. To ensure diverse views were accommodated, a mapping of representatives of vulnerable groups was undertaken to inform invitee lists. Guidance for the preparation of inclusive and accessible consultations was also produced. In addition, a dedicated consultation session on Leaving No One Behind and disability inclusion with a sign language interpreter was organized. In the ultimate step, the consultation feedback was integrated into the final draft for Country Management Team approval.²¹

The CCA process and final product was guided by the UN principles throughout, namely: the transformative promise to Leave No One Behind; the Human Rights-Based Approach to Development; Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment; Resilience; Sustainability; Accountability. Official data sources and 'specialised studies/assessments' to which the Government has commissioned or contributed formed the foundational body of data and analysis, which was then complemented by information from academia, civil society and the media. In pursuit of our commitment to leave no-one behind, wherever possible the data has been disaggregated by income, gender, geography, age and other grounds of discrimination prohibited under international law. Also, given the structure of Tanzania, where relevant the analysis distinguishes between the mainland and Zanzibar.

Report Structure

The report has three parts. The first provides an overall assessment of Tanzania's progress across SDGs 1-15, some of the challenges experienced and those left behind. It begins with a broad look at the nature of poverty and poverty reduction across the mainland and Zanzibar. This is followed by a review of the social, economic and environmental dimensions of sustainable development in the country, including relevant national priorities plus indicative trends leading up to 2030 and beyond.

Part I of the CCA explores the remaining SDGs, within the context of the governance structure, security and the rule of law, participation, inclusion and human rights. Here we delve deeper into some of the challenges raised in Part I, in particular underlying drivers of discrimination. We also examine efforts to localise the SDGs into national planning frameworks plus some of the gaps in terms of data generation, management and use which hinder decision-making at national and local level. The chapter ends with a summary of the financing landscape, which defines existing and potential opportunities for leveraging resources in pursuit of the 2030 Agenda.

Across both Parts I and II, risks that may prevent resilience, stability, long-term inclusive development, human rights and peace are highlighted. These are then 're-presented' in a multi-dimensional risk analysis table in Annex II.

The final Part of the CCA draws upon this analysis to propose a number of SDGs/SDG Targets which may serve as accelerators for the 2030 Agenda. For each, those groups and regions which are currently being left behind or at risk of being left behind are listed. If realised, the accelerators have the potential to unlock or deliver gains across multiple additional SDGs/SDG Targets, especially for those that are most affected by inequalities, discrimination and exclusion. From this listing, the UN team will identify those most critical, catalytic development solutions for Tanzania to advance the 2030 Agenda that the UNCT is best placed to support.

PART I: TANZANIA'S CURRENT DEVELOPMENT TRAJECTORY

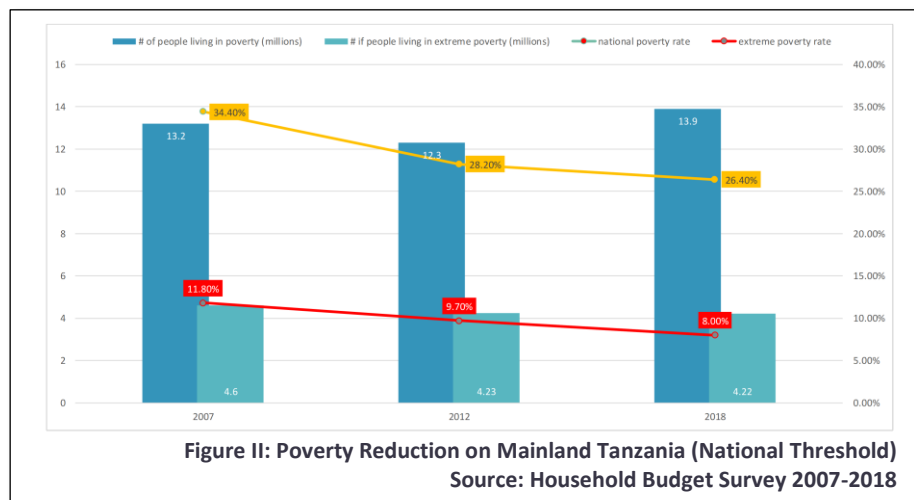
Understanding Poverty in Tanzania

Reflecting sizeable income growth in recent years, the World Bank announced the upgrading of the Tanzanian economy from low to lower-middle income status on 1 July 2020; a central objective of the country's Vision 2025 and Zanzibar's Vision 2020. According to World Bank figures, Tanzania's GNI per capita increased to USD 1,080 in 2019, thereby exceeding their threshold for lower-middle income status.²² Notwithstanding—under the conditions prescribed by the Committee for Development Policy (CDP) mandated by the UN General Assembly and the Economic and Social Council to review the list of Least Developed Countries (LDC) every three years—Tanzania is some years from graduation of the category. This is partially due to a higher threshold for GNI per capita but also importantly a shortfall in the Human Assets Index which forms part of the assessment.²³

In this section, we will focus primarily on the first component, namely GNI per capita, within the frame of achieving SDG 1, namely 'End Poverty'. We shall also consider aspects related to SDG 10 seeking to reduce inequality. The subsequent sections of Part I will review the remaining SDGs related to People, Prosperity and Planet in turn.

In 2018, the poverty rate on the mainland—pegged at a monthly income of TZS 49,320—was 26.4 percent of the population or 13.9 million Tanzanians.²⁴ When using the international poverty threshold of living on less than USD 1.90 per day, this figure rises to 49 percent of the population or 26 million Tanzanians. This compares to an average 30 percent poverty rate for a country that has just reached lower middle income country status by World Bank standards. It also represents the fourth-largest poor population in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA).²⁵ Those considered extremely poor by national standards, namely surviving on less than a monthly income of TZS 33,748 (to meet minimum nutritional requirements) accounted for 8 percent of the population or 4.25 million on the mainland.²⁶ In Zanzibar—according to their more recent HBS 2019/20—the poverty rate is assessed at 25.7 percent and the extreme poverty rate at 9.5 percent. This represents approximately 417,256 Zanzibaris unable to meet their basic needs and 150,840 living in extreme poverty.²⁷

Figure II presents the evolution of poverty on mainland Tanzania across three Household Budget Surveys (HBS) between 2007 and 2018. It demonstrates a reduction in the national poverty rate of 8 percentage points across the period (slowing considerably between 2012-2018) but no commensurate drop in incidence of poverty. Conversely, in Zanzibar, the pace of poverty reduction has increased over recent years, particularly for those living in extreme poverty, dropping by 1.5 percent between 2014 to 2019, compared to 0.9 percent in the previous 5 years.²⁸



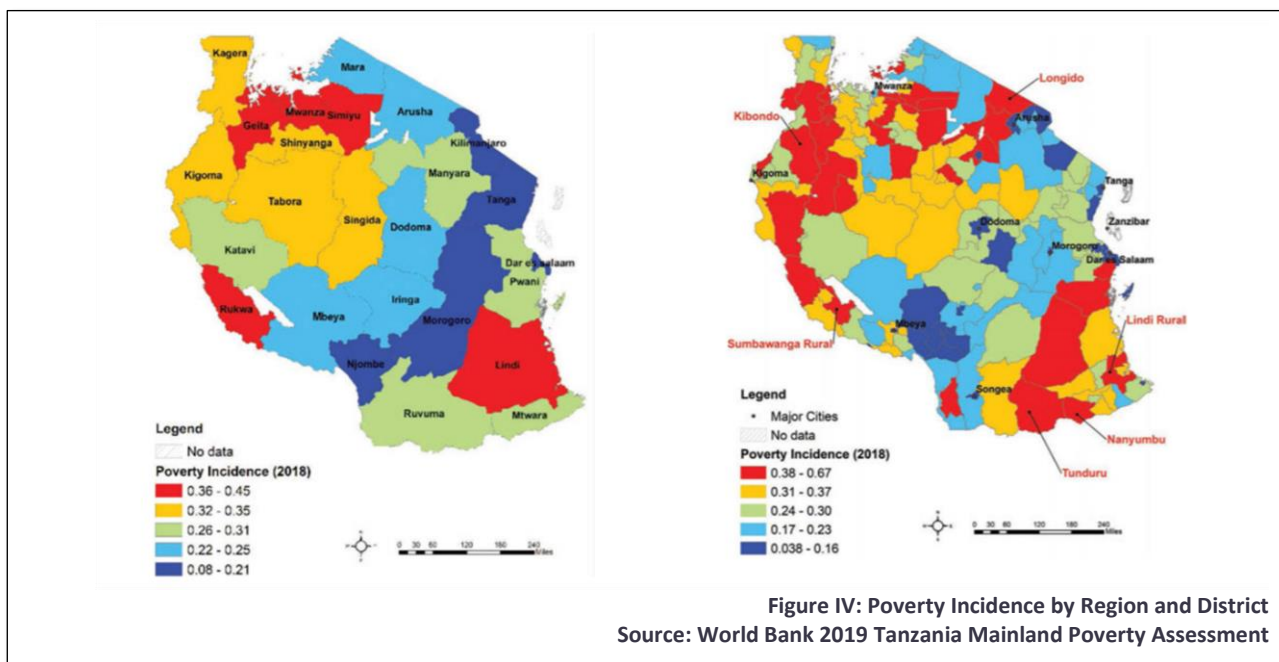
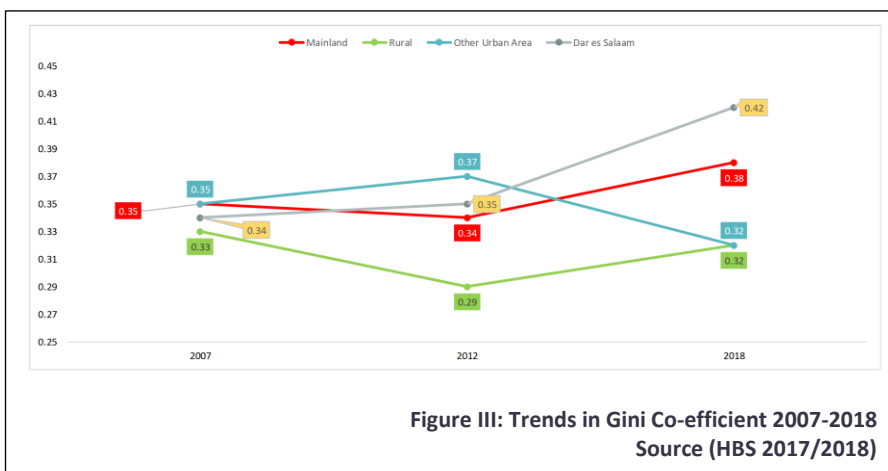
The government estimates the Tanzanian population grew by 3.1 percent per annum between 2012-2018²⁹ but the poverty rate fell by only 1.8 percent, resulting in 700,000 more Tanzanians living in poverty. If the population growth matches the Government's projection of 75,421,780 and the rate of poverty reduction remains fixed at these levels, Tanzania's mainland poverty rate will reduce to 24.8 percent but an additional 4.8 million (18.7 million in total) Tanzanians will be living in poverty by 2030.

The low rate of poverty reduction relative to the average economic growth of 6.5 percent per year between 2013 and 2018 in Tanzania,³⁰ implies that economic development has to date primarily benefitted the wealthiest households, who are better positioned (with greater human capital and more productive assets) to make use of the opportunities generated. The World Bank estimates that—given the current (and reducing) growth elasticity of poverty—an increase

in GDP growth per capita of 10 percent would still only result in a reduction of the proportion of poor by 4.5 percent. This is compared to an expected average poverty reduction of over 20 percent for developing countries with commensurate GDP growth and represents one of the lowest growth elasticity rates in the world.³¹ Trends in the Gini coefficient on the mainland reflect this rise in inequality. There has been an increase across the aggregate, rural areas and in Dar es Salaam since 2007 (Figure X).³² This suggests that pro-growth policies will need to be accompanied by explicit, targeted actions to reduce inequalities for economic gains to truly benefit the poor, especially for those currently left behind or at risk of being left behind.³³

Neither poverty nor the rate of poverty reduction is spread evenly across Tanzania. Of the 13.9 million Tanzanians that lived in poverty in 2018 on the mainland, the vast majority were in rural areas (accounting for 81 percent of the total poor population). Of the 4.25 million

that lived in extreme poverty, 3.5 million are found in rural areas.³⁴ Within these figures, there are significant regional and district level variations. Poverty rates are as high as 45 percent in Rukwa region whilst in Dar es Salaam they drop down to 8 percent.³⁵ Approximately one third of the poor live in the highly rural Lake Zone, where less productive and subsistence income-generating activities are common.³⁶ In most cases, regions with the highest poverty rates host the largest numbers of poor, although there are also significant numbers of poor people in certain districts within the more affluent regions (even within Dar es Salaam) given their larger populations.³⁷ The pace of poverty reduction is faster in rural areas than in urban centres, but it originates from a much lower base.³⁸ Similarly, the majority of the poor in Zanzibar reside in rural areas, with the rate of poverty more than double and the rate of extreme poverty almost triple of those living in urban centres where opportunities for productive employment are higher.³⁹



By 2050, Tanzania's rural population is expected to grow by more than 60 percent, placing significant pressure on natural resources and local services, potentially creating more push factors for already high rates of urbanisation.⁴⁰ The share of the population living in rural areas however is expected to drop to 47 percent by 2050, as people continue to migrate to or establish new urban areas.⁴¹ The National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) predicts the urban population will have already

risen to 42.4 percent by 2030.⁴² This growth occurs in the form of densification of the major cities, lateral expansion of informal settlements and growth of rural trading centres particularly along major roads and railways.⁴³

The shift in demographics will likely be reflected in a comparative shift in poverty profiles, with an increased proportion of those living in poverty residing in urban or peri-urban areas. This will require a much greater effort to address extant challenges in the urban settings of both mainland and Zanzibar. On the last count, around 62.5 percent of urban dwellers lived in unplanned settlements, with deficient public services. The lack of a clear policy for guiding urban development is compounded by insufficient capacities and disjointed systems to regulate and particularly finance urban services. PO-RALG does not have the practical support to provide the necessary strategic guidance to urban development, whilst emerging small towns lack the authority and capacity to manage their own development. Capital investment in urban development is also inadequate and uncoordinated, impaired by natural disasters such as floods and landslides (on the increase as a result of climate change).

There are correlations between poverty and fertility rates in Tanzania, with the latter impacted by income, location and educational attainment levels. The mainland HBS 2017/18 found the highest poverty rate in households with 7 or more household members.⁴⁴ Equally, TDHS 2015/16 found that those living in the poorest households averaged 7.5 children compared to 3.1 children in the wealthiest. Further, women living in rural areas averaged 6.0 children compared to 3.5 children in urban areas and women with no education had 6.9 children compared to 3.6 children by women with secondary education. A broader link between poverty and education is also evident, with approximately 35 percent of households headed by a person with incomplete primary or no education living below the national poverty line. This figure reduces to 26 percent for households headed by a person who has completed primary school and drops to 6 percent among households headed by a person with lower secondary education or above.⁴⁵

More female-headed households are in poverty (20.3 percent) than male-headed ones (14 percent). Some types of female-headed households are particularly vulnerable to poverty: single and divorced women are poorer than men by about 11 percent with the gap high in both rural and urban areas.⁴⁶ A pattern of lower educational attainment and employment type (discussed more below) plus lower access to productive assets such as land due to discriminatory legal practices⁴⁷ all contribute to the higher prevalence of poverty for women and girls.

There is also a high incidence of child poverty on both the mainland and in Zanzibar, particularly in rural areas. For the former, basic needs poverty for under 18 years was calculated at 30.1 percent and for extreme/food poverty at 9.4 percent. Nearly 9 out of 10 children (88 percent) live in multidimensional poverty in Mainland Tanzania, deprived in three or more deprivations.⁴⁸ Some of the worst-off children are children born to teenage mothers (under 18 years), as well as those living in rural areas. Meanwhile, in Zanzibar, 30.1 percent of children were registered as below the basic needs poverty and 11.4 percent as below the food/extreme poverty line in 2019/20.⁴⁹ Only 3 in 10 (29 per cent) of children in Zanzibar live in both monetary and multidimensional poverty.⁵⁰ As with rates in the broader population, there is a strong link between education and poverty, with parental education being the single most important determinant of childhood deprivation.⁵¹ For older children (age 5–17 years), the father's education is a strong protective factor for child labour, while for younger children, the mother's education is a strong protective factor for nutrition and water deprivation, underlining the importance of a holistic approach to poverty reduction.⁵²

Furthermore, the mainland HBS reveals a disproportionate share of the poorest households are those which include Persons With Disabilities (PWD). PWDs face additional difficulties in realising education and employment opportunities and have less access to support networks and social capital than those without disabilities.⁵³ They are therefore more likely to be food insecure and vulnerable to all kinds of shocks.⁵⁴

The depth of poverty (also known as the poverty gap) which measures the distance of the average poor household from the poverty line decreased from 10 to 6 percent between 2012 to 2018 on the mainland.⁵⁵ Approximately 50 percent, would need as little as TZS 350 (USD 0.15) per adult per day to cross the line and be lifted out of poverty. Equally, however, there is a significant proportion of Tanzanians living just above the poverty line, with 20 percent of nonpoor households at risk of falling into poverty if their incomes drop by TZS 550 (USD 0.24) per day.

In 2018, 92 percent of Tanzanians were below the threshold for economic security.⁵⁶ This exceeds the average of 90 percent for a lower income country and is far higher than the lower middle income average of 76 percent. Earlier analysis of the National Panel Surveys 2010 and 2015 by the World Bank reveal high rates of mobility in and out of poverty, with the poverty status of almost 30 percent of the population altered during the period.

This high rate of vulnerability makes the population particularly susceptible to health or income-related shocks, such as those engendered by the COVID-19 pandemic.⁵⁷ Simulations undertaken by the World Bank in early 2021, suggested that an additional 600,000 Tanzanians have fallen below the poverty line, particularly those in urban settings relying on self-employment and informal/micro enterprises, as a result of the pandemic.⁵⁸ This represents an increase in the poverty rate by 1.1 percent (versus a no-COVID projection of -0.4 percent), with an urban/rural split of 5.0 percent and 1.9 percent respectively.⁵⁹ Significantly, options for transitioning out of poverty are also reduced, as shifts to more productive activities within manufacturing or services slow down. In other words, future poverty risks have increased.

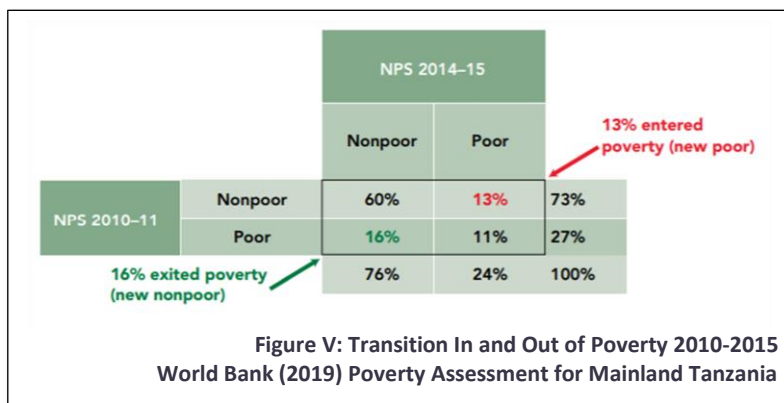


Figure V: Transition In and Out of Poverty 2010-2015
World Bank (2019) Poverty Assessment for Mainland Tanzania

The extent to which many transition in and out of poverty strengthens the case for a social protection floor in Tanzania that provides basic protection for all. Universal coverage provides a cushion for shocks, creating a bridge for the nonpoor which prevents reversals and ultimately reduces the likelihood of the intergenerational transmission of poverty. With the development of the National Social Protection Policy (NSPP) in the Mainland and the existing Zanzibar Social Protection Policy (ZSPP),⁶⁰ significant progress has been made in integrating Tanzania’s relevant programmes and policies into a comprehensive and inclusive social protection system. However, the recently launched national Productive Social Safety Net (PSSN II)⁶¹ programme primarily focuses on improving household income and food consumption for the extremely poor, while creating an incentive to invest in the education and health of their children. It does not currently encompass those that reside just above the poverty gap and only reaches 3 percent of urban households. Of the 1.4 million working age individuals employed in small family businesses in the nonfarm informal sector only around 3 percent benefit from a social protection programme.⁶² Moreover, administrative data of the social security funds from 2018 indicate that only a small minority of the employed population (7.2 percent on the mainland and 13 percent in Zanzibar) is currently enrolled in contributory pension schemes.⁶³ If these figures are to be increased the Government will need to agree a medium-term financing strategy for the social protection sector, including for the PSSN⁶⁴ plus increase allocations which currently stand at 0.46 percent of GDP for the mainland and 0.54 percent of GDP for Zanzibar’s. These are much lower than the regional average of 1.55 percent.⁶⁵

Information on the extent PWDs are benefiting from social protection programmes is limited. However, a study conducted in Mbeya, Tanga and Lindi in 2014 is indicative. It found that PWDs were half as likely to be enrolled in the Community Health Fund or have health insurance compared to peers without disabilities.⁶⁶ Further, the 2012 census found that only 10 percent of all households headed by PWDs were members of one of the country’s social security schemes, despite a much higher percentage falling within the lowest wealth quintile. Even those that are registered are often unable to access the services they are entitled to given many of the related services are concentrated in urban locations whilst the majority of PWD households are in rural areas.⁶⁷

Broadening poverty analysis to other indicators of well-being, such as those assessed through the Human Development Index reveals that despite gains made in recent years,⁶⁸ Tanzania has not kept pace with regional

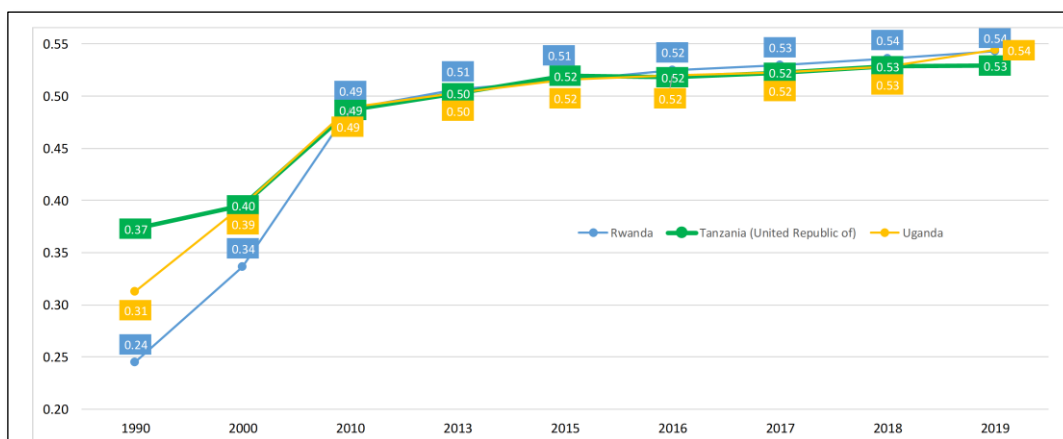


Figure VI: Human Development Index
Source: UNDP (2020) Human Development Report

comparators. Whilst the country was graded at a higher level than both Rwanda and Uganda when records began in 1990, the country is now placed 3 positions below Rwanda and 4 below Uganda (see Figure X), ranking 163 in 2019, down four places from 2018.

Likewise, the 2021 Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) with estimates based upon Household Surveys between 2014 to 2016, places Tanzania behind both Rwanda and Uganda, with 27.5 percent of the population in severe multidimensional poverty (a further 23.4 percent are vulnerable to severe multidimensional poverty) compared to 22.2 percent and 25.7 percent respectively. The contribution of deprivation to overall multidimensional poverty is split accordingly: education 22.3 percent; health 22.5 percent; standard of living 55.2 percent. This suggests that whilst much must be done to improve education and health, the most significant challenges are experienced in terms of access to WASH, energy and assets in Tanzania. These issues will be revisited in later sections.

Realising a Demographic Dividend

This sub-section steps out of the assessment of Tanzania's progress towards the SDGs for a moment, to explore Tanzania's current positioning in terms of securing the particular socio-economic benefits promised by the demographic dividend. If managed well, realisation of this window of opportunity could enable a giant developmental leap forward for the country and by extension accelerate the 2030 Agenda across all three dimensions of sustainable development. The World Bank asserts that approximately 30 percent of the increased growth experienced by East Asia during its economic miracle can be attributed to the positive ratio of dependents to non-dependents, whilst improvements in worker productivity through education, health and application of technology plus complementary export-oriented policies to provide employment for its rapidly expanding population accounted for the remainder.⁶⁹

The next two sections will review the latter elements, for now it is important to underline that the country's current profile—with a median age of 18, more than 43 percent of the population aged 14 years or below⁷⁰ and fertility rates of between 3.1⁷¹ and 5.2 percent⁷²—mean that the ratios between productive and non-productive population will likely take more than 40 years to shift into the ideal proportion.⁷³ High rates of early marriage, school dropout for girls, child mortality and unmet need for contraception⁷⁴ alongside limited economic opportunities for women and underlying social norms which negatively impact upon their agency to negotiate the timing and number of their children, have all contributed to Tanzania having one of the highest fertility rates in the world.⁷⁵

Cilliers calculates that if Tanzania introduces measures to advance the dividend by 13 years (including those to improve secondary school enrolment and completion rates among girls) by reducing the number of dependents and increasing the ratio of those of working age to dependents to 2.2 by 2059, the economy could see a sizeable boost, average income levels would increase by USD 4,500 and multiple indicators of well-being would all begin to improve by 2050. With smaller families, the overall burden on social services (currently outstripping supply) would reduce and governments could invest more; children would be healthier and better-educated, resulting in reductions in infant mortality which in turn would lead to a decline in demand for more children.⁷⁶

Moreover, as a 2018 DfID report⁷⁷ highlights, a large youth bulge relative to total adult population is associated with increased risk of conflict and high rates of criminal violence. This is especially true when young people lack opportunities in terms of education, training and employment. An African Development Institute study suggests that under current trends as many as 31 million aged 15 years above could be unemployed.⁷⁸ This could have a significant destabilising effect on the country suggesting urgent action is needed.

Social Development in Tanzania

Analysis of social development in country is undertaken through the lens of SDGs 2-6, assessing current status and trends across education, health (including HIV/AIDS), nutrition plus water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH). For each, we will review the progress made alongside the challenges/bottlenecks which persist and could slow progress across all three dimensions of the 2030 Agenda. Assessment of the funding of Social Development is discussed in detail in Part II of the CCA.

Education (Pre-Primary, Primary and Secondary Levels)

Within the education sector, there has been some improvement in enrolment figures for both girls and boys. This follows the introduction of a Fee Free Education Policy in 2016 for pre-primary to lower secondary levels. The government has

also introduced more monitoring by Ward Education Officers to reduce dropouts which decreased from 10.3 percent in 2016 to 3.1 percent in 2020.⁷⁹

Enrolment in primary education on the mainland increased to 95.7 percent (girls 96.7; boys 94.8) in 2020. Lower secondary net enrolment rate also increased, however remained low at 36.0 percent (girls 38.9; boys 33.2), a key bottleneck in the creation of a skilled productive labour force for optimisation of the aforementioned demographic dividend. In the same year, enrolment of children with disabilities in primary schools stood at 55,758 (girls 23,762; boys 31,996,) and 10,325 (girls 5,183; boys 5,142) in secondary school. Further, pre-primary net enrolment actually declined since 2016, from 46.7 percent (Girls 47.1; Boys 46.2) down to 35.9 percent (Girls 36.2; Boys 35.6) in 2020.⁸⁰

		2016				2019				2020			
		Male	Female	Total	GPI	Male	Female	Total	GPI	Male	Female	Total	GPI
<i>Mainland Net Enrolment (Government & Non-Government)</i>	Pre-Primary	46.2	47.1	46.7	1.0					35.6	36.2	35.9	0.97
	Primary	84.7	86.4	85.6						94.8	96.7	95.7	1.0
	Secondary Forms 1-4	32.1	34.6	33.4						33.2	38.9	36.0	
	Secondary Forms 5-6	3.8	2.7	3.2						3.3	3.2	3.3	
<i>Mainland Survival Rates</i>	Primary	45.38	53.34	49.32						71.59	79.64	75.54	
<i>Zanzibar Net Enrolment</i>	Pre-Primary			34.6		49.1	51.1	50.1					
	Primary			73.2		86.3	86.4	86.3					
	Secondary Forms 1-4			45.0				50.7					

Figure VII: Enrolment & Survival Rates

Source: MoESTVT (2016; 2020) Basic Education Statistics in Tanzania (BEST); ZMoEVT (2016; 2019) Education Statistical Abstract

Current pre-primary and primary pupil to teacher ratios (PTR) remain high for both levels on the mainland, well above the standard (1:25 for pre-primary and 1:45 for primary schools), potentially impacting upon the quality of education provided. Recruitment and retention of teaching staff is essentially failing to keep up with the expansion of the school-going population. In 2020, pre-primary PTR on the mainland across both types of schools was 1:104, with a much higher figure of 1:169 in government schools. This is despite increases of pre-primary teachers to 16,127 teachers in 2020, up from 14,958 in 2016. Meanwhile, at the primary level, the availability of teachers decreased by six percent between 2016-2020. This translates to an overall PTR of 1:56, from 1:43 in 2016.

In Zanzibar, whilst 86.3 percent (girls 86.4; boys 86.3) of children enrol in primary school at the correct age, net enrolment rates for pre-primary and secondary education are much lower at 50.1 (girls 51.1; boys 49.1) and 50.7 percent (girls 60.2; boys 46.9) respectively. There are improvements in the proportion of students entering primary school with pre-primary education which rose from 47.5 percent in 2016 to 56.1 percent in 2019. However—as on the mainland—the growing student body has not been matched by an increase in teachers. Furthermore, teacher absenteeism is a significant challenge; in a sample of primary schools undertaken in 2015, 41 percent of teachers were absent from school.⁸¹ Meanwhile, student to classroom ratios (without taking into account schools with double-shifts⁸²) stand at 1:56, 1:88 and 1:66 for pre-primary, primary and secondary schools respectively. Moreover, in 2019 whilst the transition rate from primary to secondary education stood at 95.2 percent, transition from Form II to Form III increased to 73.8 percent, from 68.4 in 2017 and from ordinary secondary to advanced secondary education increased to 17.2 percent, from 14.6 in 2017.⁸³ As on the mainland, these figures jeopardize the creation and/or growth of a skilled labour force critical to realising Zanzibar’s growth objectives.⁸⁴

Despite challenges, as Figure X reveals, there have been significant improvements in pass rates at primary school level on the mainland since 2014, up from 56.99 to 81.50 percent (girls 80.9; boys 82.2). The female cohort, although still marginally behind their male counterparts, has come from a much lower base, improving by 27.28 percent over the period. Lower secondary school level pass rates are high, reaching 99.1 percent in 2019, suggesting those that do stay in school achieve. In Zanzibar, the pass rates at primary school are higher than in the mainland, reaching 97.3 percent by 2019. The figures for secondary school Forms I-IV are much lower however, at only 63.7 percent in 2018, suggesting room for improvement.

Since the 2012 census report by the NBS in which the adult literacy rate was 71 percent, the Government has trained teachers extensively on literacy, numeracy and arithmetic skills, significantly improving teaching and learning in primary education. Literacy rates among those aged 15 and above reached 77.8 percent with higher rates among males (82 percent compared to females (73 percent)).⁸⁵ A Teachers Professional Development Board (TPDB) has also been established to expand in-service training and improve the quality of teaching. Under the National Inclusive Education Strategy 2018-2021, the Government has employed around 8,000 new teachers in the financial year 2020/21 (with more planned) to address teacher shortages and begun constructing new classrooms for primary and secondary schools. The 2019 Education Sector performance report indicates that there has been an approximate three percent increase in government primary schools to 16,212 in 2019 and approximate four percent increase in government secondary schools to 3,742 in 2019.⁸⁶

Fifty-five percent of Tanzania's refugee population are children. Their access to quality education and learning materials remains a serious challenge, with limited certification for learners and barriers to certificate validation. The MOEST integrated refugee education in the National Inclusive Education Strategy 2018-2021, however the 2003 Refugee Policy requires the use of the curricula from countries of origin, with a focus on the children's repatriation and reintegration. This creates difficulties for the procurement of textbooks, quality assurance and assessment (as well as transition and employment). The UN continues to urge a relaxation of the policy in favour of education for integration.

Out of School Children

A 2016 Out of School Study estimated that approximately one in four children of primary school age were out of school in Tanzania: 24.7 percent of boys and 21.7 percent of girls were out of school. Amongst the older school age population, older boys and girls had a more equal chance of being out of school. The 2017 BEST report indicated that 20 percent of all children enrolling in primary education are not completing their education.

Approximately 60 percent of the out of school children covered in the Out of School Study were from the poorest wealth quintile. They were also more likely to be engaged in child labour,⁸⁷ to be orphans, from migrant or nomadic families and/or have disabilities. Amongst the obstacles to completing education cited in the report were: lack of access to school meals; long distances to school; inadequacy of improved drinking water sources; lack of sanitation and hygiene services in school; violence in/outside schools (such as bullying, excessive punishment by teaching staff, sexual harassment in schools and on the way to and from school); inadequate facilities and support for children and young people with disabilities.

Amongst older girls, as Figure X shows, there is a significant reduction in attendance (see Forms V-VI): almost three in four girls fail to complete their secondary education. This can largely be attributed to high rates of early childbearing in Tanzania. According to the TDHS (2015/16), 1 in 4 girls aged 15-19 years already has a child or is pregnant with their first child. Currently, girls who fall pregnant are expelled from school and prohibited from returning after the birth of their child. In the 2016 UPR, the Committee on the Rights of the Child (CRC) expressed concern about the practice of mandatory pregnancy testing of girls as a pre-requirement for admission to school, as well the expulsion of pregnant girls from school. The UNCT also stated that existing protection and special programmes for girls (encompassing issues related to child marriage, early pregnancy, FGM and GBV) had been inadequate and resulted in many being unable to fulfil compulsory educational requirements.

The exclusion of pregnant girls and young mothers from education has been a long standing practice in Tanzania. Since 2002 it has been anchored in an amendment to the Education Act, which includes offences against morality as grounds for expulsion. Whilst the policy does not define such offences, school officials interpret these to include pregnancy. The objective is to reduce the high numbers of teenage pregnancies in the country, deterring girls from getting pregnant. However, as the policy does not address the root causes and drivers of teenage pregnancy, it has done little to reduce the figures. Conversely, the World Bank (along with Cilliers above) asserts that keeping girls in school is probably the best way to reduce early childbearing and child marriage. The latest government data supports their argument. According to the TDHS-MIS 2015/21, 42 percent of 15-19 year olds with no education had already had a live birth and 10.3 percent are pregnant with their first child. Meanwhile, of those with Secondary+ education, only 7.5 percent had had a live birth and 2.8 percent were pregnant with their first child. The 2018 World Bank study on girls in secondary education in Tanzania also demonstrated that high child marriage rates (36 percent of girls between 25 and 49 years old were married before the age of 18) contribute to the high percentage of teenage pregnancy.⁸⁸ Less than 1 percent of girls aged 15-19 are both in school and married whilst child marriage is the likely cause of about two thirds of all

instances of early childbearing.⁸⁹

Limiting girls' education affects both their and their children's life chances in multiple ways. Those who drop out of school early are more likely to have poor health, larger families and earn less as adults, all of which increase the likelihood that their households will suffer poverty. The World Bank calculates the loss in earnings for adult women working today due to marrying as children to be approximately USD 637 million (Purchasing Power Parity, PPP). Further, they are at greater risk of intimate partner violence and often lack decision-making power (agency) within the household. The World Bank asserts that ending child marriage could within 15 years generate USD 5 billion in annual benefits (PPP), by reducing fertility rates and population growth (as part of the demographic dividend discussed above). It could also save the education budget up to USD 311 million by 2030 (given the reduction in new students) and generate additional benefits associated with lower rates of under-5 mortality and stunting. Savings could be used to improve the quality of education, thereby enhancing human capital and generating longer-term additional economic benefits.

There are a range of measures which could enable more girls (and in certain cases more boys) to remain in school. Many of which are already underway albeit not in all localities, under the leadership of the Government with UN and other stakeholders' support. These include: increased access for those in remote communities (through construction of new schools, dormitories or school transport); creation of adequate WASH facilities to reduce days lost due to menstruation; interventions to address violence and sexual harassment on the way to, from or in school; support for the direct and indirect/opportunity costs of attendance. Importantly, girls (and boys) could benefit from better access to Sexual Reproductive Health (SRH) services including information and education (see below) plus support through community based interventions that tackle negative social norms and practices such as child marriage and early childbearing.⁹⁰

The 2016 Out of School Study confirmed 2012 census data showing PWDs are less likely to have attended school; approximately 25 percent compared to 21.8 percent of those without disabilities.⁹¹ Children with disabilities are more likely to never attend school in rural areas: only 36.2 percent of PWDs in the 5-24 years group attend school compared to 49.2 percent of those without disabilities. PWDs are also therefore more likely to be illiterate than persons without disabilities.⁹² In Zanzibar, PWDs in secondary schools constitute only 1.5 percent of enrolled students, while census data shows that between 6.8 percent of the population aged 7-16 years have a disability.⁹³ Fewer girls than boys with disabilities attend secondary education.⁹⁴ Barriers faced by many school children in particular girls, such as distance to school, risk of sexual abuse and child marriage are further compounded for those with disabilities by poor attitudes and discrimination by teachers, peers⁹⁵ and parents plus an inaccessible school environment (including WASH facilities).

Currently, education of children with disabilities is provided through special schools, special units and inclusive educational settings. Many of the special schools or units are privately funded and supported, although teachers may be provided by and paid for by the Government.⁹⁶ The aforementioned National Inclusive Education Strategy 2018-2021 and commensurate policy in Zanzibar attempts to address some of the challenges for PWDs in the education system. The government is hiring more teachers trained to support children with disability, building or rehabilitating school infrastructure to give access for children with disability and providing equipment and assistive devices to improve learning and teaching. However, to date, the support extended to facilitate inclusive education and special needs exclusive programmes in schools has not been universally applied, largely due to lack of awareness around and implementation of national guidelines, limited human resources plus budget constraints.

Under the FYDP III and MTDS, there are commitments to invest in infrastructure and personnel, with a focus on creating the knowledge and skills needed for the economy, although it is unclear as yet whether this will be accompanied in increases in resource allocations which has seen a decrease in absolute terms in recent years.

Health

Pre-market factors are not limited to educational attainment but also encompass interventions which support the generation of broader basic capabilities, such as those related to health, nutrition, hygiene and protection. The health sector for example plays a crucial role in the economy, with interventions affording a high return on investment. In line with some of the calculations shared in previous sections, it is estimated that every USD 1 spent globally on interventions promoting contraception and high-quality maternal and newborn healthcare would reap USD 120 in benefits.⁹⁷ Further, scaling up nutrition interventions targeting pregnant women and young children yields a return of at least USD 16 for every USD 1 spent.⁹⁸ The 2019 Human Development Report also asserts that nutritional initiatives which contribute to cognitive development can serve as the biggest equalizers for children, regardless of sex, disability or geographic

location.⁹⁹

Tanzania stopped releasing health statistics related to COVID-19 between April 2020-May 2021, creating challenges for any accurate assessment of the health impacts. It is clear however, that the pandemic diverted resources from an already strained health sector, in term of facilities, supplies and staffing, and reduced take-up as individuals were advised to not go to hospital unless strictly necessary. Existing challenges related to the supply chain (including imports) and logistics have been exacerbated and the absence of clear and consistent SOPs kept lifesaving medicines, treatments, personal protective equipment, and diagnostic supplies from reaching those who needed them most. Inadequacies in supply of basic infection prevention materials and personal protective equipment has spurred local production and innovation as well as increasing utilization of local resources in the health sector. These 'benefits' can be leveraged for improvements in the wider system, going forward.¹⁰⁰

The Governments of the United Republic of Tanzania and Zanzibar each have their own national health policy environment. Both are currently implementing their Health Sector HIV and AIDS Strategic Plans (2017–2022) with a goal of reaching treatment coverage of 95 percent of their paediatric and adult population. The second Tanzania Elimination of Mother to Child Transmission of HIV Strategic Plan (2018-2021) is also under implementation, plus the mainland is creating a new Gender and HIV Operational Plan based on the recently conducted Gender Assessment of the National HIV Response.

Significant improvements have been secured across a range of core health and related indicators, including HIV, in recent years.¹⁰¹ Under-five deaths have substantially reduced.¹⁰² The rapid scale up of the Integrated Management of Childhood Illness (IMCI) approach from 20 to 130 district councils in 4 years has increased the number of sick children receiving appropriate care. Meanwhile, strong Government commitment and good planning at district level has enabled outstanding results in the immunization programme with coverage maintained at above 90 percent for more than 10 years on the mainland.¹⁰³ The Immunization and Vaccine Development (IVD) programme has used a number of strategies to attain and sustain the immunization achievements to date such as: the Reaching Every Child (REC) strategy; Periodic Intensification of Routine Immunization (PIRI); plus advocacy and communication activities.¹⁰⁴ In Zanzibar, after a decline in 2017, immunisation rates improved in 2018 although remaining lower than those of the mainland:¹⁰⁵ children under one year who are fully immunized stood at 78.1 percent. Comprehensive immunisation campaigns have contributed to these increases, given only 69 percent of women deliver their babies at a health facility or are assisted by skilled health personnel in Zanzibar, which are the common entry point to start the immunization process.

Despite high coverage rates at national level, inequities persist. Immunisation coverage is lower in rural areas, in children of female caretakers with low socioeconomic status, amongst PWDs and pastoralists or fishing communities.¹⁰⁶ To increase uptake, vaccines are delivered in health care facilities together with other services (such as deworming, Vitamin A supplementation and distribution of treated mosquito nets) plus outreach and mobile services are organized for underserved areas. However, continuity of services is low due to the poor functionality of reminding methods, poor integration of services and the limited responsiveness of the health facilities. The second dose of the HPV vaccine¹⁰⁷ which is administered 6 months after the first reached only 31 percent in 2018 and 49 percent in 2019 respectively. This is compared to coverage of the first dose of 59 percent in 2018 and 78 percent in 2019. There were challenges in ensuring coverage during school closures for holidays and in contacting out-of-school girls. Specific targeting strategies are therefore needed, working in collaboration with regional and district education officers, to ensure all eligible girls are vaccinated.

The prevalence of viral Hepatitis B (HBV) is high at 4.3 percent compared to less than 2 percent for Hepatitis C (HCV). This is despite the country offering Hepatitis B Vaccine to infants as part of the routine immunization programme since 2003 with a coverage consistently over 90 percent. Prevalence is higher in admitted patients and people who inject drugs (PWID), with less than 1 percent receiving the appropriate diagnostic and treatment services for HBV or HCV.¹⁰⁸

The country has made significant strides in reducing the incidence of communicable diseases. The number of confirmed malaria cases declined by 20 percent from 7.7 million in 2015 to 6.7 million in 2019 on the mainland.¹⁰⁹ This is the result of tailored interventions at sub-national level for the past five years such as: larvicide; use of insecticide treated bednets; IRS and case management. However, such control interventions are not offered nationwide and as a consequence malaria remains the third cause of deaths among the under-fives (9 percent) and the second cause of deaths for the population aged 5 years and above (5 percent). There are also fears for a new outbreak, given the experience of neighbouring countries (namely Uganda and the Democratic Republic of Congo).¹¹⁰

Tanzania is on track to achieving the global target to End Tuberculosis (TB) 2025 milestones of a 50 percent reduction in the total number of TB deaths (currently at 35 percent) and a 20 percent reduction in TB incidence rate.¹¹¹ The country

has maintained a high treatment success rate for all forms of TB at over 90 percent since 2015,¹¹² and benefitted considerably from an increase in ART coverage (see below). However, the 50 percent increase of TB case detection rate is still behind requirements for the elimination of the disease. Laboratory capacities to diagnose drug sensitive and drug resistance TB are currently limited whilst implementation of TB interventions in remote areas and amongst children need further attention.

For ten years now, the Government of Tanzania has been distributing medicines to eligible persons to prevent and cure Neglected Tropical Diseases (NTDs). This has been executed through house-to-house community drug distribution schemes and health facilities' routine services. Both the mainland and Zanzibar have reached 100 percent geographical coverage. More than 135 million treatments have been administered in the last 5 years, enabling a reduction by 80 percent of 120 districts previously endemic for Lymphatic Filariasis and by 89 percent in 71 districts once endemic for trachoma.

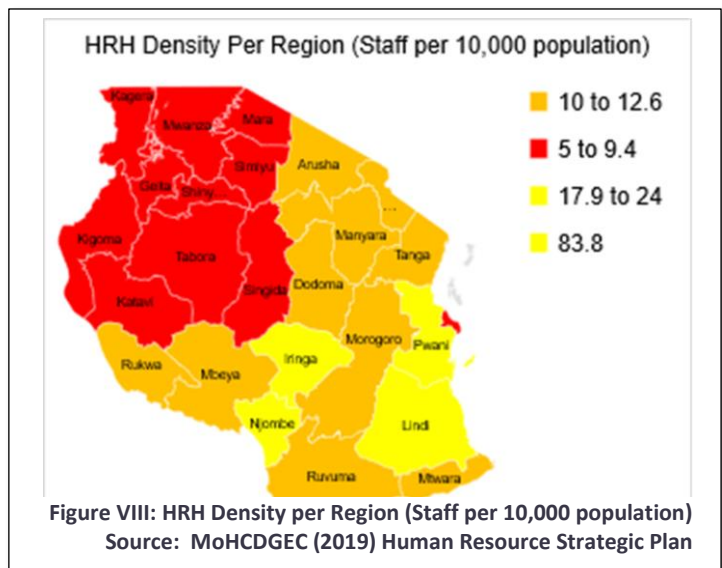
With the success of major disease control programmes, Tanzanians are living longer but often with multiple diseases and conditions that require complex care over many years. Nearly 50 percent of deaths in Tanzania are now due to Non-Communicable Diseases (NCD) for the population above 5 years.¹¹³ Hypertension is the second cause of mortality (8 percent) and the fourth cause of admission (4 percent) for persons aged 5 years and above.¹¹⁴ Diabetes Mellitus and cardiovascular diseases are also among the top ten causes of mortality for the population above 15 years. This is principally due to a dramatic increase in the prevalence of obesity and overweight, from 6 percent to 10 percent in just five years (2015-2019). In 2018, 31.7 percent of women 15-49 years were overweight or obese.¹¹⁵ The cost of care for NCDs—including palliative care—is very high for the population¹¹⁶ and there is low awareness of risk factors like physical exercise, eating habits, lifestyles, consumption of tobacco and over-use of alcohol. Moreover, the roles of various actors in the prevention of NCDs is not well defined, leading to poor accountability. Adoption of healthier lifestyles are hindered by limited regulation of processed foods and sweet drinks plus the absence of dedicated infrastructures for physical exercise in cities.

As reflected in national policies, such as the Health Sector Strategic Plan 2015-2020 (HSSP IV) and the National Road Map Strategic Plan to Improve Reproductive, Maternal, Newborn, Child and Adolescent Health (One Plan II) (2016-2020), sustainable and rapid reduction of maternal, newborn and child deaths and overall improved access to related quality services is a government priority in Tanzania. However, high and stagnant levels of maternal mortality and morbidity and other poor sexual and reproductive health outcomes persist. The latest estimate of Maternal Mortality Ratio (MMR)¹¹⁷ of 556 per 1,0000 births is higher than the ratios reported in the 2010 TDHS.¹¹⁸ Each year, almost 8,500 Tanzanian women die due to complications in pregnancy and childbirth.¹¹⁹

The increasing rates of early¹²⁰ and unintended¹²¹ pregnancies, high prevalence of HIV among women¹²² and female genital mutilation¹²³ (FGM) are cited as major determinants, underpinned by patriarchal attitudes, customs and traditions that inhibit women's and girls' agency.¹²⁴ In Tanzania, only 47 percent of married or in-union women aged 15-49, compared to the global average of 57 percent¹²⁵ are able to make their own decisions in three main areas of sexual and reproductive health and rights: deciding on their own health care, deciding on the use of contraception¹²⁶ and being able to say no to sex.¹²⁷ In addition, the Gender Assessment of the National HIV Response found that overall women are more vulnerable than men to HIV infection in Tanzania, with adolescent girls and young women (AGYW) (15-24 years) particularly at risk, largely due to socio-economic inequalities and harmful gender norms.¹²⁸ Limits to girls' and women's right to choose when and how many children not only have implications for their and their children's health and rights but also, as noted in the previous section, for realising the demographic window of opportunity and the broader benefits this can bring.

Through a significant Government-led programme of construction between 2015 and 2018 (487 health centres and 101 district hospitals on the mainland),¹²⁹ geographic access to health services has improved (including for maternal healthcare). There has been an increase of Outpatient Department utilization per person per year from 0.8 in 2016 to 0.85 in 2019 and an increase in the proportion of Health Centres providing Basic Obstetric Care to 81 percent.¹³⁰ In 2020, 60 percent of villages had dispensaries, 30 percent had health centres and 71 percent of councils had a District Hospital. Supply systems have been strengthened, with equipment standardized and delivered by the Medical Stores Department. Nonetheless, the low availability of essential equipment including laboratory testing and medical imaging at the service delivery points are still a threat for patients of all ages and for all conditions in most of the health facilities. Stockouts of essential medicines including blood products are less frequent though still present.¹³¹

The number of health care workers in facilities is well below the target set by the Government of Tanzania at only 50 percent.¹³² and the skill-mix is often inappropriate. Further, as with other aspects of healthcare, there is unequal distribution across the country. Whilst in some regions, there are more than 20 healthcare workers per 10,000 capita, in others there are no more than five.¹³³ Some cadres are not being trained in sufficient numbers, and those who are trained are often not well prepared for clinical practice. Many health training institutions are in a state of disrepair and the turnover among tutors is high. Further, Tanzania trains more health care workers, especially nurses and medical doctors, than are currently absorbed in the health system, leaving some unemployed whilst health facilities are understaffed or empty.¹³⁴ As a consequence, the health sector struggles to provide both the coverage and quality of care required. This is evidenced by the number of women giving birth in facilities increasing by approximately 50 percent since 2015,¹³⁵ without any sizeable impact upon the proportion of stillbirths or maternal mortality rates.¹³⁶



In Zanzibar, the shortage of healthcare workers is even more severe. There is less than one physician per 10,000 people (with an even lower ratio in poorer and more remote regions) and only 4 to 5 nurses per 10,000 people. Approximately, one third of deliveries are not attended by skilled health personnel¹³⁷ and 60 percent of women do not seek a postnatal check-up in the first 2 days after birth.¹³⁸ This not only contributes to maternal deaths but also to low rates of education on how to care for a newborn, the importance of breastfeeding, immunisation and care-seeking for childhood illnesses. It is anticipated that the rollout of the Community Health Strategy (launched in 2020) and the operationalization plans for 1,746 community health workers across Zanzibar will go a long way to improving a number of critical indicators related to women and children’s health on the archipelago.

Whilst the proportion of health facilities with three-star rating or higher increased, the figure remains low at 18 percent in 2017/18. Maternal and perinatal death surveillance and response (MPDSR) alongside regional level reviews and studies¹³⁹ reveal that 93 percent of all reported maternal deaths in 2019 occurred in the hands of health service providers who are not making ‘quick and right’ decisions. Further, whilst perinatal death reviews are conducted regularly, as reported in the Mid-Term Review of the HSSP IV, recommendations are not actioned. Fresh stillbirths (FSB) serves as a proxy indicator for the quality of intrapartum care and newborn mortality. DHIS-2 data shows that the proportion of FSB has increased in Tanzania from 42.2 percent in 2016 to 45 percent in 2019 whilst neonatal mortality contributes to 41 percent of under-five deaths in Tanzania.

The last annual Health Sector performance (2019) shows 2.5 percent of Under 5 outpatient attendance and 3.1 percent of those aged 5 years and above are classified as no diagnosis.¹⁴⁰ A further 20 percent of those persons admitted are discharged with no diagnosis, meaning the international classification of diseases is poorly used, resulting in low quality data for decision making.

Non-Communicable Diseases are neither detected nor managed in most of the primary health care facilities because basic diagnosis equipment is not available. Opportunities for early detection are often missed. As a consequence, prostate cancer is the most common cancer amongst males accounting for 26 percent of new cancer cases during 2018 and cervical cancer is a major public health concern representing 39 percent of new cancer cases among women. Based on the estimates from Globocan 2018, Tanzania ranks fifth in the list of top 20 countries with age standardized incidence of cervical cancer at 59.1 per 100,000 women population.¹⁴¹ Unlike other cancers, cervical cancer is almost 100 percent preventable if women receive timely quality screening and treatment. However, the cervical cancer screening programme reached 11 percent of women aged 30-50 years in 2018 whilst only 51.6 percent of those with positive results from a visual inspection of the cervix with acetic acid (VIA) were treated, significantly below the programme target of 90 percent.¹⁴²

As referenced above, there are significant challenges with the continuity and/or integration of services. Despite Antenatal Care coverage being almost universal countrywide, only 56 percent of pregnant women received IPTp2 doses to prevent malaria in 2016.¹⁴³ Targets related to early and timely screening and prevention of pregnancy-related complications plus the 90 percent target of early initiation of breastfeeding among all newborn children are also likely to be missed, given the 2018 value was only 53.5 percent on the mainland and 52.7 percent in Zanzibar.¹⁴⁴ Only 82.2 percent and 66.6 percent of newborns receive postnatal care within two and seven days respectively. Equally, the coverage of Vitamin A supplementation has dropped from 72 percent in 2014 to 64 percent in 2018¹⁴⁵ despite its availability in health facilities.¹⁴⁶ Whilst weight is checked in most children, only half are checked for cough, diarrhoea and fever, one in five are checked for danger signs and one in four assessed for feeding practices despite the availability of IMCI guidelines in 71 percent of facilities. This may be one of the reasons why malaria is still one of the leading causes of mortality (third in 2019) despite the availability of treatment at every level of the health system.

In addition to challenges in the availability and quality of care, take-up of services is further hindered by lack of appropriate care plus stigma and discrimination. Only 53 percent of health facilities provide adolescent and youth friendly services,¹⁴⁷ far below the 80 percent target of the One Plan II. The situation is worse in rural areas where the adolescent birth rate is 24 percent compared to 15 percent in urban areas.¹⁴⁸ Despite the high level of awareness of modern contraceptive methods among adolescents (96 percent), the unmet need for family planning is high at 22 percent.¹⁴⁹ The CRC in the last UPR (2016) expressed concern about the lack of adolescent-friendly health services, particularly in rural areas. It urged the URT to provide accessible, age-appropriate and adolescent-friendly health information and services for boys and girls, including confidential services, relating to sexual and reproductive health, with a focus on preventing pregnancy and making modern contraceptives available. By 2020 end, 58.5 percent of all schools were provided with sexuality education equalling approximately 7.5 million learners on the mainland and Comprehensive Sexuality Education terminology is featured in several government strategic and programming documents. Notwithstanding, prevailing cultural norms, negative perceptions and misinterpretations about adolescent sexuality and fidelity persist among many officials, intersecting with other practices such as child marriage and sexual exploitation.¹⁵⁰

Ensuring health programmes are inclusive also remains a challenge. A study on adolescents' SRHR undertaken in Zanzibar, revealed additional and significant barriers to access and full inclusion of young PWDs to SRH services, resulting in low levels of knowledge and utilization. These included: distance to health facilities; inaccessible infrastructure; inadequate medicines or medical equipment; lack of rehabilitation services; communication barriers; insufficient budgets for disability services; and lack of practical pro-disability health care plans or programmes.¹⁵¹ In another study, approximately 66 percent of women with disabilities reported different forms of verbal abuse or discriminatory practices when attending maternal services.¹⁵²

Comprehensive Primary Health Care services are availed to refugees through health facilities in the camps and secondary and tertiary referrals. Both Crude and Under 5 Mortality Rates remain within the Sphere standard. Nonetheless, the challenging living conditions in the camps increase risks of potential disease outbreaks. Services for chronic and non-communicable diseases are limited; there is intermittent supply of essential medicine due to strict regulations on importation. Medical referrals to secondary and tertiary specialized health facilities are prioritized based on prognosis of the cases. However, the district level health facilities in the refugee hosting areas are ill-equipped to provide the required advanced medical care.

Access to health services is further limited by financial barriers: the most vulnerable people can easily cross the poverty line with high Out-Of-Pocket (OOP) health expenditures. Women are more vulnerable, as indirect costs such as transport and food, may prevent take-up of care even when services are free. On average, an individual in Tanzania spends TZS 1,577.9 per month on health. However this figure masks important variations across socio-economic groups with OOP payments ranging from TZS 283.2 for the poorest 20 percent of the population to TZS 4,746.6 for the richest 20 percent of the population. In other words, the richest spend approximately 17 times more on health than the poorest per month. OOP payments amount to TZS 1,368.3 in rural areas but are nearly double that in Dar es Salaam at TZS 2446.2.¹⁵³ Such data (as reflected in Section I above) underlines the need for universal coverage of social protection and in this case specifically health coverage initiatives. Tanzania's long-term goal to reach Universal Health Coverage foresees a major health financing reform through the introduction of a mandatory Single National Health Insurance with a standard minimum benefit package entitlement for all citizens. The process however of adopting this bill has been lengthy; decision-makers are still evaluating the fiscal space and identifying the means to include low income households who are not in a position to pay the premiums.

With 1.7 million people living with HIV in 2020¹⁵⁴ and 860,000 AIDS orphans (0-17 years)¹⁵⁵ Tanzania is a regional and global high priority country in the AIDS response.¹⁵⁶ The significant heterogeneity in HIV prevalence is indicative of differentials in transmission risks: area of residence (with particularly high rates in Njombe, Iringa and Mbeya, and an overall rate of 7.5 percent in urban settlements compared to 4.5 percent in rural areas); gender (as aforementioned the rate amongst adult women is double that of adult men given biological differences as well as social norms which restrict their agency, increase the risk of sexual violence and likelihood that their partners will be older with a history of multiple sexual partners)¹⁵⁷, and age groups (less than 2 percent among 15-19 years old, with increases with age for both sexes).¹⁵⁸ Key populations are disproportionately affected across Tanzania, registering much higher HIV prevalence rates: 15 percent for female sex workers; 8.3 percent among men who have sex with men and 8.7 percent among people who inject drugs.¹⁵⁹ In Zanzibar, the HIV epidemic is concentrated in key populations at higher risk of HIV.

The estimated number of HIV infections declined by 29 percent between 2010 and 2020 (from 90,600 to 68,800) against the global target of 75 percent. In 2020, of the estimated HIV new infections, 32 percent occurred in 15-24 years old of both sexes. AGYW have been disproportionately affected accounting for 21 percent of all new HIV infections (Figure X). New HIV infections amongst the youth and mobile populations is increasing, especially in the southern regions, with the decline of condom use during last sexual intercourse among sexually active unmarried adolescent girls aged 15-19 years from 50 percent to 37 percent between 2010 to 2015/16.

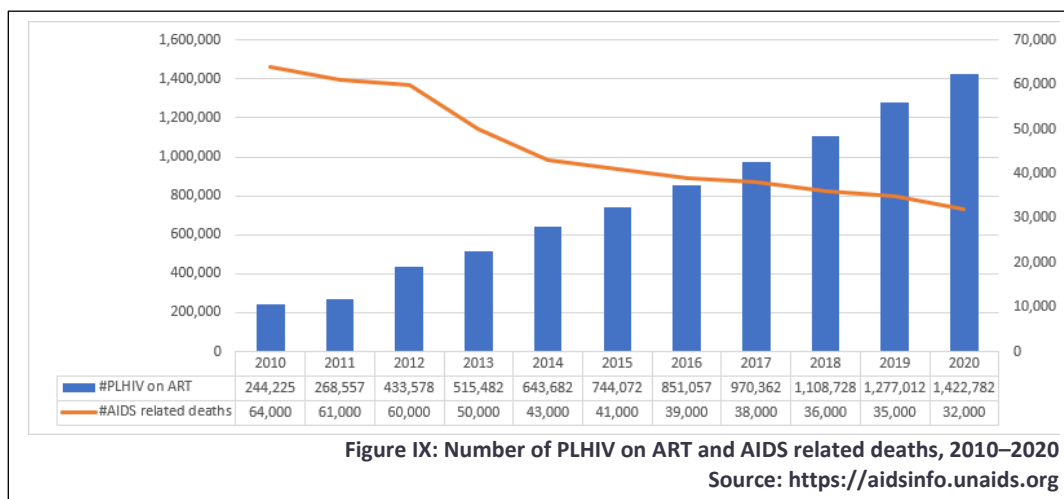
In 2019, amendments to the 2008 HIV/AIDS Prevention and Control Act were passed by Parliament, lowering the age of consent from 18 to 15 years and introducing HIV self-testing for those 18 years and above.¹⁶⁰ During the review which preceded the amendments, gaps were revealed related to structural, legal (eg criminalised behaviour of key populations), cultural (eg negative gender norms) and policy (eg service delivery for key populations) barriers that affect both effective HIV prevention and treatment, particularly for women young people. The government commitment to the SADC Ministerial Declaration (November 2020) and extension of the ESA commitment till 2030 gives hope for addressing some of these concerns going forward.

Limited resources mean that the coverage of the youth population with HIV combination prevention programmes is still low and therefore unlikely to result in a significant decrease in new HIV infections. Currently, initiatives are reaching only 23 percent of priority districts with high HIV prevalence and burden.¹⁶¹

The target of 84 percent of voluntary medical circumcision uptake among 15-24 years old was achieved.¹⁶² About 200,000,000 male condoms were distributed in 2020, a 545 percent increase on the previous year; however, this still represents only 35 percent of total need. It is anticipated that the National Condom Strategy 2019–2023 and the National Condom Distribution Guide will facilitate distribution at community level beyond health system structures, enabling increased access. However, there are currently no resources for a total market strategy using the comparative advantages of all sectors—public, non-profit, and commercial—to strengthen condom distribution.¹⁶³

With the adolescent population expected to increase by 50.4 percent to 19.4 million adolescents in 2030,¹⁶⁴ scale-up and improvements in the quality of cross-sectoral HIV prevention programmes are vital. These need to be linked to efforts to improve sexual and reproductive health, violence prevention and response, social protection and access to skills and economic opportunities. The National Accelerated Investment Agenda for Adolescents' Health and Wellbeing 2019/2022 is an opportunity for evidence-based advocacy and joint resource mobilization to scale up primary prevention amongst adolescents and young people.

Mother to child transmission (MTCT) of HIV decreased from 26 percent in 2010 to 7.9 percent in 2020¹⁶⁵ against the global target of 5 percent.¹⁶⁶ The percentage of pregnant women enrolled in prevention of mother-to-child transmission (PMTCT) services reached 90 percent in 2019. Retention rates among pregnant and lactating mothers (67 percent and 83 percent respectively) remain a challenge. HIV-infected pregnant women in non-PEPFAR¹⁶⁷ supported health facilities (accounting for 30 percent of all newly identified in country) have lower coverage of Antiretroviral Therapy (ART) at only 52 percent only compared to 95 percent of those that receive PEPFAR assistance. Consequently, there is lower uptake of HIV exposed children to Early Infant Diagnosis (30 percent and 62 percent respectively).¹⁶⁸ In 2019, only half of HIV exposed children in Tanzania (46.6 percent in 2019) were tested at 6 weeks.¹⁶⁹



Against the backdrop of the 2006 Political Declaration to end AIDS by 2030,¹⁷⁰ as a “Fast Track” country (ie amongst those contributing to 90 percent of the global burden), Tanzania reformulated its approach to focus on

populations and locations with high impact, based on a strengthened evidence base. Broader access to antiretroviral drugs improved with Government adoption and implementation of the global “test and treat” policy in 2016. As of December 2020, an estimated 83 percent of PLHIV know their status, almost 100 percent of those who know their status and are on care are on ART and 92 percent of those on ART are being virally suppressed.¹⁷¹ Approximately 1,416,852 PLHIV were on life saving ART. The paediatric ART coverage of 82 percent in 2020 puts the country on track to reach the national target of achieving 90 percent coverage by 2022¹⁷² Between 2010 and 2020, AIDS-related deaths declined by almost 50 percent.¹⁷³

All refugees and asylum seekers have access to voluntary HIV counselling and testing provided by UNHCR health partners, as per national guidelines. In 2020, a total of 7,217 refugees were counselled and tested; 12,439 pregnant women receiving antenatal care for the first time were also counselled and tested for HIV. Approximately 283 new HIV cases (including 97 pregnant women) were identified across the 3 refugee camps and enrolled into the HIV care and treatment unit.

In 2020, a national HIV/COVID-19 Task Team, led by the National AIDS Control Programme was established to ensure continuity of HIV services and reduce COVID-19 exposure of PLHIV and health care workers. Best practices were advocated for and guidance on provision of services to PLHIV during COVID-19 was disseminated to health facilities. HIV services are listed as essential health services in the National COVID-19 Response Plan.¹⁷⁴ The Ministry of Health programme monitoring of commodity stocks in 2020 demonstrated logistical challenges with securing adequate replenishment. There has also been an increase in expiry or understocking of ARV medicines and laboratory reagents.¹⁷⁵

PLHIV are still stigmatized in Tanzania, resulting in many avoiding HIV testing, and those who are aware of their status finding it difficult to use antiretroviral drugs in the presence of others. Among adults 15 years and older who ever heard of HIV, 25.6 percent reported discriminatory attitudes towards PLHIV. These are higher among persons aged 50 years and older, those who live in rural areas, those who have a lower level of educational attainment and are in the lower wealth quintiles.¹⁷⁶

Laws directly or indirectly criminalizing sex work are limiting sex workers’ and clients’ ability to seek and benefit from HIV assistance programmes, thereby undermining the broader efficacy of HIV and sexual health programmes. The latter is further undermined by the criminalisation of LGBT. On 2 November 2018, UN High Commissioner for Human Rights Michelle Bachelet raised concerns that “lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender people [have] been subjected to growing violence, harassment and discrimination over the past two years. In April 2019, the Government formally deregistered Community Health Education and Advocacy Services (CHESA), one of Tanzania’s most established organisations working to advance health and rights for LGBT people. Arrests for sexual orientation and gender identity plus forced anal examinations have adversely impacted upon the LGBTIQ community’s access to health services.

States' obligations to promote and protect HIV-related human rights are defined in existing international treaties.¹⁷⁷ In recent years, rights-holders and duty-bearers have engaged in multi-stakeholder dialogues. The Key Populations Forum has operated as a platform of exchange with government and development partners around the national response on the mainland. Findings from the ongoing stigma index surveys both on mainland and in Zanzibar plus the aforementioned Gender Assessment of the National HIV Response are now being used to improve policies and

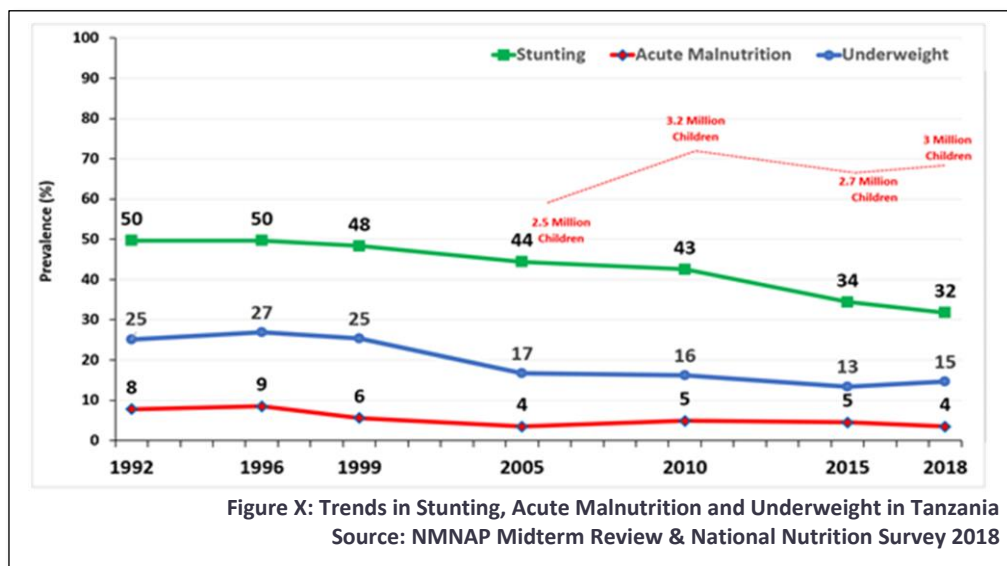
programmes. Furthermore, support to the Association of Tanzania Employers and the Trade Union Congress of Tanzania has enabled the development, registration and implementation of company action plans to promote HIV and Gender non-discrimination at work.

Nutrition

Tanzania is affected by the triple burden of malnutrition, with one third of children stunted, one third of women of reproductive age affected by anaemia, and one third of women overweight or obese.

The prevalence of stunting on the mainland has decreased from 44 percent in 2005 to 32 percent in 2018 but—because of population growth—the absolute number of children affected by stunting has increased from 2.5 million to 3 million with higher numbers evident amongst males.¹⁷⁸ Wasting prevalence is at 3.5 percent with approximately 440,000 children suffering from moderate acute malnutrition (MAM) and 90,000 with severe acute malnutrition (SAM). This represents a marginal improvement of around one percent since 2015 and is considerably less than the developing country average of 8.9 percent. The country has already met the 2025 World Health Assembly (WHA) global targets of less than 5 percent wasting in children under five and over 50 percent for exclusive breastfeeding in the first six months (currently at 59 percent). However, the prevalence of undernutrition amongst adolescent girls has largely remained unchanged since 2010, at 18 percent.¹⁷⁹

According to the 2018 Zanzibar Health bulletin, the leading cause of deaths in children under 13 years in Zanzibar hospitals was SAM (severe wasting). The 2018 National Nutrition survey also shows that the rates of wasting in Zanzibar (6.1 percent) are higher than on the mainland (3.5 percent). Stunting rates in Zanzibar however are lower at 21.5 per cent. Among women of childbearing age, Zanzibar has seen an improvement in thinness (BMI <18.5) which has decreased from 17 percent in 2004-05 to 12 percent in 2015-16.¹⁸⁰



Amongst the camp-based refugee population, prevalence of stunting among children 6-59 months has remained relatively constant at between 47 and 51 percent across the three camps in 2019.¹⁸¹ This is well above the national average and considered critical according to WHO/UNICEF classification (>30 percent). Prevalence of anaemia among Congolese children (6-59 months) decreased from 56.0 to 31.2 percent and amongst Burundians in Nyarugusu camp from 35.3 to 32.9 percent between 2018 to 2019. For Burundian refugees in Nduta and Mtendeli camps, the prevalence also reduced from 37.4 to 19.1 percent and from 49.9 to 20.7 percent respectively.¹⁸²

Anaemia prevalence among children aged 6-59 months nationally remained stagnant between 2010 and 2015, hovering around the 58 percent mark. Meanwhile, among women aged 15-49 years during the same period, anaemia increased from 40 to 45 percent and amongst adolescent girls rose to 47 percent. In Zanzibar, the prevalence among women aged 15-49 years is considerably higher than the mainland, reaching 60 percent in 2015. These figures have improved since the last TDHS, with the mid-term review of the National Multisectoral Nutrition Action Plan (NMNAP, 2016/21) and the National Nutrition Survey (TNNS) showing a reduction of anaemia among women of reproductive age from 44.7 percent in 2015/16 to 28.8 percent and the Zanzibar Health Bulletin reporting a reduction to 43.2 percent in 2018. Notwithstanding, 7.8 percent of maternal deaths in Zanzibar continue to be attributed to anaemia.¹⁸³ Antenatal care guidelines make it mandatory for all women to receive iron and folic acid supplementation, although stockouts indicate

demand is higher than supply.

Overweight and obesity among women is the only form of malnutrition on the increase in Tanzania. As stated above, around 32 percent of women of reproductive age now fall within this category.¹⁸⁴ Amongst adolescent girls aged 15-19 years, the rate has increased from 9 percent in 2010 to 11 percent in 2015. Overweight and obesity are important predictors of pregnancy outcomes, including gestational diabetes, preeclampsia, and stillbirth, whilst their children are at increased risk of developing diabetes and heart disease.¹⁸⁵ On a positive note, prevalence of overweight / obesity among children under five years has decreased from 3.6 percent in 2015/16 to 2.8 percent in 2018. Tanzania is therefore, on track to meet WHA 2025 target for no increase in overweight in children. Notwithstanding, given the overall trend, the issue requires urgent attention with potentially high costs to the health system if neglected.

Improved nutritional status at the population level is hindered by several factors, including financial barriers to a nutritious diet. Income poverty translates to low dietary diversity and the resultant various forms of malnutrition, with poorer households experiencing higher rates of stunting and wasting.¹⁸⁶ Nationally, 56 percent of household expenditure goes towards food, this rises to 70 percent in the poorest households.¹⁸⁷ The Cost of Diet analysis conducted as part of the “Fill the Nutrient Gap” (FNG) assessment, revealed that an estimated 20 percent of households nationally are unable to afford a diet that provides enough energy and 59 percent of Tanzanian households cannot afford a nutritious diet.¹⁸⁸

Early childbearing puts young women and their children at further risk of malnutrition, which is of particular concern in Tanzania. Nutritious diets for women and adolescent girls cost more than that of an adult man because they need relatively more nutrient-dense foods; the cost of a nutritious diet for an adolescent girl is up to 19 percent higher during pregnancy and lactation.¹⁹⁰ Further, traditional practices that deprive women and girls of certain essential foods due to food taboos in Tanzania lead directly to poor maternal nutrition and greater vulnerability to illness and disease. Good practice from other countries in the region show that interventions, such as the distribution of Multiple Micronutrient Supplementation (MMS) to pregnant women to optimize maternal health plus the provision of cash transfers to households living with young children, can improve access to adequate healthy food. This is achieved through a universal child grant which is disbursed to mothers until the child reaches the age of 2.

For refugees, food consumption scores (FCS) dropped from 53 in 2019 to 44 in 2020 while households with Acceptable FCS (ie >35) decreased from 86 to 81 percent. Households with insufficient FCS (ie 0-21) increased from 14 to 19 percent during the same period. This is likely attributed to the various restrictions on livelihoods and opportunities for income generation and trade including closure of markets which has led to an almost full dependence on humanitarian food rations.¹⁸⁹

Lack of diversity in both agricultural production and household food consumption, insufficient fortification of staple foods, and constraints in terms of women’s workload and knowledge of caring practices for infants and young children, also hinder access to nutrients. The FNG assessment indicates that nationally Tanzanians obtain an average of 70 percent of their energy from staple foods, most of which are unfortified. Among food insecure households, 80 percent of the calories consumed come from staples. Despite national laws on mandatory fortification, fortified wheat flour, maize flour and edible oil are found primarily in urban centres and are generally not available in rural areas. Better-off households are more able and therefore likely to purchase non-staple foods for greater nutritional diversity.¹⁹¹

Despite high food production in Tanzania, animal source foods and micronutrients rich foods are not sufficiently consumed by women and children. Food systems are inadequate to ensure local production and consumption, as they mainly focus on producing for sale. On average, Tanzanian households rely on markets for 60 percent of their energy needs. Even in rural households, nearly 40 percent of the calories consumed are purchased. Across livelihood zones, poorer households consistently rely on markets more than wealthier households, particularly for staples, to supplement their own production.

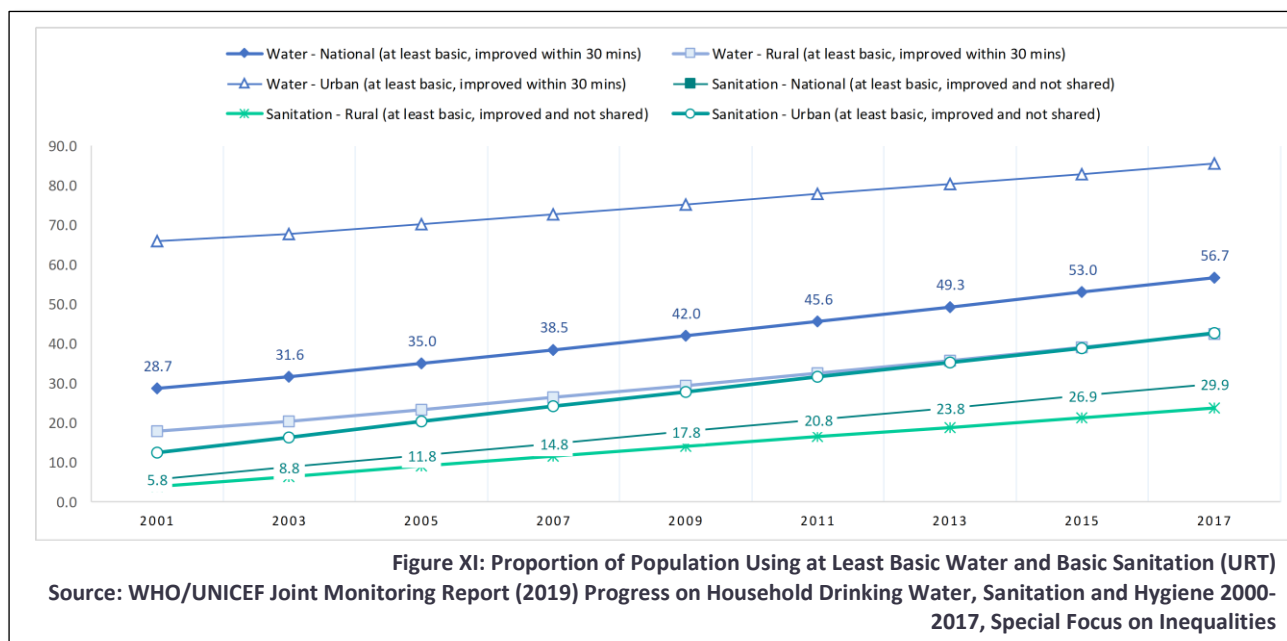
Given the breadth of challenges faced by Tanzanian households in achieving good nutrition, interventions addressing the immediate causes of malnutrition (or nutrition-specific interventions) have limited impact without complementary interventions that also address the underlying and fundamental causes of malnutrition (nutrition-sensitive), and the integration of nutritional objectives across multiple sectors. To this end in 2017, the Government launched the NMNAP. Overall implementation is on track with 80 percent of the impact level mid-term targets met at the time of the 2018 review (some of which have been cited above).

Key remaining challenges for nutrition in Tanzania include minimal attention to pre-conception and adolescent

nutrition. Nutrition interventions for school-age children and adolescents have very low coverage, despite their potential to prevent all forms of malnutrition and especially overweight / obesity. Schools are currently underused as a platform to reach a high number of children and adolescents with nutrition interventions.

Further, as indicated above, integration of nutrition service delivery within the health system is not at scale. Tanzania in the past five years has been heavily reliant on nutrition programmes supported by development partners which work in parallel to the health system. As a result, key maternal and child health contact points are missed, nutrition services are not systematically provided, adversely impacting upon potential for scale up and sustainability.

Water, Sanitation and Hygiene (WASH)



The water, sanitation and hygiene sector in mainland Tanzania is guided by the Water Supply and Sanitation Act No. 12 of 2009 and the Water Sector Development Programme (WSDP 2006–2025). As figure X demonstrates, there has been steady progress made in terms of the provision of basic water and sanitation over the past two decades in Tanzania.¹⁹² However, access in urban areas is considerably higher than for counterparts in rural areas, with access to basic sanitation being especially low for those living out of town.¹⁹³

According to figures from 2017,¹⁹⁴ 68 percent of the population were using at least a basic water service, with 18 percent using unimproved water and 14 percent relying on surface water. The FYDP III (finalised in 2021) asserts that the proportion of the population with access to piped or protected water source reached 80 percent in urban areas. However, in rural areas, of 131,370 water points constructed during the previous Plan (designed to benefit over 25 million) only just over 65 percent are still functioning. There is also a strong regional variation in the coverage of improved drinking water. Regions in the central spine, (ie Mara, Shinyanga, Tabora Mbeya etc.) and Pwani and Lindi, all have coverage below 55 percent with Rukwa region the lowest at 39 percent. All other regions have coverage of improved drinking water above 55 percent with Kilimanjaro region and the Zanzibari islands of Pemba and Unguja above 85 percent.¹⁹⁵

Moreover, despite two thirds of the overall population using improved water sources, there is no national water quality data due to poor surveillance. Further, most rural water supply systems do not have water treatment facilities such as simple chlorination. Water supplies in rural areas also face challenges of sustainability, stemming from high operating and maintenance costs as a result of running diesel-powered pumps. This is exacerbated by inadequate participation of communities in the management and operation of water supply systems plus low availability of spare parts and technicians to maintain systems at community level. Moreover, high rates of urbanization have intensified pressure on water supplies with a greater reliance on ground water withdrawals. This is against a backdrop of an increase in extreme weather events, including severe and prolonged droughts and heavy precipitation. In the medium-term, this will be felt

in diminished water resources due to reduced river flows and groundwater recharge which could in turn lead to drinking water scarcity. Increased periods of heavy flooding are also anticipated; with potential to damage crops, destroy infrastructure including water supply systems, and coastal inundation affecting the quality of groundwater. To address these multiple stresses on water supply, there is a need to strengthen water basin authorities' capacity for more effective routine water resource management plus better integrate climate adaptation measures.¹⁹⁶

	Drinking Water			Sanitation			Hygiene		
	National	Rural	Urban	National	Rural	Urban	National	Rural	Urban
Safely Managed	-	-	35	25	22	31	-	-	-
Basic Service	57	43	51	5	1	11	48	40	63
Limited Service	11	14	7	17	6	40	35	40	25
Unimproved	18	24	5	41	54	16	-	-	-
No Service	14	20	3	12	17	2	17	19	12

Figure XII: Key Water, Sanitation and Hygiene indicators for Tanzania 2017
Source: WHO/UNICEF JMP (2019)

With regard to hygiene in the URT, 48 percent of the population were using a basic service in 2017, (defined as a handwashing station with water and soap present), while 35 percent had a limited service, (handwashing station with either no water or no soap), and 17 percent had no hygiene service at all.¹⁹⁷ These figures compare favourably with most SSA countries where the proportion of the population using a basic hygiene service is much lower. Regional comparators stand at 25 percent, 5 percent and 21 percent for Kenya, Rwanda and Uganda respectively.

The current gap in provision is most keenly experienced by women and girls. Although Tanzania lacks national data regarding the particular time burden on women and girls for household water collection, an analysis of 25 countries in SSA (including the URT) reveals that in 71 percent of all households without water on the premises, women or girls are primarily responsible for water collection. Given a single round-trip takes approximately 30 minutes,¹⁹⁸ the time taken can have significant opportunity costs for women and girls, affecting their capacity to take education and employment options.

Across institutions, 55 percent of schools had access to basic drinking water services, 18 percent had access to basic hygiene services and 30 percent had access to basic sanitation services.¹⁹⁹ Meanwhile, 55 percent of healthcare facilities had access to basic drinking water services and 34 percent access to basic hygiene services. There is inadequate data on access to basic sanitation in healthcare facilities, although it is perceived to be low,²⁰⁰ with severe implications for the quality of the healthcare provided.

Whilst a 1973 government campaign (Mtu ni Afya) successfully promoted the construction and use of household toilets, many of these latrines were unimproved, thereby failing to separate excreta from human contact. Consequently, although 30 percent of the population in URT were using at least a basic sanitation service in 2017 (with a further 17 percent using a limited service, ie being shared by two or more households), there were almost as many people again using unimproved toilets, (41 percent), and an additional 12 percent still practicing open defecation. The latter figures are increasing albeit marginally, mainly as a result of population growth. Across 2000-2017, sanitation coverage has averaged just 1.5 percent growth per year across Tanzania. The regions with the highest coverage of improved sanitation are Zanzibar (50 percent), Kilimanjaro (47 percent), Arusha (45 percent) and Njombe (21 percent). These are all well below the Government's Vision 2025 target of 95 percent. All other regions fall below 20 percent, and eight regions fall below 10 percent.

Given the importance of adequate WASH to protect against the spread of disease and most recently the COVID-19 virus, it is hoped that related services will receive more attention and resources going forward. The FYDP III lists a number of interventions to improve both quantity and quality of water supplies and sanitation. These include: investments in infrastructure and improved application of technology for waste treatment and recycling; support to Community Based Water Supply Organizations for enhancing sustainability; strengthened systems for data collection, processing and dissemination of related statistics; better conservation and protection programmes for water resources including the equitable utilization of trans-boundary water resources.

In Zanzibar, targets for the water and sanitation sector are guided by the Water Policy, Health Policy and School Water and Hygiene Guidelines. Under the forthcoming MTDS, the Zanzibar government has mainstreamed environmental

sustainability concerns throughout efforts to improve WASH across the archipelago. An integrated approach to water resource management will be pursued under a master plan and associated strategies, potable water sources will be diversified and reinforced by undersea freshwater, rainwater harvesting, reuse technologies and seawater desalination. Water sources for economic activities will be optimised with support from research and development. Sewerage treatment systems for households and industry will be constructed and the ‘polluter pays’ principle enforced. A robust institutional framework for the sustainable and responsible collection, processing and disposal of waste (including hazardous) will also be established, with a focus on empowering LGAs and other relevant institutions.

Public Financing of Social Development

In terms of financing social development and the relative impact of Tanzania’s recent strong record of GDP growth, the picture is mixed. On the mainland in Education, whilst budget allocations have increased in absolute terms they have decreased as a share of national budget, dropping to 14.8 percent in 2017/18 from 17.2 percent in 2015/16. Meanwhile in Zanzibar, the share of national budget increased from 14.5 percent in 2016/17 to 18.1 percent in 2017/18. However, both figures fall short of the target of 20 percent of the national budget set by the global Education for All campaign. The relative share of the WASH sector on the mainland also decreased from 2.7 percent to 2 percent between 2018/19 and 2019/20.²⁰¹ (Only 6 percent of this is invested in sanitation). Moreover despite commitments to improve nutritional outcomes, budget allocations amounted to only 0.9 percent of GDP and 3.8 percent of total public spending in 2015/16.²⁰² The progressive minimum budget allocation for each under-5 child has stagnated at 1,000 TZS since 2016/17 and therefore is unlikely to meet the 2025 WHA target of USD 8 per child per year recommended budget to combat child stunting.²⁰³ Even the nominal figure of TZS 1,000 is not being delivered by some LGAs.²⁰⁴

Dependence on foreign resources remains high across the sub-sectors, with attendant concerns for both national leadership of service delivery at scale and sustainability especially given COVID-19 induced ODA reductions globally. Development Partner financing in the form of General Budget Support and the Health Basket Fund constitutes one third of total spend for the mainland health budget, far above the SSA average. Whilst the situation is improving with an increase in Government share of domestic resources of Total Health Expenditure (Government and Health Insurance) to 53 percent in 2017/18, the budget allocation at 9 percent of total government budget (excluding national debt) in 2020/21 does not meet real needs and is well below international benchmarks for provision of essential health care.²⁰⁵ In the FYDP III, the government has committed to increase this figure to 12.2 percent by 2025 but this is still below the Abuja target of 15 percent. Domestic resources for HIV/AIDS have increased from 8.6 percent in 2017²⁰⁶ to 10.1 percent in 2019. However, these figures contain little spending on commodities, equipment, and technical assistance which are financed externally, in particular through PEPFAR and the GFATM.²⁰⁷

There are also considerable challenges in under-execution of budget, with significant geographic variation reported. For example, the Ministry of Water executed 58.2 percent of its overall budget²⁰⁸ and locally funded development projects executed 57 percent in 2018/19. For particular projects, these figures drop further. A detailed examination of the 2019/20 budget revealed that only 21 percent of the funds allocated to water development projects were actually released.²⁰⁹

Reviews of the Public Service Reform Phase 1 in Zanzibar (2019) and the Performance Results and Accountability Project mainland (2014) revealed remarkable achievements but also significant gaps which help to explain this pattern of under-execution. These include: conflicting provisions across legislation in terms of authority, mandate, scope and parameters; inadequate Human Resource capacity and planning; inadequate systems of recruitment and capacity development; uncoordinated design and development of structures which causes functional overlap and affects effective management; inadequate systematic planning for public service delivery; inadequate e-service development and platforms; inadequate management of public records and inadequate capacity at local government level to deliver their mandates. The two Government’s agenda of competitiveness requires a public service that is well coordinated, efficient, responsive, and delivers timely, quality services to all living within its borders. As the FYDP III and MTDS enter full implementation, there is a particular opportunity for those in leadership positions in the Tanzania Public Service to transform the system, enabling it to become a catalyst for viable, sustainable social development across the country.²¹⁰

Enhanced Capabilities

Whilst these basic capabilities—primarily associated with the absence of extreme deprivation, such as early childhood survival or primary school education—form an essential foundation for human development and well-being, recent analysis suggest they are no longer sufficient for both individual agency and country’s growth prospects. Investments in

enhanced capabilities—defined as comprehensive access to quality health and education (at all levels), mainstreaming of present-day technologies (beyond entry level) plus increased resilience to unknown, new shocks—are now deemed essential for sustainable and equitable growth within the modern world.²¹¹ (The experience of the first phase of the COVID-19 pandemic, in which learning institutions were closed for three months, revealed the importance of enabling schools with ICT. Inequalities in learning were increased, as online education was primarily available only to those attending private schools.)

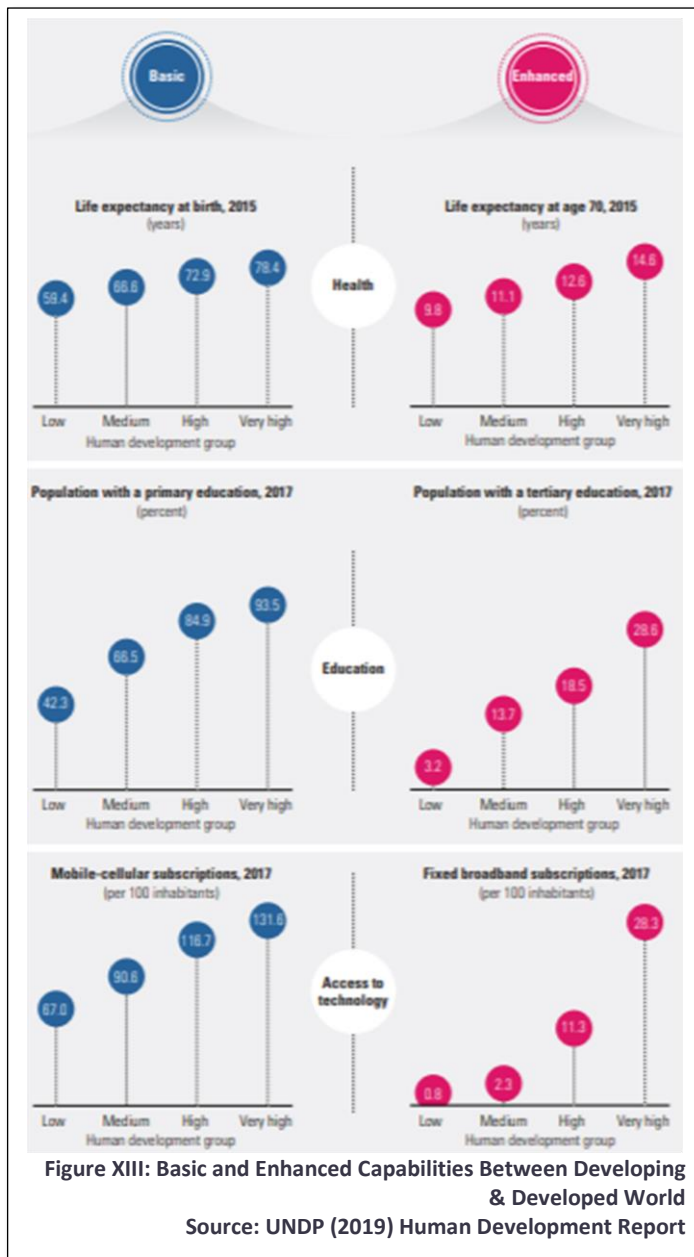
The divide between developing and developed world may be reducing in terms of basic capabilities but appears to be widening in terms of these enhanced capacities (see Figure X). This is evidenced in the ratio of adults with tertiary level education, which is growing six times faster in highly developed countries than in low human development countries.²¹² The divergence will make it increasingly difficult for those countries at the lower end of the development spectrum to compete, suggesting investments in enhanced skills which enable the population to access and fully engage in the knowledge economy and related technologies are an imperative.

Moreover, the disruptions brought about by new technology (and climate change, as discussed below) will also require increased adaptability and agility. This necessitates not only a transformation of the education sector to ensure graduates have the right skills set for today’s market, (encompassing topics such as digital entrepreneurship and e-commerce²¹³) but also a broader enabling environment to facilitate lifelong learning, which provides opportunities for reskilling and retraining throughout one’s life.²¹⁴

Access to higher education is still limited in Tanzania compared to the rest of SSA. Enrolment rates at tertiary level are at 2 percent compared to 5 percent for East Africa and 8 percent for SSA.

According to the 2019/20 Annual Education Sector Performance Report, Tanzania has 78 (43 public and 35 private) Higher Learning Institutions (HLI). These include fully-fledged universities, university colleges and non-university institutions leading to awards from PhD to Certificate level. The Higher Education sub-sector in Tanzania has shown steady progress in terms of total enrolment numbers, growing by 16 percent between 2015/16-2019/20 and significantly increasing female enrolment figures across the same period by 37 percent, Although a substantial gender gap remains largely due to lower transition rates to upper secondary education (see above for details).

To address the skills gap, the GoT approved the National Skills Development Strategy (2016–2021) with implementation funded by the World Bank. The Government on the mainland also endeavoured to increase access through the construction and expansion of existing Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) institutions, providing new, modern equipment and machinery. In addition to the 34 Vocational and Education Training (VET) Institutions currently owned by Government, 34 new institutions are under construction, with a VET institution eventually planned



for each district. 40 Folk Development Institutions (FDCs)²¹⁵ have been expanded and rehabilitated and the remaining 14 are on progress for the same.²¹⁶ Four Centres of Excellences²¹⁷ are being established for the delivery of highly specialized TVET programmes at diploma and degree levels (enabling the training of both technicians and TVET faculty) plus industry-recognized short-term training, targeting regional priority sectors in transport, energy, manufacturing, and ICT. Importantly, each of the TVET institutions will also receive support to update and/or develop demand-driven curricula, recruit and ‘upgrade’ their teaching/training staff, provide student loans to broaden access, plus create linkages to industry to ensure teaching is appropriately oriented towards employability.

This current drive to improve tertiary level education opportunities is not without its challenges. These include inadequate numbers of sufficiently qualified trainers capable of keeping ‘technological’ pace, insufficient numbers of qualified staff at both TVET level and in HLI, plus a gender gap in those accessing tertiary level opportunities, especially in Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics subjects (with women and girls averaging just under 40 percent of students).²¹⁸

	Male	Female	Total
2015/16	121,941	67,791	189,732
2016/17	153,822	88,418	242,240
2017/18	140,180	90,159	230,339
2018/19	108,655	73,242	181,897
2019/20	127,383	92,855	220,238

Figure XIV: Enrolment in Higher Education 2015/16-2019/20
Source: Tanzania Commission for Universities 2020

Access to technology at both basic and enhanced level will be discussed in later sections. For now, it is perhaps worth flagging that there is evidence to suggest a digital skills gap amongst certain demographics, due to a number of structural factors. If social media penetration is used as a proxy indicator for digital skills, the gap between urban and rural population is significant at 28.4 compared to 4.2 percent, whilst penetration is approximately one third less amongst women than men. This gap will be felt not only at the individual level but will also serve as a critical drag for the country’s growth going forward as the fourth Industrial Revolution becomes ever more central to the global economy.

Economic Transformation and Employment in Tanzania

This section reflects upon Tanzania’s recent economic performance and short-term economic outlook in the context of the global COVID-19 pandemic, with a particular focus on SDGs 7, 8, 9 and 11. From the perspective and objective of poverty reduction and reduced inequalities, the segment examines Tanzania’s growth trajectory, opportunities for decent employment across multiple demographic groups plus the extent and pace of economic transformation. As part of analysis of the broader business environment, the themes of digitalisation and financial inclusion referenced in earlier sections will be revisited in more depth.

Tanzania’s economy ranked as the eighth largest in SSA according to real GDP (USD 56,593 billion) in 2020.²¹⁹ Since the turn of the century until 2019 inclusive, the annual GDP growth rate averaged 6.67 percent, with an annual per capita GDP growth rate of 3.51 percent.²²⁰ Between 2002-2018, Tanzania’s growth volatility reduced significantly with a standard deviation of 1.2, amongst the lowest in the region.²²¹ In the last seven years, inflation has also been brought under control after a period of significant volatility.²²² Inflation dropped to 3.4 percent in 2019/20, the lowest level recorded since 1970, followed by a marginal increase in headline inflation to 3.8 percent by August 2021.²²³ The government attributes this to relatively stable oil prices, availability of food in domestic markets and neighbouring countries, in addition to prudent management of fiscal and monetary policies.

The World Bank estimates that Tanzania is to remain one of the top three growth performers in East Africa, with an average GDP growth of 5.5 percent between 2015-2020 (behind Ethiopia at 7.6 percent and Rwanda at 6.9 percent). This is despite a reduction in estimated real GDP growth to only 2.0 percent in 2020 and against negative per capita growth (-0.94 percent) for the first time since 1994,²²⁴ largely due to the global economic downturn caused by the COVID-19 pandemic. The latter has significantly affected both exports and imports of capital goods and raw materials (although gold has remained strong), alongside fiscal spending, tax revenue and the performance of secondary and tertiary sectors.²²⁵ Predictions that GDP growth rate could reach around 4 percent in 2021 are highly dependent upon a robust, consistent recovery of the global economy.²²⁶ Whilst the economic impact is still being measured, the pandemic has highlighted some vulnerabilities, namely a narrow export base, over-exposure to single sub-sectors and inability to meet local demand from locally produced goods and services. There is moderate risk of debt distress, with

levels at 41.6 percent of GDP, with increasing liquidity concerns due to a rise in commercial borrowing. Domestic revenues are 3 percentage points lower, at 10.3 percent of GDP in 2020/21. Tax revenues declined 1.7 percent in nominal terms in 2020/21, due to the drop in consumption of taxable goods notably tourism services. The fiscal deficit had also widened to 3.9 percent (financing gap of 0.8%). Concessional loans and grants have helped to offset balance of payment pressures (see section below on the Financing Landscape and Opportunities for more details).²²⁷

Labour Force Participation, Employment and Unemployment

Figure XV provides key statistics drawn from two Integrated Labour Force Surveys undertaken in 2014 and 2020/21. These reveal an overall drop in labour force participation across the URT from 86.5 to 83.1 percent plus a reduction in the percentage of the working age population in paid or self-employment from 77.4 to 75.4. Meanwhile, the overall unemployment rates (national definition)²²⁸ also decreased from 10.5 to 9.3 percent. These figures can be partially attributed to more persons of working-age enrolling in full time education.

The drop in URT labour force participation is mirrored on both the mainland and in Zanzibar, in rural areas for both and for the mainland Other Urban Areas. However, Dar es Salaam on the mainland and Other Urban Areas in Zanzibar saw a marginal increase from 76.2 to 76.4 percent and 74.3 to 74.8 percent respectively. Similarly the numbers in paid or self-employment in Dar es Salaam on the mainland and Other Urban Areas in Zanzibar show slight increases (59.8 to 60.8 and 54.4 to 55.3 percent respectively).²²⁹ These distinctions appear to corroborate the earlier assertion of rural-urban migration for employment purposes.

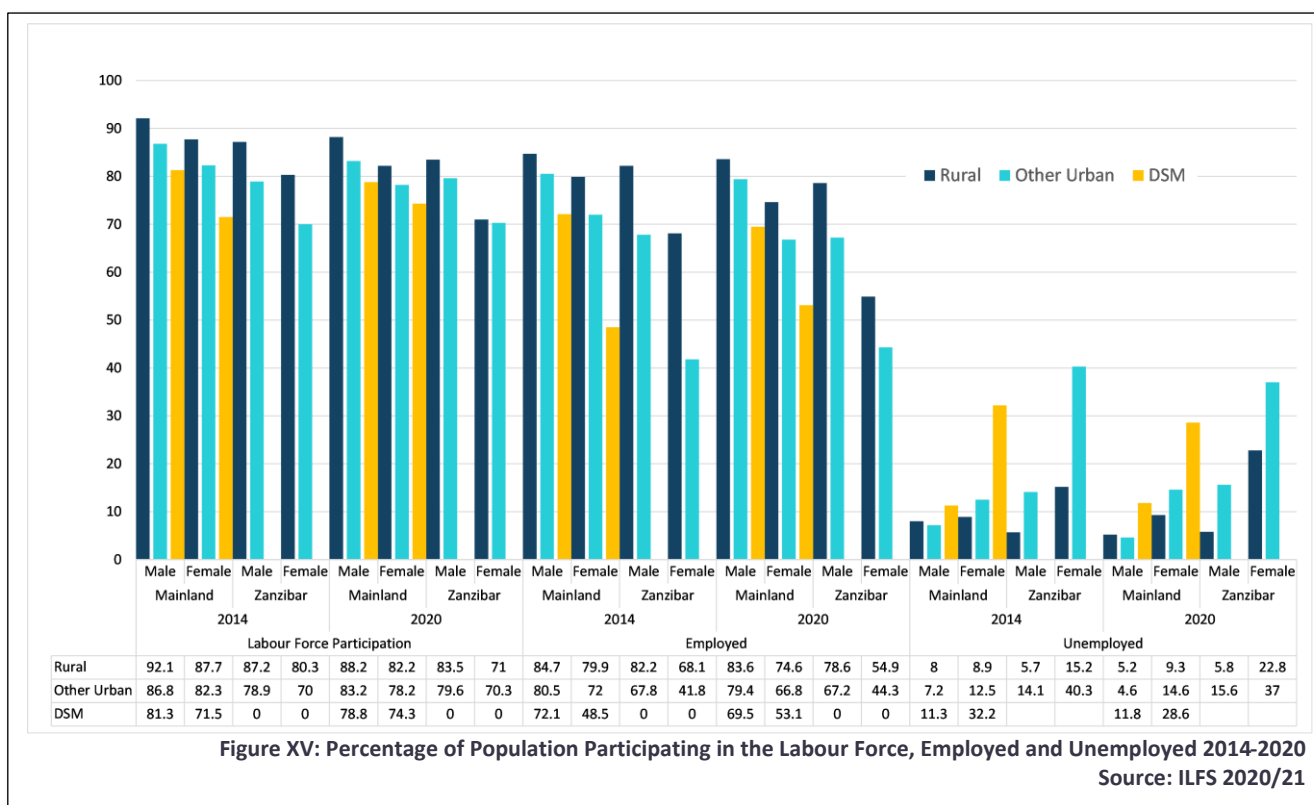


Figure XV: Percentage of Population Participating in the Labour Force, Employed and Unemployed 2014-2020
Source: ILFS 2020/21

Whilst 2020/21 figures for the type of youth employment (calculated at 15-24 years) are not yet available, 2014 figures showed a high number were engaged in vulnerable employment, ie operating as own account workers and contributing family workers. These were rated at 82.3 percent, being particularly high in rural areas (92.3 percent).²³⁰ These are less likely to have formal work arrangements or decent working conditions, including some form of social protection and adequate earnings. Unemployment rates (using the national definition) for those aged 15-24 years is measured at 14.7 percent on the mainland (females 17.6 percent; males 11.7 percent) up from 13.7 in 2014. This belies particularly high rates in Dar es Salaam (females 39.1 percent; males 28.2 percent) and Zanzibar’s Urban Areas (females 54.8 percent; males 30.5 percent). Given the concerns raised regarding the risks to political and social stability posed by a large number of youth unable to fulfil their economic aspirations, targeted action will be required to ensure both vulnerable

employment and unemployment figures are significantly reduced and the potential benefits of a youth bulge are fully realised. The ILFS 2020/21 affirms that “sustained investments in labour-intensive industries such as manufacturing, service and agriculture will help absorb more labour force...this can be facilitated by provision of important inputs to enhance youth employability, such as labour market skills and access to financial services.”

Data indicates that just under 4,000 PWDs are employed in the formal sector (about 0.2 percent of the total), with a similar proportion reflected in the public sector. Across both sectors, 59 percent are men and 41 percent are women. This is despite the Disabled Persons Employment Act No. 2 (1982) which provides for employment of at least two percent of persons with disability for every 50 employees in an establishment.²³¹ The ILFS 2020/21 reveals that 32.8 percent of persons with disability are out of the labour force, a marginal increase of 0.3 percent since 2014. The figures are much higher in Zanzibar (46.4 percent compared to 32.5 percent on the mainland) and higher amongst females (35.3 percent compared to 29.2 percent of males).

Across the three labour indicators, women (and particularly young women) are consistently worse off than their male counterparts. The 2020/21 ILFS reveals a 5.8 percent differential amongst those available to work, 11.0 percent differential amongst the employed and 6.9 percent differential amongst the unemployed. The average wage for females equated to around 95 percent of males. However, females account for only 9.4 percent of employees (versus 19 percent of males) and 1.1 percent of employers (versus 2.3 percent of males). As with the youth, the majority of women and girls (88.4 percent of those aged 15 years and above) fall within the vulnerable workers category and are therefore most at risk of the effects of economic shocks (including those induced by COVID-19).²³² In contrast, more than double the percentage of males are in paid employment with substantially less classified as contributing family workers (20 percent) although the proportion of own account workers remains high at 58.3 percent.

Women are also more engaged than their male counterparts in the home, performing 54 percent of household activities.²³³ Women tend to be the primary caretakers, with responsibility for taking care of the children, making the food, cleaning the house and collecting water and firewood, amongst many other things. This unpaid labour is often unnoticed, unacknowledged and therefore unregulated.²³⁴

The labour segregation has implications for women’s share of managerial positions which stood at only 17.4 percent in 2014,²³⁵ however for the majority of women working in lower paying and less secure sectors—including micro- or small-enterprises—concepts such as middle or senior management are for now irrelevant. Further, despite initiatives to increase the proportion of women in managerial and leadership positions²³⁶ across both public and private sector, the recent FYDP II review cited persistent challenges regarding attitudes towards women’s suitability. The authors recommend affirmative policies and regulations to empower more women to reach senior level positions. It is also possible that the recent appointment of President Samia Suluhu will positively impact upon these perceptions in Tanzania.

The proportion of those employed as own account workers or contributing family workers largely mirror estimates of sectoral share for the mainland. Agriculture—where own account workers and contributing family workers dominate—is the largest employer by some considerable margin at 61.8 percent (female 60.9 percent; male 62.6 percent) followed by services at 30.5 percent and industry trailing at 7.8 percent. The figures show a gender distinction in sector share, with a significantly higher number of females employed in services (female 34.8 percent; male 26.3 percent) whilst males dominate manufacturing (female 4.3 percent; male 11.1 percent) on the mainland. In Zanzibar, the figures show a higher proportion of the population in general is engaged in services (total 47.4 percent), with a higher proportion of females in particular (female 51.3 percent; male 44.6 percent). This is followed by agriculture with a total 35.5 percent (female 33.8 percent; male 36.8 percent). Although manufacturing is still trailing in terms of employment share, it is proportionally much higher on the archipelago than on the mainland at 17.1 percent with a more equal gender distribution (female 15.0 percent; male 18.6 percent).

Estimates from 2014 indicate that nearly 3 in 10 children (28.8 percent) aged 5–17 years on the mainland are engaged in child labour (females 7,113,018; males 7,553,445); of these about 7 in 10 (74.7 percent) are occupied in hazardous child labour (females 21.5 percent; males 21.6 percent). Meanwhile, in Zanzibar, the proportion engaged in child labour is just under 6 percent. Gender differences in Zanzibar are more pronounced, with more boys (15,855) engaged in child labour compared to girls (9,948).²³⁷

Tanzania’s Law of the Child Act (2009)²³⁸ and Employment and Labour Relations Act (2004) prohibit hazardous child labour under the age of 18; regulations also specify that mining work is prohibited for anyone under 18. A child may

do light work from 14 years. Despite the strong legal and regulatory framework, the child labour laws remain largely unenforced. There is a Plan of Action on Child Labour that uses the National Plan of Action to End Violence against Women and Children 2017/18 – 2021/2022 (NPA-VAWC) structures which has yet to be formally launched till today but implementation is underway according to PMO staff representatives to the Child Justice Forum in April 2021. There is also a passing mention of Child Labour in the NPA-VAWC.²³⁹

In Zanzibar, the Employment Act No. 11 of 2005 prohibits child labour. Zanzibar also developed a National Plan of Action for the Elimination of Child Labour 2009–2015 to address child labour which is implemented by the Child Labour Unit and includes a programme to reintegrate child labourers back into school.

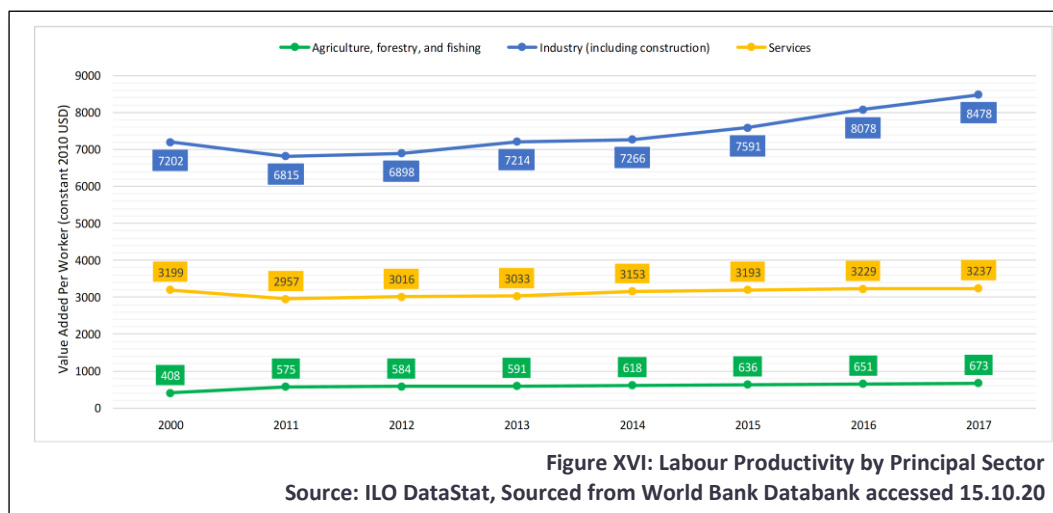
The locus of employment in Tanzania contrasts with the sectoral share of GDP and GDP growth on the mainland. Services have accounted for the principal proportion of GDP since the turn of the century, maintaining a median average share of 39.06 percent between 2013-2019.²⁴⁰ Growth in Tanzania since 2013 has been driven by non-manufacturing industry, mainly mining and construction (the former prompted by a rebound in gold prices and the latter by significant investments in public infrastructure) plus transport, communication, and financial services.²⁴¹ Notwithstanding, whilst services grew on average by more than 6 percent and the manufacturing sector grew on average more than 10 percent per annum between 2014-2020, their share of employment grew by 3.8 percent and 1.5 percent respectively, suggesting growth has not equated with job-intensive economic transformation. Further, job creation has been focused on major urban centres and not where the majority of poor reside, ie in rural areas. For example, Dar es Salaam accounts for 40 percent of all manufacturing jobs,²⁴² partially explaining the relatively low levels of poverty in the commercial capital compared to the national average.

This pattern of growth, compounded by the lack of basic (as well as enhanced) capabilities, restricts the employment potential of many Tanzanians. The IMF calculates that there are currently 800,000 new entrants to the labour market each year competing for an estimated 50-60,000 new employment opportunities in the formal sector.²⁴³ The majority are therefore pushed into a largely untransformed agricultural sector and/or the informal economy.²⁴⁴ A 2014 study of youth revealed that many choose to establish micro businesses, mostly in agriculture or retail. Of those working, only 4 percent reported their income was sufficient to meet their expenses.²⁴⁵ Meanwhile, the percentage of total employment in the informal sector for those aged 15 years and above has increased since 2014 (especially impacting females), accounting for 29.4 percent (females 30.3 percent; males 28.6 percent) compared to 22.0 percent (females 22.8 percent; males 21.1 percent). This constitutes the second highest rate of informality in SSA.²⁴⁶

Patterns and rates of productivity across the three sectors has not changed significantly since (at least) the turn of the century with agriculture remaining substantially below that of industry and services.²⁴⁷ These rates of informality and

productivity negatively

impact upon the levels of working poverty which were calculated to be just over 37 percent in 2019, rising to almost 40 percent amongst females and almost 42 percent for those aged between 15-24 years.²⁴⁸



Agriculture and Fisheries

The World Bank calculates 75.5 percent of the poor in Tanzania are dependent on agriculture for their livelihoods.²⁴⁹ This high proportion, coupled with aforementioned low levels of educational attainment and the geographical concentration of secondary and tertiary sectors, indicate that, for the immediate future, a simple sectoral

transformation from agriculture to industry and services will not be sufficient to create the employment opportunities of the type and scale required for significant poverty reduction. Interventions within the agricultural sector to improve productivity and decent employment prospects for all, including the burgeoning youth population, will be required.

During the lifetime of FYDP II, the agricultural sector grew by an annual average of 5.1 percent, accounting for 27.7 percent of GDP and 24.1 percent of export earnings. Most production in Tanzania still occurs within smallholder farm units. The majority farm staple crops, with maize being the most commonly grown. A few smallholders also grow higher value (mostly horticulture) cash crops. About half of smallholders raise livestock for consumption and sale. These farmers tend to have 2 ha or less farmland, which they own. Smallholder farmer households are mostly led by men (39 percent of which are over 50 years), typically with primary level education. Approximately two fifths of such households assert that they do not have enough money for food; another two-fifths have money only for food and clothes. Most smallholders have been farming for several generations.²⁵⁰

Whilst they remain in the minority, there is a growing number of medium-scale farm enterprises creating paid employment, investing in technology and attracting commercial services. Between 2008 and 2014, 368,000 medium-scale farms created 13 million days of additional work annually for hired workers, and USD 225–300 million in net backward and forward linkages. Such enterprises are contributing both to domestic tax and export revenue. They are also generating additional employment upstream, with demands for agricultural inputs, financial services and transport services plus positive spillover effects for smallholder farms.²⁵¹ Expansion of these, alongside improved rural infrastructure and connectivity have the potential to reduce the wave of rural-urban migration and thereby reduce the pressure on urban services.

Overall, however, transformation of the sector has been slow. The government's current Agricultural Development Strategy (2015/16-2024/25) asserts that the majority of agricultural products in Tanzania remain of poor quality, are non-responsive to markets and therefore secure low prices. Production quantities (as well as quality) alongside post-harvest losses are adversely affected by minimal adoption of improved technology²⁵² plus weak mechanisms for accreditation, testing, quality monitoring, grades and standards of agricultural products. (Despite a national increase of cereal crop production estimated at 9,455,000 tonnes on average per year, post-harvest losses remain high in the range of 40 percent of production²⁵³). Farm mechanization is low with less than 1 percent using tractors or power tillers.²⁵⁴ The expansion of agro-processing to meet rising domestic demand for value added products such as oil, butter etc and increase incomes on agricultural exports (which remain mostly in raw form) has been hindered by low production levels of the requisite raw materials,²⁵⁵ poor rural infrastructure (including a shortage of rural roads, adequate electrification, regular water supply, communication networks) plus limited access to rural finance and markets. Resource allocation to agriculture (the sector which employs most women) has seen a decline from 5.28 in 2016/17 to 3.2 in 2017/18, negatively impacting upon financing for the crop sub-sector which experienced a cut of 24.4 percent).²⁵⁶ The agro-processing industrial base is weak, with low investment in additional capacity and an unpredictable regulatory environment.²⁵⁷ As a result, the food import bill nearly tripled from USD 273.9 million in 2006 to USD 963.9 million in 2013.²⁵⁸

The steady growth rate of the agricultural sector over the past decade has been driven primarily by the cultivation of virgin land in lieu of increases in productivity (discussed more below). The best performance has been recorded in export cash crops,²⁵⁹ such as sugar, tea and tobacco (all concentrated in particular locales) with an increasing contribution from horticultural crops.²⁶⁰ Tea and tobacco remain the preserve of commercial large-scale farmers, whilst small scale farmers contribute to the sugar industry as out-growers. Horticulture is dominated by small scale farmers with a few large scale operators.²⁶¹

Some farmers are engaged in value chains primarily within horticulture. Small holders do not belong to the rigid value chains of the main cash crops (coffee, sisal, cashew nuts, tea, cotton, tobacco, sugar) which are governed by the various agricultural boards. There have been some attempts across the country to digitize coffee and tea value chains, but these have not been unsuccessful so far. This may be attributed to government interest, which has discouraged private sector investment.²⁶²

Recently agricultural trade has affected by COVID-19, with disruptions in air travel, road transport and price increases, making imports more expensive and exports more difficult. Less fertilizer imports to Tanzania has the potential to negatively affect harvests in current season. The Tanzanian Horticultural Association estimates that these agricultural trade impacts will lead to a loss of USD 150 million in export earnings and over 12,000 jobs in related sectors.

As noted in the nutrition section above, the relative success of export agriculture has had little effect on the ability of poor households to produce and/or acquire food for personal consumption. Indeed, the 2009 WFP Comprehensive Food Security and Vulnerability Assessment (CFSVA) showed that food producers in Tanzania were overwhelmingly the most likely to be food insecure. Among households in the lower income quintiles, spending on food staples still consumes more than 30 percent of total household spending.²⁶³ Despite the food self-sufficiency ratio exceeding 110 percent for more than 10 years,²⁶⁴ approximately 50-60 districts across more than 10 regions of Tanzania Mainland regularly report food shortages even in years of surplus at aggregate level. This is attributed to adverse climatic conditions (floods and drought/prolonged dry spells), cultivation of unsuitable crops for the respective agro-ecological zones and poor husbandry practices²⁶⁵ as well as pest outbreaks.²⁶⁶

In recent years, the Government (across a number of agricultural sector lead ministries including MIT) has made efforts to transform the agricultural sector under the Agriculture Sector Development Programme II (ASDP II) 2015/16-2024/25. This seeks to increase productivity, commercialization and incomes of smallholder farmers for improved livelihood, food and nutrition security. Measures currently underway include policy reforms to liberalise agricultural inputs and outputs plus support to transform subsistence smallholders into commercial farmers through increased productivity of target commodities within sustainable production systems. Technological innovations along the agricultural value chain will also be accelerated. Moreover, improvements to rural infrastructure (including expansion and modernisation of irrigation) are planned alongside support for trade-related capacities to meet the increasingly complex quality and logistical requirements of domestic, regional, and international markets, focusing on selected agricultural commodities that offer the most potential to raise rural (on- and off-farm) incomes.

The forthcoming Five Year Development Plan (2021/22-2025/26, (FYDP III) defines the broad direction planned for agriculture, emphasising competitiveness, forward and backward linkages to other sectors and increased investments in research and development targeting strategic crops to improve both value and productivity. In Zanzibar, the Government hopes to improve productivity through the use of climate smart, environmentally sustainable techniques and modern technology which can simultaneously free up labour to secondary or tertiary sectors, increase export revenue and improve food and nutritional security whilst protecting habitats for eco-tourism.

The fisheries (sub-)sector is dependent on a territorial sea of 64,500 square kilometres and the four principal water basins of Lake Victoria, Nyasa, Tanganyika and Rukwa which amount to a total inland water surface area of 62,000 square kilometres. These resources offer investment opportunities in fishing, fish farming, salt harvesting, prospecting for oil and gas, mariculture (including seaweed), coastal tourism, shipping and maritime transportation. At present, fishing and aquaculture contribute 2.2 percent of GDP, 3 percent of foreign earnings, and engage approximately 200,000 and 4.2 million people in permanent and temporary employment respectively.²⁶⁷

The industry is currently dominated on the mainland by freshwater fish farming constituting small scale, medium and large commercial investments. Tanzania produces approximately 336,821 tonnes of fish per year, against a demand of 731,000 tonnes. The country imports about 24,000 tonnes of fish per month worth TZS 56 billion (USD 25 million), mostly from China, Vietnam and other states around the Indian Ocean.²⁶⁸ There are plans to review the Fisheries Act and regulations governing the sector to pave the way for a total ban on fish imports and safeguard local fisheries.

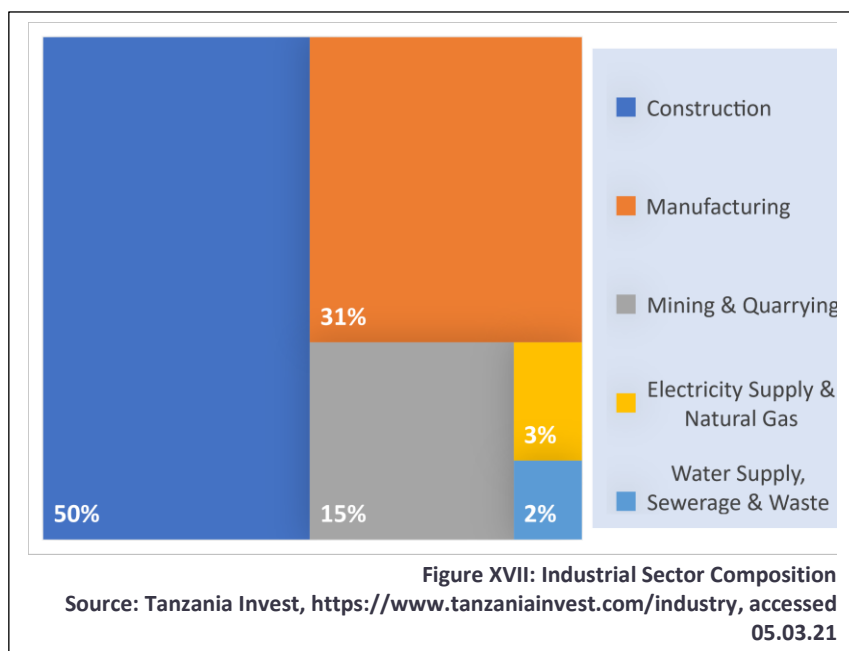
To date, however, there has been little progress towards commercialisation of fisheries in Tanzania. Challenges persist such as illegal fishing and trade, unsustainable exploitation of fisheries resources and products, a lack of key statistics on the (potential) contribution of related economic activities plus low adoption of relevant technologies (especially in terms of value addition). In Zanzibar, a slow decline in individual catch rates and overall fish production has been reported over recent years, arising from a combination of over-fishing and confinement of activity to inshore and shallow waters within the reef ecosystem due to technological limitations and poor regulation.²⁶⁹

Since 2015, there has been an improvement in the policy architecture designed to protect natural wealth and enhance the Blue Economy, whilst integrating sustainability concerns. For example, the National Fisheries Policy (2015) and the Deep Seas Fisheries Management and Development Act (2020) both emphasise a pro-poor inclusive approach to ensure that all communities participate in and benefit from the management of natural resources, in alignment with Leaving No One Behind and Leaving No Area Behind. Going forward, the FYDP III will look to significantly increase the size and contribution of the Blue Economy. The government will further promote civic participation in the identification and expansion of economic activities derived from water-based resources, whilst improving the enabling environment (including infrastructure and services) to attract more investment and accelerate take-up of relevant technology.²⁷⁰ Similarly, the Revolutionary Government of Zanzibar in the forthcoming MTDS aims to further develop and diversify the

Blue Economy, with a strong focus on sustainability alongside the inclusion of women and youth. It hopes to create high-value jobs (both offshore and onshore) and better utilise resources to improve food security and establish marine renewable energy. Interventions include support to commercialise the sub-sector, enable industrial value addition, expand sustainable marine tourism, as well as improve infrastructure and adoption of related technologies.

Industrial Sector

FYDP II identified industrialisation as a key driver of economic transformation across all three sectors. The Plan prioritised those industries that use local inputs to supply the local market,²⁷¹ sought to improve the investment environment and mobilise FDI. As part of the drive to expand industrialisation, the Pension Funds contributed financing to revitalise existing and create new industries. More than 35 industries were funded, creating 250,000 jobs.



At sectoral level, the Ministry of Industry and Trade (MIT) leads implementation of the Sustainable Industrial Development Policy (1996-2020) and the Small and Medium Enterprises Development Policy (2003), both of which are under review, as well as the Integrated Industrial Development Strategy (2025). Meanwhile, in Zanzibar, a new Industrial Policy (ZIP, 2019-2029) has been launched which focuses on value addition for primary goods and promoting linkages between industrial subsectors and other productive sectors to drive industrialization. While preparation of the new ZIP implementation tools are underway, Zanzibar continues implementing the Zanzibar Small and Medium

Enterprises Policy (2006) and the Zanzibar Agricultural Development Programme (Z-ASDP, 2018-2028). Currently, the private sector accounts for 99.6 percent of all industrial production in Tanzania, either through sole ownership (99.5 percent) or public private partnership (0.1 percent).²⁷²

The FYDP III reiterates the importance of manufacturing for the development and co-development of other sectors and services. This currently centres around the processing of local agricultural goods (mainly food, 24 percent), textiles and clothing (10 percent) and chemicals (8.5 percent).²⁷³ Value addition to agricultural products is mostly on a small-scale secondary level.²⁷⁴ There is a recognition of the need to grow the small scale establishments that currently dominate the sector, stabilise the large enterprises and make significant investments in human capital to enable production of medium- to high-tech goods and accelerate economic transformation. The objective is to reduce reliance on foreign capital and intermediate inputs plus expand export streams. Amongst the key interventions are: support to Special Economic Zones and Export Processing Zones; improvements in the enabling environment for entrepreneurs (including access to credit and start-up eco-system); promotion of competitive big businesses in agriculture and agro-processing; plus support for research and development. In Zanzibar, the Revolutionary Government under the MTDS (2021-25) hopes to establish a competitive industrial base for domestic and export markets through import substitution and export orientation. This will include increasing volume and manufacturing value add, strengthening support services to the private sector, plus streamlining and improving coordination of trade both within Zanzibar and the URT, and across East Africa and the Tripartite Free Trade Area.

Tourism

For both the mainland and Zanzibar, tourism as a sub-sector of services is a key contributor of GDP (for the mainland more than 17 percent;²⁷⁵ for Zanzibar around 28 percent²⁷⁶) and foreign exchange earnings (25 percent for the mainland;²⁷⁷ 82 percent for Zanzibar²⁷⁸). In 2019, the sub-sector accounted for 1 percentage point to total GDP growth and constituted more than 26 percent of total exports.²⁷⁹ Tourism has sizeable direct and indirect linkages with the local

economy, supporting job creation across all three sectors. Currently, MSMEs account for more than 80 percent of tourism companies in Tanzania.

The COVID-19 pandemic has inflicted a heavy blow to tourism and related sectors in the country. A World Bank Business Pulse Survey (COV-BPS) undertaken between April and August 2020 covering 1,000 small and medium enterprises in Tanzania indicated that about 140,000 formal jobs were lost in June 2020 and another 2.2 million non-farm informal workers suffered income losses, weakening domestic demand and affecting daily consumption levels. Initially, revenues in the tourism industry from the first quarter of 2020 mitigated the losses experienced in the second. However, as second, third and now fourth waves of the virus have taken hold, the reduction in visitor numbers has persisted (albeit with a brief upsurge towards the end of 2020). A survey of private sector operators conducted by IFC and Dalberg Advisory in October 2020 projected a loss of 77 percent of revenue in 2020/21 and 50 percent of direct jobs. Whereas before the pandemic almost all businesses assessed their operations as stable or growing, 80 percent reported suspension or partial opening. Sales have fallen by 85 percent among MSMEs. It is estimated that only 16 percent of all businesses have sufficient reserves to survive 2021. Related transportation services have been particularly affected, with a reduction from 49-60 percent in late 2019 to just under 10 percent by mid-2020.²⁸⁰ The training and professional development opportunities, conservation efforts and community projects delivered or supported by the tourism sub-sector have also either been cut or are now at risk.

Tanzanian enterprises believe it will take at least 1.5 years for tourism to recover and this will depend largely on the large-scale availability of vaccines.²⁸¹ COV-BPS respondents suggested that tax deferrals for those in the most affected sectors, including tourism and related services, could enable a swifter recovery alongside more flexible capital and collateral requirements to borrowers, reduction of government fees related to licenses or fees. The World Bank also underlines the importance of transparency around COVID-19 statistics alongside clear containment measures to rebuild trust and encourage a relaxation of travel advisories for the country.²⁸² Across the MSME sector it suggests appropriately designed and targeted wage-compensation schemes, loan guarantees, and tax deferrals. SMEs in critical value chains will also require a capital injection to sustain operations essential to local communities.²⁸³ In Zanzibar, some support from the UN has been provided to the Government, local authorities and SMEs to reinvest in other value chains such as such as fishing, aquaculture, seaweed, horticulture, whilst building productive income generation infrastructure at the local level. This model and its innovations have the capacity to scale-up both in Zanzibar and on the mainland.

COVID	<p>In the first wave of the -19 pandemic, the Governments of the URT and Zanzibar instigated a number of mitigation measures. These included: tax reliefs to promote domestic production, special agreements with airlines to sustain exports of flowers, vegetables and fish amid air space closure; financial support for salaries and operational costs within the Tanzania National Parks Authority, Ngorongoro Conservation Area Authority and Tanzania Wildlife Management Authority. The governments also fast-tracked payments of claims and verified arrears to contractors, public servants, suppliers and service providers. The BoT lowered the discount rate by 2 percent to 5 percent, the Statutory Minimum reserves requirement dropped to 6 percent and the Bank started providing regulatory flexibility, on a case-by-case basis to financial institutions for loan-restructuring operations. However, the COV-BPS suggests that broader public support reached only 6 percent of microenterprises and 17 percent of all other firms whilst more than 80 percent of businesses were unaware that it was available. (See section related to Financing in Part II for the latest developments with regards to loans.</p>
--------------	---

Under the FYDP III, the Government hopes to enable further growth of tourism through improved sector competitiveness and linkages, diversified tourism products (such as conferences and exhibitions linked to wildlife excursions), cultural tourism and easing of the regulatory framework. Meanwhile, under the MTDS, Zanzibar authorities aim to counter current risks from pollution and unsustainable use of natural resources, create opportunities for youth employment, prioritise high-value tourism, and reinforce linkages between tourism and local agricultural supply chain actors.²⁸⁴

MSMEs

Approximately 95 percent of businesses in Tanzania are MSMEs engaged in non-farm activities.²⁸⁵ These are mostly in trade (55 percent) followed by accommodation and food services (26 percent) and manufacturing (14 percent).²⁸⁶ Women owned/run businesses dominate with 64 percent of informal sector activities in small scale manufacturing and food services run by women. MSMEs represent approximately 35 percent of GDP and account for 23.4 percent of total employment. Estimates from 2012 indicate that approximately three million SMEs on the mainland employed more than 5.2 million people, with an urban/rural split of 45 to 55 percent.²⁸⁷ More than 80 percent of operators are self-

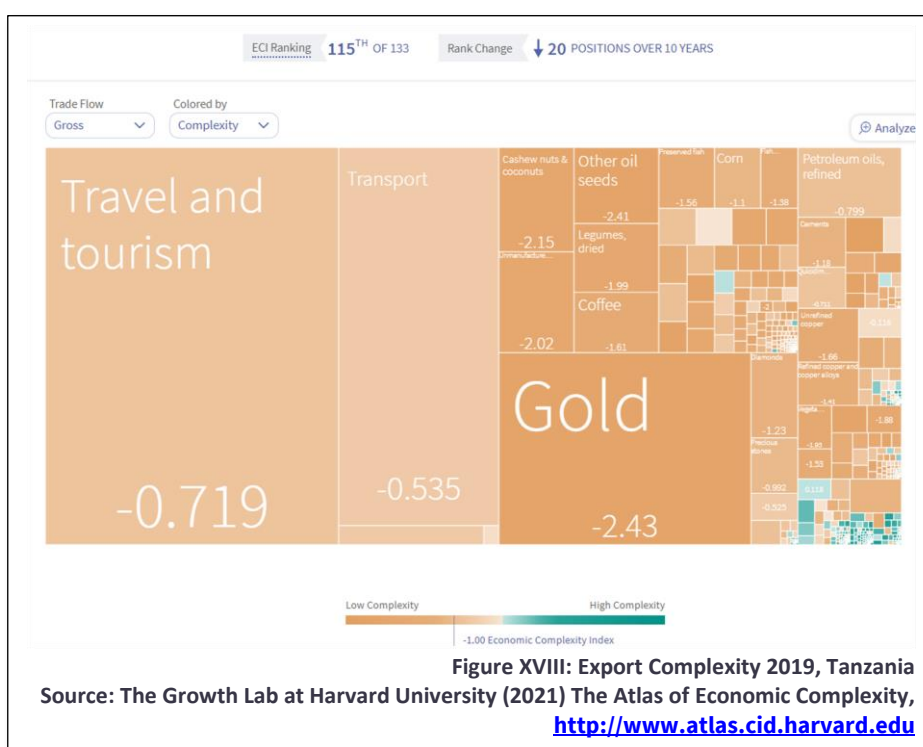
employed without employees, approximately 4 percent have registered with BRELA and few have a tax identification number.²⁸⁸ The majority (66 percent) have an annual turnover of less than USD 2,000 and have been established as a survival strategy. Latest figures suggest less than 40 percent of MSMEs survive beyond the first five years of operation.

Across businesses the COVID-19 pandemic has led to a decrease in production and sales revenues, creating flow shortages for over 90 percent of businesses. This has been compounded by a decrease in credit to the private sector, especially in sectors linked to international markets. 70 percent of start-ups are now struggling to cover operating costs, with 47 percent resorting to retrenchments and salary cuts. However, the Government’s decision not to lockdown has somewhat softened the impact. Sales dropped by 25 percent in Tanzania compared to a SSA average of 37 percent. 29 percent are less likely to fall into arrears in Tanzania compared to a SSA average of 46 percent and there is a lower need for adjustments in credit terms (26 percent in Tanzania compared to 36 percent in SSA).²⁸⁹

The experience of lower MICs suggests that improving SME productivity is key to poverty eradication, especially amongst women and youth. The SME (2003) Policy—which is currently under review—acknowledges the role of the sector in employment creation, income generation and as a base for industrial development and broader economic transformation. The Policy was created to support SME development and address bottlenecks across seven key pillars: legal and regulatory framework; physical infrastructure; business development services; access to finance; the institutional framework for SME development; rural industrialization; plus cross cutting issues such as environmental, gender and the disadvantaged groups, HIV.²⁹⁰ However, according to a 2020 study, these bottlenecks persist, with issues around access to credit, infrastructure and regulatory constraints to formalisation (often a gateway to support) particularly highlighted. Low levels of education and technical/business development skills²⁹¹ are also listed—reinforcing the importance of pre-market conditions—as well as the aforementioned high dependence on imported intermediate goods.²⁹²

Trade & Integration

Tanzania is a net importer with a reducing negative balance of trade from USD 3,700 million in 2015/16 to USD 541 million in 2019/20.²⁹³ The value of exports rose between 2010 and 2012 but then essentially stagnated until 2018, when they rose to a historic high driven by increased exports of gold, manufactured goods and tourism.²⁹⁴ In 2019, the Government’s Debt Sustainability Analysis indicated some vulnerability to export and contingent liabilities for external and total debt sustainability respectively and advised that the rising proportion of commercial loans²⁹⁵ should be directed towards projects that accelerate high economic returns and boost the export base. These recommendations have been taken up in both the FYDP III and MTDS.



Latest IMF forecast data suggests that the shock to trade flows created by the COVID-19 pandemic globally was substantial in 2020 but recovery is anticipated in 2021 and beyond, albeit export growth will not reach pre-COVID 19 levels for the foreseeable future.²⁹⁶ Demand for exports has decreased as growth has slowed for Tanzania's principal trade partners and tourist intake has significantly reduced. Disruptions in value chains have increased costs (including transportation), negatively impacting the volume of exports. As Tanzania's regional trading partners also experience reduced demand from China, India and the EU, they have equally sought fewer goods and services from Tanzania.²⁹⁷ This includes traffic through Dar es Salaam, the second largest port in East Africa, which accounted for approximately 75 percent of total exports transport services in 2019 amounting to an estimated USD 1.3 billion.²⁹⁸ A combination of weak domestic demand, trade disruptions, and low oil prices have caused imports to decline faster than exports. As of December 2020, the decline in imports outpaced the decline in exports, reducing the current-account deficit (CAD) from 1.9 percent of GDP at the end of 2019 to an estimated 1.6 percent in December 2020. The year-on-year improvement in the trade balance reduced external financing needs, which have been covered primarily by external debt.

In 2019, the largest proportion of export growth derived from moderately complex products such as travel, tourism and transport. Tanzania has added 22 new products to its export product base

since 2004, across textiles, vehicles, metals, mineral and agriculture, amounting to USD 5 per capita. Whilst this diversification is assessed as sufficient in terms of Economic Complexity, the volumes involved are too small to contribute to substantial income growth. Over the last 10 years, the country has dropped 20 positions in the Economic Complexity Index, ranking 115 of 133 countries.²⁹⁹ The World Bank has raised concerns that the country's diversification potential has been downscaled to lower value products such as fruit juices, honey, bakery products, packing lids, and animal feed in contrast to earlier potential which included light machinery, iron or steel structures, paints and varnishes, and packing boxes.³⁰⁰ The promise to invest in human capital for production of medium- to high-tech goods under the FYDP III suggests the Government is determined to counter this trend.

Some of the challenges to international trade are perhaps best illustrated by the progress achieved by four export strategies developed for the period 2016-2020. There were designed to boost, diversify and add value to exports, across the following value chains: pulses; leather; sunflower products (including seeds, oil and cake); and cotton-to-clothing (ie garment and textiles). Only some have maintained a growth trajectory. Potential has remained largely underutilized as most growth has arisen from increasing exports of existing products to existing markets (intensive margin), rather than exploring new or higher value-added products of new markets (extensive margin), as exemplified below for garments and leather. Below-potential growth and lack of diversification and value addition are due to both sector-specific and common performance issues in the analysed value chain, as listed in Figure X. Many of these dilemmas are acknowledged in the FYDP III and MTDS. Both recognise that overcoming sector-specific challenges in high potential value chains and general supply-side, business environment, and market development barriers will be critical for boosting exports. Opportunities for SMEs and small producers to trade will be maximised through the various measures to address the challenges of informality, lack of access to finance and inputs plus low skills' levels.³⁰¹

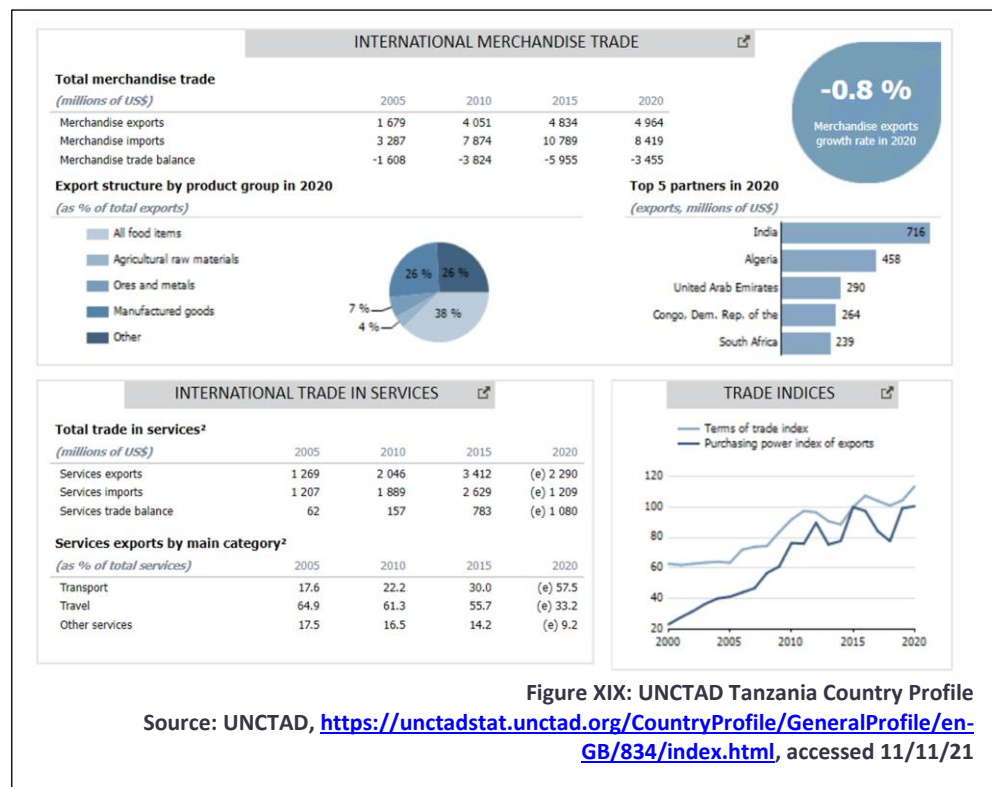


Figure XIX: UNCTAD Tanzania Country Profile
Source: UNCTAD, <https://unctadstat.unctad.org/CountryProfile/GeneralProfile/en-GB/834/index.html>, accessed 11/11/21

Supply side	Business environment	Market development
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Availability and accessibility of high-quality inputs - Management capacity of producers to increase production - Adoption of Good Agricultural and manufacturing Practices (GAP) - Access to finance and use of insurance across the value chain - Lowering of postharvest losses 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Coordination of the value chain from producers to exporters - Trust and transparency between producers and processors - Complex and discriminatory application of certain taxes - Capacity of key trade support institutions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Compliance and adherence to internationally recognized safety and quality standards - Industry clustering

Figure XX: Common areas for performance improvement in the value chain
Source: ITC

Since its launch in 2018, the Blueprint for Regulatory Reforms to Improve the Business Environment has made some progress in easing bureaucratic processes and reducing fees/charges by government institutions, increasing revenues to record levels in the agricultural sector.³⁰² In 2016/17 the Ministry of Agriculture’s revenue collection amounted to TZS 3.3 billion, which is the equivalent of 83 percent of expected revenue; in 2017/18 following the reforms, this increased to 182 percent of expected revenue.³⁰³ To date, the Government has abolished fees related to 167 business licenses, permits and registration certificates and reduced those of a further 9. Regulatory bodies—such as National Environment Management Council, Occupational Safety and Health Authority, Tanzania Minerals Audit Agency and Workers Compensation Fund—have agreed to conduct joint inspections of the mining industry to reduce both time and transaction costs. The Public-Private Partnership (PPP) Act was also amended in September 2018 to improve the efficiency of approval processes for PPP projects.³⁰⁴ Further, the Government has developed an electronic Payment Gateway (GePG) that enables all Government entities (Central, Local and Agencies) to utilise a single payment platform. In Zanzibar, e-Government services such as the Online Business Registration System implemented by the Zanzibar Business and Property Registration Agency have been created. The Tanzania Investment Centre operates an e-Regulations website providing detailed step-by-step guidance for investing in Tanzania³⁰⁵ plus the MIT has developed a National Business Portal providing government information and e-services to support start-ups, business development and investment.³⁰⁶

In terms of regional integration, the latest figures from the Africa Regional Index Report (2019) suggest that whilst Tanzania is scored as an average performer for its integration with both SADC and EAC countries, it is at the lower end of the category with a rather mixed picture across the various criteria and clear room for improvement. In terms of free movement of persons, it has ratified EAC instruments including the rights of establishment and free movement of workers but is yet to ratify the relevant SADC components. The country has an average applied tariff of zero percent on imports from EAC member States (as per EAC requirements) but an average applied tariff of 10 percent on imports from SADC member States. With regard to integration into regional value chains, Tanzania is middle-ranked in EAC but amongst the highest-ranking countries in SADC. In terms of shares of intermediates in 2013: imports from EAC were 13 percent compared to 26 percent from SADC; exports to EAC were 36 percent compared to 17 percent to SADC.

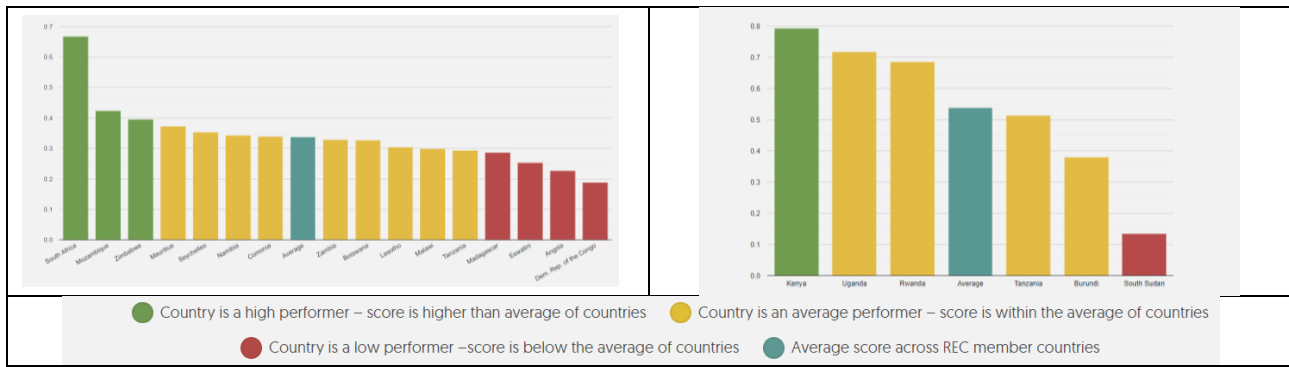


Figure XXI: Tanzania's Regional Integration within SADC & EAC
Source: Africa Regional Integration Index 2019

Both FYDP III and MTDS hope to build upon the URT’s geographical location (eight neighbouring countries) optimising the potential for global and regional trade to strengthen and transform the economy. Measures to fully implement the

African Continental Free Trade Area (AfCFTA) agreement will be key. The agreement promises to complement existing subregional equivalents, promoting reduction or elimination of tariffs and importantly non-tariff barriers to trade, encouraging investment and boosting productivity through increased competition. The World Bank estimates that if fully implemented, AfCFTA could facilitate a 10 percent gain in real income by 2035 over baseline scenario for those living in Tanzania lifting 6.3 million out of moderate poverty (USD 5.50, PPP-adjusted, a day) as wages rise, with particular benefits for women. This would be achieved through trade facilitation measures that make it easier for African businesses to integrate into global and regional supply chains: intracontinental exports are expected to increase by more than 81 percent and exports outside of Africa by 19 percent.³⁰⁷ Through integration and reform, AfCFTA could therefore help to reduce dependency on global markets and mitigate against the worse impacts of COVID-19. All these benefits are contingent upon a robust AfCFTA national strategy which ensures the policy and institutional arrangements are in place but also the productive capacities of workers are enhanced in particular those employed in agriculture and MSMEs. As referenced above, this will require a range of interventions to ensure a conducive business environment but also that school leavers are equipped with the necessary skills set for the labour market plus opportunities to participate in life-long learning are available for ready adaptation.

Infrastructure & Access to Energy

In recent years, the Government (in collaboration with the private sector and development partners) has made sizeable investments in the road and rail infrastructure, seaport and air transport services. Such investments will continue under the FYDP III, as part of a broader effort to leverage the country's geographical advantage as a bridge economy linking the markets of the EAC and SADC.³⁰⁸ Likewise, Zanzibar has committed to allocate resources to improve infrastructure, including for improved capacity and efficiency of both sea and air freight.³⁰⁹

To date, the UN in collaboration with PO-RALG have supported the implementation of various infrastructure projects via the Public-Private Community Partnerships (PPCP) modality. There are also a significant number of small-scale Public Private Partnerships (PPPs, with an upper ceiling of USD 20 million) currently in the pipeline at subnational level. These include a variety of income generating public investments such as modern markets, solid waste management etc. These are at advanced stage and will soon need additional efforts to replicate nationwide. Despite the existing legislation and other aspects of the enabling environment,³¹⁰ implementation at the local level is limited due to lack of financial and technical resources, high transaction costs, and challenges in effective determination of concession periods and contracting.

Access to energy as a percentage of the population and quality as a percentage of output has improved over recent years. Almost 100 percent of the total urban population had access to electricity in 2019/20. Meanwhile just under 70 percent of those living in rural areas have access (up from 49.3 percent in 2016). Notwithstanding, the World Bank maintains that only 7 percent of poor households are connected to the national grid and 23 percent have some access to solar power.³¹¹ As above, there are plans to maintain growth in this area, through upping generation capacity and improving distribution of both electricity and natural gas whilst further developing renewable and/or green energy initiatives on both the mainland and in Zanzibar.³¹²

Access to Finance

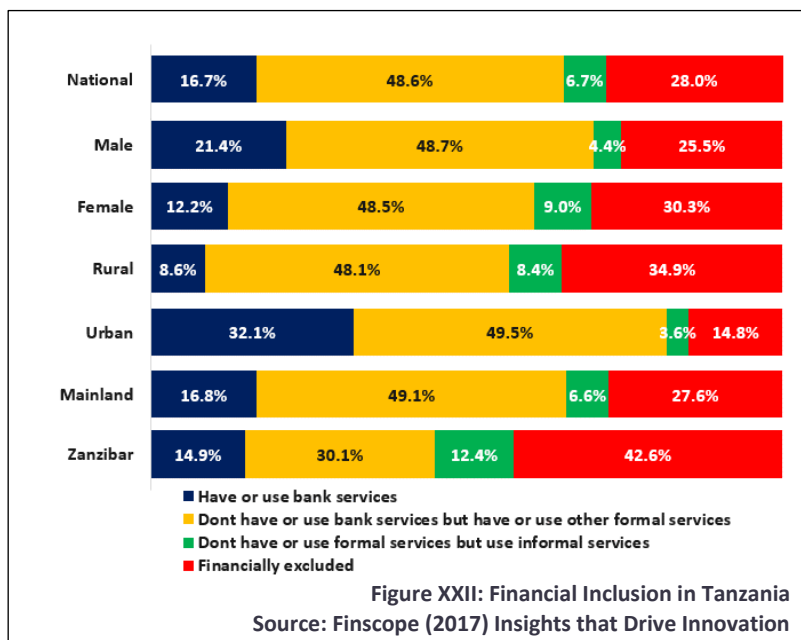
In recent years there has been an overall reduction in financial exclusion across Tanzania, with figures down to 28 percent of the total adult population in 2017 compared to 55 percent in 2009. As figure X shows, those living in rural areas and women are more likely to be financially excluded than urban or male counterparts. Only 12.2 percent of females use bank services as opposed to 21.4 percent of men. The low rate among women is partially due to perceptions that bank accounts are for "the wealthy" and partially due to the banks' identification requirements: only 15 percent of women have the requisite two or more forms of ID to open an account. Women also struggle more than men to produce collateral for business loans from banks given their unequal share of land titles.³¹³ If women's access to finance could be improved, there is evidence to suggest that the growth in self-confidence could heighten their agency in the home leading to increased spending on education and nutrition for the family as a whole.³¹⁴

Although there are multiple formal financial providers in Tanzania, take-up of traditional banking services is limited. This is in large part due to a lack of awareness of the services offered and their relatively high cost, especially for those in poorer income brackets. This coupled with low levels of financial literacy and numeracy, low levels of asset ownership plus high levels of informality form sizeable demand-side constraints.

Banks such as Tanzania Agricultural Bank have been established by the Government to enable farmers to lend and invest in agriculture. There are also many economic empowerment funds specifically designated for women, youth and PWDs including: the Youth and Disability Fund under the PMO; the Women's Fund under MoH; the President's Fund; and a Fund on agricultural inputs under the MoA. A specific committee has been established to ensure the Funds are coordinated for maximum reach and impact.³¹⁵

In addition, a 2018 amendment to the Local Finances Act requires all LGAs to set aside 10 percent of their income obtained from their own sources for interest-free loans for businesses run by women, youth and PWDs. Whilst this has been useful in addressing some of the financial restraints faced by the three groups, there have been challenges in terms of local officials' lack of experience to manage the funds, borrowers treating the loans as grants, lack of entrepreneurial skills and overall low youth take-up. Often the funds are not released on time, whilst councils in urban areas appear more willing to loan than their rural counterparts. Changes are proposed to make the funds more effective, including plans for coordination by a single Ministry and setting aside a certain percent for monitoring and collection of the loans.

The improvement in financial exclusion is largely due to the expansion of formal non-bank financial institutions, which rose from 7 percent to 48.6 percent between 2009 and 2017.³¹⁶ Of these, Mobile Money Providers (MMPs) are the service with the widest reach and most frequent use. The proportion of adults with a mobile-money account rose from 32.4 percent in 2014 to 38.5 percent just four years later, well above the regional average of 21 percent.³¹⁷ However, constraints to mobile phone ownership and use (see below) mean access to mobile money remain a challenge for currently underserved or unserved groups. For example, 54 percent of women use mobile money compared to 65 percent reflecting their lower rates of phone ownership.³¹⁸ Meanwhile, fewer than 40 percent of men and women living in Tanzania's refugee camps use mobile money due to the banning of both mobile money and SIM card registration in the camps in January 2018.³¹⁹



There are also broader challenges in accessing credit amongst SMEs, as referenced in earlier sections. In 2018, of all the countries in the EAC, Tanzania had the highest percentage of SMEs claiming such difficulties. Requirements around Know Your Customer (KYC), registration, collateral and credit history requirements as well as the absence of tailored products create obstacles, affecting SMEs capacity to start or grow their businesses.

The National Financial Inclusion Framework 2018-2022 (NFIF2) aims to resolve some of these issues. Building upon the work done under its predecessor (NFIF1 2014-2016³²⁰), it is designed to

enable the creation and delivery of financial products and services that meet the needs of individuals and businesses in support of livelihoods, household resilience and job creation. Implementation depends upon partnerships between public and private actors to develop industry standards, interoperability frameworks and leverage technology to reach underserved and unserved markets (with a particular focus on women) providing targeted solutions to address their needs.³²¹

New regulations requiring interoperability between MMPs and other financial institutions, including banks, are set to transition the former to the country's national payment switch. The Tanzania Instant Payment System (TIPS) platform has been in development since 2019 and is expected to be launched in 2021. The business rules governing it are still to be finalized and consultations are ongoing with MMPs and banks. There is an opportunity for a neutral agency to act as a convener, facilitate engagements with industry players plus provide clarity on the added value for MMPs who have been interoperable under the mobile money scheme since 2014. There is also an opening to advocate for inclusion of

other financial service providers such as fintechs, microfinance institutions and SACCOs, who were not considered at the conception of TIPS. Often time, these institutions tend to serve marginalized segments in the society who will benefit from having access to digital payment channels.

Digital Economy

Estimates suggest that if a 1.23 percent increase in broadband penetration is reached over five years, this could bring in USD 3.19 billion in additional GDP, with further benefits of USD 41.8 million in tax revenue for Tanzania. Assessments undertaken by Hjort and Paulsen indicate an increase in employment opportunities of anything between 3 and 13 percent, with more equal distribution of income, where fast internet is available. (New companies enter the market, with more intensive use of ICT and higher organisational-level productivity.)³²² Based on a 2016 figure of 2.5 million in formal employment this could equate to between 80,000 and 343,000 jobs being created in Tanzania. With faster internet, new companies also enter the market, with more intensive use of ICT and higher organisational-level productivity.³²³

The completion of the National ICT Broadband Backbone (NICTBB) has facilitated broader access to mobile phones and the internet across mainland Tanzania.³²⁴ With the latter calculated at 66 percent of the country, up from 16.5 percent in 2016.³²⁵ Notwithstanding, challenges remain to securing the yields predicted by Hjort and Paulsen or engender widespread engagement in the knowledge economy and related technologies (referenced above as enhanced capabilities).³²⁶ Tanzania has yet to fully establish the high performing infrastructure required or enable the levels of market competition necessary to ensure digital services reach certain thresholds of availability, affordability and accessibility

Whilst high-volume data products (10GB+) are among the cheapest in East Africa, Dar es Salaam is one of the most expensive for international internet bandwidth, compared to other large cities in sub-Saharan Africa.³²⁷ These costs mean that international bandwidth is underutilized, with Tanzania having the lowest compound annual growth rate between 2015-2019,³²⁸ compared to Kenya, Rwanda and Uganda. Restrictions on operators constructing their own inter-city fibre or reselling capacity on their network to other operators and internet service providers³²⁹ alongside high rights of way changes imposed by the Tanzania Rural and Urban Roads Agency have restricted private sector investment and middle mile network roll out.³³⁰

Tanzania has several data centres, one owned by the Government financed by the Chinese government, Vodacom and Tigo operate their own. However, there are no large content delivery networks from principal content providers such as Google, Facebook, Amazon or Netflix—unlike Kenya, Rwanda and Uganda—nor any carrier-neutral data centres.³³¹

The mobile network operators' market is competitive in Tanzania. 3G population coverage rose from 20 percent in 2015 to 61 percent by the end of 2018. Notwithstanding, 4G coverage is behind its neighbours, at only 13 percent of the population compared to Rwanda at 89 percent in 2019.³³² Although mobile data prices are reasonably low, they remain unaffordable for segments of the population mostly residing in rural areas, including women, PWDs and refugee/migrant populations, perpetuating the digital divide. Even small data baskets are significantly more expensive than comparators (100 Mb basket is three times more expensive than in Uganda and Kenya), thereby pushing access out of reach for poorer customers. The take up of mobile broadband amongst these groups is also negatively impacted by the cost of smart phones, cell coverage and lack of electricity.³³³

There are further challenges in the policy and regulatory environment which serve as a block to widespread broadband penetration. For example, in 2020 the Tanzania Communications Regulatory Authority stated that registration of SIM cards should be tied to national identification cards in an effort to minimise crime using mobile phones. Whilst this should be a temporary obstacle for many, it poses problems for those in hard to reach areas and/or those in irregular situations such as refugees and migrants.³³⁴ Further, the absence of supporting legislation to safeguard personal privacy make implementation difficult. For instance, there is currently no provision for the immediate deregistration of SIM card users on issuance of a death certificate to prevent the deceased's information being used for criminal activities.

The gaps in the legal and regulatory framework are felt most keenly by those seeking to develop/operate in the digital economy. The introduction of the 2015 Tanzanian Cybercrime Act No. 14 was an attempt to fill regulatory gaps but it lacks the checks and balances that a single Data Protection Authority³³⁵ might bring, including stronger anti-trust legislation to govern the ethical use of data both within and across borders. Also, there are discrepancies in some legal provisions embodied in separate instruments, especially in relation to penalties for the same offence.³³⁶

Consumer protection provision, such as the 2015 Electronic Transactions Act, are also currently insufficient to cover all likely scenarios, potentially limiting demand for e-commerce. Suppliers presently do not have sufficient, cost-effective protection for their brand or capacity to generate revenue streams for content.³³⁷ Moreover, the Act, does not address in detail issues of loss in case of e-banking fraud. The law is silent on the right to countermand, liability in the event of erroneous electronic transaction or the problem of double charges imposed by the electronic payment service provider.³³⁸ Without specific codification in law, the rights of the customers are in the hands of the financial institutions whose commercial instincts are to safeguard their business interests. This affects customers' willingness to transact electronically. Further, there is confusion regarding the respective mandates of TCRA and BOT in handling disputes or customer complaints over mobile money services. Although the BoT has been vested with the power to regulate financial matters, the terms and conditions of the Mobile Network Operators (MNOs) in jurisdictional and dispute issues direct the matter to the TCRA.

There is a clear commitment by the Governments of the mainland and in Zanzibar to use technology to drive growth across the sectors which affords some optimism that some of the challenges around the digital economy will be addressed under the FYDP III and MTDS. Notwithstanding, specific action will be required to ensure that those that are currently left behind/digitally excluded are factored into efforts at both the policy and programmatic level. Only then will the required thresholds of availability, affordability and accessibility mentioned at the beginning of the section be realised and the fourth industrial revolution able to take root in Tanzania.

Environment, Climate Change and Resilience in Tanzania

This section examines the third dimension of sustainable development, namely environmental sustainability. For our purposes, this will encompass analysis of SDGs 6, 12, 13, 14 and 15; aspects of which have already been touched upon in previous sections. It will begin with an exploration of the key environmental issues, in terms of the impact on the country's natural resources (both land and sea) that rapid population growth and the drive for economic transformation has had to date. The second half of the section will assess climate change and resilience: the current and likely future impact upon human development in Tanzania. Across both segments, the analysis will highlight the measures currently being undertaken/planned to address the broad range of environmental sustainability concerns identified, plus the challenges that might still persist and prevent achievement of the full range of SDGs by 2030.

Tanzania is endowed with abundant environmental resources key for the country's economic development and the nation's well-being.³³⁹ Environmental management in Tanzania is primarily governed by the National Environmental Policy (1997) and Environmental Management Act (2004). The former establishes the means for mainstreaming environmental considerations in decision-making; the latter provides the legal and institutional framework for sustainable management of the environment and natural resources in the country. National Environmental Action Plans (NEAP) are designed to operationalise the National Environmental Policy. Sector ministries and LGAs are obliged to prepare Environmental Action Plans, in conformity with the NEAP, although there has been limited progress in this regard to date. The third NEAP (2021-2026)³⁴⁰ is currently under development.³⁴¹ Relevant sectoral policies³⁴² and legal instruments as well as Multilateral Environmental Agreements,³⁴³ complement this core policy framework.

Environment & Natural Resources

In recent years, the country's environment and the natural resources therein have been under increasing pressure. As noted above, the slow pace of transformation within the agricultural sector has resulted in the expansion of area cultivated rather than increases in yield for productivity gains. Over-grazing and destruction of water catchment areas combined with rapid population growth and unplanned urbanisation³⁴⁴ are contributing to significant land degradation,³⁴⁵ deforestation and loss of biodiversity across Tanzania.³⁴⁶ Pressure on wetlands has also increased in recent years. According to data from 2016, approximately 75 percent of the total area of 42,000 ha covered by wetland around Lake Victoria had been affected by changes in land use, with around 13 percent severely degraded. Inadequacies in land management are increasing pressure on Tanzania's natural resources; until 2018 only 14 percent of the general land and approximately 15.3 percent of villages had been surveyed,³⁴⁷ leaving a large chunk unplanned for rampant growth of informal settlements and land use activities. 89 percent of forests in the village lands are unreserved (open access) meaning that the forests are subject to uncontrolled practices such as clear and burn agricultural expansion, use of fire in traditional hunting and uncontrolled harvesting of timber.³⁴⁸

The 2016 UPR highlighted concerns regarding the forced evictions of several vulnerable communities, including pastoralist and hunter-gatherer communities. These had been removed from their traditional lands for the purposes of large-scale farming, the creation of game reserves, expansion of national parks, mining, construction of military barracks, tourism and commercial game-hunting. Both the CESCR Committee and CERD Committee³⁴⁹ recommended that the URT provide effective protection, with the perpetrators brought to justice, the findings made public and those evicted offered adequate compensation. The CESCR Committee further recommended that the URT ensure that the establishment of game reserves, the granting of licences for hunting and other projects on ancestral lands be preceded by free, prior and informed consent of the people affected.

Shoreline erosion is also significant challenge for Tanzania. A combination of rising sea levels, inland floods, geology, and rapid coastal population growth accompanied by a sizeable increase of human activities have all contributed to a deterioration of the coastline. In part-response the Government has constructed a number of sea walls in central and southern Dar es Salaam as well as Pangani in the northeast. Systems of defence and security of water-based activities and services will be further strengthened under the FYDP III.

According to the Government's National Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan (NBSAP) 2015-2020, Tanzania has lost approximately one-third of ecosystems in recent decades (no dates provided), including 38 percent of Tanzania's forest cover.³⁵⁰ The 2019 State of the Environment Report calculates that continued biodiversity loss, unsustainable utilization and associated degradation of a wide range of ecosystem services currently amounts to at least five percent of the national GDP and will increase steadily. Biodiversity through its support to agriculture, livestock, forestry and fisheries currently contributes to over 65 percent of GDP, account for over 80 percent of total employment and more than 60 percent of total export earnings.³⁵¹

A 2018 assessment recorded an annual deforestation rate of about 469,420 ha or approximately 0.5 percent per annum for the mainland.³⁵² Along the coast, 18 percent of the mangrove forest cover was lost between 1980 and 2005.³⁵³ Projections indicate that under a business as usual scenario the country may deplete its forest cover in the next 50-80 years.³⁵⁴ The 2013 value of net losses from deforestation to the Tanzanian economy in the period 2013–2033 amounts to TZS 5,588 billion (USD 3.5 billion) when considering the full range of forest ecosystem services. The forests are under pressure from multiple uses, primarily from the expansion in farmlands (rated at 2.4 percent annually) and reliance on wood fuel (charcoal and firewood) for cooking, accounting for almost 90 percent of energy needs. Examples of areas particularly affected include Dodoma, Shinyanga, Singida, parts of Kilimanjaro and Manyara regions. In Kigoma region, refugee presence has contributed to increased demand for wood fuel and related deforestation. This has caused occasional tension with host communities and has led to calls from the Government to the international community to address the issue.

In addition to their contribution to reducing greenhouse gasses through carbon sequestration, Tanzania's forests play an important role in water catchment, reducing the flow of rainwater and preventing floods plus enabling economic activities including the production of hydro-electric power. Up to 90 percent of Tanzania's hydroelectric power is produced from major dams at Kidatu, Mtera, Kihansi, Nyumba ya Mungu, Pangani and Hale, all of which receive water originating from the Eastern Arc Mountains forests (EAMs). Destruction of these forests has contributed to siltation of dams downstream leading to increased maintenance costs and reduced water levels which in turn causes power cuts for domestic and industrial users. The average Total Economic Value (TEV) of catchment forest reserves is calculated at more than USD 17,250 per ha.³⁵⁵

In recent years, interventions to improve sustainable land management and protection of water catchment areas have incorporated support to village use planning and the issuance of certificates of customary rights of occupancy as a means to strengthen land tenure. Under the FYDP III, these moves will be expanded and augmented, with much more emphasis placed upon robust planning: urban, islands and coastal development master plans will be prepared; planning, surveying and titling of land parcels for investment and human settlement facilitated; land management and planning systems in other sectoral development plans mainstreamed; plus an integrated land management information system and use of ICT scaled-up. Likewise, the Revolutionary Government of Zanzibar under the MTDS seeks to improve aspects of land management with more transparent and efficient allocation systems and processes which balance availability for different activities with sustainability concerns. They also plan to increase the share of protected (forest and marine) conservation areas to ensure the continuity of ecosystem biodiversity.³⁵⁶

The importance of the tourism industry including marine eco-tourism (especially for Zanzibar) and many of the measures planned to enable further growth have already been highlighted in the previous section and therefore will not be repeated here. Current COVID-19 impacts notwithstanding, the sub-sector is now estimated to be worth over USD 1

billion annually and so both governments are keen to safeguard and promote this important source of revenue.³⁵⁷ Given over 50 percent of tourism in Tanzania currently centres around the country's wildlife, in addition to protecting their habitats, the Government has stepped up efforts to combat poaching and illegal trafficking of wildlife products which have intensified in recent years.³⁵⁸ To this end, in 2014, the Government of Tanzania developed and approved the National Anti-Poaching and Illegal Wildlife Trade Strategy, which has shown some success. After a spike in illegal killings of elephants in 2013 of 300+, numbers reduced to less than 100 in 2016.³⁵⁹

For coastal and marine habitats, dynamite fishing is a major problem, destroying coral reefs, as well as fish and all other reef-dwelling organisms. The 2019 State of the Environment Report asserts that whilst there is insufficient data to accurately assess the scale of the problem, there is some evidence to mark out a general trend. This reveals reductions in the practice, following government efforts through a number of cross-sectoral initiatives under the 2008 Strategy for Urgent Actions on the Conservation of Marine and Coastal Environment, Lakes, Rivers and Dams.

Pollution

Although clear data regarding water pollution is sparse, there is evidence to suggest that the water quality of most surface and groundwater sources have deteriorated in recent years, whilst annual deaths attributable to water pollution are estimated at around 8 percent.³⁶⁰ Rapid population growth, associated unplanned settlements and industrialisation³⁶¹ have led to an increase in a wide range of pollutants including but not limited to: untreated or partially treated sewage,³⁶² agricultural and industrial chemicals³⁶³ plus atmospheric deposition. Although plastic pollution is not presently considered a significant problem, it also requires attention going forward.³⁶⁴

Around 10 percent of annual deaths in Tanzania are caused by air pollution.³⁶⁵ Sources include agricultural processing, the mining, cement, timber and oil industries, vehicle emissions and waste burning. Indoor air pollution accounts for 5.6 percent of air pollution attributable deaths, much of which is created by using charcoal for cooking. Given women mostly assume responsibility for such tasks they are much more likely to be affected.³⁶⁶

Indoor Tanzania's Health and Pollution Action Plan (2015) asserts that diseases resulting from pollution were estimated to cost the nation between USD 384 million and USD 540 million due to lost productivity. This is the equivalent of up to 1.2 percent of the country's GDP for the year. Meanwhile, the cost of recovery from damages caused by pollution-attributable diseases was equivalent to USD 3,665 million or 7.5 percent of the gross national income (GNI) in 2015.

Under the aforementioned 2008 Strategy, efforts have been made to address water pollution, with more than 70 industries adopting cleaner production technologies and techniques, more than 1,200 metric tonnes of obsolete pesticide identified and properly disposed of and increased participation of local community and private sector in waste management systems. It is anticipated that these measures will be amplified under the FYDP III. Likewise, the plans to improve access to (clean) energy) which includes targets for alternatives to charcoal in urban areas, should go some way to reducing the current reliance on it for cooking.³⁶⁷ As mentioned above, Zanzibar plans to improve its waste management systems and enforce the principle that the 'polluter pays'.

Climate Change

In the 2018 Notre Dame Global Adaptation Initiative (ND-GAIN) Country Index, Tanzania ranked 148 of 181 countries, representing a steady decline of 10 places since 1995. It was designated as the 33rd most vulnerable country and 43rd least ready. These scores denote urgent need for investment. Currently, more than 70 percent of all-natural disasters in Tanzania are climate change-related and linked to recurrent droughts and floods.

Whilst there is no *direct* correlation between poverty and natural disaster risks, many areas in Tanzania shown to be experiencing high levels of poverty are subject to natural disasters, in particular droughts.³⁶⁸ Within the rural population, there are higher rates of poverty in tropical savannah zones (northwest and southeast) where high temperatures and heavy rain contribute to poor soil quality which in turn lead to less productive agriculture. Such zones are not suitable for wheat, rice and importantly maize which serves as a critical driver of poverty reduction in Tanzania.³⁶⁹ Vulnerability to climate-change induced natural disasters is also highest among the lake zone districts.³⁷⁰ Women are particularly vulnerable across these areas to the effects of climate change given they constitute the majority of the poor, are more dependent for their livelihoods on natural resources, and enjoy limited mobility due to unequal access to resources and decision-making processes.³⁷¹ The situation is compounded by the increased incidence of agricultural diseases in tropical climates, especially those which are vector-borne, with serious implications for health and labour productivity. Further,

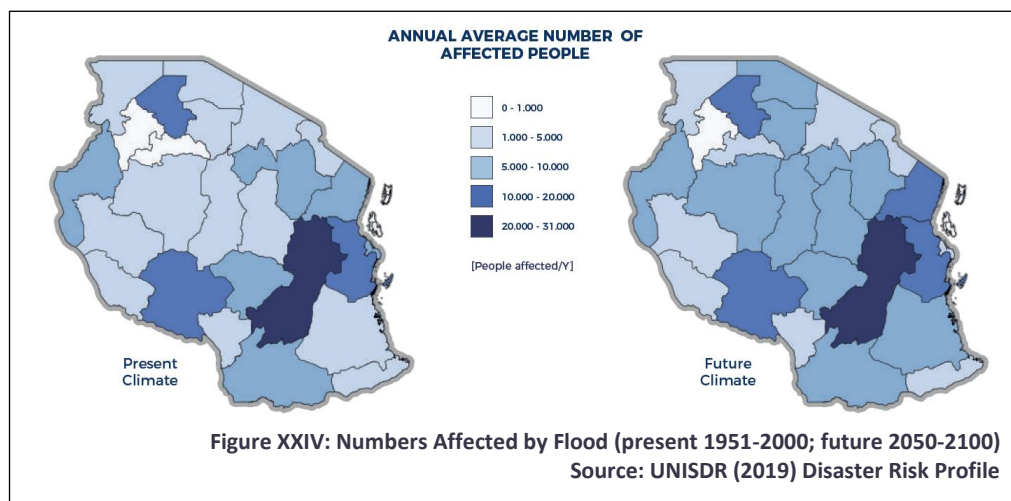
there are predictions that those areas that were once highly productive, namely the southern and northern highlands, will see a transition to a tropical climate as a result of declining rainfall, frequent droughts, and significantly more spatial and temporal rainfall variability.³⁷²

In the last 40 years, Tanzania has experienced a significant number of severe and recurring droughts with devastating

effects on ecosystems, agriculture, food security, water, energy and health sectors. Countrywide, on average 11.8 million people (21.7 percent of the total population of 2018) are annually exposed to droughts. Under projected climate conditions, this number is expected to increase up to 33 percent (on average 43.6 million people if population growth is accounted for). This translates into 5.6 billion USD loss per year. By

2050, this could substantially increase to 15 billion USD, or 230 billion USD with socio-economic costs included.³⁷³ Economic crop production losses are currently concentrated in the north-eastern part of the country, and seven regions (Kilimanjaro, Tanga, Pwani, Mtwara, Ruvuma, Mbeya and Kigoma) near the border in the western, southern and eastern parts of Tanzania. National food production is projected to decrease by 8–13 percent by 2050 due to increased heat stress, drying and erosion. The prolonged length of dry seasons and increased severity of periodic droughts reduces water and available pasture for livestock. Drought is also expected to further shrink the rangelands which are important for livestock keeping communities in Tanzania.³⁷⁴ This is likely to exacerbate conflicts between livestock keepers and farmers in many areas.³⁷⁵

Conversely, floods affect on average 150,000 people every year in Tanzania, with an estimated economic loss of 215 million USD per year.³⁷⁶ By 2050, the affected population is likely to double and the effect on GDP multiplied by 15 plus.³⁷⁷ The regions affected by floods are concentrated in the eastern part of the country, specifically Morogoro, Pwani and Tanga provinces. In the future, marked increases in the eastern and western ends of the country as well as around the Lake Victoria area are anticipated. Taking socio-economic costs into account, including housing, service, transport and agricultural sectors, the value of annual direct economic losses amounts to 44 million USD. In view of varying levels of floods year on year, the likelihood of a 70 million USD direct economic losses from floods is projected to occur once every 5 years.³⁷⁸



Analysis suggests that changes in climatic pattern will aggravate climate-sensitive human diseases in Tanzania, such as cholera.³⁷⁹ Research projects the risk of cholera increases by 15 to 29 percent as the temperature increases by 1 degree Celsius. The total costs of cholera attributable to climate change are

estimated to be in the range of 0.32 to 1.4 percent of Tanzanian GDP by 2030.³⁸⁰ Further, WHO and UNFCCC reported

that under high (RCP 8.5) and low (RCP 2.6) emission scenarios more than 114 million people are likely to be at risk of malaria by 2070 (compared to 6.7 million on the mainland in 2019).³⁸¹

In Zanzibar, observational data suggests that the climate is changing. Temperatures and rainfall variability have increased, extreme wind events intensified, and the number of floods and droughts risen in recent decades.³⁸² Further, there is evidence of islands such as Pangani and Fuvu la Nyani in Rufiji being partially submerged due to sea level rises. The University of Dar es Salaam, Institute of Marine Sciences Zanzibar station recorded an increase of 150 mm between 2000 and 2015. Across both the archipelago and the mainland, an additional 0.3 million to 1.6 million people are projected to become vulnerable to sea level rising by 2030, threatening forced displacement, adversely impacting upon farming activities and exacerbating food insecurity.³⁸³ Rising seawater levels will lead to saline intrusion negatively impacting groundwater quality which many communities rely on for drinking water.

Climate Smart Agriculture

Shifting to a growth path away from the expansion of land under cultivation to one based on increased productivity is essential if Tanzania is to secure long-term environmental sustainability and meet the needs of its growing population. It is also critical for growth, given participation in agricultural global supply chains necessitates increasingly stringent suppliers' reliability and quality standards.³⁸⁴ Besides, building resilience has been shown to be a good economic investment. The Global Commission on Adaptation found that for every USD 1 invested in adaptation benefits worth between USD 2 and USD 10 could be accrued. However, building preparedness to better predict and withstand shocks requires a range of enhanced capabilities which can draw upon science and technology, including advanced weather prediction systems. The Human Development Report 2019 recommends taking this one step further and linking granular analysis around climate exposure, impacts and vulnerabilities to other factors of deprivation and vulnerability to inform a truly multi-sectoral approach to impact mitigation and resilience building, which detail place-specific adaptation pathways which reflect upon trade-offs and salient tipping points.³⁸⁵ Similarly, nexus approaches to water use which show the linkages to other resources (such as energy, food and forests) can encourage more diverse, efficient and sustainable approaches. These might result in wider adoption of precision irrigation technology, reuse of wastewater and seawater desalination for example.

According to the National Environment Action Plan III climate change variability already costs Tanzania around 1 percent of GDP annually and could go up to 2 percent of GDP by 2030. Approximately USD 500 million is required annually to reduce current vulnerability to climate change, and a further USD 100 to 150 million per year will be required to build capacity and enhance gender sensitive climate resilience and adaptation efforts to address future climate change adverse impacts. Meanwhile the cost of implementing Tanzania Nationally Determined Contributions is estimated at USD 14 Billion.³⁸⁶

Whilst these are significant demands on the public purse, climate change has important implications on the country's development trajectory, potentially reversing important gains made if no action is taken. This is particularly true for the poorest and most vulnerable who rely most heavily upon the natural environment for their livelihoods.³⁸⁷ Climate change impacts are also increasing the number of stress factors related to competing needs and uses for water resources, including farming versus livestock grazing or irrigation needs versus hydropower generation requirements. These factors, coupled with aforementioned deforestation impacts, have resulted in policy and strategy directions towards higher diversification of the energy mix. These currently include various sources including natural gas as well as renewable energy in line with global policy shifts towards low-carbon and resource efficient development paths.

The review and/or development of three key plans and strategies are also underway which should strengthen both environmental protection and climate change adaptation measures in Tanzania. The National Climate Response Strategy 2021 – 2026 is currently being finalized. The Nationally Determined Contributions (NDC) 2020 – 2025 are being revised, reflecting ambitious commitments to reduce greenhouse gases emissions through pursuit of low carbon development pathways, plus measures to address climate change impacts. It will integrate critical issues such as the blue economy, financial frameworks and the role of the private sector, although advocacy will likely be required to ensure WASH is explicitly referenced (and subsequently resourced) as part of a holistic climate change response.³⁸⁸ Further, the preparations for a National Adaptation Plan (NAP)³⁸⁹ are underway, with a stocktaking exercise completed and a framework created for resource mobilization for the Plan's development and associated activities.

Tanzania like many other countries monitors implementation of its disaster risk reduction measures through the Sendai Framework for Action tool.³⁹⁰ The country has developed National Emergency Preparedness and Response Plans (EPRPs) along with a National Disaster Risk Reduction Strategy (DRRS, 2020-2025). These establish a framework for coordination, planning and monitoring of related issues, empowering communities and institutions to take appropriate actions to prevent and reduce disaster risks, vulnerabilities and human suffering in disaster situations. The DRRS specifically

includes support to strengthen multi-hazard and people-centred early warning systems, disaster response capacity and relief services, plus recovery, rehabilitation and reconstruction (building back better) for community resilience. Moreover, the strategy aims to improve governance of disaster risk management including public and private financing and investments in disaster risk management through multi-sectoral approaches which consider environmental degradation and climate change risks plus cultural diversity and the integration of gender concerns and vulnerable groups' needs.³⁹¹ It will be imperative to identify means to ensure both women and vulnerable groups can serve as effective actors or agents of change in relation to both mitigation and adaptation. For example, women's responsibilities in households and communities, as stewards of natural and household resources, positions them well to contribute to livelihood strategies adapted to changing environmental realities.³⁹²

PART II: TANZANIA'S DEVELOPMENT - THE ENABLING ENVIRONMENT

Part II provides the operational context for development in Tanzania.³⁹³ The opening section outlines the system and structures of governance, followed by a closer look at how these operated during the fifth phase administration between 2015-2021. Particular issues related to security and the rule of law, including access to justice and freedom of expression, are examined, alongside the recent changes signalled under the new President Ms Samia Suluhu Hassan. The section on participation, rights and inclusion delves deeper into the social norms and legislation that underpin the socio-economic marginalisation of particular groups referenced in Part I.

The remaining sections of Part II summarise the national development priorities of the URT and Zanzibar as defined by the FYDP III and MTDS³⁹⁴ and examine the dilemmas experienced around data collection, analysis, and use for decision-making and SDG monitoring. Part II concludes with an analysis of the financing landscape, including opportunities to leverage resources for the 2030 Agenda.

System of Governance

The Constitution defines the URT as a “democratic, secular and socialist state which adheres to multi-party democracy.”³⁹⁵ The Union Government has authority over all Union matters as well as all non-union matters on mainland Tanzania. The Revolutionary Government of Zanzibar has authority over all non-Union matters for the territories of Unguja and Pemba. Both presidents are elected by direct popular vote for a 5-year term, on a first-past-the-post basis. The Union President serves as the Head of State, Head of Government, and Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces. S/he is elected together with a running mate who holds the position of the Vice President of the Union. The Union President appoints the remaining members of the Union Executive, including the Prime Minister which is subject to the approval of the National Assembly. The President of Zanzibar is the Head of the Revolutionary Government of Zanzibar and Chairman of the Zanzibar Revolutionary Council. The President of Zanzibar appoints ministers, deputy ministers and the Attorney General of Zanzibar. S/he also serves in the Cabinet of the Union Government.

Legislative power is invested in the government and in the unicameral National Assembly or Bunge. In addition to enacting laws on Union matters that apply to the entire United Republic, the Bunge enacts laws that only apply to the mainland. The Prime Minister leads the Assembly, which has a 5-year term and 393 seats. Of these, 264 are elected by popular vote (214 on the mainland and 50 from Zanzibar), 113 are allocated to women by their parties in proportion to their share of the electoral vote through the Special Seats arrangement,³⁹⁶ 10 are nominated by the president, 5 members are chosen by the Zanzibar House of Representatives (ZHoR), and one is allocated to the Attorney General (ex-officio). The Special Seats system for women parliamentarians guarantees at least 40 percent women's representation in the Assembly. Zanzibar has its own House of Representatives with members serving 5-year terms: 50 seats for members elected by universal suffrage; 10 for presidential nominees; 20 Special Women's Seats; and one for the Attorney General (ex-officio). Following the 2020 elections, the ruling party Chama cha Mapinduzi (CCM) holds 94 percent of seats in the National Assembly and 92 percent in the ZHoR. Of the 388 seat National Assembly 144 seats (37 percent) are currently held by women and 244 (63 percent) by men, with 113 women selected via special seats system, 26 elected from constituencies, and 5 appointed by the President. Women also make 39 percent of the ZHoR (8 women directly elected from the constituencies, 18 from special seats, and 5 appointed by the President). Meanwhile there are 48 men (61 percent) in the 79-member ZHoR. The House has law-making, oversight and budget review and approval powers over the Zanzibar territory for all non-Union matters.

The Bunge is involved in all key phases of the budgeting process, namely *a priori* control through the review and approval of the Government's budget proposals and *ex post* control in the budget oversight/auditing phase. Through various standing committees, it scrutinizes the budget, monitors budget implementation by MDAs, approves and oversees use of public funds. It does not have the authority to amend the budget or reallocate funds within it. Since 2013/14, MPs are able to debate and approve ministerial votes before passing the national budget. This provides space for not only MPs but also other stakeholders to provide inputs.

Through public hearings—for parliamentary standing orders—civil society organisations, the business community, and other groups have the opportunity to make representations on revenue and expenditure proposals. In 2016, a Budget Committee was established in the National Assembly, along with a Parliamentary Budget Office (PBO) as its secretariat.

Unlike sectoral committees whose remit is limited to MDAs within their sectors, the Budget Committee reviews the Budget as a whole and makes recommendations to the National Assembly.³⁹⁷ It should be noted that the Parliamentary Standing Orders for both the National Assembly and ZHoR are silent on how the legislative business should be guided by gender and social inclusion principles. Issues related to gender are placed under the Social Service Committees, that are themselves placed under Sectoral Committees overseeing broad areas, such as education, health, arts and information. These Social Service Committees are therefore them ineffective in providing support on specific gender issues across all of the committees and in the National Assembly/ZHoR.

Gender Responsive Budgeting (GRB) in Tanzania was instituted following research by the Tanzania Gender Networking Programme (TGNP) which demonstrated public spending's disproportionate benefit in favour of men. The government established a GRB pilot programme in six ministries and institutionalized GRB in its annual planning and budgeting guidelines in 2000, mainstreaming gender equality as a cross cutting issue. The 2018/19 planning and budgeting guidelines section 4.5 (41) directs MDAs and LGAs to include budget gender perspectives into their plans. Work is underway to institute oversight mechanisms for GRB including the Gender Budget Statement, with a number of select parliamentary committees, the Tanzania Women Parliamentary Group on the mainland and UWAWAZA in Zanzibar. Further, the Gender Mainstreaming Working Group-Policy Macro (GMWG-MP) under the leadership of MHCDGEC on the mainland and MSWVEC in Zanzibar are increasingly reporting on allocation of budget for specific GEWE interventions in respective Ministries. There is still room for scale-up of efforts, in all levels of government planning and budgeting processes, to utilize GRB tools for tracking and reporting on public sector expenditures that promote gender equality and target other vulnerable groups.

Under the Written Laws (Miscellaneous) Amendment Act No. 3 2020 and amended National Assembly (Administration) Act, Cap 115, the establishment, increase, reduction of “Departments, Sections or Units of the National Assembly”³⁹⁸ and allocation of functions to them, requires the approval of the President. This power was previously vested in the Parliamentary Service Commission (PSC),³⁹⁹ an 11-member multi-party body chaired by the National Assembly Speaker. Further, the PSC no longer has a role in the appointment of the Clerk of the National Assembly, Chief Executive, and Accounting Officer of the Parliamentary Service. As observed by 210 CSOs in their submission to the Parliamentary Committee on Constitutional and Legal Affairs dated 6 June 2020,⁴⁰⁰ the amendments significantly reduced the independence of the legislature and separation of powers envisaged in the Constitution.

The National Electoral Commission (NEC), with a Director appointed by the President, conducts presidential and parliamentary elections for the Union and council level elections for mainland Tanzania. It contains seven commissioners, only two of which are women. The Zanzibar Election Commission (ZEC), headed by a Chair appointed by the Zanzibar President, conducts elections for Zanzibar’s president, members of the ZHoR, and councillors. The ZEC has seven Commissioners, one of which is a woman. All local government elections below council level are managed by district officials, headed by Directors who are appointed by the President.

Local Government

The President appoints regional and district commissioners, who are tasked with guiding implementation of government policy and maintaining law and order. Commissioners have powers of arrest and detention, including discretionary authority to order detention of an individual for up to 48 hours without charge.⁴⁰¹ Women constitute only 15 percent of the Regional Commissioners⁴⁰² and 32 percent of the Regional Administrative Secretaries. Each district is administered by a district council, with cities on the mainland and towns in Zanzibar administered separately by their own councils. City council directors are appointed by the President, while directors of town, municipal and district councils are appointed by the Minister for Regional Administration and Local Government (PO-RALG), within the President’s Office.⁴⁰³ Women make 16 percent of the District Executive Directors, 18 percent of the District Administrative Secretaries, and 22 percent of District Commissioners. Council Membership includes: an elected councillor from each ward; members of parliament resident in the district, and women appointed through the Special Seats system.⁴⁰⁴ However, the proportion of elected women councillors has remained low at seven percent. Combined with the special seat councillors, women make up 31 percent of all councillors countrywide. These face several challenges. In some councils special seat councillors are not allowed to serve on finance and ethics Committees and may not chair any committee.⁴⁰⁵ The council’s role encompasses provision of health services and primary education; control of solid waste management and local infrastructure including roads; control and management of natural resources; promotion of trade, allocating land for industrial development and the development of the informal sector.

In principle, the participation of local people in development planning is mobilised through local committees or village councils,⁴⁰⁶ which discuss local needs and priorities and make recommendations summarised in a Ward Plan submitted for consideration by the District Council. Once approved, the Ward Plans are reflected in a Comprehensive Council Plan (CCP), the main channel through which district councils seek funding from the central government. The participation of women, youth, and PWDs in the meetings is low, mainly due to limited awareness, the burden of care work, and (fear of) discrimination, meaning their needs and priorities are not fully reflected in the Plans. Moreover, given that central funds account for approximately 90 percent of local government budgets⁴⁰⁷ and LGAs are required to formulate plans aligned to government directives (which may contain budget ceilings), local prioritisation or decision-making is restricted.⁴⁰⁸ This underlines the importance of advocacy during the budgeting process at central level. Opportunities to introduce new services or influence the direction of current local services are available, however, through independent fundraising or community contributions.⁴⁰⁹

A special variation of Public Private Partnerships (PPP) has been introduced in Tanzania, known as Public-Private Community Partnerships (PPCP), in which the local community is one of the partners. Unlike PPPs, PPCPs focus on local development rather than profitability as the parameter of success. The local population can enjoy the advantages derived from local natural resources, an equity stake in the PPCP company, participation in project governance, and access to new revenue streams. PPCPs are widely used in water and sanitation projects but also projects aiming to reduce the digital divide and achieve sustainable development.⁴¹⁰ However, implementation of PPCPs is limited due to lack of financial and technical resources, high transaction costs, ineffective inclusion of women, youth, and persons with disabilities, and challenges in effective determination of concession periods and contracting.

Justice System

The Constitution provides for an independent judiciary and respect for rule of law, human rights, and good governance. The President appoints the Chief Justice of Tanzania who presides over the Court of Appeal of Tanzania. Judges to the Court of Appeal and the High Court are appointed by the President on the advice of the Judicial Service Commission,⁴¹¹ which in turn appoints judges to the Resident Magistrate, District and Primary Courts. The legal system of Tanzania is largely based on common law but accommodates Islamic⁴¹² or customary law in cases of personal or family matters.⁴¹³ The Kadhi court is the main avenue by which the majority in Zanzibar seek and access justice.

The Commission on Human Rights and Good Governance (CHRAGG) is an independent government institution established under the Constitution. It is tasked with investigating allegations of human rights violations, conducting public hearings, providing education on human rights and good governance issues, undertaking research and advising public and private organs on human rights issues. As a key recommendation from the 2011 UPR, CHRAGG was also assigned to coordinate and monitor activities by government, civil society, and the private sector under the Tanzania's first National Human Rights Action Plan (NHRAP) 2013-2017. A successor NHRAP is pending review by the National Assembly. Between 2017-2019, CHRAGG operated without Commissioners and experienced significant budget cuts. Seven new commissioners were sworn in on 4 November 2019 to serve three-year terms. CHRAGG has continued to maintain its A-Status accreditation,⁴¹⁴ meaning full compliance with the Paris Principles in the execution of its mandate. Recommendations from the 2016 UPR accepted by the Government emphasized the need to strengthen CHRAGG's institutional capacity and resources.⁴¹⁵ In the UN submission to the 2021 UPR, calls were made for more concrete steps to strengthen National Coordination Structures, enabling timely and effective reporting, follow up on outstanding reporting duties to human rights mechanisms and systematic follow-up on their recommendations.⁴¹⁶

Tanzania is party to six of the nine core international human rights treaties.⁴¹⁷ It has a backlog in its reporting obligations under the treaties it has ratified. Between 1 January 2016 and 15 December 2020, UN Special Procedures sent fifteen communications to Tanzania, most of which related to restrictions to freedom of opinion and expression plus discrimination against women and girls. Of these, Tanzania responded to three. The Independent Expert on the enjoyment of human rights by persons with albinism was the first and only mandate holder to visit Tanzania in the last decade (in 2017). Pending visit requests include: the Working Group on Discrimination Against Women in Law and in Practice; Independent Expert on Human Rights and International Solidarity; Special Rapporteur on Contemporary Forms of Slavery, including its Causes and Consequences; Working Group on Business and Human Rights; Working Group on the Use of Mercenaries; Special Rapporteur on the Human Rights of Migrants; Special Rapporteur on Adequate Housing; Special Rapporteur on Sale and Exploitation of Children.

Membership/Contribution to Inter-Governmental Bodies

Tanzania is a founding member of the Organisation of African Unity (now African Union), EAC and SADC. It previously hosted the International Criminal Court of Rwanda and currently hosts both the African Court on Human and People's Rights as well as the EAC. Throughout the country's history, Tanzania has adopted a pan-African discourse, playing a pivotal role in supporting struggles for independence and promoting peace and security in Africa. Tanzania has convened and hosted multiple peace conferences and contributed peacekeepers.

The Fifth & Sixth Phase Administrations

Mr. John Pombe Magufuli was first elected to power in the 2015 presidential elections, as the CCM candidate. His running mate Ms. Samia Suluhu Hassan became the first female Vice President of Tanzania. Ms Hassan succeeded President Magufuli following his death in March 2021.

Whilst observers generally deemed the 2015 URT presidential and parliamentary elections credible,⁴¹⁸ the Chairperson of ZEC annulled the results of the Zanzibar election. Opposition parties claimed this was because the CCM candidate Ali Mohamed Shein had not secured sufficient votes. They boycotted the 2016 rerun; consequently, Shein won over 90 percent of the votes, and CCM secured full control of the legislature. During the pre-election period, military presence was increased, and international media reported attacks on political party offices and journalists.⁴¹⁹

President Magufuli won his second term in October 2020 with just over 84 percent of votes cast. Opposition parties made a series of complaints in the lead up to and following the elections, citing issues such as the failure to accredit opposition electoral observers and the restrictions placed upon the opposition leader to campaign. Initially, ACT-Wazalendo did not recognize the election outcomes and asserted that its MPs-elect would not take up their seats in the 12th Parliament, however these later assumed their posts. Chadema also declared that it would not accept the outcome.

In the parliamentary elections, opposition parties collectively failed to secure sufficient seats to form the official opposition in the Bunge for the first time since multi-party elections were introduced in the 1990s. However, the Chairs of two oversight committees, namely the Public Accounts Committee (PAC) and the Local Authorities Accounts Committee (LAAC), were given to opposition MPs. The status of 19 women Special Seats MPs is yet to be determined by the courts following their expulsion from Chadema for presenting themselves for parliamentarian swearing in without their party's approval.

In Zanzibar, the main opposition party, ACT-Wazalendo, disputed the 2020 election results that gave its presidential candidate, Mr. Seif Sharif Hamad, only 19 percent of the votes and four seats in the zHoR. The newly elected President of Zanzibar, Dr Hussein Ali Mwinyi, appointed Mr. Seif Sharif Hamad as first Vice President and ACT Wazalendo members as ministers. Following the death of Mr. Seif Sharif Hamad in February 2021, Mr Othman Masoud (also a member of ACT-Wazalendo) was named Zanzibar's First Vice President.

Governance Assessment

In the 2020 Ibrahim Index of African Governance (IIAG) report Tanzania ranked 19 of 54 countries, scoring 53 out of 100. Kenya and Rwanda are both ranked higher than Tanzania at 14 and 11 respectively, whilst Uganda is positioned lower at 22. All three countries are classified as 'slowing improvement' whereas Tanzania is 'showing warning signs.' The composite score encompasses *"the 'basket' of ... public goods and services that any 21st century citizen is entitled to receive from their government, and that any 21st century government is expected to deliver to its citizens."*⁴²⁰

Mirroring the trend for Africa, the increase in 'Overall Governance' over the past decade has been driven by improvements in the categories 'Foundations for Economic Opportunity' (+2.4)⁴²¹ and 'Human Development' (+7.2). The former is a result of increases in the infrastructure sub-category (+9), which—as discussed in Part I—saw significant investments between 2015-2019. The 'Human Development' category reflects gains made in education (gender parity improvement) and sustainable environment (policy and regulatory sphere improvements), both showing increases by 4.1 points for the same period.⁴²²

Also following average trends across Africa, some challenges are apparent in 'Participation, Rights and Inclusion' (-6.2) as well as 'Security and the Rule of Law' (-2.3) over the last decade.⁴²³ Under the former, whilst 'Inclusion and Equality' have improved (up by 1.9), 'Participation' has dropped by 13.9 and 'Rights' by 13 points since 2015.⁴²⁴ Under the latter,

the Rule of Law and Justice has slipped by 8.9 points in the past four years and 'Accountability and Transparency' has slipped 5.8 points.⁴²⁵ These elements will be discussed more in the following sections.

Security & the Rule of Law: Access to Justice



Figure XXV: Tanzania Governance Index Scores 2010-2019
Source: Ibrahim Index of African Governance 2020

The Government has established mechanisms for the effective administration of justice. Improvements in terms of criminal justice include the creation of the National Prosecution Service separate from investigations and enactment of the Legal Aid Act (No.1 of 2017) to create improved coordination, provision of legal aid, and registration of paralegals thereby increasing legal protection for its most vulnerable citizens. Notwithstanding, a number of barriers to justice persist. The institutional level faces challenges in terms of: the availability of independent, impartial and fully resourced tribunals and courts; sufficient numbers of qualified lawyers; capacity and discriminatory attitudes of judicial staff;⁴²⁶ data collection and management; application of international human rights standards in the law; adoption by relevant authorities of proactive judicial decisions; and roll-out of criminal justice reforms. Key justice institutions—including the police, judiciary, prosecution, lawyers, judiciary and prisons—largely operate in silos, with bottlenecks in one institution impacting the entire system’s capacity to provide timely and accessible justice.⁴²⁷ Moreover, prolonged pre-trial detentions and lack of respect for human rights at the point of arrest persist. The constitutional guarantee of basic human rights is limited to those listed in the existing Bill of Rights. (A later section will show how this impacts the rights of migrants.) As a result, the 2016 UPR recommended that Tanzania should, ‘take necessary measures to improve the functioning of justice system as a whole, especially regarding access to justice and right to fair trial’.

Additional socio-economic obstacles impede access to justice, such as: low levels of educational attainment (affecting comprehension of legal procedures); proximity to legal services and court buildings for those in rural areas; traditions, beliefs and customs that discriminate against women, girls and marginalised or vulnerable groups. Women often fail to seek legal support for fear of retaliation, lack of awareness, corruption, intimidation, and domestic responsibilities. Family influence can sometimes dissuade women victims of violence from seeking redress. Police officers also tend to direct victims of violence to make peace with perpetrators, especially when a perpetrator is a family member.⁴²⁸ For women in conflict with the law, special considerations are needed throughout the criminal justice system. Women offenders are often stereotyped and ostracized, even after final determination of their cases and having served their

prison terms.⁴²⁹

Positive developments for both children in contact and in conflict with the law are evidenced by the designation of 236 primary courts as Juvenile Courts on the mainland (as of 2019), the piloting of a Guardian ad Litem programme for children who do not have legal representation or a parent/guardian in court (2018) and the issuance of a circular on adoption of Juvenile Court Rules in High Courts of Tanzania creating a child-friendly court environment (2019).⁴³⁰ In 2020, the Government endorsed the Second Five Year Strategy for Progressive Child Justice Reform 2020/21 - 2024/25 setting the framework for coordinated reform of Tanzania's child justice system. The UN has supported the Government to scale up the diversion of children from the criminal justice system through the Community Rehabilitation Programme. However, greater investment of public resources is needed for full coverage.⁴³¹

An additional dilemma within the justice systems rests in the accommodation of customary law, which has led to the perpetuation or reinforcement of discriminatory social norms in Tanzania, especially in cases related to rights to inheritance, property and maintenance as well as violence against women and children.⁴³² Although the Law of the Marriage Act prohibits the use of corporal punishment against a spouse, the Penal Code does not make any corresponding provision for punishing perpetrators of domestic violence. Married women have the right to acquire, hold, and dispose of property during the marriage, and the right to distribution of property acquired jointly when the relationship is dissolved. However, under customary law, a woman has no rights to her husband's land on his death (Probate and Administration of Estates Act 2002, CAP 352, S.88). For land rights by statute and custom, a woman may have to seek consent from her spouse to reap economic benefits from land acquired in his name.

The application of parallel legal systems complicates the resolution of disputes where the two are not aligned or there is inconsistency with constitutional principles. Relevant children's rights and child protection customary and statutory laws are currently being reviewed by the Ministry of Constitutional and Legal Affairs to ensure alignment with international and regional standards and practice. Meanwhile, in Zanzibar, the Kadhi Court Rules were amended in 2019 to incorporate children's issues. These included procedures for addressing children's rights, standardizing the age of maturity at 18 years, and determining a child's best interests as per the Children's Act. A rule that allowed for child marriage in Zanzibar was also eliminated. Notwithstanding, the Kadhi courts remain challenged by inconsistency in the interpretation of laws, weak compliance with court procedures, and in the interpretation of human rights standards in relation to Islamic law.

Security & the Rule of Law: Accountability, Transparency & Anti-Corruption

The decline since 2015 on the IIAG sub-category 'Accountability and Transparency' is mirrored in Tanzania's ranking in the Open Budget Survey (OBS).⁴³³ In the first edition (2006), Tanzania ranked 25th of 59 countries surveyed. It is now positioned at 102 of 117 countries surveyed for the 2019 report. Tanzania is currently listed as among those countries that provide insufficient or no information about its budget.⁴³⁴

Despite these challenges, the 2019 IIAG notes significant improvements in measures to tackle corruption, up 6.1 points since 2015, mainly driven by increases since 2015 in indicators such as: absence of diversion of public funds; absence of public sector bribery; absence of bribery or corrupt exchanges in the public sector; absence of corruption in the private sector. On Transparency International's Corruption Perception Index, Tanzania has seen an improvement in its rankings since 2017, with a shift of 7 places from 103 to 96. Freedom House, however, raised concerns that efforts to tackle corruption have focused primarily on low-level corruption and not upon graft committed by senior officials.⁴³⁵

In September 2017, the Government of the URT withdrew from the Open Government Partnership (OGP) Initiative, which Tanzania had joined as a founding member in 2011. The intention was to make Government business more open to its citizens hence improve public service delivery, government responsiveness, combating corruption and building greater trust. Tanzania OGP commitments were focused on four pillars namely: transparency; accountability; citizen's participation; technology and innovation. Despite the withdrawal, the municipality of Kigoma-Ujiji, one of the fifteen sub-national pioneers of the OGP sub-national programme, continues to participate in OGP.

Anti-corruption was a key pillar of President Magufuli's 2015 election bid. Upon taking office, he instituted accountability mechanisms in public offices, checks and balances in government spending, introduced travel and per diem expense restrictions on public employees, and cut salaries of higher-earning servants. Further, he ordered a human resources audit of the public service, which led to the removal of over 16,000 government 'ghost workers' in 2016, and an audit of public employees' educational qualifications, which saw 10,000 disqualified from their posts.

The Five Year Development Plan II review reported significant anti-corruption progress, while falling short of the ambitious targets set. Challenges cited include: paucity of data; shortage of personnel; inability to keep up with the fast rate of technological change; porous borders; increasing transnational organised crime; and an inherent culture of silence with regard to witnesses in corruption cases. Meanwhile, it suggests that Tanzania better utilise the network of international and regional cooperation agreements, conventions and protocols at its disposal.

Security & the Rule of Law: Security & Safety⁴³⁶

Malawi and Tanzania have been party to a decades long dispute regarding their shared inland sea: known to Tanzanians as Lake Nyasa but as Lake Malawi to those across the border. In the latest exchanges, the foreign minister of Malawi threatened to escalate the dispute to the International Court of Justice in The Hague. Malawi asserts that the boundary follows the shoreline of the lake as established in clear terms by the 1890 Anglo-German Treaty and supported by the African Union's 1964 Cairo Resolution to freeze African territories along the borders inherited at independence. Tanzania disagrees and relies on the tradition within international law that a median position on the lake is the boundary giving both states large parts of the lake. The issuing of prospecting licence for hydrocarbons as well as other precious minerals may intensify the risks of conflict between these neighbours who have invested in the naval capacities over the last few years.

Despite these concerns 'Security and Safety' has marginally improved since 2015 according to the IAG 2019. Although, Tanzania dropped one place during the same year under the annual Global Terrorism Index (GTI), scoring 3.272.⁴³⁷ The Government regards Tanzania as relatively 'peaceful' in the region but also considers itself 'at risk' in terms of terrorist threats given its proximity to Kenya, Somalia, and Mozambique, where al-Qaeda, al-Shabaab, Ansar Sunna, and other terrorist organizations have expanded their presence. Studies indicate that these terror groups are recruiting young people in Tanzania. In the Pwani coastal region, extremist actors in Rufiji District-said to be influenced by Kenyan Islamist extremist Aboud Rogo-have established connections to Ansar al-Sunna wa Jama (ASWJ) in Cabo Delgado, Mozambique. The trajectories of the Kibiti group and ASWJ share significant similarities, including establishment of their own mosques, rejection of the state, attempts to force moderate Islamic communities toward radicalism and connections to organized crime. Between 2015 and 2017, 39 people were reportedly killed in Kibiti, Rufiji District, most being CCM local leaders and police officers. Kibiti has also reportedly had a number of people leave to join Al-Shaabaab in Somalia or ASWJ in Mozambique. Government security forces launched a security crackdown in 2018, with 380 people reportedly abducted or disappeared over a year in Kibiti and Rufiji.⁴³⁸ The journalist reporting on the attacks, Azory Gwanda, went missing in 2017 and is presumed dead by his family.

On 15 October 2020, insurgents in Mozambique staged their first attack into southern Tanzania, killing at least 20 people in Kitaya, Mtwara Region⁴³⁹. In March 2021, the militant groups attacked Palma Town, approximately 50Kms to the Tanzanian boarder⁴⁴⁰. There are no official reports on numbers of persons that were killed in these attacks, but reports indicate that approximately 669,000 people are currently internally displaced in Mozambique. The surge in violence and deteriorating living situation has led to a humanitarian crisis in the region. There is currently a SADC sanctioned security operation in Mozambique⁴⁴¹ and Tanzania has contributed forces to that mission. The proximity of Cabo-Delgado region to Tanzania and the cross-border interactions and movement by the people imply that the Tanzania is highly exposed to the ongoing humanitarian crisis. The baseline report of Search for Common Ground in preventing violent extremism argued that extremist groups in neighbouring countries view Tanzania as a potential area to recruit youth for violent extremism.⁴⁴²

To address threats of terrorism and violent extremism, the Government's National Counter-Terrorism Centre (NCTC) developed a National Prevention and Response to Violent Extremism (PVE) Strategy and Action Plan, with an implementation period aligned to the FYDP III. As of June 2020, the Strategy and Action Plan were approved by the Ministry of Home Affairs and submitted for Cabinet review and approval. Mirroring the UN Secretary General's Action Plan on Prevention of Violent Extremism, the Strategy aims to prevent all forms of violence with extremist tendencies by addressing their root causes (including redress of socio-economic grievances). It is premised on a "Whole Government and Whole Society" approach, acknowledging the need for participation by multiple actors. Pending the approval and implementation of the Strategy and Action Plan—the Government's NCTC continues to share related security information with IGAD states. Meanwhile, the US State Department has funded pilot initiatives around counter-radicalisation. However, Eriksen intimates that more has to be done to address domestic grievances related to increasing economic marginalization and closing civic space (this is particularly true in Mtwara given rising local tensions arising from major developments around natural gas discoveries⁴⁴³) which fuel recruitment to extremist groups.⁴⁴⁴

Connections have been made between the violent extremist groups in the region and the extensive organized criminal networks in Tanzania, involving trade in drugs and explosives. Tanzania has been flagged as a significant transit country for major heroin traffickers from South-West Asia and cocaine smuggling from Latin America with the end markets in West Africa, Europe and USA.⁴⁴⁵ The combination of geographic location with a lengthy coast of more than 850 miles and porous borders coupled with corruption, pose major problems for seizures and disruption of the drug trade. Traffickers can use their considerable financial resources to influence politicians, law enforcement officers and others in positions of power.⁴⁴⁶ It has also been suggested that as a consequence of the on-going insurgency in Northern Mozambique, Tanzanian networks may be receiving heroin in Cabo Delgado and shipping it north into Tanzania. Furthermore, that heroin arriving in Montepuez in Mozambique is controlled by Tanzanian trafficking networks, which bring it by truck from Dar es Salaam.⁴⁴⁷ The link between conflict, drug trafficking and insecurity is clear and whilst seizures and arrests are made the problem remains significant.⁴⁴⁸

Currently, the National and Transnational Serious Crimes Investigation Unit established in 2012 is primarily focused on ivory trafficking and the illegal hardwood trade. This remains a significant market for Organised Crime Groups in the region for export to Asia (see Part I, Environment and Natural Resources, for the importance of wildlife to tourism as a contributor to GDP, particularly in rural communities.)⁴⁴⁹ In addition, illegal fishing, timber and charcoal are all traded illegally and often exported out of Tanzania without relevant duty being paid. The gold mining sector, which currently accounts for more foreign exchange earnings than tourism, is similarly hampered by smuggling by transnational criminal networks, with assistance from state actors.⁴⁵⁰ The scale of both IWT and the trade in illegal commodities has grown in recent years in line with demand, particularly in Asia. The available statistics only capture seizures, a fraction of the total trade and there appears to be only slow progress in addressing the issues that SOC groups are able to exploit.⁴⁵¹

Participation, Rights & Inclusion

Between 2015-2020, a raft of legislation was introduced which has had implications for freedom of speech, assembly and association in Tanzania. The Cybercrimes Act 2015 (referenced in Part I) was the first of these. Initially receiving cross-party support, the Act was designed to address child pornography, cyber bullying, online impersonation, electronic production of racist and xenophobic content, unsolicited messages (i.e. spam), illegal interception of communications and publication of false information. There were reports, however, that the law was used by police to seize computers and cell phones of opposition party members and human rights organisations in the lead up to the 2015 elections.⁴⁵²

Later in the same year, the Statistics Act made it a crime for people in Tanzania to publish data which might invalidate, distort or discredit official government statistics. The Act was subsequently amended in 2018 to make it a crime to publish statistics without the approval of the NBS. In response, the World Bank issued a statement on 2 October which asserted that the changes were “out of line with international standards...and could have serious impacts on the generation and use of official and non-official statistics, which are a vital foundation for the country’s development.”⁴⁵³ The National Assembly passed a further amendment in 2019, that removed the threat of prison for civil society groups that publish independent statistical information. It also established new procedures for those seeking to access and publish national data.⁴⁵⁴ Nevertheless, authorities retain significant powers to control who can gather and disseminate information and determine what is factual and false, potentially hampering effective participation of civil society in public debates.

In 2016, the Media Services Act was passed, as the successor to the 1976 Newspapers Act. It defines media-related crimes and penalties, requires newspapers to apply for an annual license and gives officials powers to shut down media organizations that violate their licenses. Penalties entail three to five years imprisonment and/or a fine of approximately USD 2,200-9,000 for intentionally publishing information that threatens the national defence, public safety, public order, the economy or injures the reputation, rights and freedom of other persons.⁴⁵⁵ (This was interpreted in 2020 to include coverage of the COVID-19 pandemic in-country.⁴⁵⁶) In March 2019, the East African Court of Justice ruled that sections of the Media Services Act conflict with the East African Community’s treaty, the Government rejected this decision.⁴⁵⁷

The 2018 Electronic and Postal Communications (Online Content) Regulations introduced requirements for bloggers and owners of online discussion platforms and streaming services to pay more than USD 900 in annual registration fees, leading to a significant drop in the number of outlets. Under the same regulations, internet cafés are required to install surveillance cameras. Further amendments to the Electronic and Postal Communications Regulations in the lead up to the 2020 elections, required all TV and Radio stations to seek the permission of the Tanzania Communications

Regulatory Authority (TCRA) to broadcast content jointly produced with regional and international partners.

Under the various legislative provisions listed above, between 2016 and 2020, a number of newspapers were suspended, plus three online television stations were banned and/or fined and several high-profile journalists arrested and/or detained, with some remaining in custody.⁴⁵⁸ Reporters Without Borders ranked Tanzania 124th out of 180 countries in their 2020 World Press Freedom Index, representing a drop of 53 places since 2016. Notably, soon after taking office, President Hassan signalled her intention to somewhat improve the media's operating environment by directing the Ministry of Information to lift the ban on media outlets. Immediately thereafter, access to Twitter was unblocked.

Furthermore, the Non-Governmental Organizations (Financial Transparency and Accountability) Regulations, G.N. 609 of 2018 introduced several requirements that narrowed the definition of NGOs while reducing their autonomy. These oblige every NGO to publish annual audited reports, introduced time limits for validity of Certificates of Registration, and empowers the Registrar of NGOs to de-register those that do not fulfil the requirements.⁴⁵⁹ The Tanzania Human Rights Defenders Coalition (THRDC) was forced to suspend its activities after their bank account was frozen in August 2020 for allegedly signing contracts with donors without consulting the Treasury Office and Office of the Registrar of NGOs. Neither THRDC nor the Legal Human Rights Centre were authorised to monitor human rights during the 2020 general election.

In addition to these restrictions, the Government banned all political rallies and demonstrations outside of election periods in 2016, thereby reducing the capacity of opposition parties to mobilise public support. The January 2019 amendments to the Political Parties Act further restricted public assembly, in part by broadening the scope of activities that are deemed 'political.' Under the same revisions, the government-run registrar was afforded powers to de-register parties and anyone engaging in unauthorised civic education (such as voter registration drives) could be awarded up to one year in jail. Later in the year, both Chadema and ACT-Wazalendo were threatened with penalties for alleged violations of the Political Parties Act and several high profile figures from opposition parties were arrested and/or prohibited from leaving the country.⁴⁶⁰ Prior to the 2019 local elections, opposition parties claimed that a significant number of their candidates were disqualified from the ballot (Chadema states that approximately 94 percent of its candidates were barred from running), leading to a boycott by the main opposition parties. CCM won over 99 percent of the positions available.

In a Statement on 22 July 2020, the Special Rapporteur on the Rights Of Peaceful Assembly and Association, the Special Rapporteur on the Situation of Human Rights Defenders, and the Special Rapporteur on the Promotion and Protection of the Right to Freedom of Expression urged Tanzania to drop legislative and other measures that further curb civic space. This was issued after an amendment was passed to the Basic Rights and Duties Enforcement Act requiring anyone seeking legal redress for human rights violations under the Constitution's Bill of Rights to prove that they are personally affected, preventing human rights defenders from filing cases on behalf of victims.⁴⁶¹ UN Special Procedures have addressed the decline in respect of human rights and civic space in Tanzania with a total of seven communications within the last two years, 2018-2020.

Whilst the AU, EAC and SADC declared the 2020 elections credible and congratulated President Magufuli on his win, the broader international community raised concerns. In November 2020, the UN High Commissioner for Human Rights Michelle Bachelet called for the immediate release of those detained plus prompt, thorough, independent, and impartial investigations into all allegations of human rights violations before, during, and after the polls – particularly into the killing of at least 10 people and injuries sustained by over 50 in Zanzibar on 26 October. Further, the High Commissioner expressed concerns at internet restrictions, including the blocking of many social media and messaging platforms and censoring of election-related content, adding that any restrictions on information and communication technology must be in line with international human rights laws and standards.⁴⁶² The Commonwealth Secretary-General, the High Representative to the EU, and the US State Department issued similar statements, highlighting what they defined as credible reports of significant and widespread voting irregularities, internet interruption, arrests, and violence by security forces both on the mainland and in Zanzibar. They each called upon authorities to investigate allegations and protect human rights in the country.⁴⁶³

The inauguration of President Hassan, her various public pronouncements, the sacking and reshuffling of various senior public servants, along with new cabinet appointments including a female foreign affairs minister, have been met with cautious optimism by opposition political parties and civic activists who have called for the new administration to re-institute the constitutional review process.⁴⁶⁴ Notably, President Hassan was the Vice Chairperson of the Constitutional

Review Commission established in 2012. The process was aborted in 2013 following disagreements on the content and process of a planned referendum on the draft constitution.

The Government of Tanzania accepted the 2016 UPR recommendation to guarantee fully the rights to freedom of assembly and association and ensure that alleged perpetrators of relevant human rights violations are brought to justice. The Government also accepted to create and maintain a safe and enabling environment where members of all political parties and civil society organizations can exercise their rights, including to freedom of assembly in a manner that allows legitimate and peaceful dissent. These commitments offer avenues for constructive dialogue and engagement to widen the civic and democratic space in Tanzania.

Participation, Rights & Inclusion: Women & Children⁴⁶⁵

The Constitution of the URT asserts equality between men and women and repudiates discrimination based on sex. The Government has signed a number of international and regional agreements related to the protection and promotion of women's and girls' rights.⁴⁶⁶

In terms of the right to equal opportunities for leadership and participation in decision-making, Tanzania has seen modest gains. The NEC data for 2020 general election demonstrates that the number of female voters was slightly higher at 50.33 percent compared to male voters (49.67 percent). Although women make up the majority of voters, they are underrepresented as candidates.⁴⁶⁷ Of the 1,257 parliamentary candidates in the 2020 elections, 298 (or 23 percent) were women. This represented an increase from the 2015 election where women constituted 19 percent of the total candidates. Following the 2020 general elections, representation of women in the Parliament remains at 37 percent, of these 11 percent of female MPs were elected from constituencies and 40 percent were allocated through special seat arrangements. Five women were appointed to the 10 positions reserved for Presidential appointees.⁴⁶⁸ Meanwhile, representation of women in the ZHoR is at 40 percent, of these only 16 percent were elected from constituencies.⁴⁶⁹ There has been an increase in woman ministers from 20 percent in 2015 to 37 percent in 2019. On the mainland, there was an increase in women principal cabinet ministers from 19 percent in 2020 to 25 percent in 2021, after President Samia Suluhu Hassan took office. As of September 2021, there are 7 women out of 28 principal ministers (25 percent) and 6 women out of 23 deputy ministers (26 percent). At the local level, as of 2021, representation of women is at 30 percent, of these only 5 percent were elected. The percentage of elected women councillors has remained at this level for several years. While most women access the National Assembly and councils through special seats, the system is not free from challenges. Only elected MPs can be Prime Ministers and qualify for Constituency Development Funds; women holding special seats do not. In most of the councils, the women special seats are not allowed to sit under the Ethics and Finance Committees and cannot chair any Committee.

The under-representation of women in leadership and decision-making is due to many factors including: institutional and structural constraints; gender-insensitive political parties; prohibition of private candidates; gender gaps in laws and policies; lack of capacity and necessary skills among women; gender stereotypes, cultural practices, and attitudinal norms that suggest women should not have a role in public life. Violence against women in politics (VAWP) further prevents women from exercising and realizing their political rights. Monitoring of such incidences in the 2015 general elections revealed VAWP as a significant threat: of 1,532 respondents, 69 percent women candidates reported experiencing abusive language, 17 percent reported physical attacks, and 13 percent reported receiving demands for sexual favours.⁴⁷⁰ In the 2020 general election, incidences of violence against women during the election ranging from verbal abuse, police harassment, assault, use of discriminatory words, and unwelcomed touching were documented.⁴⁷¹

Tanzania falls short of the 50/50 representation required by African Union and SADC Commitments to which it is a signatory. At the current rate, Tanzania will not realize the goal of 50 percent of elected female members of parliament until the year 2069. This points to the continued need for special seats as well as concerted actions to overcome the barriers listed above.⁴⁷² Research demonstrates that, when more women lead, public interventions deliver better outcomes for women and girls but also directly benefit men and boys, such as improving public health services and access to clean water, expanding the provision and quality of education, and tackling violence in the home.⁴⁷³

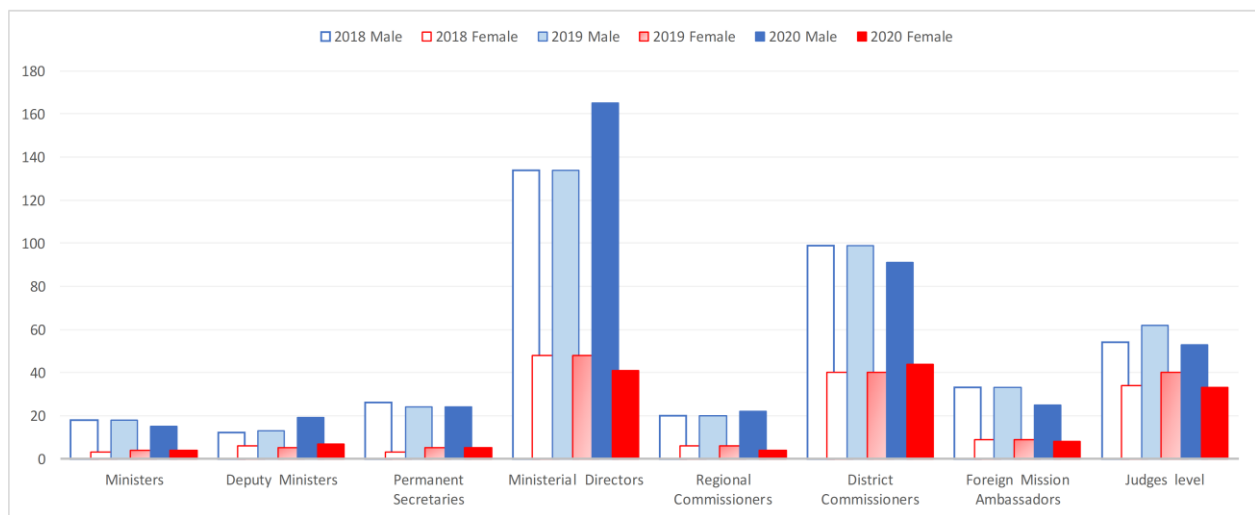


Figure XXVI: Women's Political Participation and Leadership 2018-2020
 Source: Office of the President – Management of the Public Service and Good Governance 2020

The Ministry of Health, Community Development, Gender, Elderly and Children (MoHCDGEC) alongside the Ministry of Health, Social Welfare, Elderly, Gender and Children (MHSWEGC) in Zanzibar form the national gender machineries in Tanzania. They are mandated to lead the coordination, monitoring, and reporting of gender mainstreaming across all sectors, MDAs and LGAs, plus collaborate with global, regional and sub-regional mechanisms⁴⁷⁴ on the gender normative agenda. Gender Focal Points (GFPs) have also been established in all central ministries, government departments, and local governments to facilitate the generation and implementation of gender-sensitive policies and programmes. In 2020, a dedicated Deputy for Gender issues was also appointed to the MoHCDGEC. The Gender Mainstreaming Working Group on Macro-Policy (GMWG-MP) was established in 1999 and is still operational within the auspices of the Government-Donor dialogue structure of the Joint Assistance Strategy for Tanzania. It provides a national-level multi-stakeholder forum for dialogue, analysis, and strategic interventions.

The Government has taken steps to revise national legislation to eliminate discrimination against women, promote informative campaigns on women's rights, and condemn violence against women. It has operationalized this commitment through the National Women and Gender Policy (2000) and the National Strategy for Gender and Development (NSGD, 2002), which identify major constraints and interventions in achieving gender equity for sustainable human development in the country. A comprehensive review of the National Gender Policy was finalised in 2020. A revised Gender and Development Policy (2020) and costed Implementation Strategy for the Policy (2020-2030) has been submitted for final review and approval to the Inter-Ministerial Technical Committee (IMTC). The Policy is aligned with national priorities and the Beijing Platform for Action+25. It provides for strengthened reporting and coordination of GEWE. Both the FYDP III and Zanzibar's MTDS have taken into consideration GEWE and disability issues. In Zanzibar, the Revolutionary Government has also formulated policies that promote the rights of women and girls, such as the Zanzibar Gender Policy (2016), which promotes GEWE as a priority issue reflected in the constitution, national development frameworks and other national and sectoral policies, programmes, and strategies.⁴⁷⁵

Notwithstanding, Tanzania scored 0.948 on the 2019 Gender Development Index, placing it in group three (with Kenya and Rwanda) indicating medium equality between women and men. Meanwhile, on the 2019 Gender Inequality Index, Tanzania is significantly behind its neighbours, ranking 140 of 162 countries (with a value of 0.556), compared to Rwanda positioned at 92, Kenya at 126, and Uganda at 131, representing a drop of 10 places from 2018. As indicated in previous sections, there are key challenges for women and girls across health, education and employment. The maternal mortality ratio is considerably higher than all three neighbours, whilst the adolescent birth rate is significantly higher than in Rwanda and Kenya. Tanzania is also well below the median average for rates of secondary girls' education in the age bracket of 25 years and older and moderately below median for share of seats in parliament. In the current Index, Tanzania appears above its neighbours for female labour participation, but this element will probably be revised down next year since calculations do not reflect the latest ILFS 2020 data.

	HDI Rank	Gender Inequality Index		Maternal Mortality Ratio		Adolescent Birth Rate		Share of Seats in Parliament		Population with Some Secondary Education %		Labour Force Participation Rate %	
		Value	Rank	Deaths per 100,000 births	per live	Births per 1,000 women ages 15–19	Percent held by women	25 Years and Older		15 Years and Older			
								Female	Male	Female	Male		
		2019		2017		2015-2020	2019	2015-2019		2019			
Kenya	143	518	126	342		75.1	23.3	29.8	37.3	72.1	77.3		
Uganda	159	535	131	375		118.8	34.9	27.5	35.1	67.0	73.9		
Rwanda	160	402	92	248		39.1	55.7	10.9	15.8	83.9	83.4		
Tanzania	163	556	140	524		118.4	36.9	12.0	16.9	79.6	87.3		

Figure XXVII: Gender Inequality Index 2019
Source: UNDP (2020) Human Development Report

Violence Against Women and Children

Violence against Women and Children (VAWC) is both a cause and a consequence of gender inequality. It involves physical, emotional, and/or financial power and control, happens in both private and public, reduces women's and girls' freedom of movement, inhibits their ability to participate in public life, limits their access to essential services and negatively impacts their health and well-being.

Violence remains a daily reality for significant number of women and children in mainland and Zanzibar. The 2015 TDHS found that 40 percent of women aged 15-49 years have ever experienced physical violence and 17 percent have ever experienced sexual violence.⁴⁷⁶ Most women who have ever experienced GBV have suffered violence perpetrated by intimate partners or other family members. In the same survey, 'wife beating' was considered acceptable by 62.1 percent of respondents in rural areas, compared to 50.8 percent in urban areas.⁴⁷⁷ Slightly more than half of the women survivors (54 percent) sought help, with the number being higher for those who have experienced both physical and sexual violence (64 percent). Most turned to their families (54 percent) or other services such as health facilities, legal facilities and religious places (35 percent). Only 9 percent went to the police. One third of women (34 percent) have never sought help or told anyone. These self-reported violence figures have remained largely static since 2010.⁴⁷⁸

Notwithstanding, there has been an increase in reported incidents in recent years.⁴⁷⁹ In terms of sexual violence, reported incidents of rape increased from 5,802 in 2015 to 7,837 in 2019. Incidents of violence against women recorded by the police force increased from 23,685 in 2019 to 26,544 in 2020 (equivalent to a 5.7 percent increase).⁴⁸⁰ The number of GBV-related cases reported to the Police Gender Children Desks in Tanzania rose from 29,507 in 2018 to 36,284 in 2020 (an increase of 23 percent). The number of GBV-related cases reported to health facilities, including One-Stop Centres, in Tanzania increased from 123,771 in 2018 to 164,725 (amounting to a 33 percent jump).⁴⁸¹ This could be attributed to improved awareness in communities and greater trust in related services. However, further analysis is required. Reporting intimate partner violence, particularly when the perpetrator is a spouse, is particularly difficult, because of social stigma and because the legal framework does not sufficiently recognise intimate partner violence. Tanzanian law does not recognise marital rape, and to date the Government of Tanzania has been reluctant to incorporate marital rape and other forms of intimate partner violence into existing legal instruments, such as the Sexual Offences Special Provisions Act (SOSPA).

Boys and girls in Tanzania also experience high levels of physical, sexual and emotional violence. Tanzania was the first African country to complete a national survey on violence against both boys and girls.⁴⁸³ The Survey, undertaken in 2009, revealed that nearly 3 in 10 females (27.9 percent) and 1 in 7 males (13.4 percent) aged 13-24 experienced sexual violence prior to the age of 18. Incidents of sexual violence most commonly occur in someone's house, in school or travelling to and from school. Although rates of sexual violence were lower for Zanzibar (9.3 percent for boys and 6.2 percent for girls), it is still a concern. Almost three-quarters of Tanzanian girls and boys have experienced some form of physical violence in childhood, mostly at the hands of parents and teachers. One quarter of Tanzanian children, both girls and boys, experienced emotional violence by an adult prior to the age of 18 years. Perpetrators of violence are usually known to children, while uptake of services is low. Children living with disabilities, children living in vulnerable contexts (such as refugees, street children, etc) are even more at risk and with neither the means or knowledge to access support and justice services.

Amongst camp-based refugees and asylum-seekers, sexual and other forms of gender based violence (SGBV) are serious threats, especially when refugees leave the camps to search for work, to trade, or to gather firewood in the villages near the camps. Refugee children inside the camps are even at greater risk of SGBV, sexual exploitation and abuse, and early or forced marriage due to the congested living conditions especially in collective shelters, the limited opportunities for post-primary education, and the absence of strong protection measures. A total of 2,302 GBV incidents were reported in 2020; of these 1,979 were adults and 323 were children. 99 percent of the reported cases were females.⁴⁸²

Physical discipline of children at home and in schools is prevalent and deeply rooted in cultural beliefs and norms. Corporal punishment is widely supported as a measure of discipline, with the Government rejecting recommendations in the 2011 UPR to prohibit its use. The Committee on the Rights of the Child raised concerns that provisions in relevant legislation condone corporal punishment for "justifiable correction" in schools and for parents to discipline their children "provided it does not lead to injury." There is Tanzania-specific evidence that this widespread phenomenon creates antisocial rather than the anticipated pro-social behaviour.⁴⁸⁴

Despite participating in the making of the SADC model laws, which define age of marriage to be 18, Tanzania has one of the highest child marriage prevalence rates in the world. Although there has been a sharp decline from 41.1 percent in 2005, the number of women aged 20-24 married before their 18th birthday remained at 30.5 percent (18 percent in Zanzibar) in 2015.⁴⁸⁵ The Marriage Act of 1971 currently sets the minimum age at 18 for boys and 15 for girls with parental consent. It also permits both girls and boys to marry at 14 with a court's permission. Other parts of the legislation ban child marriage, but these are generally unknown and poorly enforced.

Child marriages continue to occur because of underlying social norms and practices that perpetuate inequalities between boys and girls and amplify the value of younger brides. Girls are often married for families to obtain bride price and as a means of 'protecting' the girl during times of insecurity or hardship. The proportion of women aged 15-19 who are currently married or in a union is 23 percent, compared with only 2 percent of men in the same age group.⁴⁸⁶ As seen in Part I, women who marry young tend to bear children early and have high fertility. The 2017 ban against the return of young mothers to school sent more girls into to early marriages.⁴⁸⁷ Child marriage deprives girls of their right to make their own decisions regarding their bodies, sexual and reproductive health, and their education. A girl's access to education is often cut short by child marriage, as schools are permitted to expel girls who are married and/or pregnant (see Part I under Education for more on this). This has longer-term impacts upon women and girls' social and economic status, contributing to the inter-generational transmission of poverty and importantly undermines their capacity to resist violence, as marital rape is not illegal once the married child reaches 15 years in Tanzania.⁴⁸⁸

The Constitutional Court ruled in July 2016 that marriage under the age of 18 is illegal and that the relevant sections of the Marriage Act were unconstitutional. An appeal was filed, but in October 2019, the Supreme Court upheld the 2016 ruling requiring the Parliament to amend the Law of Marriage Act to raise the minimum age of marriage for girls to 18 years. Following the court order, the Ministry of Legal and Constitutional Affairs is currently undertaking consultations with stakeholders as one of the steps towards changing the Law of Marriage Act.

Despite the criminalisation of FGM in 1998, around 1 in 10 women and girls aged 15-49 years have been cut in Tanzania.⁴⁸⁹ In many communities, once girls have undergone FGM, they are judged to be adults and ready to get married. In addition to the serious health (sometimes fatal) implications of FGM, girls that have been subjected to FGM in Tanzania are therefore much more likely to become child brides and drop out of school, undermining their and their children's future socio-economic prospects.

The Government of the URT has developed and is implementing several legal and policy frameworks to eliminate FGM.

These include the Penal Code (2002), Law of the Child Act No 21 of 2009 (with its amendments of 2016), Child Development Policy 1996 revised in 2008, and the aforementioned NPA-VAWC whose implementation is supported by the National anti-FGM Strategy 2021. The Sexual Offences (Special Provision) Act has also become effective, making those who undertake FGM subject to 5 to 15 years of imprisonment and/or a fine of up to 300,000 Tanzanian shillings (about USD 130). At the regional level, the Government endorsed the Regional Declaration and Action Plan to End Cross Border FGM in 2019, a continental-wide effort to accelerate action to end FGM.

The Government and anti-FGM stakeholders have used various approaches to eliminate the practice. These include strengthening the implementation of relevant laws and policies through engagement with Women and Child Protection Committees and Social Welfare and Community Development Officers plus integration into health and law enforcement services. Further, commitment to FGM abandonment has been secured through engagement of religious leaders and other influencers, media campaigns, and community and national dialogues on FGM dynamics.

The URT is currently a source, transit and destination country for trafficked men, women, and children exploited as domestic workers, in the sex industry, commercial agriculture fishing and mining sectors.⁴⁹⁰ Trafficking not only occurs across but also within the country's borders. Studies have revealed that many persons—mainly women and children—are trafficked from rural to urban areas, with many engaging in activities that put their health at risk, including infection of HIV.⁴⁹¹ The Global Slavery Index of 2013 revealed that between 310,000 and 350,000 people in the URT were living in conditions of modern slavery, with Tanzania ranked 29 of 162 countries surveyed.⁴⁹² Poverty, the breakdown of the family unit, and parents not valuing education are considered the main factors exposing persons to the risk of being trafficked. Awareness-raising and sensitisation through community dialogue sessions have mostly been focused in the Kigoma Region and Zanzibar. Expanding such interventions to other regions of the country, as part of broader violence prevention work, is of crucial importance for a better overall response to counter-trafficking and the protection of women and children in general.

The 2008 Anti-Trafficking Act of the URT mandates the Government to provide victims with psycho-social counselling, family tracing, family reunification and temporary shelter. Unfortunately, however, very few adequate government-led services are provided to victims and survivors. Instead, CSOs are relied upon to provide the majority of assistance, including shelter services and follow-up support. The former government-led Thematic Working Group on the Counter-Trafficking in Persons conducted quarterly meetings to coordinate related protection initiatives but ceased due to financial constraints. Such Thematic Working Group meetings offered the opportunity to analyse progress on the implementation of counter-trafficking interventions as well as, crucially, the operationalization of the National Action Plan against Trafficking in Persons (2018-2021).

Anecdotal evidence and some media stories indicate that sexual harassment and sextortion are widespread phenomena in Tanzania, perpetrated predominantly by men in positions of authority.⁴⁹³ However, the lack of rigorous data revealing the extent of sextortion in schools or workplaces is a barrier to progress. On a positive note, the review of anti-corruption law elevated sexual corruption to grand corruption punishable under the economic sabotage law (2007). Sextortion can be prosecuted under the penal code as rape, sexual harassment, or assault.⁴⁹⁴ To control an increase in sexual harassment cases, the Prevention and Combating of Corruption Bureau (PCCB) launched a special campaign to raise public awareness about the dangers of sexual corruption. Further, the Case Law Manual on Sextortion and Anti-Corruption has been integrated into the curriculum of the Institute of Judiciary Administration to ensure students are sensitive to the issue.

Sexual corruption at higher learning institutions was also highlighted as one of the major human rights concerns for women in 2020. . The PCCB study at UDSM and UDOM revealed the prevalence of sexual corruption at the University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM), the University of Dodoma (UDOM), and St. Augustine University of Tanzania (SAUT), acknowledged by more than 50% of the study participants. Lack of professional ethics was cited as the leading causes of sexual corruption. Study participants cited awarding lower marks/grades to students as one of the main methods used by lecturers to solicit sex bribes from students. The 2019/2020 Controller and Auditor General noted the prevalence of sextortion in higher learning institutions, although the research has to be widened.⁴⁹⁵

Although violence in the private domain is now increasingly recognized as a human rights violation, violence against women and girls (VAWG) in public spaces remains a largely neglected issue, with few laws, data sources, or policies in place to prevent and address it.⁴⁹⁶ Enhancing the safety of women and girls in public places, such as market places where many women earn their living, is crucial for achieving gender equality.

In 2016, the mainland government launched the NPA-VAWC 2017–2021, which consolidates eight different action plans addressing violence against women and children to create a single comprehensive Plan covering many of the concerns raised above. It builds on the evidence-based INSPIRE strategies⁴⁹⁷ and makes explicit the linkages with the FYDP II, recognising the positive benefits of violence prevention on inclusive growth and human capital. The Revolutionary Government of Zanzibar also approved two Five-Year National Plans of Action to End Violence against Women and Children: 2011–2015 and 2017–2022. The NPA-VAWCs are operationalized through a multi-sectoral and whole-of-system approach to VAWC, with coordination structures from national to village level that implement the plans according to their mandate within eight pillars of the NPA-VAWC. Progress has been made in strengthening national plans and guidelines to enhance the enabling environment for prevention and response to violence, some of which were referenced above. Information management systems have been enhanced, and the NPA-VAWC National Communications and Outreach Strategy finalized, providing a framework for regional and district planning on violence prevention, including community sensitisation efforts.⁴⁹⁸ The Plan also calls for centralizing information on VAWC and facilitates better reporting on Tanzania's adherence to its international treaty obligations. In terms of response, the capacity of stakeholders within the national protection system to deliver quality and gender-responsive services to women and children in need of care and protection has increased. Overall, the child protection system, defined in the NPA-VAWC, is partly or fully operational in 65 LGAs, through support from civil society and the UN.

Notwithstanding the progress made, the national protection system in Tanzania requires sustained efforts to scale up nationwide. The Government budget for protection of women and children is low compared to the costs projected annually.⁴⁹⁹ As of 2020, only 34 percent of social welfare officer positions at regional and LGA level were filled.⁵⁰⁰ Further, many are ill-equipped to deal with the multitude of risks that confront women, children and families. NGOs fill some gaps, but their coverage is concentrated in and around the largest urban areas.⁵⁰¹ The budget for training and maintenance is dependent on development partners' continued financial support. Short-term investment must evolve into more sustained funding for quality and effective service delivery as part of a systems strengthening approach, as stipulated in the NPA-VAWC.

Participation, Rights & Inclusion: Persons with Disabilities (PWD) & People with Albinism

The 2012 Population and Housing Census recorded 9.3 percent of the population aged 7 and above in Tanzania as having a disability. This translates to 3,157,516 persons with disability (1,669,921 women; 1,487,595 men). Within this group, 16,477 were classified as people with albinism (approximately 0.04 percent of the total population in Tanzania). It is likely that both figures are underestimates given those with disabilities remain largely excluded from such data sets, especially those with albinism.⁵⁰²

To promote, protect and ensure the full and equal enjoyment of the human rights of PWDs, the Government ratified the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities and the Optional Protocol in 2009. Although, to date, no report has been submitted to the Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities. Disability rights are also provided for under the Constitution,⁵⁰³ the 2006 Persons with Disabilities (Rights and Privileges) Act for Zanzibar and the 2010 Persons with Disabilities Act for the mainland, amongst others. The key related policies and strategies informing the Government approach are: the National Policy on Disability (2004) (mainland); the 2010-2015 National Disability Mainstreaming Strategy (mainland), and the 2019 Policy on Disability (Zanzibar). These cover issues such as health care, social support, education, accessibility, rehabilitation and vocational training, communication, employment and promotion of basic rights of PWDs. However, the Persons with Disabilities Act does not contain any specific language on violence and/or GBV against PWDs, including free consent during marriage. The Act does include a mechanism to issue grants to CSOs working on disability rights. Further, as referenced in Part I, there was an amendment to the Local Finances Act (2018) which requires all LGAs to set aside 10 percent of their income for interest free loans for businesses run by PWDs, women and youth.

The Prime Minister's Office is the focal point for disability issues in Tanzania Mainland. In Zanzibar, disability matters are the responsibility of the 2nd Vice President's Office. CHRAGG also plays a role in monitoring the promotion and protection of the rights of PWDs. Tanzania Mainland and Zanzibar have both appointed ministers to take all appropriate steps to ensure and promote the full realization of PWDs rights and freedoms. Several mechanisms support PWDs' participation in policy and legislative processes: the national Parliament is required by law to ensure the participation of PWDs; National Advisory Councils (NAC) for PWDs have been established in both Tanzania Mainland and Zanzibar. Regional, council and village level councils implement PWD-related directives and coordinate initiatives, feeding into the NACs. Although these bodies are constrained by resources. Multiple organizations of and for people with disabilities exist, including Shivyawata, a federal-level umbrella organization of six organizations, and the Association of Disabled

Persons in Zanzibar. In recent years, the UN has supported the development/update and implementation of relevant policy such as the National Inclusive Education Policies, the Gender and Social Inclusion Policy governing electoral processes,⁵⁰⁴ and in Zanzibar specifically the National Disability Policy. The UN has also supported the development of the “Jumuishi” database (translated as Inclusion database) for collecting comprehensive disability data, among others, on the archipelago.

Although the country does not have specific legislation on attacks against persons with albinism, its legislative framework includes several relevant provisions. For example, those under the Penal Code addressing murder, assault and grievous bodily harm, attempted murder, abduction, conspiracy to murder and kidnapping, have been used to prosecute persons responsible for attacks against persons with albinism. In 2015 the Government outlawed witchdoctors to curtail killings of persons with albinism. The government has also launched a task force to investigate killings of people with albinism, appointed people with albinism to parliament and worked with police and communities to try and end abuses against people with albinism.⁵⁰⁵ The Tanzania Albino Society, the Government and the media have run community sensitization programmes which have helped to change false and harmful attitudes towards people with albinism, although progress is slow, especially in rural areas.⁵⁰⁶ Under the Same Sun, Tanzanian NGO with an office in Dar es Salaam since 2009, focuses specifically on education and advocacy to eliminate discrimination and attacks against people with albinism. Community mobilization to reduce discrimination, persecution and stigmatisation of people with albinism has also been undertaken by a range of state and non-state actors (including the UN).

The abilities and rights of PWDs, including those with albinism, are currently not well understood or fully protected in Tanzania.⁵⁰⁷ Several studies have found that PWDs constitute one of the most marginalised groups in the country.⁵⁰⁸ Women and girls with disabilities, persons with albinism, and children with autism are especially vulnerable to violence and specifically at high risk of sexual violence or being threatened, mistreated or abandoned.⁵⁰⁹ They are more exposed to child or forced marriage and unwanted pregnancy, whilst not empowered with the information or social, financial and physical support to report and seek access to health and social protection services. A study conducted by the Second Vice President’s Office, the Global Fund and UN in Zanzibar in 2018 revealed that young PWDs, especially young women and girls, are more vulnerable to all forms of gender-based violence than their peers without disabilities.⁵¹⁰

Both on the mainland and Zanzibar, PWDs experience stigma, discrimination and violence, which further hinders them from fully realizing their rights and participating in everyday life. Access to specialized services, including health facilities, police, legal aid and justice services as well as public information is limited by insufficient financial resources, awareness and capacity of service providers. Many of the areas where PWDs are left behind have been highlighted in Part I. During the most recent UPR (2016), the CRC noted with concern that children with disabilities were subjected to greater abuse, violence, stigma and exclusion, particularly in rural areas. It urged the URT to adopt a human rights-based approach to disability, and specifically recommended that the State strengthen the implementation of laws and policies relating to children with disabilities. The Committee also recommended expediting the establishment of the necessary infrastructure in public places to accommodate children with different disabilities and working together with communities to develop a public-awareness strategy to challenge negative social and cultural beliefs and norms regarding children with disabilities.

People with albinism are one of the most vulnerable groups among PWDs and face risks unique to them, often living in fear of violent attacks, sometimes resulting in death and/or amputation of limbs for witchcraft ceremonies. The majority of victims are children. The socio-economic situation of persons with albinism remains highly challenging, impacting directly on their access to medical services, such as skin cancer treatment, and to prevention measures such as sunscreen, hats and protective clothing. Discrimination in housing also occurs, as property owners fear attacks. A shortage of assistive devices, overcrowding, discrimination and bullying of children with albinism, among others, limit education opportunities. Some children with albinism have been placed in boarding schools and shelters for children with special needs.⁵¹¹ Whilst offering immediate protection, the CRC during the 2016 UPR raised concerns that these were not temporary as originally intended. The children are separated from their families and segregated from their community, impacting upon their right to family life. The Committee encouraged the URT to review the policy and take all measures necessary to reunite the children with their families, when in the best interests of the child. In 2018, after her mission to Tanzania, the Independent Expert on the enjoyment of human rights by persons with albinism reported that although the number of the arrivals in the centres had decreased, there were still more than 32 known schools and other facilities used as shelters in the country.

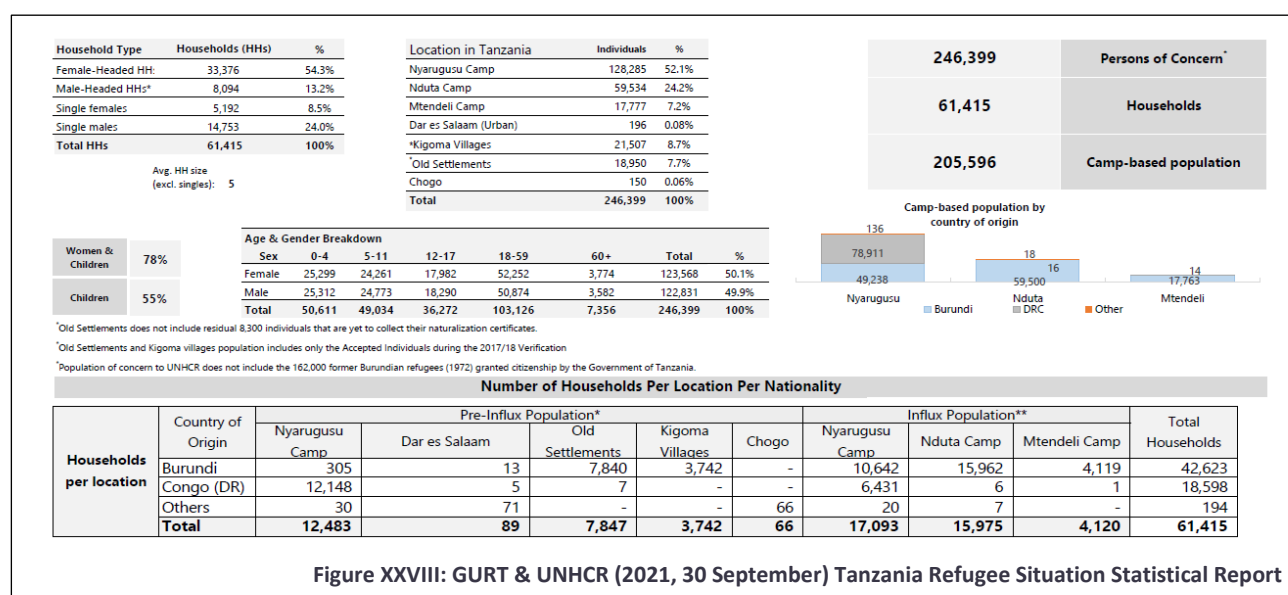
The underlying causes of discrimination and violence towards people with albinism include misperceptions, specific beliefs and poverty. Many believe albinism to be caused by the mother having had an affair with a white person or

spirits, having shaken hands with a person with albinism or having shared a meal with someone with albinism. According to other misperceptions, persons with albinism are not human, but rather ghosts. They are often regarded as witches. They are also often falsely regarded as lazy due to their avoidance of the sun to protect their vulnerable skins.⁵¹² Poverty has been seen to further drive violence towards people with albinism, killings for their body parts as they are believed to make people rich or bring them luck.⁵¹³ Although the number of reported attacks against people with albinism has decreased in recent years, the situation remains precarious given the root causes remain.⁵¹⁴

The year 2019 witnessed the enactment of the Judicature and Application of Laws (Practice and Procedure of Cases involving vulnerable Groups).⁵¹⁵ The rules require any case involving vulnerable groups to be determined and concluded within three months. Also, they allow deaf people to have access to sign language interpretation services resourced through the Judicial Fund. The rules also state that judgment, decree and proceedings should be made in braille accessible format for the blind. Finally, the rules direct every court to have a judicial officer responsible for disability matters. Most PWDs are not aware of these legal avenues and how to pursue them. Overall, the legislative and policy canvas outlining the rights and entitlements of PWDs is disconnected across the sectors, it is neither comprehensive nor gender sensitive. A comprehensive review of wider legislation with regards to disability inclusion is yet to be undertaken, though should be prioritised to ensure the legal framework does not discriminate against PWDs.

Participation, Rights & Inclusion: Refugees & Migrants

Given it has eight bordering countries, some of which have experienced or are experiencing conflict, the URT has acted as a host or transit country for mixed migration flows since independence. People travelling as part of mixed movements have varying needs and profiles and may include asylum seekers, refugees, trafficked persons, unaccompanied/separated children and migrants in an irregular situation.



The majority of Persons of Concern are from Burundi and the Democratic Republic of Congo, are children and hosted by the Government of Tanzania in three refugee camps in north-western Tanzania: Nyarugusu; Nduta and Mtendeli. A small population of refugees of mixed nationalities also live in urban centres, mainly Dar es Salaam. A larger population of Burundian refugees who fled into Tanzania in 1972 reside in various villages and old settlements in the Kigoma region. Whereas approximately 162,000 individuals from this population benefited from naturalization, over 67,000 individuals are still in need of durable solutions.⁵¹⁶

Tanzania is party to the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees, its 1967 Protocol and the 1969 OAU Convention Governing the Specific Aspects of Refugee Problems in Africa. Refugee affairs are managed by the Refugee Services Department of the Ministry of Home Affairs under the 1998 Refugees Act and the 2003 National Refugee Policy. In practice, the treatment of refugees in Tanzania is principally guided by the measures set out in the 2003 Refugee Policy, particularly with regard to access to territory and asylum, as well as livelihoods and education. Tanzania announced its decision to withdraw as a pilot of the Comprehensive Refugee Response Framework in January 2018,

although the Government has consistently expressed its commitment to the Global Compact on Refugees (GCR) albeit with reservations on certain elements particularly those relating to refugees' self-reliance. The government has also underscored what it sees as a lack of international support for areas hosting refugees and host communities.

The political context in Tanzania continues to evolve with the protection environment becoming more complex and unpredictable, resulting in declining access to territory for asylum seekers. Since June 2018, all key border entry/reception points remain closed to new asylum seekers. The result has been a number of unregistered individuals finding their way into the refugee camps, but unable to access essential services or receive humanitarian assistance. The volatile situation in the Cabo Delgado region in Northern Mozambique remains of concern with reports of asylum seekers being denied access to the Tanzanian territory. The UN developed a Contingency Plan in preparation for asylum arrivals from Mozambique. Unfortunately, this has not been operationalized as the authorities have denied humanitarian access to the Mtwara area of Tanzania. In addition, UNHCR has recorded over 10,333 instances of refoulement of Mozambican asylum seekers who crossed into the Tanzanian territory since January 2021. Most of the arrivals were reportedly women and children in desperate need of protection and humanitarian assistance. Since June 2021, Tanzanian increased restrictive measures and military presence, preventing Mozambican asylum seekers from entering the Tanzanian territory or forcing them to take routes through the porous border between Nangade and Chikongo -Tandahimba or Chihanga Newala. In spite of numerous advocacy efforts by the UNHCR and the UNCT with the Minister of Home Affairs as well as the Minister of Foreign Affairs and East African Cooperation, the Government of Tanzania (GoT) has questioned the use of terms such as "asylum seekers" and "refoulement" and opposes missions or presence in the region reiterating their security concerns, particularly potential non state armed groups infiltrating within groups of asylum seekers crossing into Tanzania.

The strict encampment policy and emerging administrative directives on refugee matters in the URT have significantly reduced the protection space. They have also impacted on access to basic services as well as livelihoods and self-reliance opportunities, heightening the risk of exploitation and abuse including extortion, sexual violence, child labour, trafficking, and forced marriage, as many persons of concern adopt negative coping mechanisms.

The presence of the refugees has put a strain on the host community in Kigoma Region where the Human Development Index is estimated to be one of the lowest in Tanzania. The UN supported a Cross Border project - Tanzania and Burundi (2017-2019) on "Preventing conflict and building peace through addressing the drivers of conflict and instability associated with forced displacement between Burundi and Tanzania". While the project achieved some good results, the final evaluation revealed that a critical funding gap (more than 50 percent) had led to significant shortfalls. UNDP's 2018 analysis of Kigoma revealed an increase in conflicts such as those related to marriage and family issues as well as land and associated resources. Factors responsible include: delays in compensation payments for the relocated host communities, security threats and resource related depletion concerns, as well as limited livelihood opportunities and inadequate social services delivery.

Between September 2017 to September-end 2021, working under a tripartite arrangement between UNHCR, the Government of Burundi and the Government of Tanzania, a total of 138,019 (females 50.2 percent; males 49.8 percent) Burundian refugees were assisted to voluntarily repatriate to their country of origin. The UN continues to engage both Governments to ensure that the provisions of the tripartite agreement are adhered to, that Burundian refugees can make well-informed decisions regarding their return and that all returns to Burundi are voluntary and dignified. While the overall situation in Burundi continues to be conducive to return in safety and dignity, some concerns remain relating to the human rights and political situation in Burundi that may not permit the safe return of some refugees.

Upon return, at the Transit Centres, refugees are provided with government identification documents and assisted with non-food items and a cash grant. Refugees are assisted with transport to their communes after which they make their own way to their homes or temporary accommodation. Conditions in the areas of return in Burundi remain extremely challenging and poverty is widespread. Returnees require some support to facilitate their reintegration to strengthen durability of returns, promote social cohesion and prevent secondary displacement (including returns to Tanzania). To support repatriation and reintegration efforts, the Joint Refugee Return and Reintegration Plan (JRRRP)⁵¹⁷ was developed, which is an integrated inter-agency response to immediate humanitarian needs as well as to the longer-term resilience and reintegration needs of Burundian returnees and their communities of return. The plan brings together 19 partners within Burundi, including Government ministries, UN agencies & NGOs. Robust support by development donors and other stakeholders is crucial to ensure the full implementation of the Plan.

Resettlement has been the principal durable solution available to Congolese refugees hosted in Tanzania given the

security situation in the Eastern DRC, where most Congolese refugees originate from. (The UN does not consider internal relocation to other areas of the DRC as a viable alternative). Tanzanian authorities have stated that they will not permit refugees accommodated in the camps to be locally integrated, even for long-term refugees such as those who have been in Tanzania since the mid-1990s. Since 2015, 23,374 refugees have departed for resettlement from Tanzania.⁵¹⁸

Local Integration and the 1972 Population

The exceptional offer of nationality for the 1972 Burundian refugee population in 2007 that promised a genuine local integration solution has yet to be fully realized. In 2010, the applications of 162,156 people were accepted with the vast majority collecting their naturalization certificates in 2014 and 2015. However, there is a significant number of Burundians (from 1972) pending durable solutions. These fall into three main categories:

- 1) 6,620 children born after their parents applied for naturalization but before the granting of naturalization by the Government of Tanzania.
- 2) 2,152 individuals whose appeals are pending following a first-instance decision on their naturalization application.
- 3) 52,297 individuals who were registered in 2017 and 2018 during the Verification, Registration and Intention Survey (VRIS). Of this group 11,842 (23%) were disqualified and are pending a legal review to confirm their legal status.

The UN system and international community continues advocacy towards finalisation of the local solution commenced by the GoT, as the most viable and appropriate for these refugees who have been residing in Tanzania for almost 50 years and the vast majority of whom were born in Tanzania.

Effective local integration requires the development of an inclusive strategy promoting integrated development for the regions where the settlements are located, namely Tabora and Katavi regions. Degazetting of the Settlements is considered a key prerequisite. In a designated area that remains under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Home Affairs, naturalized Tanzanians cannot fully exercise their rights. The legal status of the designated areas also impedes private investments by the Settlement residents and private investors.

The URT is party to several international and regional instruments which are relevant to migration and provide for the rights of migrants, however many provisions have not been domesticated which is a prerequisite for enforceability under the Constitution.⁵¹⁹ Furthermore, despite URT being a party to the ICESCR (1966), most socio-economic rights are not enforceable in Tanzania because they are not contained in the requisite Bill of Rights segment of the Constitution.⁵²⁰ Further, important migration related terminologies for example irregular migrant worker, unaccompanied child or separated child have not been defined in national law which means these groups may not be protected. This is a result of interalia, not ratifying and domesticating some important international treaties for example the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families, 1990. Although, under individual pieces of legislation, there is some cover for particular groups for particular rights, such as provisions for the protection of migrant children found in the Law of the Child Act 2009.

Meanwhile, the growing phenomenon of smuggled migrants and irregular migration from the Horn of Africa through Tanzania to South Africa has been pinpointed as a major concern for the Government. It has taken some steps to promote migrants' rights, including through the endorsement of the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration (GCM), a non-binding agreement prepared under the auspices of the UN that covers all dimensions of international migration in a holistic and comprehensive manner. The government has also been piloting a Comprehensive Migration Management Strategy (renewed in 2019) to address the status of long-term irregular migrants in Tanzania (people whose families have been in country for generations), including through biometric registration and identification as the means to give migrants access to rights and services and a first step in attaining regularization of their status. Further, work has begun on the development and/or review of employment, migration and development policies, as well as implementation of the Employment Regulation Act 2015. However, additional assistance will be required to realise the full range of fundamental human, labour and social rights of migrant workers, their families, and associated communities of origin and destination both in law and on the ground in Tanzania.

National Development Priorities & SDG Localisation

The economic and social development policies and strategies of the Government of the United Republic have been shaped since 2000 by Tanzania's Vision 2025. Amongst its key objectives are the country's transition to middle income status and a semi-industrialised economy led by a modernised and highly productive agricultural sector, effectively integrated by supportive industrial and service activities across rural and urban areas. The Vision declares that the Tanzania of 2025 should be a nation imbued with five principal attributes: high quality livelihoods; peace, stability and unity; good governance; a well-educated and learning society; a competitive economy capable of producing sustainable

growth and shared benefits.

Three Five Year Development Plans (FYDP 2011/12-2015/16, 2016/17-2020/21, 2021/22-2025/26) operationalize the Vision.⁵²¹ The second Plan, under the theme ‘Nurturing Industrialization for Economic Transformation and Human Development’, expired 30 June 2021. Many of its achievements, the challenges that persist and the opportunities going forward have been highlighted in relevant sections under Parts I and II. Most of these in turn mirror the core priorities defined in the third Plan which started 1 July 2021.

Assessment of the FYDP II against agreed objectives and targets indicates that the country performed well, with macro-economic stability achieved and 93.8 percent of related targets met. Industrial sector performance during FYDP II was high, with approximately 75 percent of targets met. Interventions in the agriculture sector and sub-sectors resulted in 77 percent of targets met. Successes were also recorded in the tourism sector whereby the number of tourists visiting Tanzania reached 1.5 million in 2019 (from 1.1 million in 2015), accompanied by an increased number of nights spent per tourist. In the natural resources and environment sector about 81.8 percent of the planned targets were either fully met or made commendable progress. The review also revealed that the Government surpassed the targets for collecting tax revenue by 98 percent.

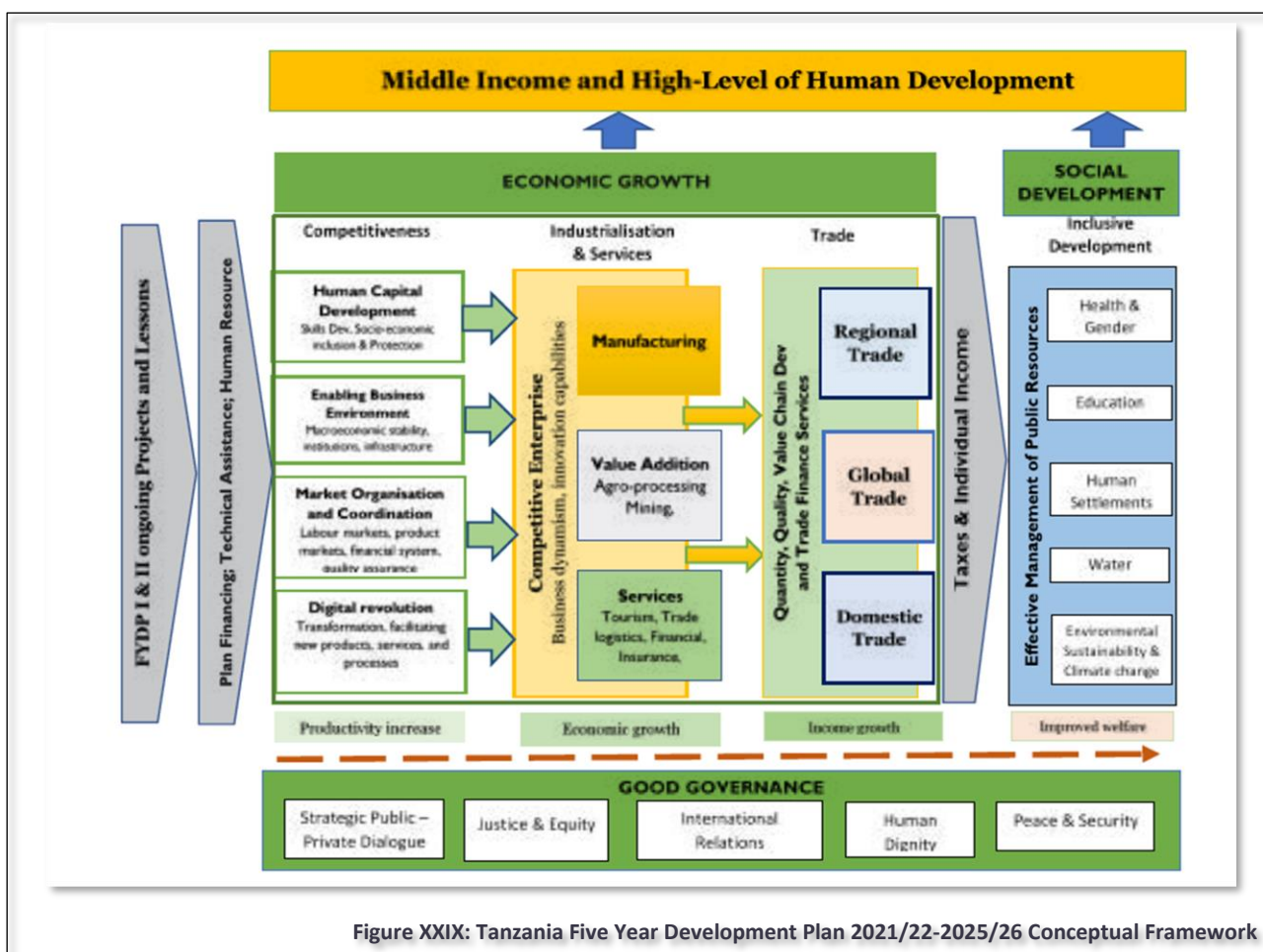


Figure XXIX: Tanzania Five Year Development Plan 2021/22-2025/26 Conceptual Framework

The FYDP III, under the theme ‘Realizing Competitiveness and Industrialization for Human Development’ seeks a shift to a diversified and semi-industrialized economy, with a substantial industrial sector comparable to typical middle-income countries capable of competing in the global export market. The Plan hopes to convert Tanzania’s comparative advantages (geographical location, abundance of natural resources, peace and political stability) into competitive advantages, whilst addressing current constraints in the economy. Its key components are summarised in Figure X.

The FYDP III places much greater emphasis than previous Plans on developing Tanzania’s science, technology and innovation (STI) plus digital economy capabilities to spur economic transformation, productivity and competitiveness. However, targets related to resources and capacities are conservative. The government commits to allocating an additional 3.7 percent of public expenditure to research and development, aims for a two-percentage point increase in

secondary school enrolment (to 48 percent) and a three-percentage point increase in tertiary enrolment (6.9 percent to 10 percent) by 2025/26. According to data from UNESCO, secondary and tertiary education enrolment rates in MICs stood at 77.2 percent and 37 percent respectively in 2019. Further, whilst the contribution of the industrial sector overall to GDP is targeted to increase to 31.1 percent (from 29.6 percent in 2019/20), in line with levels for MICs (30.3 percent), this reflects on-going growth and already strong performance in the capital-intensive construction and mining subsectors while the contribution of the more labour-intensive manufacturing subsector is only targeted to increase to 8.5 percent (from 8.2 percent) compared with the MIC average of 18 percent. Consequently, the share of the labour force in agriculture (which is arguably a better indicator of people-centred *structural* economic transformation) is only expected to decline to 60 percent at the end of the plan, compared with the MIC average of 41.2 percent.

The Revolutionary Government of Zanzibar created their Vision 2020 (ZDV 2020) at the turn of the century. It was operationalised through the Zanzibar Strategies for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (ZSGRP), more commonly known by their Kiswahili acronym MKUZA (2006/7-2010/11, 2011/12-2015/16, 2016/17-2020/21). As with the FYDPs referenced above, successes to date, the gaps remaining and future opportunities have been highlighted in former sections of the CCA.⁵²²

In 2020, the Revolutionary Government of Zanzibar launched the Zanzibar Development Vision 2050 (ZDV50). Its primary objective is to attain upper middle-income status by 2050 through sustainable and inclusive human development. The Vision rests upon four pillars: Economic Transformation; Human Capital and Social Services; Governance and Resilience; Infrastructural Linkages. The successor to MKUZA III, the Medium Term Development Strategy 2021–2025 (MTDS) which is currently under development, is guided by the Vision's priorities. Particular emphasis has been placed upon expanding or improving the following areas: the Blue Economy; sustainable tourism; exploitation and management of oil and natural gas; PPPs; infrastructure development; public services; good governance; environmental protection; economic empowerment; GEWE. The MTDS incorporates considerable background on the economic, and to lesser extent, social situation of Zanzibar, although key environmental indicators, emerging issues and threats remain under-emphasized. Given that Zanzibar is an island, with fragile ecosystems, the coverage of climate change impacts will require additional support. There are linkages to health (heat, disease vectors), water (drought), biodiversity (ecosystem-based adaptation), and international cooperation (climate finance) that could usefully be further analysed. Related UNCT support could add value by helping to identify interlinkages, synergies, and trade-offs in areas such as the Blue Economy. Notwithstanding, it is encouraging that the MTDS makes explicit reference to SDG targets.

Partnering with the Private Sector for Sustainable Development

Private sector development is essential for economic growth, employment creation, human capital development, income and tax revenue generation. Private investment can and should be a strong vehicle for advancing national development priorities through investments in sectors contributing to structural transformation and sustainable development. Both the FYDP III and MTDS recognize that vigorous improvement of the business environment, investment incentives and climate will be critical going forward.

Private sector engagement alongside other stakeholders in the FYDP development process was actively supported by the UN. A number of their key recommendations have been reflected in the five-year strategy.⁵²³ Going forward, there is both the need and scope for stronger, more systematic private sector participation in addressing sustainable development challenges and aspirations. The UN may continue to play a role in supporting government and private sector cooperation at multiple levels (regional, national, sub-national) providing platforms for open dialogue and shared accountabilities, enabling the adoption of responsible business practices and standards and leveraging private sector investment for the advancement of national priorities and the SDGs.

SDG Localisation

The design phase of the FYDP II and MKUZA III coincided with the launch of the 2030 Agenda, enabling the latter's reflection in the national development framework. Notwithstanding, given the strong ownership and priority afforded by the Government to implement their manifesto, the SDGs' visibility at macro level has been somewhat obscured. In contrast, sectoral plans are more explicitly aligned with the SDGs, for example the aforementioned NPA-VAWC specifically seeks to address SDGs 5 and 16. Some sectors also mainstream the guiding principles of the 2030 Agenda through related legislation and policy. For instance, the National Fisheries Policy 2015 and the Deep Seas Fisheries Management and Development Act 2020 both adopt a pro-poor inclusive approach to ensure that all communities

participate in and benefit from the management of natural resources wealth, in alignment with the promise of LNOB and HRBA.

In 2019, the URT presented its first Voluntary National Review (VNR) report at the annual High-Level Political Forum (HLPF) of the United Nations.⁵²⁴ It included a range of proposals to plug data gaps relating to generation and use,⁵²⁵ human and financial resources as well as the policy and legal framework in Tanzania. A number of recommendations were also put forward relating to gender equality, in particular disparities in education, employment, financial inclusion and GBV. The URT expects to produce its second report in 2022.

Data for Development Impact

The SDG indicators were analysed in 2017 by the NBS on the mainland and the OCGS in Zanzibar for localization and data collection purposes.⁵²⁶ NBS established that 167 of 240 indicators were relevant to the Tanzanian context, with correlations to the FYDP II (83) and sector policies or strategies (84). The remaining 73 indicators were assessed as requiring further work and dialogue on their relevancy.⁵²⁷ The OCGS identified 190 indicators as relevant to Zanzibar. Both mapped and localized gender-related SDG indicators: 106 were adopted for the mainland and 79 for Zanzibar. For the latter, a status report was drafted with disaggregation, including rural/urban, sex and age.⁵²⁸

NBS and OCGS used an Advanced Data Planning Tool (ADAPT) to undertake assessment of data gaps and develop metadata for national indicators.⁵²⁹ This revealed Tanzania's ability to meet the demand for data stood at 30 percent with the majority expected to be drawn from administrative sources and collaborative efforts with other non-state actors. Thereafter, the country initiated a process to revolutionise data collection, analysis and dissemination through an open data ecosystems initiative. This was part of the National Data Roadmap initiated in 2016 (and finalised in 2018), spearheaded by NBS in partnership with the Global Partnership for Sustainable Development Data (GPSDD), the World Bank, the UN, and other national stakeholders. This involved contributions from a diverse section of non-government data generators, such as CSOs, serving as an important precedent for wider stakeholder engagement in the National SDG Coordination Framework (NCF-SDGs) adopted in 2020 but yet to be implemented.⁵³⁰

To meet the mainland's data demands for both national development plans, SDG reporting and regional commitments, in addition to drawing upon NSA resources, the Government must also be able to rely upon robust routinely generated data from across the MDAs and LGAs. However, these are currently constrained by inadequate coverage, reliability and timeliness, with variations in standards used. For example, birth registration in 2018 stood at only 9 percent. This important component of the CVRS system could, if fully established, not only contribute to the effective measurement of 67 SDG indicators but, by providing a legal identity, enable access to services and protection.⁵³¹ Similarly, there have been delays in the rollout of the International Classification of Disease (which is a key data standard) whilst private health facilities and tertiary health institutions appear to be significantly under-reporting health data.

There is also a need to link sectoral and sub-national data sources to a centralized, integrated MIS at the NBS and OCGS. Presently, the NSS includes fragmented data management systems developed using different technologies which hinders interoperability or the establishment of a one stop data and information management system. Meanwhile, there are institutional and technical weaknesses within all the MDAs in respect to managing and accessing their own administrative data and databases.

Support is being provided to NBS for migration from paper-based personal interview technology to computer-assisted personal interview data collection. This will require further substantial and sustainable investment in high-quality software, hardware, equipment and human resource capacity to ensure the technology does not jeopardize confidentiality and data protection or exceed human resource skills and competencies. The 2022 Population and Housing Census will be conducted digitally, which also poses resource challenges.⁵³² Also, options are being explored to support NBS to collect digitally some of the data for the Annual Surveys of Industrial Production.

Given the high demand for inclusive and disaggregated data to inform programming and enable monitoring of national, regional and global development commitments, there is also a need to enhance existing surveys such as the HBS, DHS and ILFS to ensure routine collection of additional demographic data including level of education, marital status or disability.⁵³³ Due to financial constraints, most of the sample surveys conducted by the NBS are designed to obtain estimates at relatively high levels of aggregation (for example rural, Other Urban and Dar es Salaam) and therefore do not facilitate consideration of marginalised or vulnerable groups to ensure No One is Left Behind. Even for dimensions which are already well-established, such as sex, there are challenges.

An assessment of gender data production conducted in 2018 by NBS and OCGS, revealed three areas that needed strengthening: the policy environment; gender-sensitive data production; and availability and use of gender data. In response, the aforementioned Flagship Programme Initiative (FPI) on gender statistics (Making Every Woman and Girl Count) was launched. Gender statistics coordination mechanisms were established on both the mainland and in Zanzibar and gender statistics units created in NBS and OCGS, gender statistics focal persons were also set up in different MDAs and gender statistics strategies developed. Gender sensitive data production was enabled through a Time Use module in the HBS plus Social Institutions and Gender Index survey. Finally, the availability and use of gender data was increased through regular user and producer dialogues plus knowledge products. Despite the progress made, there are still some areas in need of support, including the development of tools by the sectoral ministries to better use non-traditional sources such as Citizen’s Generated Data. Enhanced capacity of NBS and OCGS to compile gender sensitive data from existing surveys and censuses is also required.

Traditionally, data has been shared through published reports in hard and soft copy through Office websites or upon request. To increase the accessibility of data, the UN supported the OCGS to develop the ZanzibarInfo dashboard (MKUZASDG). This is designed to enable sharing and visualisation of key performance indicators (including trends) used by the Government of Zanzibar under MKUZA III as well as the SDGs. The dashboard is available through website and mobile applications. ZanzibarInfo aims to bring data to the fingertips of decision makers at central, regional and district level, helping to accurately identify gaps in and measure the success of the existing development programmes. Zanzibar Info is linked to Tanzania Socio Economics Database (TSED) and has the capacity to pull real-time data from multiple sources, including the Household Budget Surveys. The dashboard can also be accessed by others (external to government) interested in tracking SDGs, such as researchers and academics.⁵³⁴

In addition to investing in high-frequency surveys, more representative sample designs and specialised studies to identify vulnerable groups, more disaggregated data could be secured through adopting innovative analytic methodologies such as small area estimation techniques combining census and survey data to generate SDG indicators at smaller geographic areas. Similarly, combining population data with other georeferenced data, such as location of health facilities, schools or transport infrastructure, can help map population access to services and transportation, and thereby locate those who are being left behind.

Data from non-traditional government sources—such as from the UN and development partners, the private sector and CSOs, plus Big Data—could better complement traditional sources, if the policies and mechanisms were developed to enable their effective capture, analysis and integration into the NSS. These would ideally seek compliance with the Fundamental Principles of the Production of Official Statistics, as guided by the United Nations Statistics Commission. More support is needed in this area to moderate for issues such as reliability (especially in the case of use of social media), timeliness in production, sustainability and privacy.

Such efforts could be supported through the development and resourcing of Statistical Master Plans for both the mainland and Zanzibar, serving as successor to the 2011-2018 Tanzania Statistics Master Plan (TSMPI).⁵³⁵ Support to modernise and build the capacity of the NSS would also be beneficial. This might include short and long-term trainings in sampling and data processing, big data analytics, geospatial data, new technologies, and data production and the harmonization of data management systems including IT infrastructure.

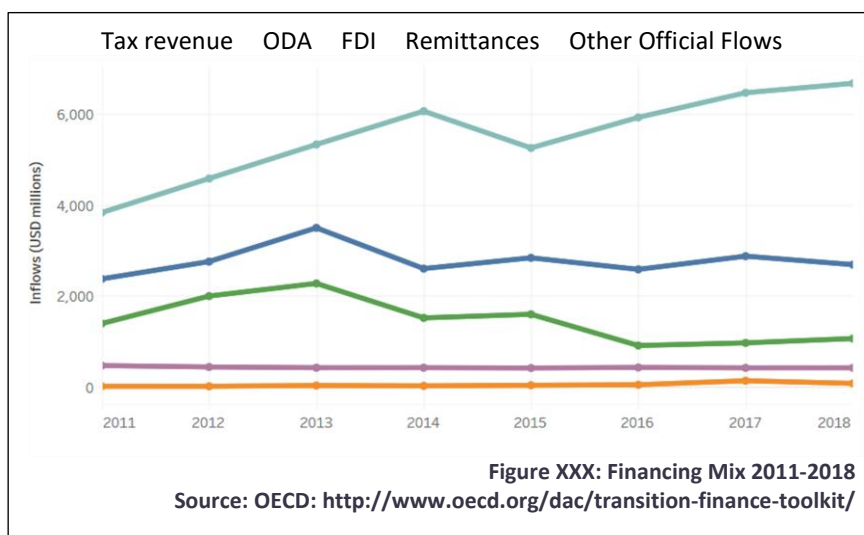
Gender Overview

Gender inequalities of all types intersect with other forms of discrimination. Not all women face equal amounts of discrimination. Women who are poorer, less educated, living with disabilities, living as refugees, living with HIV, living with Albinism, and adolescent girls and elderly women generally face more egregious forms of discrimination and violence and less access to economic resources and protection services.

Given the cause and consequence nature of gender inequality, any efforts to promote human-rights based development must take it into account. This points to several comprehensive and overarching needs in the context of the UN’s new Cooperation Framework namely: to ensure women’s and girls’ economic empowerment; to safeguard their access to quality, social services and sexual and reproductive rights; to advance women and girls role in decision-making at all levels; to guarantee their access to justice; to prevent gender-based violence, sexual harassment and harmful practices; to eliminate child marriage; to reverse the negative social norms that underlie discriminatory behaviour; to fill the gaps in gender data and analysis; to guarantee adequate financing for gender equality, and to address the ways in which gender intersects with other forms of discrimination.

The Financing Landscape & Opportunities

This final section summarizes data collected through the formulation processes of the FYDP III, MTDS and Development Finance Assessment (DFA),⁵³⁶ supplemented by international sources. The DFA for the mainland provides a comprehensive overview of existing and potential financial sources. It examines and makes recommendations regarding the current institutional and policy frameworks, identifying regulatory, technical, capacity and M&E gaps which once addressed should generate greater development flows from traditional and non-traditional sources and improve alignment with national development priorities and SDGs. A DFA is also planned for Zanzibar.



The Financing Mix

The OECD Transition Finance Dashboard for Tanzania presents trajectories of key financing streams between 2011 to 2018. It demonstrates that tax revenue has been accounting for significantly higher and increasing volumes compared with Official Development Assistance (ODA), Foreign Direct Investment (FDI), Remittances and other official flows (OOF). Since 2018, these trends have been largely sustained with some increase in FDI inflows.

Government Development Budget

On the mainland, the size of the development budget has grown progressively and at a faster rate than recurrent expenditure; in 2019/20 the development budget allocation increased to 6.3 percent of GDP, up from 4.3 percent in 2015/16.⁵³⁷ Meanwhile in Zanzibar, the development share in the overall budget has been declining down to 41 percent of the overall budget in 2019/20 from 56 percent in 2016/17.⁵³⁸ While the total government budget in Zanzibar declined by 12.1 percent in 2019/20 in comparison with the previous year, the development budget dropped by 29.2 percent.⁵³⁹

As referenced in Part I, budget execution has faced particular challenges on both the mainland and in Zanzibar. These include: unrealistic budget planning figures; implementation capacity gaps; shortfalls in domestic revenue or external financing; delays in project implementation. Measures to address the constraints have been implemented and more are underway or planned.⁵⁴⁰

As of 1 July 2021, the Government spent USD 8.4 million on measures specifically related to deal with the effects of COVID-19. The government also received grants and will use contingency reserves of USD 3.2 million to fund additional health spending.⁵⁴¹ Furthermore, to address economic and social effects of the pandemic the Government initiated negotiations with the IMF for a concessional loan under the Rapid Credit Facility (RCF).⁵⁴² In September 2021, the IMF approved USD 567.25 million in emergency financial assistance (USD 189.08 million under the RCF and USD 378.17 million under the Rapid Financing Instrument (RFI) to help the country finance the urgent balance of payment needs (about 1.5 percent of GDP) and COVID-19 socio-economic mitigation measures plus mobilise additional support from development partners. The Government have committed to publishing reports of RCF and RFI resources spent and a post-crisis audit of all pandemic-related spending.⁵⁴³

FYDP III financing envelope from the public sources (ie government's development budget) is set to be 25.9 percent more than the previous Plan's budget. The MTDS financial envelope for Zanzibar is pending.

Public budgets are the most direct instruments for governments to implement both the national development agenda and promote the SDGs. At present, planning, budgeting and monitoring processes on the mainland and Zanzibar do not explicitly link with the SDGs, nor is a gender analysis systematically undertaken to ensure expenditures target women

and vulnerable groups at all levels. The DFA for the mainland makes suggestions for stronger integration of public budgeting and private financing with the FYDP III priorities and the SDGs. DFA for Zanzibar will also look into these issues.

Domestic Revenue

Mainland's revenue-to-GDP ratio, despite the increase from 13.4 percent in 2015/16 to 14.7 percent in 2019/20,⁵⁴⁴ was significantly lower than regional comparators (Kenya 16.7 percent; Rwanda 20 percent in 2020⁵⁴⁵). Mainly as the result of the COVID-19 pandemic, early estimates for 2020/21 suggest the ratio dropped to 13.4 percent of GDP.⁵⁴⁶ Going forward, domestic revenue is forecasted to recover in 2021/22 reaching or exceeding 15 percent.⁵⁴⁷ The FYDP III projects domestic revenue to grow to 16.9 percent of GDP by 2025/26. In Zanzibar, domestic revenue-to-GDP ratio has been traditionally higher than the mainland but has been declining over the past 3 years.⁵⁴⁸ Zanzibar's Vision 2050 aims to increase revenue to GDP ratio to 20.2 percent by 2030 and 25.7 by 2025.

The proportion of taxes to GDP estimated at 12.9 percent in 2019/20 on the mainland is expected to rise to 14.4 percent⁵⁴⁹ by the end of the FYDP III period. However this will still be lower than the sub-Saharan average of 18.5 percent (2017).⁵⁵⁰ Taxes on imports, domestic income and consumption will continue to be the main source of tax revenues. Non-tax revenue collection is expected to rise marginally from 1.8 percent of GDP in 2021/22 to 2.0 percent in 2025/26.⁵⁵¹ In Zanzibar, tax revenue growth is declining over 2018/19 and 2019/20; the annual percentage change for 2019/20 shows only 0.5 percent increase.⁵⁵²

In 2010, the loss in taxes from the informal sector was estimated to amount to between 35-55 percent of the total tax revenue.⁵⁵³ The World Bank estimates that 2.5 percent of Tanzania's tax-collection gap (assessed at about 6-7 percent of GDP) could be closed through reforms which simplify and modernize VAT administration whilst reform of excise taxes could increase gross revenue by another 1-1.2 percent of GDP.⁵⁵⁴

Public Debt

Mainland and Zanzibar governments have been increasingly relying on borrowing for public development spending and in particular financing of big infrastructure investments.⁵⁵⁵ On the mainland, the proportion of external non-concessional borrowing in the development expenditure grew from 4.0 percent to 21.5 percent between 2010/11 and 2019/20 but the share of domestic borrowing halved from 2012/13 to 12.0 percent in 2019/20.⁵⁵⁶

According to the Government's 2020 Debt Sustainability Analysis, government debt remains sustainable in the short to long-term. All external debt burden indicators remained below their respective thresholds under both baseline and stress tests scenarios. Under stress scenarios, however, the fiscal sustainability was assessed as more vulnerable to export, contingent liabilities and primary balance shocks posing certain risks to the external and total debt sustainability.⁵⁵⁷ In 2019/20, in nominal terms the public debt was at 39.0 percent of GDP, with external (public and private) debt-to-GDP ratio at 16.4 percent against a threshold of 55 percent.⁵⁵⁸ Debt servicing peaked at 45.3 percent of domestic revenue in 2017/18, only to fall to 37.2 percent in 2019/20. In 2020/21 it is expected to consume about 40 percent of domestic revenues.⁵⁵⁹

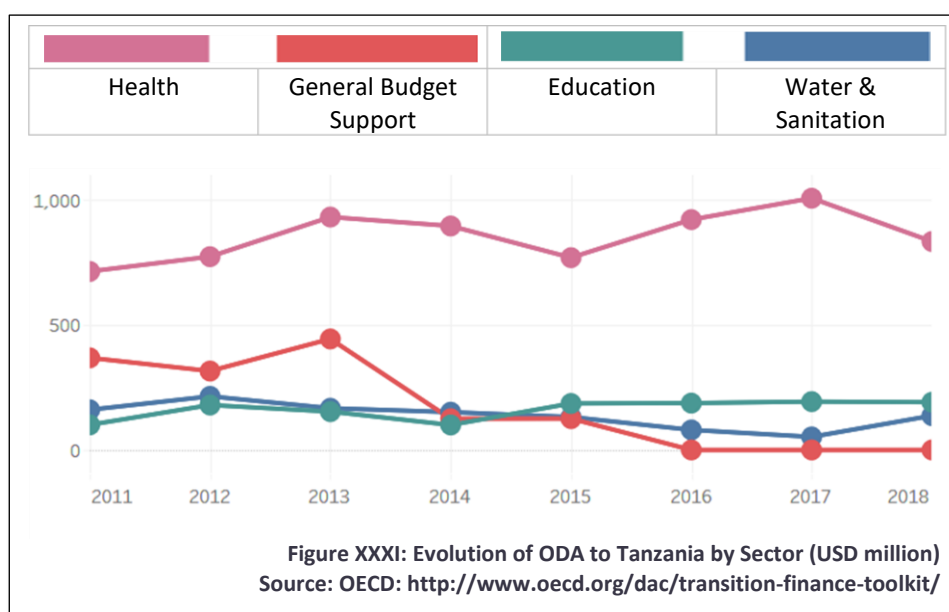
In 2019/20, about 75 percent of public debt was foreign debt and 25 percent was domestic. The Work Bank notes that the fast-growing share of commercial borrowing in the domestic stock—from 4 percent of the total debt in 2010/11 to 20 percent in 2019/20⁵⁶⁰—potentially raises liquidity concerns. For FYDP III implementation, the Government commits to ensuring that the proportion of net domestic financing does not exceed 1.0 percent of GDP to avoid crowding out the private sector. Recently, commercial banks' share in Government's auctions has been decreasing and pension funds and individuals' share has been on rise. This is in line with the Medium-Term Debt Management Strategy's⁵⁶¹ objective of encouraging commercial banks to increase lending to the business community.

In Zanzibar, there was a sharp rise in total borrowing in 2018/19 to 27 percent of the total annual government expenditure. In 2019/20 about 80 percent of the loans were concessional;⁵⁶² the share of foreign loans in 2019/20 declined by 58 percent in comparison with 2018/2019. The overall debt-to-GDP ratio in 2019/20 decreased to 20.0 percent from 22.0 percent in the preceding year.⁵⁶³ Going forward, under the MTDS the Government plans to prioritise concessional borrowing while non-concessional loans will be limited to those with high economic return, especially for energy, transport and infrastructure.

Official Development Assistance

Historically, Tanzania has been one of the largest recipients of ODA in Africa. Since 2011, however, there has been a marked decline; the ODA-to-GDP ratio dropped from 7.6 percent in 2013 to 4.6 percent in 2018.⁵⁶⁴ In 2020/21, grants and concessional loans were financing just 8 percent of the mainland's government budget⁵⁶⁵ against 44 percent in 2004/05⁵⁶⁶ and 28.2 percent in 2010/11.⁵⁶⁷

According to OECD data for 2016-19⁵⁶⁸ bilateral assistance accounted for the largest share of gross ODA at between 51.5 and 60.1 percent. The dominant share of concessional loans is owed to multilateral institutions, both on the mainland and in Zanzibar.⁵⁶⁹ 23 percent of DAC members aid to Tanzania screened with the DAC gender equality policy marker had gender equality as the main objective in 2019, representing a sizeable increase from 15 and 16 percent in 2017 and 2018 respectively.⁵⁷⁰



On the mainland, grants-to-GDP ratio decreased from 3.4 percent in 2010/11 to 0.3 percent in 2018/19⁵⁷¹, bouncing back slightly to 0.7 percent in 2019/20.⁵⁷² In Zanzibar, ODA grants dropped to 2 percent in 2018/19 from 6.7 percent of GDP in 2011/12.⁵⁷³ The share of UN development funding has averaged annual inflows at around 200 million over the past five years.⁵⁷⁴

The FYDP III forecasts grants-to-GDP share to drop even further to 0.2 percent in 2025/26. Whilst this is aligned to

Government objectives to reduce dependency on foreign aid, the Plan also expects a decline in grants available due to the impact of COVID-19, sustained fiscal deficits in donor countries and concerns regarding the effectiveness of ODA-supported programmes in some developing countries. The recent graduation of Tanzania to a Lower Middle-Income Country status under the World Bank classification system is also cited as a factor. The Government expects concessional loans for the Budget Support, Project Support and Basket funding to decline over the FYDP III period assessing most development partners' appetite as low. The DFA underscores the value of ODA and puts forward some recommendations to minimize the drop in grant inflows. In Zanzibar, the Government plans to continue active engagement with multilateral financial institutions as well as bilateral development partners to attract ODA loans and grants for the implementation of the MTDS while aiming to reduce the aid dependency ratio from 6 in the baseline year 2019 to 4 in 2030 to 2 by 2050.⁵⁷⁵

Private Finance

FDI to Tanzania has been declining since 2013 and has remained under 2 percent of GDP since 2016.⁵⁷⁶ At 1.8 percent of GDP in 2019-20 it is below both the LIC and LMIC average,⁵⁷⁷ but the number of newly registered investment projects has been growing recently (420 in 2019/20 from 219 in 2015/16⁵⁷⁸). The new Administration aims to establish Tanzania's position as a top FDI destination in East Africa, with projections of FDI increases averaging 13 percent annually⁵⁷⁹ or by 59 percent during the lifetime of the FYDP III.⁵⁸⁰ The majority of investments are expected in: oil and gas; mining and quarrying; food and accommodation; manufacturing; finance and insurance.

With the foreign private sector expected to contribute 17 percent of the overall FYDP III resources, the Plan outlines a list of measures to further attract and retain FDI, including investment incentives and strengthening investor confidence. Meanwhile, the MTDS hopes to increase FDI, facilitated by harmonisation of tax laws, improved registration of business

and a review of corporate tax exemptions.

Whilst government and government-funded infrastructure projects provide opportunities for FDI and blended financing, significant increases in FDI volumes may prove challenging. In 2020, global FDI flows were projected to decrease by up to 40 percent from their 2019 value, bringing FDI below USD 1 trillion for the first time since 2005. A further drop of between 5-10 percent was forecasted for 2021, with a slow recovery starting the following year.⁵⁸¹ Both the mainland and Zanzibar will need to accelerate ongoing and planned reforms/strategies to improve investor climate and the overall business environment. FYDP III puts strong emphasis on improving the business and investment enabling environment through a broad range of measures including easing the regulations to simplify investment procedures and reduce barriers for investors.

Private Domestic Finance

Between 2010 and 2019, the private sector Gross Fixed Capital Formation (GFCF) has been growing (in current prices) at an average rate of 18 percent, mainly in commercial and residential properties and transport.⁵⁸²

On the mainland, the rapid expansion of private sector credit in nominal terms between 2010 and 2016 was followed by a contraction when credit to households registered higher growth rates, before recovering in 2019. Three sectors—trade, manufacturing and agriculture—have been the leading recipients of private sector credit. The proportion of non-performing loans to gross loans, although improving, is still 9.3 percent,⁵⁸³ almost double the BOT target of less than 5 percent.⁵⁸⁴

Gross domestic savings provide an essential source of funds for investment and is comprised of the savings of households, private corporate and public sectors. Although the share of gross domestic saving as percentage of GDP has been growing, a considerable share of domestic savings in Tanzania is still estimated to be held in non-financial form which do not result in productive investments. Some measures to respond to the saving needs of households and special groups are offered in the DFA report.

In 2020, the Government developed the Financial Sector Development Master Plan 2020/21-2029/30 seeking to address key challenges in the sector and to promote advancements in technology and innovation (Fintech), which necessitate revisions of policy and legal frameworks. The Master Plan applies to both mainland and Zanzibar and covers all financial sub-sectors.

Currently, the Cooperative and Rural Development Bank (CRDB) is the only private financial institution in Tanzania accredited with the Green Climate Fund (another entity is the National Environmental Management Council, NEMC). Under FYDP III, the Government is seeking to increase the number of actors qualifying for accessing climate finance through the GCF and Adaptation Fund.

The corporate bonds market in Tanzania is relatively new (began in 2011) and although growing, remains underdeveloped, currently accounting for 7 percent of national GDP.⁵⁸⁵ The DFA projects corporate bonds to increase over the next five years from TZS 272 billion in 2020/21 to TZS 915 billion in 2025/26.

The Governments of the mainland and Zanzibar recognize the private sector as a critical vehicle for implementation of the FYDP III and MTDS – directly through Joint Ventures and Public-Private Partnerships projects and indirectly through its overall investment activities. The target for the domestic private sector's direct contribution to the Plan implementation through participation in Government projects is set at TZS 21 trillion or 18 percent of total financial resources for the Plan. In Zanzibar, the Government also puts a strong emphasis on the promotion of PPP projects although does not set a specific target for private finance inflows for the MTDS. Notably, despite similarly high aspirations under FYDP II, the private sector's direct investment to FYDP II priority areas in the first four years of the plan implementation reached only 85 percent of the target. Furthermore, measuring the private sector's contribution was challenged by lack of information and adopted methodology.⁵⁸⁶

Financing Overview

Tanzania is becoming increasingly reliant on domestic revenue for development financing. This trend is actively pursued by the two governments and will be supported by the UN and other development partners in line with the Addis-Ababa Action Agenda (AAAA) spirit and objectives.

Mobilisation of sustainable financing flows from non-traditional sources,¹ including the expansion of South-South development cooperation, should be further explored and more suitable instruments for the country conditions adopted to complement traditional sources of development financing. Climate change/adaptation financing features strongly in the FYDP III, which includes specific targets for accessing internal climate financing sources¹ and establishing a National Climate Change Financing Mechanism (NCCFM).

The collection of tax and non-tax revenue will require strengthening and broadening, and other traditional sources such as ODA will have to work harder (especially in the social sector given its heavy reliance on ODA), as new forms of government financing take time to take root.

Renewed efforts to improve pre-market and in-market conditions as covered in Part I, as well as the post-market arena, will be critical to create and sustain an economy which generates the revenues anticipated both in the short and long-term, and affords conditions for attracting the private investment for sustainable development.

The increase in available public and private flows will not automatically translate into human development gains unless there are well-connected pro-poor growth policy frameworks and budgets. Greater alignment of public and private financing sources with the national development priorities and SDGs is necessary, including enhancing GEWE and LNOB criteria in all financing mechanisms. The integration of the SDGs into all national budgeting processes - planning, review, approval, execution, monitoring and reporting will be instrumental. The DFA for the mainland and the future one for Zanzibar afford recommendations in this area, which will need the commitment of a range of stakeholders in the private and public sphere.

Effective and transformational development financing goes beyond the expansion of financing options. It requires strong multi-stakeholder partnerships and collaboration across all sectors of society when different partners contribute their financial and other resources to co-create development solutions. This is recognised in the FYDP III and development partners are asked to promote dialogue between the state, the private sector and civil society. The UN will actively support the government in strengthening the existing and establishing new partnerships for SDG financing.

It will be critical to ensure that development plans, budgets and strategies are based on realistic economic forecasts and credible financing projections. Robust risk management measures will need to be built-in to withstand/mitigate shocks such as the COVID-19 pandemic (including access to emergency funds) as part of a comprehensive financial framework, which not only safeguards the development trajectory but wherever possible enables Tanzania to 'build back better' in the global post-COVID era.

PART III: TANZANIA’S DEVELOPMENT – A WAY FORWARD

This component of the CCA reflects upon the key findings from Parts I and II with a particular focus on the challenges identified, taking into account risk factors as well as the regions and groups left behind for each of the elements. It uses this analysis to propose a number of accelerators, some of which are interdependent/closely related to one another, in pursuit of the integrated and multidimensional programming approach required under the UNSDCF.

Accelerators are defined as specific timebound achievements/successes in one SDG that may unlock development gains across multiple SDGs and dimensions of sustainable development. The accelerators should help to redress the balance of progress towards 2030 Agenda in Tanzania, respond to issues in the enabling environment and particular concerns related to Leaving No-One

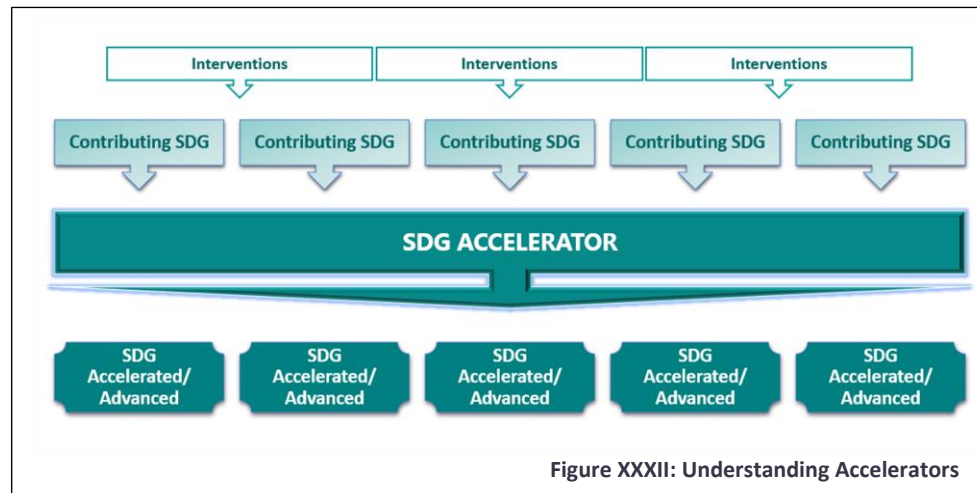


Figure XXXII: Understanding Accelerators

Behind. They are mostly themes which recur across the narrative, demonstrating the multiple roles each plays in the country’s key developmental dilemmas. This final part of the CCA is specifically designed to contribute to the next stage of the UNSDCF development process, namely the identification of priority results areas for UN support over the next five years. It is not anticipated that all accelerators will be selected, but rather those which have the most potential to secure impact at scale and for which the UN has a clear comparative advantage.

It is important to note the distinction between SDG accelerators, as thematic areas designed to expedite progress across a number of SDGs, and the particular type of support or interventions that will be required to best empower both duty-bearers and rights-holders to secure their advancement. Depending upon the SDG accelerator and those SDGs needing attention in the process of delivering the accelerator, these interventions might encompass: capacity development for more effective and accountable institutions (eg to improve service delivery especially for currently underserved populations and/or address issues related to budget under-execution); the review and refinement of policy, strategic, regulatory and legal frameworks (eg for mainstreaming of key concerns such as gender equality and climate adaptation and/or better alignment with international commitments including the normative agenda); improved collection, analysis, use and dissemination of data (eg enabling information system inter-operability across sectors and between MDAs and LGAs and/or adoption of the latest technologies for increased disaggregation); platforms, processes and influencers to engage communities for the redress of negative social norms (eg supporting religious leaders to speak out against VAWC and/or conducting alternative rites of passage for FGM).⁵⁸⁷ All interventions will need to reflect the guiding principles of both the CCA and future UNSDCF, namely the promise to leave no-one behind (more on this below), a human rights based approach to development which focuses on capacity development of duty-bearers to meet their obligations and rights-holders to claim their rights, gender equality and women’s empowerment, resilience, sustainability and accountability.

The particular role played by the UN will depend upon our comparative advantage in-country. For example, for some accelerators the UN may have a programming responsibility at the national level, providing technical assistance and policy advice. For others, our contribution might be better placed at the sub-national level through area-based programming. This could give the opportunity to target particular geographical areas that are most left behind, address intersecting factors of exclusion and inequality, plus innovate with potential for subsequent adoption and scale-up by national partners. For those aspects where our technical competencies are less strong relative to other stakeholders, the UN may still have a role to play as a convener, creating partnerships and facilitating knowledge-sharing (at national, regional and international level across state and non-state actors), or in support of financing strategies. These are all discussions which will require further exploration in the next phase of the UNSDCF development.

Potential Accelerators

As the opening pages of the CCA revealed, Tanzania has enjoyed sustained economic growth since the turn of the century and achieved significant economic stability in recent years. This has been most recently acknowledged by the World Bank through the upgrade of the Tanzanian economy from low to lower-middle income status last year under their classification system. However, if Tanzania is to reach middle income status under the conditions assessed by the United Nations Committee for Development Policy, Tanzania will not only have to improve GNI per capita but also routinely achieve higher scores across broader indicators of poverty, ie the Human Assets Index and Economic Vulnerability. It is in these areas that the country is falling behind some of its regional comparators.

According to the last mainland HBS undertaken 2017/18, 26.4 percent of the population or 13.9 million Tanzanians were living in poverty by national standards. Tanzania now contains the fourth-largest poor population in sub-Saharan Africa. Further, with population growth outpacing rates of poverty reduction, the number of those living in poverty continues to increase. By 2030, on current trends, Tanzania’s mainland poverty rate an additional 4.8 million (18.7 million in total) Tanzanians will be living in poverty. Moreover, with 92 percent of Tanzanians below the threshold for economic security and current gaps in social protection coverage, the likelihood of the inter-generational transmission of poverty is high. Income inequality has also risen in recent decades. There are significant regional and district variations in levels of poverty, with those living in rural areas, women, children and PWDs much more likely to be poor. Those living in households with seven or more members or headed by a woman and/or persons with limited education also have a much higher probability of falling below the poverty line. The underlying challenge of poverty or rather its eradication for the people of Tanzania is a defining objective for all of the accelerators listed below.

Potential Accelerator I

The rapid population growth in Tanzania is delaying the onset of the demographic dividend, a potential driver of economic growth and enabler of poverty reduction. The combination of child marriage, early childbearing, child mortality rates, limited economic opportunities for women and unmet need

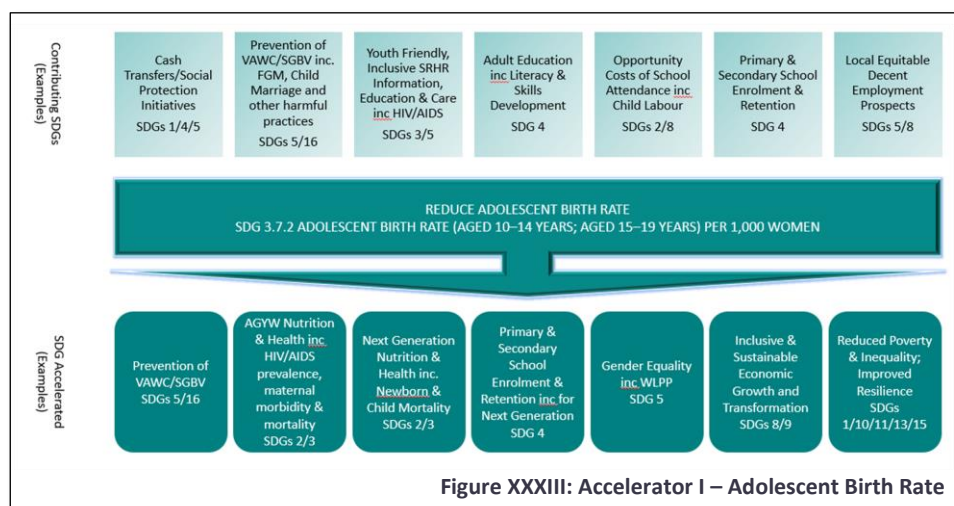


Figure XXXIII: Accelerator I – Adolescent Birth Rate

for contraception have contributed to Tanzania having one of the highest fertility rates in the world. This coupled with the current high dependency rates and low median age suggest that without efforts to slow down the birth rate, it will be more than 40 years before the country’s demographic profile shifts into the ideal proportion. In the meantime, such high rates of population growth are already placing enormous pressure on state and household services, whilst the increasing youth population are a potential risk to political and social stability. If the adolescent birth rate could be brought down, the positive impacts could also be significant for the high and stagnant levels of maternal mortality and morbidity, high prevalence of HIV and other poor sexual and reproductive health outcomes among AGYW. Further, the longer-term impact would also improve the educational and economic prospects of AGYW, their agency (especially important in terms of SRH and violence), the well-being of their children, and by extension the broader country’s growth prospects. It is for these reasons that reducing the adolescent birth rate is proposed as the first key accelerator.

Potential Accelerator II

Maternal health is offered as the second potential accelerator. Closely linked to the above, improving maternal health requires many of the same inputs/workstreams, such as prevention of child marriage, early childbearing and VAWC, as well as provision of inclusive SRHR information, education and care. The accelerator is however more specifically focused on the health sector across issues related to accessible infrastructure, qualified health personnel and provision of HIV/AIDS services, although linkages to education, nutrition and WASH are still critical. Whilst the target group is broader, encompassing all women of reproductive age, those in poorer, remote communities and PWDs are currently

most likely to be underserved and therefore should be prioritised for support. The benefits of improving maternal health extend not only to the women themselves but also to their children, positively impacting upon current rates of newborn and child mortality (as well as broader health outcomes for Under 5s). In turn—as was seen in Part I— improvements in these mortality figures could actually help to reduce birth rates and accelerate the onset of the demographic dividend with broader socio-economic benefits for all. Moreover, despite the commitment shown by Government and indeed other stakeholders in the country to improving maternal health in Tanzania over the last few years, this is one area that continues to challenge, with the latest estimates of maternal mortality actually higher than ratios reported in 2010. For these reasons it is suggested as an alternative accelerator for Tanzania.

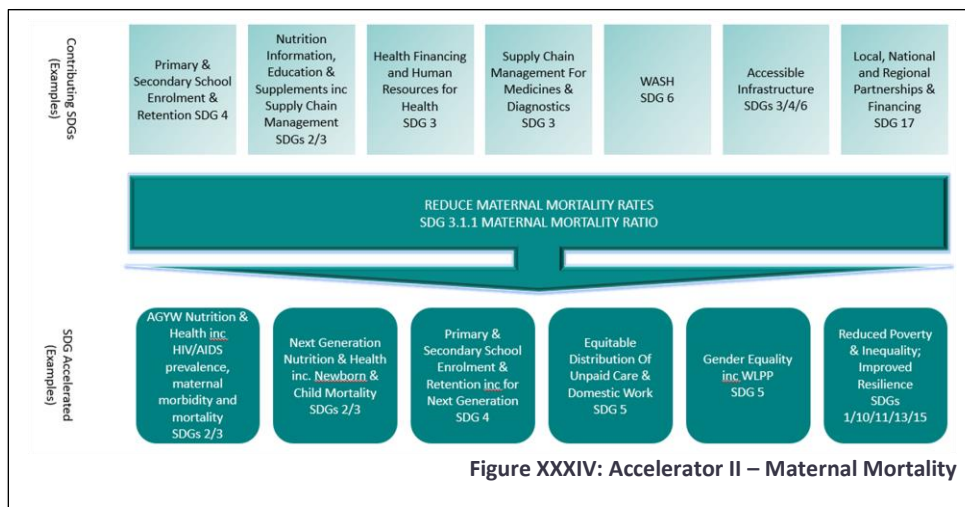


Figure XXXIV: Accelerator II – Maternal Mortality

Potential Accelerator III

Also within the Health sector, the third Accelerator seeks to end the epidemics of HIV, Tuberculosis and Malaria in Tanzania. Management of these places an enormous burden on an already struggling health service whilst simultaneously depriving both the sector and the country of critical human and financial resources. Significant progress has been made in reducing the incidence of communicable diseases in the country with substantial declines recorded, as revealed in Part I. Notwithstanding, Tanzania’s most vulnerable groups continue to be disproportionately affected. In terms of HIV/AIDS, women and girls have an infection rate double that of their male counterparts with even higher prevalence rates among key populations. Capacities to detect and treat TB are still limited, with those living in remote areas often unable to access critical care. Meanwhile, gaps in coverage for malaria control interventions means it remains the third cause of deaths among under-fives and second cause for those aged five and above. Pursuit of this accelerator would therefore make real the promise of leaving no-one behind in Tanzania. If interventions encompassed support to the broader health system, strengthening its capacity to manage public health shocks and enabled the expansion of related social protection measures, namely universal health cover, the population’s resilience to health shocks could be strengthened. Moreover, recent gains in the control of the epidemics would be safeguarded and built upon for future generations, helping to save lives, positively impact on productivity and by extension economic growth and development.

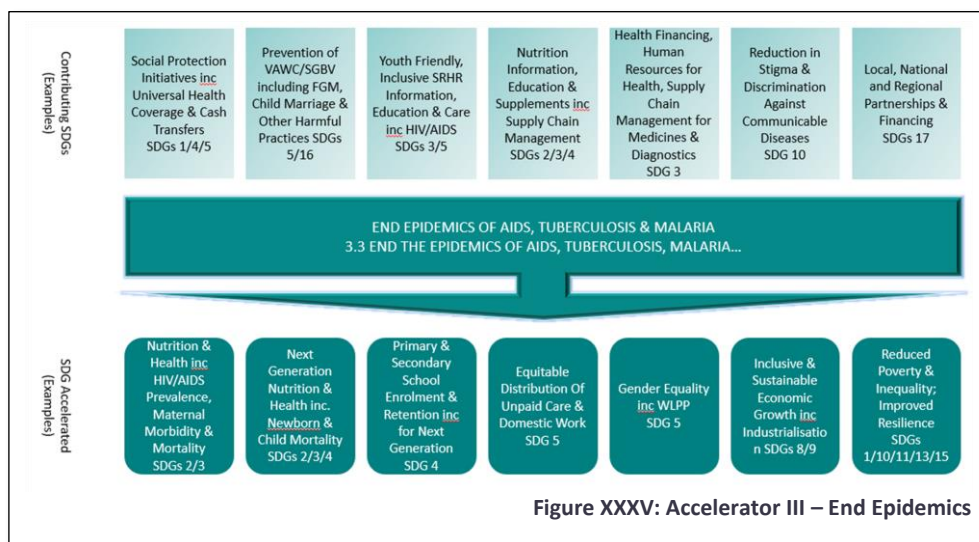
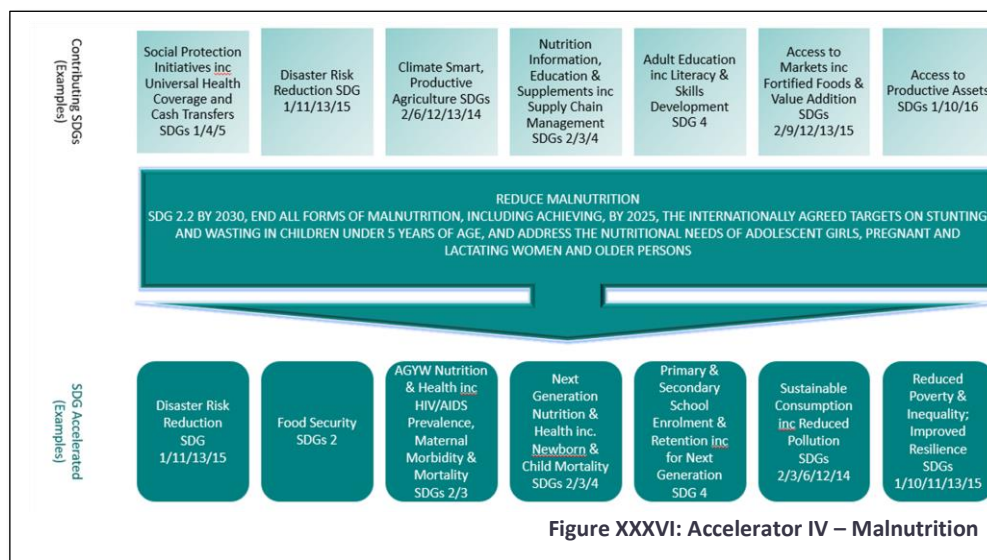


Figure XXXV: Accelerator III – End Epidemics

Potential Accelerator IV

As with many indicators related to multi-dimensional poverty, whilst the prevalence of certain key nutritional indicators has improved overall, the incidence for some key groups has increased in real terms partially because of population growth. Amongst the under 5s, especially the camp-based population, stunting and anaemia are a challenge. Amongst AGYW, anaemia also remains high and overweight/obesity is on the increase. Both the process and impact of addressing malnutrition amongst these target groups could have positive effects on a range of sectors and across all three dimensions of sustainable development.

Agricultural productivity would need a boost to improve access to low cost nutritional foods, especially in those areas that are most affected by natural or manmade disasters/climate change. Issues related to SRHR, including early childbearing would also require attention. Better



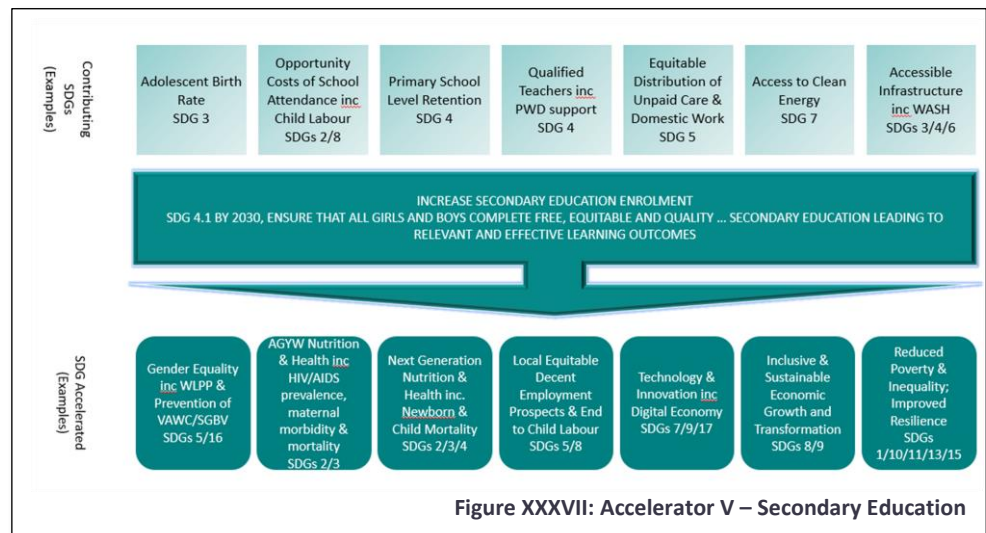
linkages to the health system would be critical, as well as improvements in the supply chain. Respect for the rights of camp-based refugees would enable access to income-generating opportunities for purchase of food of a higher nutritional value. In terms of impact, in addition to health benefits for the individual and their children, educational outcomes would be enhanced given the link between malnutrition and cognitive development, with longer-term positive impacts upon labour productivity and economic growth. Also the need for climate smart and more productive agriculture should support more sustainable use of resources. Given the breadth of the potential positive outcomes, addressing malnutrition amongst AGYW and under-fives is suggested as the fourth accelerator for Tanzania.

Placing additional expectations on a health service already challenged to meet the primary care needs of a rapidly expanding population — such as better preparedness for public health shocks or improved integration of SRH and nutritional components — may appear unviable in an environment of constrained resources. Further, increasing budgets for these components could conceivably lead to a de-prioritisation of other critical services. However, there is evidence provided in both Parts I and II of the CCA which suggests much more could be done with existing finances. Emphasis on addressing inefficiencies (including integration of vertical programmes across the health system), health system strengthening, enhancing people-centric services, use of community-based strategies to support triaging and a robust, equitable referral system plus the identification of local alternatives to globally recommended products are all strategies which could be employed to ensure current funding goes much further and the Right to Health in Tanzania is considerably advanced.

Potential Accelerator V

Within the education system, whilst there have been significant advances made on both the mainland and in Zanzibar, enrolment and retention at secondary level continues to be a problem. Part of the challenge is retention at primary school level, with one in four out of school. These are children predominantly from the poorest wealth quintile and more likely to be engaged in child labour, to be orphans, from migrant or nomadic families and/or have disabilities. Camp-based refugee children are also disadvantaged by the impact of the current policy which focuses on repatriation rather than integration. If access to quality secondary education could be expanded (including through multiple broader interventions tackling WASH, transport, violence, adolescent fertility plus revisions to the current Refugee Education

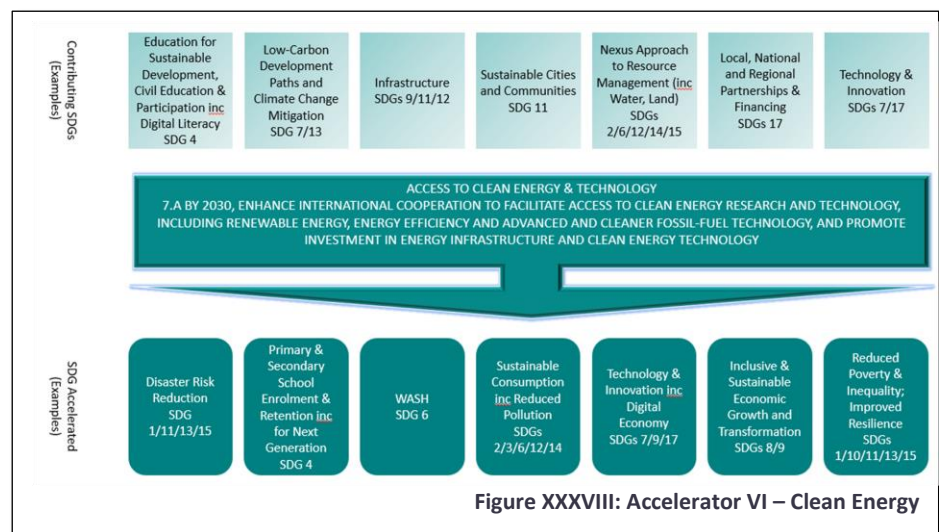
policy), many of the positive benefits listed under the first accelerator could equally be achieved here. These might include issues related to FGM, child marriage and early childbearing, AGYW health and nutrition and decent employment. Additional issues which affect adolescent boys more directly would also be addressed such as child labour, if interventions could counter-balance short-term costs of school



attendance through for example opportunities for income-generation outside of school hours and provision of materials/school meals. Importantly, improving secondary education is key to the creation of a skilled highly productive labour force essential for achievement of Tanzania’s growth objectives and the realisation of the developmental leap forward promised by the demographic dividend. Given its central role in the creation of pre-market conditions, it is therefore proposed as the fifth accelerator for Tanzania’s progress towards 2030 Agenda.

Potential Accelerator VI

Access to energy currently acts as a key bottleneck to growth in rural, poorer communities across Tanzania. It is one of the critical ‘process’ elements which recurs across many of the accelerators listed here. Whilst almost 100 percent of the urban population enjoy access to electricity in Tanzania, the World Bank estimates that only 7 percent of poorer households are connected to the national grid and 23 percent have some



access to solar power. Expansion and diversification of the energy mix will require greater regional and international cooperation; in the management of shared resources, adherence to commitments made around carbon emissions and contributions to global warming plus technological transfer through a range of partnerships. It will also require greater investment and expansion of off-grid and mini-grid options, including use of biomass gasification, wind and solar, possibly through public private investment which ensures affordability and accessibility for poorer and more remote households. Communities will need to be empowered to engage and manage these assets effectively. If done, well as part of a broader set of multi-sectoral interventions related to natural resource management, the benefits could be significant. Dependence on charcoal would be reduced, positively impacting upon rates of deforestation, pollution and related health problems. Improved energy access would also serve as an enabler of education and increase the sustainability of water supplies in rural areas (given current reliance on expensive diesel pumps). Moreover, the expansion of the digital economy could be facilitated, with increased sustainability and growth of private enterprise including in the agricultural sector. The particular role of the UN as a convener or to leverage finance could be pivotal. It is therefore for both the impact and comparative advantage of the UN that assistance for sustainable energy is proposed as an accelerator for Tanzania.

Potential Accelerator VII

With 800,000 new entrants to the labour market competing for an estimated 50-60,000 new employment opportunities in the formal sector each year, many choose to establish micro enterprises as a survival strategy. However, few are able to meet their basic needs with the income generated. Less than 40 percent of MSMEs last beyond the first five years of operation. Given they account for around a quarter of employment in Tanzania (with a high proportion of women and youth), enabling their sustainability and expansion should significantly reduce the numbers living in poverty in both rural and urban areas plus help to drive growth across all three principal sectors of the economy. Critically, if support includes access to productive assets and formalisation, this will enable entrepreneurs to secure the support they need, including in times of crisis, and also expand the domestic tax base with positive effects for both economic and social development. It is because of these prospects to impact broader trends, that support to MSMEs is proposed as a key accelerator for Tanzania.

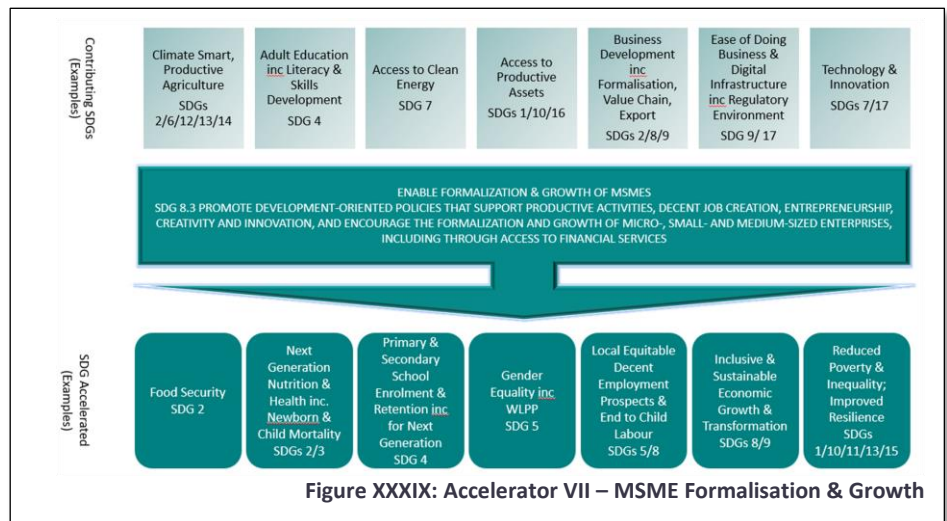


Figure XXXIX: Accelerator VII – MSME Formalisation & Growth

Industrialisation of the MSME sector could result in a significant increase in demand for energy which in turn could negatively impact on carbon emissions and/or divert energy supplies from households and social institutions, such as hospitals and schools. Moreover, industrialization of the sector could spur deforestation and forest degradation if clean energy technologies are neither available nor accessible. It is therefore critical that the country’s economic transformation keeps on a low-carbon, resource and energy-efficient trajectory. This includes regulation of the industrial and mining subsectors to protect against pollution and better management of unplanned settlements for the health and well-being of their inhabitants.

Potential Accelerator VIII

In rural areas, a largely untransformed, low productive agricultural (including fisheries) sector continues to be the largest employer by some considerable margin in Tanzania, especially of the poor. Given the low levels of educational attainment and geographical concentration of secondary and tertiary sectors, interventions within the agricultural sector and the Blue Economy to expand decent employment opportunities would appear critical, especially for the growing youth population. Many of the interventions that would be required mirror those listed in other accelerators above. They encompass a range of issues from equitable access to productive assets (such as land and capital) especially for women, more sustainable consumption patterns, as well as education and skills for climate change adaptation and improved resilience. However,

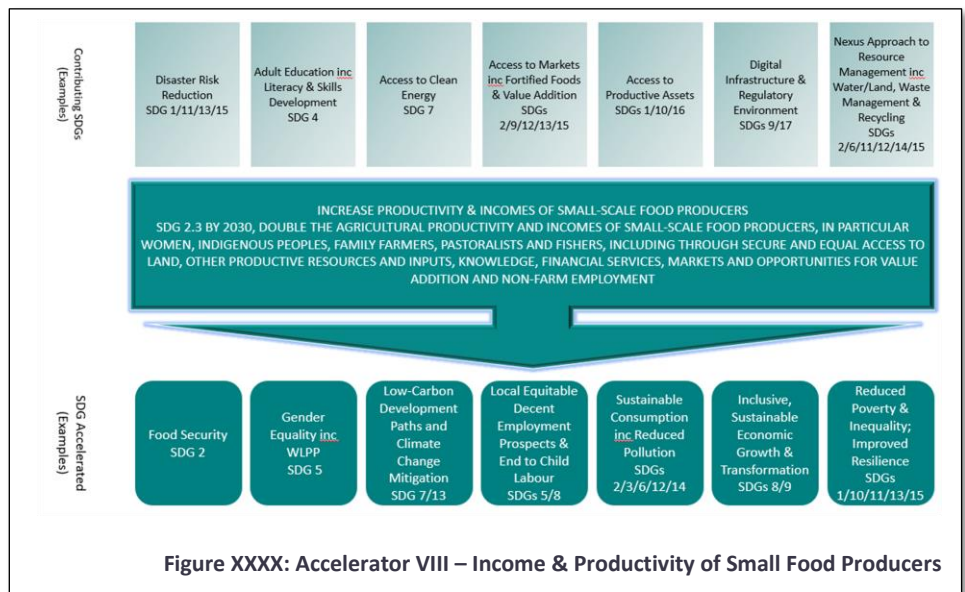


Figure XXXX: Accelerator VIII – Income & Productivity of Small Food Producers

the additional benefits that this brings for the nation go beyond supporting industrialisation and the services sector or even poverty reduction, to also supporting and linking into better nutrition and therefore health for the nation, as well as environmental issues around land use, degradation and pollution. These farmers therefore have a vital role for the nation's well-being across all three dimensions of sustainable development and the realisation of the 2030 Agenda. It is for this high impact potential that support for small scale food producers is put forward as an accelerator for Tanzania.

Increased volume per capita among small-scale farmers to meet future food and nutrition requirements may conflict with the sustainable management of forests, land and waterways, accelerating deforestation and increasing pollution. Likewise, farmers in their pursuit of productivity may find themselves in competition for land or water with other economic actors such as those in the tourist industry (managing game reserves and national parks), those with mining interests or those keen to develop hydropower facilities. It will be critical for efforts to focus on better use of existing farmland for improved productivity (ie yield) rather than any expansion (as has been recent practice). Further, all stakeholders will have to be engaged to ensure the full integration of sustainability measures, including climate smart/climate resilient methods, use of green technology and a nexus approach to resource management which takes into account competing claims, protecting and empowering affected communities to influence related decision-making. Use of new technology to boost productivity, such as widespread use of genetically modified crops, must also be backed by national capacity to adequately address concerns about food, health and environmental safety, with improved legislation and more effective enforcement.

Potential Accelerator IX

According to the assessment in the main text, inadequate adoption of ICT is also operating as a block to the country's growth at present. This is despite the recent completion of the National ICT Broadband Backbone (NICTBB). Critical thresholds of availability, affordability and accessibility have yet to be met to enable widespread take-up, especially for those living in rural areas. Current costs related to the purchase of smart phones and data prices, issues around cell coverage and

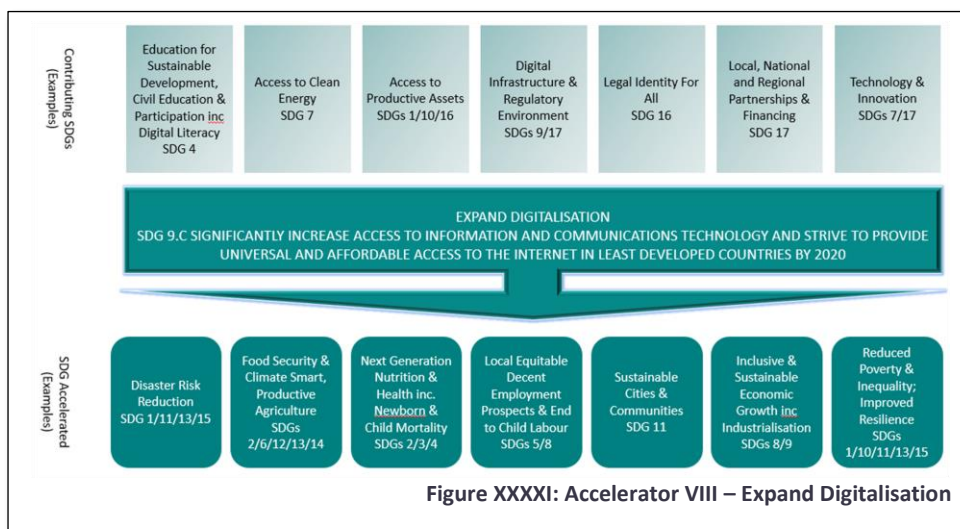


Figure XXXXI: Accelerator VIII – Expand Digitalisation

lack of electricity are particularly felt by those living in the poorer quintile, disadvantaging women, disabled and refugee/migrant populations, and serving as a further obstacle to financial inclusion. There are also challenges in the policy and regulatory environment which impede widespread broadband penetration. Notwithstanding, the expansion of digital services could unleash the potential of many existing enterprises and attract more to Tanzania, improving productivity levels and creating decent employment opportunities. Further, digital has the power to break down barriers related to information, whilst improving transparency and accountability across all forms of governance, enabling the delivery and take-up of social services, more effective disaster risk reduction plus improving agricultural productivity and potentially food security. If Tanzania wishes to compete in the global economy of the 21st century, especially post COVID, it is essential that it is supported to more fully engage in digital. It is therefore put forward as a potential accelerator for Tanzania.

As referenced in earlier sections of the CCA, the expansion of the digital economy is not without risk. There is potential for cybercrime, including financial fraud, identity theft, hacking, etc as well as issues related to data privacy and protection, environmental impacts such as those connected to electronic waste, and potential for a widening digital divide/exclusion of already marginalised groups. These concerns, however, are well known and are in the process of being (partially) addressed. The UN could lend its support to these remedies. For example, finalisation of the national consumer protection policy and strengthened channels for legal recourse for consumers, use of cloud-based solutions to reduce energy use and carbon emissions, expansion of recycling facilities plus complementing existing tech and digital training to enlarge coverage to all schools and TVET institutions as well as reaching adults through community-based initiatives. This would be in addition to improving the necessary infrastructure and securing lo-cost products for those in remote communities and/or within the lower wealth quintiles.

Potential Accelerator X

Tanzania is experiencing high rates of urbanisation which is contributing to land degradation, deforestation and loss of biodiversity. Inadequate land management is resulting in large tracts of territory being swallowed up by informal settlements, in which an increasing proportion of the poor reside. The absence of a clear policy in urban development coupled with insufficient authority, capacities and finances at PO-RALG and LGA level mean that access to key services for these populations is already strained. Rapid population growth alongside high rates of urbanization has further intensified pressure on water supplies. The need for more effective, coordinated water resource management to manage these stresses and better integration of climate adaptation measures is made more urgent as extreme weather incidents increase. Given predictions of a demographic switchover to a majority urban or peri-urban population by 2050, high rates of unemployment in key urban areas and the negative impact urbanisation is already having on social development and environmental sustainability, better management of the process would appear an imperative for Tanzania going forward. It is in pursuit of this need to be better prepared, more future-ready, that inclusive, sustainable urbanisation is suggested as a potential accelerator in Tanzania.

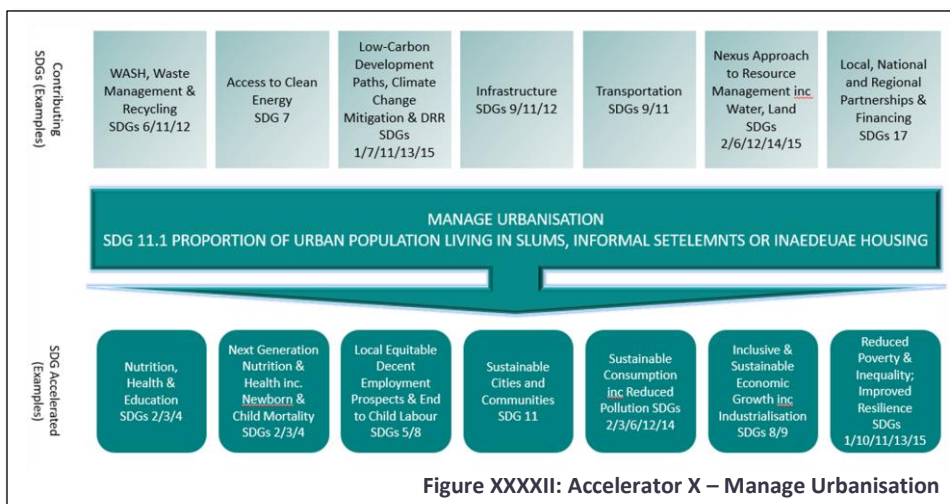


Figure XXXII: Accelerator X – Manage Urbanisation

It must be noted that if efforts to improve housing and services in urban settlements are successful, this could serve as additional pull factors for the rural poor to migrate. This in turn may create an agricultural labour shortfall which could impact upon food security and nutrition. It will therefore be important to ensure that any support to services and equitable decent employment in urban areas is matched (or in some cases surpassed where need is greater) in rural areas.

Ensuring No One is Left Behind

This final section takes each of the accelerators in turn and identifies the particular groups left behind and the particular regions left behind on both the mainland and in Zanzibar. This analysis is based on the assessment provided in Part I and II. Although there may be gaps in current data (revealing an entry point for the UN in-country), the analysis is still useful in highlighting the particular intersectionality of vulnerability, inequality and discrimination across the groups, thematic areas and geographical location, enabling further strategic prioritisation.

	PLHIV, LGBTQI, Key & Vulnerable Populations	Fisherfolk	Pastoralists	Trafficked Women & Girls	Migrants & Undocumented Workers	Refugees (Urban & Camp Based)	PWDs	Orphans	Under 5s	Young Men (15-24)	Adolescent Boys (10-19)	Pregnant & Lactating Women	Women	Young Women (15-24)	Adolescent Girls (10-19)	Drought/Flood Affected Communities	No/Low Levels of Education	Remote Communities	Peri-Urban & Urban Poor	Rural Poor	
Poverty Incidence																					
Adolescent Birth Rate +Those Vulnerable to SGBV inc FGM & Child Marriage																					
Maternal Mortality																					
End Epidemics																					
Malnutrition																					
Secondary Education +Those Vulnerable to SGBV inc FGM & Child Marriage																					
Access To Clean Energy																					
MSME Growth & Formalisation																					
Food Producers Income & Productivity +Those Living in Flood/Drought Prone Areas																					
Planned Urbanisation																					
Digital Services																					

Figure XXXXIII: Accelerators & LNOB

Eighteen groups emerge from the analysis as particularly vulnerable/in need of targeted support over three or more accelerator areas. These reflect and expand upon the groups identified in the opening sections of the CCA as most likely to be living in poverty. Across the 10 accelerators, it is the rural poor, young women, PWDs plus refugees (urban and camp-based) that appear most frequently, although young men, adolescents of both sexes, those with no or limited education plus migrants and undocumented workers are also prevalent. However, it must be noted that, few individuals fall into only one category and the identification of these eight 'recurrent' groups does not diminish the needs of those less referenced or even those not covered by the particular accelerators (such as the elderly). This listing should therefore be revisited once strategic priorities have been agreed.

Listed below is an attempt to provide a geographical breakdown of those areas most impacted by the challenges central to the accelerator. Not all accelerators are cited as regional information was not available for all. In some cases, proxy indicators have been found. Also, regional disaggregation for Zanzibar has not been provided due to gaps in data.

A crude accounting of those areas most affected by poverty and the greatest number of accelerators suggests that Geita, Kigoma, Manyara, Mwanza, Shinyanga, Simiyu and Tabora are of most concern. However, as above, this picture could change dramatically depending on data available or even observed. It would be more prudent to view the regional analysis for each accelerator herein and then complement it with further information from a broader range of indicators. It may be useful, once the selection has been made for the UNSDCF, to cluster relevant accelerators to identify convergences for indication of possible sites for an area-based programme. However, again, this analysis should be approached with caution.

	Arusha	Dar es Salaam	Dodoma	Geita	Iringa	Kagera	Katavi	Kigoma	Kilimanjaro	Lindi	Manyara	Mara	Mbeya	Morogoro	Mtwara	Mwanza	Njombe	Pwani	Rukwa	Ruvuma	Shinyanga	Simiyu	Singida	Songwe	Tabora	Tanga	Zanzibar
Poverty Incidence (2018) 0.36-0.45 World Bank (2019) Tanzania Mainland Poverty Assessment																											
Adolescent Birth Rate TDHS 2015/16;																											
Adolescent Birth Rate Highest Rates of FGM TDHS 2015/16																											
Adolescent Birth Rate Highest Rates of Early & Child Marriage National Survey on Child Marriage 2017 based on TDHS 2011																											
Adolescent Birth Rate Highest Rates of VAWC/SGBV and Intimate Partner Violence TDHS 2015/16																											
Maternal Mortality Highest Incidence in Absolute Numbers MHCDGEC-RCHS Annual Maternal Report (2020)																											
Maternal Mortality Rate Lowest Performance of Institutional Delivery against 80% National Target by 2020 Annual Health Sector Report 2019 (2020)																											
Maternal Mortality Rate Lowest % of Deliveries by Skilled Attendants Against 80% National Target Annual Health Sector Report 2019 (2020)																											
Maternal Mortality Rate Lowest % of ANC visits Against 80% National Target Annual Health Sector Report 2019 (2020)																											
End Epidemics Highest HIV Prevalence, 7.5%+ THIS 2016/17																											
End Epidemics HIV Prevalence in 15-49 Years Above National Average of 4.68% and/or with ART coverage 81% and below THIS 2016/17																											
End Epidemics Low TB Case Notifications Observed in the Matched Analysis 2018 and 2019																											

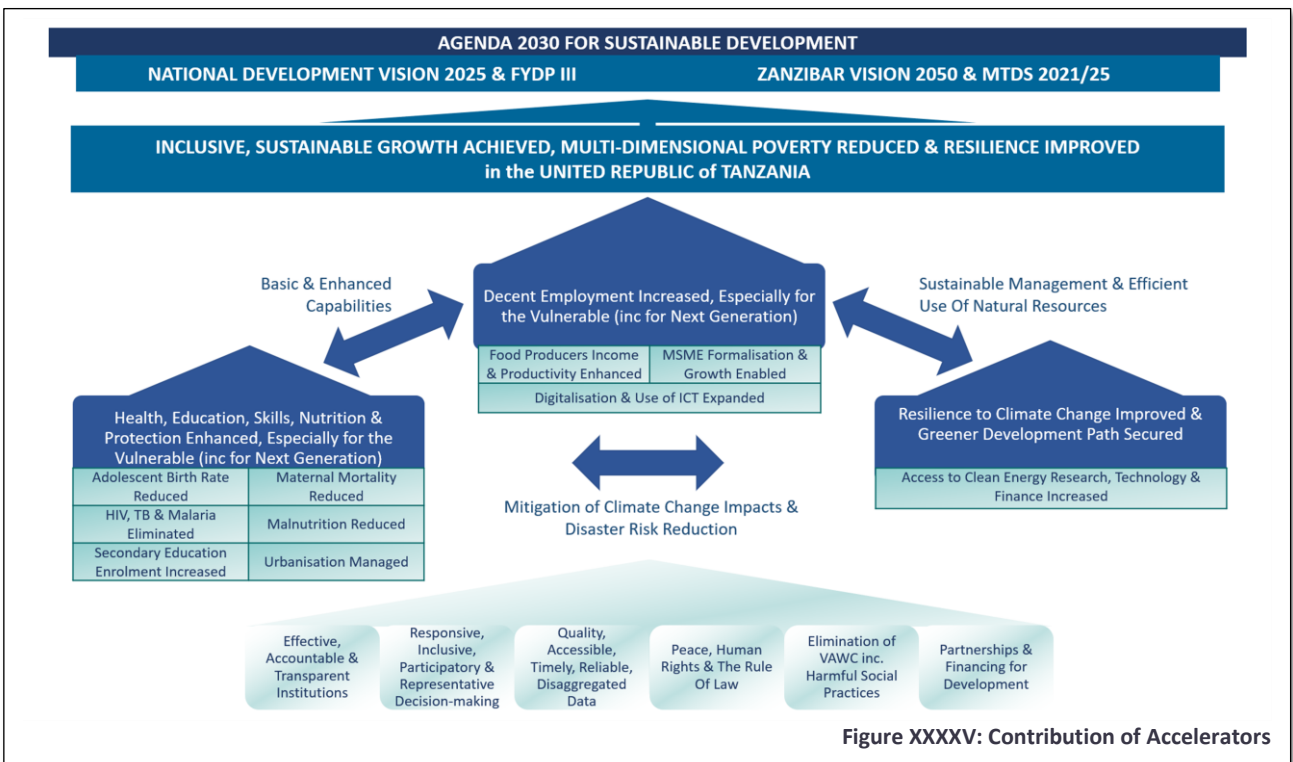
	Arusha	Dar es Salaam	Dodoma	Geita	Iringa	Kagera	Katavi	Kigoma	Kilimanjaro	Lindi	Manyara	Mara	Mbeya	Morogoro	Mtwara	Mwanza	Njombe	Pwani	Rukwa	Ruvuma	Shinyanga	Simiyu	Singida	Songwe	Tabora	Tanga	Zanzibar
End Epidemics Malaria High Risk Regions				■		■	■	■												■							
Malnutrition Highest Prevalence of 15-49 Years Underweight Tanzania National Nutrition Survey of 2018/19						■					■												■				■
Malnutrition Highest Prevalence of Women with Anaemia (above 28.8% national level) Tanzania National Nutrition Survey 2018/19				■							■					■						■					
Malnutrition Highest Stunting Prevalence (≥40%) Tanzania National Nutrition Survey 2018/19				■	■			■								■	■						■				
Malnutrition Wasting, GAM Rates Above National Average Tanzania National Nutrition Survey 2018/19	■	■						■													■	■	■				■
Malnutrition Obesity Tanzania National Nutrition Survey 2018/19	■							■																			■
Access To Clean Energy Regions with 79.4%+ Of Households Not Connected To Any Form Of Electricity NBS (2016) Access Energy Mapping				■				■	■							■			■		■	■					
MSME Growth & Formalisation Lowest Business Density, MIT and FSDT (2012) National Baseline Survey Report of MSMEs in Tanzania						■					■																
MSME Growth & Formalisation Lowest Number of Industrial Establishments (2019) Annual Survey of Industrial Production																	■								■		
Food Producers Income & Productivity Annual Average Number of People Affected by Flood 10,000 – 31,000 Under Present & Future Climate Conditions UNIDSR Tanzania Disaster Risk Profile 2018												■	■		■		■									■	

	Arusha	Dar es Salaam	Dodoma	Geita	Iringa	Kagera	Katavi	Kigoma	Kilimanjaro	Lindi	Manyara	Mara	Mbeya	Morogoro	Mtwara	Mwanza	Njombe	Pwani	Rukwa	Ruvuma	Shinyanga	Simiyu	Singida	Songwe	Tabora	Tanga	Zanzibar
Food Producers Income & Productivity Annual Average Number of People Affected by Drought 500,000 – 1.7 million Under Present & Future Climate Conditions UNIDSR Tanzania Disaster Risk Profile 2018																											

Figure XXXIV: Accelerators in the Regions

Conclusions

In this final Part of the CCA, 10 possible accelerators for Tanzania have been highlighted. These reflect key bottlenecks/challenges (identified in the main text) to the achievement of the 2030 Agenda plus national objectives as defined in the vision and planning documents, through the lens of leaving no-one behind. At the impact level, the analysis suggests that achievement of these long-term goals in Tanzania requires growth to be both more inclusive and sustainable whilst reducing (if not eliminating) multi-dimensional poverty.



Three key components are deemed critical to progress this higher level result. The first requires all those living in Tanzania, including the most vulnerable and marginalised, to be able to engage in and benefit from good health, education, skills, nutrition and protection. This means addressing concerns such as the high rates of adolescent births, maternal mortality and malnutrition. It also means improving take-up of quality secondary education, eliminating key communicable diseases and responding to the needs of the increasing proportion of the (poor) population living in urban and peri-urban centres. With enhanced basic and enhanced capabilities, those living in Tanzania can improve social and economic outcomes for themselves, their children and the nation as a whole.

Equally, inclusive, sustainable development and reduced multi-dimensional poverty relies upon the pursuit of a greener

development path as well as improved resilience to natural disasters or climate change impacts. Access to clean energy has been highlighted as one area which, if secured, could significantly ameliorate the destruction of the natural environment in Tanzania (deforestation, land degradation and pollution) whilst fuelling economic transformation and growth. The population will also need support to adopt new practices and technology better suited to the changing climate plus safeguarding from the (related) increased number and severity of natural and man-made disasters.

Given a significant majority of income-generating opportunities for those living in Tanzania (particularly the poor, women and youth) are currently within the agricultural sector and through the establishment of MSMEs, these areas need particular assistance to ensure they provide decent employment opportunities for all. This would feed into better socio-economic outcomes at the individual level as well as for the next generation whilst supporting real economic transformation and growth for the country as a whole.

Finally for the full achievement of these three mutually dependent and reinforcing components, it is assumed that a strong enabling environment will be required. This encompasses: institutions fit for purpose; opportunities for participation; robust data; peaceful co-existence; compliance with human rights norms and standards; the elimination of VAWC and other harmful social norms and practices; strong partnerships and financing for development.

As stated at the opening of Part III, the particular role that the UN decides to play (if any) in advancing the accelerators and for whom under the UNSDCF 2022-2027 will partially depend upon our comparative advantage and the availability of robust, disaggregated data. Importantly, such strategic prioritisation will also rely upon further consultation with our partners and stakeholders, in particular on how best to align our Framework to ensure full cooperation and support for agreed national priorities.

Annex I: Making of the Modern State

Three years after independence in 1961, the United Republic of Tanzania (URT) was created through the union the Republic of Tanganyika and the People's Republic of Zanzibar.⁵⁸⁸ The Interim Constitution named the Tanzania African Union (TANU) as the party of the mainland and the Afro-Shirazi Party (ASP) as the party for Zanzibar. President Nyerere argued that if a single party was identified with the nation as a whole, efforts could focus on cooperation to achieve common goals rather than jockeying for political advantage.⁵⁸⁹ In 1977, TANU and ASP merged to form Chama Cha Mapinduzi (CCM). Under the new Constitution created the same year, CCM was officially declared the sole political party in Tanzania. All activities of state were to be conducted under the auspices of the party.

Tanganyika African National Union (TANU) created under Julius Nyerere	1955
Tanganyika gains independence, Nyerere becomes first Prime Minister	1961
Tanganyika becomes a republic, Nyerere becomes first President (only other party-African National Congress-receives less than 2 percent of vote)	1962
Presidential Commission established in Tanganyika to explore one-party rule, with citizen participation	1963
Zanzibar gains independence	
Zanzibar Revolution	1964
Abeid Karume becomes President of People's Republic of Zanzibar & Pemba	
Tanzania created from Union of Tanganyika and Zanzibar	
Julius Nyerere named President of Tanzania	
Abeid Karume named Vice President	
Attempted Coup by Tanganyikan armed forces suppressed	
New force created under civilian control, with TANU membership prerequisite	
A citizens' militia established under the command of TANU	
Interim Constitution of Tanzania establishes one-party system	1965
Arusha Declaration, introducing the policy of Ujamaa or African Socialism	1967
Vice President Abeid Karume assassinated	1972
TANU and the Afro-Shirazi Party merge to form Chama cha Mapinduzi (CCM)	1977
New Constitution affirms CCM as the sole political party in Tanzania	
President Ali Hassan Mwinyi succeeds President Julius Nyerere – Second Phase Administration	1985
Structural Adjustment begins: first Standby Agreement signed with IMF	
Zanzibar Declaration, reversing 1967 leadership code that restricted leaders' involvement in business	1991
Multi-party politics introduced	1993
President Benjamin Mkapa succeeds Ali Hassan Mwinyi – Third Phase Administration	1995
President Jakaya Kikwete succeeds Benjamin Mkapa	2005

Under the presidency of Julius Nyerere, the one-party system engendered a significant concentration of power. The policy role of the single parliamentary chamber (henceforth referred to as the National Assembly or Bunge) ceded to TANU's National Executive Committee, with the former's responsibilities limited to discussion of how to implement the Committee's decisions. TANU assumed de facto authority from the judiciary as many claimants looked to the party to resolve disputes. Trade Unions were abolished in favour of a TANU-controlled single union. At the sub-national level, LGAs were

established with responsibility for social services but budgetary decision-making remained with respective ministries of central government. A parallel structure of centrally appointed Regional and District Commissioners, drawn primarily from the party, assumed oversight responsibilities (these positions remain to this day). Political activities outside of the established procedures of TANU were deterred by the passing of the Preventive Detention Act in 1962.⁵⁹¹ This gave the President powers to indefinitely detain any person deemed dangerous to law and order, with no procedure available to challenge the detention.⁵⁹² Over a decade later, the 1976 Newspapers Act gave the President the authority to halt publication of newspapers also in the interest of peace and good order. The Act remained in use until 2016 when it was replaced with the Media Services Act (see below).

In terms of the economy in post-independence Tanganyika and Tanzania, the initial focus was towards capital-intensive industrialisation and agricultural development based upon foreign investment.⁵⁹³ As it became clear that this policy was not stimulating the much-needed rural development and was increasing the country's reliance upon Western powers, President Nyerere introduced the policy of African Socialism or Ujamaa under the 1967 Arusha Declaration. Ujamaa was designed to increase economic independence and social equity. The government nationalised all major means of production, banking services and large industrial enterprises (including agro-processing) whilst parastatals were established. A step which Eriksen asserts fostered over-bureaucratisation and created opportunities for corruption

which persist today.⁵⁹⁴ South-to-South trading relationships were pursued and national self-reliance emphasised as a means to unify the 100+ ethnic groups on the mainland.

A central pillar of Ujamaa was the villagisation of the rural population to improve agricultural productivity and facilitate access to social services. In place of scattered homesteads, land would be cultivated by cooperative groups and homes located around a common service centre. In the face of resistance, forced resettlements became commonplace and in 1973 President Nyerere made it compulsory to live in villages for three years.⁵⁹⁵ Estimates of the numbers moved to the ujamaa villages up to 1977 range from 5 to 13 million.⁵⁹⁶

The relocation of large swathes of the rural population had a number of negative impacts upon the local ecology and agricultural production. As distances to land and water sources increased (for some), former practices of shifting cultivation and polycropping to allow for natural regeneration were halted and the belt around the villages became over-farmed, leading to soil exhaustion.⁵⁹⁷ Some farmers were moved to areas with different eco-systems, and therefore their traditional practices (including choice of crops) were inappropriate.⁵⁹⁸ The relocation of pastoralists also resulted in a concentration of livestock around the villages, in some cases leading to the return of the tsetse fly and over-grazing. The State's agricultural input system was inefficient and sometimes harmful for production,⁵⁹⁹ with delays in delivery and poor storage facilities also affecting inputs' efficacy.⁶⁰⁰ Kikula asserts that villagisation accelerated land degradation, deforestation and changes to land use. Set against a backdrop of state regulatory measures and a significant downturn in global prices, villagisation therefore proved disastrous for the agricultural sector and the wider economy.⁶⁰¹ Amongst those that were uprooted—despite the bridge to amenities created through the settlements—many decided to continue moving towards urban centres. During the period, the country experienced one of the highest rates of urbanisation in the world.⁶⁰²

Notwithstanding these challenges, Nyerere's policies brought about significant social welfare advances in the short-to-medium-term. Between 1970 and 1981, primary education gross enrolment rates rose from 34 to almost 98 percent. By the early 1980s, even against a backdrop of economic challenges, Tanzania had one of the highest literacy rates in Africa,⁶⁰³ every village had at least one primary school, 90 percent of villages had access to a village cooperative store and 60 percent had relatively easy access to a safe water supply, a health centre or dispensary.⁶⁰⁴ The country also attained industrial development levels between 1967-1985, that have not been paralleled since. The country prioritized investment in labour-intensive industries to substitute imports, added value to agricultural products, manufactured tools as well as intermediate inputs/materials.⁶⁰⁵ The contribution of manufacturing to GDP increased to 10 percent in 1980, with the number of industrial firms increased to meet 70 percent of domestic demand for consumer goods alongside an increase in absolute and relative labour productivity.⁶⁰⁶

Furthermore, the focus on national self-reliance, engendered a degree of social cohesion unparalleled in many sub-Saharan African countries even today. Tanzania's continued peace and stability, relative to its neighbours, can in-part be explained by the policies of President Nyerere's government, such as the cross-posting of teachers and students from different ethnic and religious backgrounds and the consolidation of Kiswahili as the single, common language for all Tanzanians.

By the 1980s, however, the Tanzanian economy was in free fall with negative GDP growth, a significant and increasing trade deficit and an acute imbalance in payments risking the social development gains made.⁶⁰⁷ The situation necessitated recovery programmes, starting with the National Economic Survival Programme (NESP) in 1981-82 followed by the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) implemented in 1982-83. However, none of these programmes were successful in reviving the economy.⁶⁰⁸ The reform side of the party gained ground, with the election of Ali Hassan Mwinyi as president in 1985. The first Standby Agreement with the IMF was signed in 1986, followed by an opening up of agricultural markets, liberalization of foreign exchange, and reduction in consumer and social service subsidies. Privatisation began, many parastatals were closed and private capital entered the agricultural and industrial sectors as well as political sphere. Global trade liberalisation coupled with relatively slow pace of growth in the manufacturing sector resulted in a significant loss of local industries as they struggled to compete against low cost imports. Moreover, whilst confidence was restored among foreign investors and major institutions such as the IMF and the World Bank, by 1990 foreign aid to Tanzania accounted for 29.3 percent of the country's GDP.⁶⁰⁹ The effectiveness of the initiatives, including the severe impact upon social development, therefore remains a subject of debate in present-day Tanzania.

Following the fall of the Berlin Wall and the end of one-party rule in Eastern Europe, pressure mounted for the introduction of multi-party politics across Africa. A surge of concessions by African governments, increasing demands by Western donors to move towards political pluralism, fears that the newly liberalised East would become a key

competitor for Western trade and investment all contributed to a new imperative which defined democratic reform as a prerequisite for economic development.⁶¹⁰ In February 1991, President Mwinyi consequently appointed a Commission to explore the potential for pluralism in Tanzania. Their final recommendations were accepted, including the reintroduction of multiparty politics (despite 80 percent of respondents surveyed requesting a retention of the one-party system), the repeal of some 40 laws termed as 'oppressive' and the separation of the Constitution from the manifesto of a political party.⁶¹¹ The first full multi-party elections were held in 1995.⁶¹² Since that time, multi-party elections have been held every five years. All have been won by CCM. The constitutional provision that 'no person shall be elected more than twice to hold the office of President' has been respected,⁶¹³ with presidential succession every 10 years albeit within one political party.

Annex II: Partners Consulted

Government Partners

Commission for Human Rights and Good Governance (CHRAGG)
Disaster Management Council (Zanzibar)
Institute of Adult Education
Institute of Judicial Administration
Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Fisheries
Ministry of Agriculture, Natural Resources, Livestock and Fisheries (Zanzibar)
Ministry of Constitutional and Legal Affairs
Ministry of Education, Science and Technology
Ministry of Finance and Planning
Ministry of Health, Community Development, Gender, Elderly and Children
Ministry of Health, Social Welfare, the Elderly, Gender and Children (Zanzibar)
Ministry of Lands, Housing and Human Settlements
Ministry of Science and Technology (Commission of Information and Technology)
Ministry of Trade and Industrial Development
National AIDS Control Programme (MOHCDGEC)
National Food Reserve Agency (NFRA)
Office of Chief Government Statistician (Zanzibar)
Planning Commission Zanzibar, Department of Agriculture
Planning Commission Zanzibar, Department of Research
President's Office - Finance and Planning (Zanzibar)
President's Office – Regional Authority and Local Government
President's Office, Communications Dept (Zanzibar)
President's Office, Constitution Public Services and Good Governance
President's Office, Constitution, Legal Affairs, Public Service and Good Governance (Zanzibar)
Prime Minister's Office, Labour, Employment Youth and Persons with Disability
Second Vice President Office, Planning Commission (Zanzibar)
Small & Medium Industrial Development Agency
TACAIDS
Tanzania Social Action Fund
Udzungwa National Reserve
Zanzibar Environmental Management Authority
Zanzibar Technology and Business Incubator

Development Partners

[Belgium](#)
Canada
Embassy of Denmark
Embassy of Finland
Embassy of Sweden
EU Delegation
Global Affairs Canada
Irish Aid
Norway
Sweden
Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (Embassy of Switzerland)
UK Foreign Commonwealth and Development Office
USAID

Civil Society, Media & Academia

All About Albinism Campaign, Zanzibar
AMREF
Association of NGOS Zanzibar
Benjamin Mkapa Foundation (BMF)
Bright Jamii Initiative
CENTA
Children's Dignity Forum (CDF)

CLOUDS FM
 C-SEMA
 C-SEMA Zanzibar
 Engender-Health
 Faida Mali
 FEMINA HIP
 FUWAVITA
 Hakirasilimali
 HelpAge
 Imed Foundation
 Institute of Social Work
 International Rescue Committee
 Institute of Social Work
 JAKAYA MRISHO KIKWETE FOUNDATION
 Jumuiya ya Wanawake Wenye Ulemavu Zanzibar (JUWAUZA)
 Karibu Tanzania Organization
 Kiota Womens Health and Development (KIWOHEDE)
 Key & Vulnerable People (KVP) Forum
 Legal and Human Rights Centre
 Msichana Initiative
 NACOPHA
 National Institute for Medical Research
 Open University of Tanzania,
 PACT TANZANIA
 Peace Life For Person With Disability Foundation Tanzania,
 Pemba Press Club
 PharmAccess
 Plan International
 Prosperous Health Life Initiative (PHLI)
 REPSSI Tanzania
 Restless Development
 Rose Manumba Trust
 SESEMA
 SHIJUWAZA
 Shirikisho la Vyama vya Watu Wenye Ulemavu Tanzania (SHIVYAWATA)
 SUZA
 TADIO
 TANLAP
 TANLOVE
 Tanzania Gender Networking Programme
 Tanzania Media Women's Association
 Tanzania Media Women Association Zanzibar
 Tanzania Midwives Association
 Tanzania Red Cross Society
 TEN/MET
 THPS
 Umoja wa Walemavu Zanzibar
 University of Dar es Salaam
 WAHAMAZA
 WILDAF
 Women Community Led Initiative.
 Zanzibar Agricultural Research Institute
 Zanzibar Female Lawyers Association
 Zanzibar Law Society
 Zanzibar Legal Services Centre
 Zanzibar Nursing Association
 ZAYEDESZA

(+Youth of the United Nations Tanzania)

Private Sector

Association of Tanzania Employers
Confederation of Tanzania Industries
CSI Energy Group
Deloitte Tanzania
Financial Sector Deepening Trust
Global Compact Network Tanzania
GTBank
Smart Codes Limited
Southern Africa Growth Corridor of Tanzania
Tanzania Association of Professional BDS Providers
Tanzania Horticulture Association
Tanzania Private sector Foundation
Vodacom
Women in Management Africa
Zanzibar National Chamber of Commerce
(+UN Global Compact)

Annex III: Multidimensional Risks, Risk Factors & Assessment of Likely Impact⁶¹⁴

RISK FACTORS, RELEVANT SDGS & AFFECTED GROUPS	ASSESSMENT / ANALYSIS	IMPACT	LIKELIHOOD
POLITICAL STABILITY SDGS 16/17	Tanzania is a largely stable, peaceful, parliamentary democracy which has held multi-party elections every five years since 1995. All have been won by the current ruling party CCM.	High	Low
POLITICAL OPPOSITION; HUMAN RIGHTS ACTIVISTS; MEDIA	<p>Opposition parties made a series of complaints in the lead up to and following the 2015 and 2020 general elections as well as the 2019 local elections for the mainland, citing issues such as the failure to accredit opposition electoral observers and the restrictions placed upon the opposition leader to campaign. Whilst the AU, EAC and SADC each declared the 2020 elections credible and congratulated the President on his win, concerns were also raised by the broader international community regarding alleged human rights violations.</p> <p>Despite unrest around election periods in recent years, the results for both the URT and Zanzibar have held. Moreover, in 2021 there was a peaceful succession by Vice President Samia Suluhu Hassan following President Magufuli's sudden death in March 2021. No significant risks to political stability are therefore on the horizon.</p> <p>Under the UN medium variant, youth aged 15-34 years could be as much as 62 million by 2065. This could have a significant destabilising effect on the country suggesting urgent action is needed to both reduce high fertility rates and ensure opportunities for youth. A large youth bulge relative to total adult population is associated with increased risk of conflict and high rates of criminal violence. This is especially true when young people lack opportunities in terms of education, training and employment.</p>	High	Medium
DEMOCRATIC SPACE/ CIVIL SOCIETY VOICE & PARTICIPATION SDGS 16/17 POLITICAL OPPOSITION; HUMAN RIGHTS ACTIVISTS; MEDIA; NGOs; CSOs; ACADEMIA	<p>The governing party has significant control of senior appointments related to government, the military, police, judiciary and electoral bodies. For example, regional and district commissioners, city council directors, the Chief Justice of Tanzania, Judges to the Court of Appeal and the High Court plus the Chair of the National Electoral Commission are appointed by the President. Meanwhile, directors of town, municipal and district councils are appointed by the Minister for Regional Administration and Local Government (PO-RALG), within the President's Office and all local government elections below council level are managed by district officials who are headed by Directors also appointed by the President.</p> <p>In recent years, there have been a number of legislative and regulatory changes—for example the Cybercrimes Act 2015, the Statistics Act 2015, the Media Services Act 2016, Electronic and Postal Communications (Online Content) Regulations 2018, the Non-Governmental Organizations (Financial Transparency and Accountability) Regulations, G.N. 609 of 2018—which have adversely impacted upon civil and political rights, in particular freedom of assembly, association and expression. Notwithstanding, early signs from the new President suggest there is appetite for reversing this trend and opening up the civic and democratic space in-country.</p>	High	Medium
SOCIAL COHESION, GENDER EQUALITY & NON-DISCRIMINATION SDGs 1/3/5/8/10/17 WOMEN; GIRLS; PWDs; KEY & VULNERABLE POPULATIONS	<p>President Nyerere under the policy of Ujamaa (1967-1985) engendered a high degree of social cohesion across the 100+ ethnic groups in Tanzania, through initiatives such as cross-posting of teachers and students from different ethnic and religious backgrounds and consolidation of Kiswahili as the single, common language for all Tanzanians. Currently no significant ethnic or religious tensions are evident.</p> <p>Challenges in terms of GEWE persist and appear to be increasing across all spheres. On the 2019 Gender Inequality Index, Tanzania is ranked 140 of 162 countries, representing a drop of 10 places from 2018. Tanzania falls short of 50/50 representation: 37% in the National Assembly (NA) and 39% of the Zanzibar House of Representatives (ZHOR) are female, but of</p>	High	Medium

RISK FACTORS, RELEVANT SDGS & AFFECTED GROUPS	ASSESSMENT / ANALYSIS	IMPACT	LIKELIHOOD
	<p>these only 7.8 and 16% respectively are from constituencies.</p> <p>More female-headed households are in poverty than male-headed households (20.3% compared to 14%). Women are consistently worse off than their male counterparts across the three key labour indicators of labour force participation, employment and unemployment. The average wage for females is 67% of males. The share of females in senior and middle management occupations is only 17.4%. When women own businesses, they make 2.4 times less profit than men. 73% of landholders across the regions of Mainland Tanzania are men. Women own land at a later stage of their productive life compared to men. 17.1% of women held an account at a financial institution in 2014 versus 21.1% of men. At the household level, women are performing more work than men, performing 54% of household activities compared to men at 46% of activities, the bulk of which is invisible to the formal economy.</p> <p>40% of women aged 15-49 years have ever experienced physical violence, and 17% have ever experienced sexual violence according to DHS 2015/16. Marital rape is not recognized in Tanzanian law. Violence is also high amongst children, with 27.9 per cent of females and 13.4 per cent of males aged 13-24 having experienced sexual violence prior to the age of 18. In some regions rates of FGM is high. Nationally, 1 in 10 women and girls aged 15-49 years have been cut.</p> <p>Three in four girls fail to complete their secondary education, largely attributed to high rates of early childbearing in Tanzania. The number of women aged 20–24 married before their 18th birthday remained at 30.5 per cent (18 per cent in Zanzibar) in 2015. 26.7 per cent of girls aged 15–19 had given birth or were pregnant with their first child.</p> <p>High and stagnant levels of maternal mortality and morbidity and other poor sexual and reproductive health outcomes persist. The latest estimate of Maternal Mortality Ratio (TDHS 2015) of 556 per 1,0000 births is higher than the ratios reported in 2010. Each year, almost 8,500 Tanzanian women die due to complications in pregnancy and childbirth.</p> <p>HIV prevalence amongst adults is 6.5% among females and 3.5% among males. AGYW are particularly at risk of HIV. Among the lower 10-19 age group, there are more females (54,000) than males (39,000) who are HIV positive, acquire new infections at nearly twice the rate (24,000 versus 16,500), are less knowledgeable on HIV (40.1% versus 46.7%) and used condoms less often during high-risk sex situations than their male counterparts (29.9% females versus 33.5% males).</p> <p>Widespread stigma remain a key hindrance to service uptake for PLHIV and key populations - disproportionately affected with much higher HIV prevalence rates (15% female sex workers, 8.3% men who have sex with men and 8.7% people who inject drugs) - resulting in many avoiding HIV testing, and those who are aware of their status finding it difficult to use antiretroviral drugs in the presence of others. Among adults 15 years and older who ever heard of HIV, 25.6 percent reported discriminatory attitudes towards PLHIV. These are higher among persons aged 50 years and older, those who live in rural areas, those who have a lower level of educational attainment and are in the lower wealth quintiles. PLHIV also report being verbally insulted, exclusion from social, family as well as religious activities with Dar es Salaam indicating higher levels (49.7%) as compared to (39.4 %) in other regions.</p> <p>The Tanzania constitution upholds basic human rights laws that should protect access to services for marginalized groups including KVPs however, there are still several national laws which criminalize acts or matters of individuals in risk groups mostly affected by HIV. This has resulted in numerous crackdowns on the KPs and LGBTIQ+ communities adversely impacting</p>		

RISK FACTORS, RELEVANT SDGS & AFFECTED GROUPS	ASSESSMENT / ANALYSIS	IMPACT	LIKELIHOOD
	<p>their access to health services.</p> <p>The abilities and rights of PWDs, including those with albinism, are currently not well understood or fully protected in Tanzania. Several studies have found that PWDs constitute one of the most marginalised groups in the country. Women and girls with disabilities, persons with albinism, and children with autism are especially vulnerable to violence and specifically at high risk of sexual violence or being threatened, mistreated or abandoned. They are more exposed to child or forced marriage and unwanted pregnancy, whilst not empowered with the information or social, financial and physical support to report and seek access to health and social protection services. The 2016 Out of School Study confirmed 2012 census data showing PWDs are less likely to have attended school and therefore more likely to be illiterate. Fewer girls than boys with disabilities attend secondary education. Barriers faced by many school children in particular girls, such as distance to school, risk of sexual abuse and child marriage are further compounded for those with disabilities by poor attitudes and discrimination by teachers, peers and parents plus an inaccessible school environment (including WASH facilities). Currently, education of children with disabilities is provided through special schools, special units and inclusive educational settings. However, to date, the support extended has not been universally applied, largely due to lack of awareness around and implementation of national guidelines, limited human resources plus budget constraints.</p> <p>People with albinism are one of the most vulnerable groups among PWDs and face risks unique to them, often living in fear of violent attacks, sometimes resulting in death and/or amputation of limbs for witchcraft ceremonies. The majority of victims are children. The socio-economic situation of persons with albinism remains highly challenging, impacting directly on their access to medical services. Discrimination in housing also occurs, as property owners fear attacks. Some children with albinism have been placed in boarding schools and shelters for children with special needs. The CRC during the 2016 UPR encouraged the URT to review the policy and take all measures necessary to reunite the children with their families, when in the best interests of the child.</p>		
REGIONAL AND GLOBAL INFLUENCES SDGS 16/17	<p>There is a dispute over the boundary in Lake Nyasa (Lake Malawi) and the meandering Songwe River. Malawi contends that the entire lake up to the Tanzanian shoreline is its territory, whilst Tanzania claims the border is in the centre of the lake. There are no immediate threats or risks emanating from this dispute.</p>	Medium	Medium
YOUTH; REFUGEES; MIGRANTS	<p>Some threats from terrorist groups remain. Tanzanian extremists with battlefield experience in Somalia have returned to Tanzania and started cooperating with domestic militant groups, as appears to be the case today in Kenya. There has been no indication that the localized armed conflicts in Burundi and the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) are spilling over into Tanzania, other than causing additional influx of refugees</p> <p>Arguably, of most concern is the conflict in the Cabo Delgado region of Mozambique which borders the Mtwara region of Tanzania. To date it has affected approximately 3.5 million people. The risk of spillover is increasing and endangering neighbouring countries. The armed group, known locally as Al Shabaab, but generally referred to as Ahlu Sunnah Wal Jammah (ASWJ) are comprised mostly of young ethnic Mwani, but also have non-Mozambican members including Tanzanians. Both human rights abuses and violations have been reported. The violations risk antagonizing local communities, increasing mistrust for authorities and fuelling recruitment into the NSAGs. A human rights-compliant security response is needed to prevent further violence. On the Tanzanian side of the border, several incidents have also been recorded but it is largely acknowledged that Tanzania has served more as an origin, transit, and connecting point to some of the radicalized youth who operate in neighbouring countries.</p>		

RISK FACTORS, RELEVANT SDGS & AFFECTED GROUPS	ASSESSMENT / ANALYSIS	IMPACT	LIKELIHOOD
	Cross-border efforts to address the violence have generally been limited to security operations. To date, the only interventions directly undertaken in Mtwara region are Community Policing on PVE and stakeholder engagement for the development of the PVE Strategy. The situation requires constant monitoring.		
INTERNAL SECURITY SDGs 16/17 YOUTH; MIGRANTS	There are generally low to medium risks of terrorism and crime in the country according to the annual risk assessment carried out by UN Department of Safety and Security, which covers the period 1 Mar 2020 - 28 Feb 2021. Risks of general unrest / breakdown of law and order remain high. Threat groups and actors in Tanzania include Islamic State, Ansar Muslim Youth Centre, Al Hijra and the Community of Muslim Organizations. The 2020 Global Terrorism Index ranks Tanzania at 60 / 163 countries with a score of 3.27 (low impact of terrorism). ⁶¹⁵	Low	Low
JUSTICE & RULE OF LAW SDGs 10/16/17 RIGHTS-HOLDERS; HUMAN RIGHTS ACTIVITSTS;	<p>The Government has made improvements in terms of criminal justice, such as the creation of the National Prosecution Service separate from investigations and enacted the Legal Aid Act (No.1 of 2017) that provides for improved coordination, provision of legal aid and registration of paralegals enabling legal protection for its most vulnerable citizens. There have also been positive developments for both children in contact and in conflict with the law, including the endorsement of the Second Five Year Strategy for Progressive Child Justice Reform 2020/21 - 2024/25.</p> <p>Notwithstanding, a number of barriers to justice persist, impacting on trust in the judicial system. These include institutional-level resource and capacity gaps, discriminatory attitudes among personnel, ineffective data collection and management, poor application of international human rights standards in the law. Additional socio-economic obstacles impede access to justice, such as low levels of educational attainment, proximity to legal services and court buildings, discriminatory traditions, beliefs and customs. Further the accommodation of customary law, has led to the perpetuation or reinforcement of discriminatory social norms in Tanzania, especially in cases related to rights to inheritance, property and maintenance as well as violence against women and children. Some progress is being made with a review of relevant customary and statutory laws by the Ministry of Constitutional and Legal Affairs to ensure alignment with international and regional standards and practice. Meanwhile, in Zanzibar, the Kadhi Court Rules were amended in 2019 to incorporate children’s issues and eliminate child marriage.</p> <p>Concerns exist with regard to prolonged pre-trial detentions and respect for human rights at the point of arrest. A key gap relates to the constitutional guarantee of basic human rights: only those that are listed in the existing Bill of Rights are enforceable. The 2016 UPR recommended that Tanzania should, ‘take necessary measures to improve the functioning of justice system as a whole, especially regarding access to justice and right to fair trial’.</p> <p>Since 2015, under the Ibrahim Index of African Governance, Tanzania has slipped by 8.9 points under the category of the Rule of Law and Justice and by 5.8 points under Accountability and Transparency. The decline under the latter is mirrored in Tanzania’s ranking in the Open Budget Survey (OBS). Tanzania is currently listed as among those countries which provide insufficient or no information about the budget.</p> <p>Despite these challenges, according to the 2019 IAG, there have been significant improvements in measures to tackle corruption. These have been mainly driven by increases in indicators such as: absence of diversion of public funds; absence of public sector bribery; absence of bribery or corrupt exchanges in the public sector; absence of corruption in the private sector. Although, Freedom House raises concerns that efforts to tackle corruption have</p>	High	High

RISK FACTORS, RELEVANT SDGS & AFFECTED GROUPS	ASSESSMENT / ANALYSIS	IMPACT	LIKELIHOOD
	focused primarily on low-level corruption and not upon graft committed by senior officials.		
<p>ECONOMIC STABILITY</p> <p>SDGs 1/2/5/8/9/10/17</p> <p>RURAL POOR; PERI-URBAN AND URBAN POOR; REMOTE COMMUNITIES; SMALL FOOD PRODUCERS; PASTORALISTS; WOMEN; YOUTH; PWDS</p>	<p>Tanzania's economy ranked as the 7th largest in Sub-Saharan Africa and 76th globally according to real GDP (USD 55.482 billion) in 2019. Since the turn of the century, the annual GDP growth rate has averaged 6.5 percent, with an annual per capita GDP growth rate of 3.6 percent. The World Bank estimates that Tanzania is to remain one of the top three growth performers in East Africa, with an average GDP growth of 5.5 percent between 2015-2020. This is despite a reduction in estimated real GDP growth rate against negative per capita growth for the first time since 1994, largely due to the global economic downturn caused by the COVID-19 pandemic.</p> <p>Between 2002-2018, Tanzania's growth volatility reduced significantly with a standard deviation of 1.2, amongst the lowest in the region. In the last seven years, inflation has also been brought under control after a period of significant volatility. The Tanzanian shilling remains steady. Inflation has gradually dropped, averaging 4.4 percent since 2015.</p> <p>Reflecting sizeable income growth in recent years, the World Bank announced the upgrading of the Tanzanian economy from low to lower-middle income status on 1 July 2020; a central objective of the country's Vision 2025 and Zanzibar's Vision 2020. Notwithstanding—under the conditions prescribed by the Committee for Development Policy (CDP) mandated by the UN General Assembly and the Economic and Social Council to review the list of Least Developed Countries (LDC) every three years—Tanzania is some years from graduation of the category. This is primarily due to a higher threshold for GNI per capita, but also related to a current shortfall in the Human Assets Index plus the Environmental and Economic Vulnerability Indicators which form part of the assessment of LDC status.</p> <p>In 2018, the poverty rate on the mainland—pegged at a monthly income of TZS 49,320—was 26.4 percent of the population or 13.9 million Tanzanians. When using the international poverty threshold of living on less than USD 1.90 per day, this figure rises to 49 percent of the population or 26 million Tanzanians. This represents the fourth-largest poor population in sub-Saharan Africa. Those considered extremely poor by national standards, namely surviving on less than a monthly income of TZS 33,748 (to meet minimum nutritional requirements) accounted for 8 percent of the population or 4.25 million on the mainland. In Zanzibar—according to their more recent HBS 2019/20—the poverty rate is assessed at 25.7 percent and the extreme poverty rate at 9.5 percent.</p> <p>Those living in rural areas, women, children aged 0-18 years, youth and PWDs are most likely to fall within the lowest wealth quintile and therefore need particular support to ensure they are not left behind. Meanwhile, efforts to support the urban poor will have to be stepped up going forward, given the high rates of urbanisation and increasing number of unplanned settlements (and concomitant challenges in accessing decent employment and services) in the country.</p>	High	Medium
<p>INFRASTRUCTURE AND ACCESS TO SOCIAL SERVICES</p> <p>SDGs 6/7/9/11/17</p>	<p>The government (in collaboration with the private sector and development partners) has made sizeable investments in the road and rail infrastructure, seaport and air transport services. These investments will continue under FYDP III, as part of a broader effort to leverage the country's geographical advantage as a bridge economy linking the markets of the EAC and</p>	Medium	Medium

RISK FACTORS, RELEVANT SDGS & AFFECTED GROUPS	ASSESSMENT / ANALYSIS	IMPACT	LIKELIHOOD
RURAL & URBAN POOR; REMOTE COMMUNITIES	<p>SADC. Likewise, Zanzibar has committed to allocate resources to improve infrastructure, including for improved capacity and efficiency of both sea and air freight. Whilst principal urban centres are linked by tarmac roads, most secondary roads are still gravel and badly affected during periods of heavy rain.</p> <p>Access to energy as a percentage of the population and quality as a percentage of output has improved over recent years. Almost 100 percent of the total urban population has access to electricity in 2019/20. Meanwhile just under 70 percent of those living in rural areas have access (up from 49.3 percent in 2016). The overall Electricity Access Rate has thereby increased from 67.8 percent to 78.4 percent. Notwithstanding, the World Bank maintains that only 7 percent of poor households are connected to the national grid and 23 percent have some access to solar power.</p> <p>Latest figures suggest 68 percent of the population are using at least a basic water service, with 18 percent using unimproved water and 14 percent relying on surface water. The FYDP III (finalised in 2021) asserts that the proportion of the population with access to piped or protected water source reached 80 percent in urban areas. Strong regional variations persists in terms of improved drinking water. Moreover, there is no national water quality data due to poor surveillance. Most rural water supply systems do not have water treatment facilities such as simple chlorination. Water supplies in rural areas also face challenges of sustainability, stemming from high operating and maintenance costs as a result of running diesel-powered pumps. High rates of urbanization have intensified pressure on water supplies with a greater reliance on ground water withdrawals. This is against a backdrop of an increase in extreme weather events, including severe and prolonged droughts and heavy precipitation.</p>		
DISPLACEMENT & MIGRATION SDGs 1/8/10/16/17 MIGRANTS; YOUTH & ADULTS AT RISK OF HUMAN TRAFFICKING; REFUGEES & ASYLUM SEEKERS	<p>Given it has eight bordering countries, some of which have experienced or are experiencing conflict, the URT has acted as a host or transit country for mixed migration flows since independence.</p> <p>As of 31 May 2021, Tanzania hosts a total of 257,226 refugees and asylum seekers. These are mainly from Burundi (177,787) and the Democratic Republic of Congo (79,002). Most refugees and asylum-seekers (84%) reside in three refugee camps in north-western Tanzania. A small population of refugees of mixed nationalities (183) are also hosted in urban centres, mainly Dar es Salaam. 55 per cent of the Persons of Concern in Tanzania are children. There is also a large population of Burundian refugees who fled into Tanzania in 1972. These reside in various villages and old settlements in the Kigoma region. Whereas approximately 162,000 individuals from this population benefited from naturalization, over 67,000 individuals are still in need of durable solutions.</p> <p>The political context in Tanzania continues to evolve with the protection environment becoming more complex and unpredictable, resulting in declining access to territory for asylum seekers. Since June 2018, all key border entry/reception points remain closed to new asylum seekers. The result has been a number of unregistered individuals finding their way into the refugee camps, but unable to access essential services or receive humanitarian assistance. The volatile situation in the Cabo Delgado region in Northern Mozambique remains of concern with reports of asylum seekers being denied access to the Tanzanian territory. UNHCR has recorded over 10,333 instances of refoulement of Mozambican asylum seekers who crossed into the Tanzanian territory since January 2021. Most of the arrivals from Mozambique were reportedly women and children in desperate need of protection and humanitarian assistance. Despite various requests by UNHCR and other UN agencies, access to the border with Mozambique has not been granted.</p>	High	Medium

RISK FACTORS, RELEVANT SDGS & AFFECTED GROUPS	ASSESSMENT / ANALYSIS	IMPACT	LIKELIHOOD
	<p>The strict encampment policy and emerging administrative directives on refugee matters have significantly reduced the protection space. They have also impacted on access to basic services as well as livelihoods and self-reliance opportunities, heightening the risk of exploitation and abuse including extortion, sexual violence, child labour, trafficking, and forced marriage, as many persons of concern adopt negative coping mechanisms.</p> <p>The URT is party to several international and regional instruments which provide for the rights of migrants, however many provisions have not been domesticated which is a prerequisite for enforceability under the Constitution. Furthermore, despite URT being a party to the ICESCR (1966), most socio-economic rights are not enforceable in Tanzania because they are not contained in the requisite Bill of Rights segment of the Constitution</p> <p>Meanwhile, the growing phenomenon of smuggled migrants and irregular migration from the Horn of Africa through Tanzania to South Africa is a major concern. The Government has taken some steps to promote migrants' rights, including through the endorsement of the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration (GCM) plus the piloting of a Comprehensive Migration Management Strategy (renewed in 2019) to address the status of long-term irregular migrants in Tanzania. Additional assistance will be required to realise the full range of fundamental human rights of migrant workers, their families, and associated communities of origin and destination both in law and on the ground in Tanzania.</p>		
PUBLIC HEALTH SDGs 3/17	<p>Immunization programme has maintained coverage at above 90 percent for more than 10 years on the mainland. In Zanzibar, after a decline in 2017, immunisation rates improved in 2018 although remaining lower than those of the mainland. Despite high coverage rates at national level, inequities persist. Immunisation coverage is lower in rural areas, in children of female caretakers with low socioeconomic status, amongst pastoralists and fishing communities.</p>	High	Medium
AGYW; PLHIV, KEY & VULNERABLE POPULATIONS; UNDER 5; ELDERLY	<p>The country has made significant strides in reducing the incidence of communicable diseases. The number of confirmed malaria cases declined by 20 percent from 7.7 million in 2015 to 6.7 million in 2019 on the mainland. However, such control interventions are not offered nationwide and as a consequence malaria remains the third cause of deaths among the under-fives (9 percent) and the second cause of deaths for the population aged 5 years and above (5 percent). There are also fears for a new outbreak, given the experience of neighbouring countries (namely Uganda and the Democratic Republic of Congo).</p> <p>Tanzania is on track to achieving the global target to End Tuberculosis (TB) 2025 milestones of a 50 percent reduction in the total number of TB deaths (currently at 35 percent) and a 20 percent reduction in TB incidence rate. The country has maintained a high treatment success rate for all forms of TB at over 90 percent since 2015 and benefitted considerably from an increase in ART coverage. However, the 50 percent increase of TB case detection rate is still behind requirements for the elimination of the disease. Laboratory capacities to diagnose drug sensitive and drug resistance TB are currently limited whilst implementation of TB interventions in remote areas and amongst children need further attention.</p> <p>For ten years now, the Government of Tanzania has been distributing medicines to eligible persons to prevent and cure Neglected Tropical Diseases (NTDs). Both the mainland and Zanzibar have reached 100 percent geographical coverage, enabling a reduction by 80 percent of 120 districts previously endemic for Lymphatic Filariasis and by 89 percent in 71 districts once endemic for trachoma.</p> <p>With the success of major disease control programmes, Tanzanians are living longer but often</p>		

RISK FACTORS, RELEVANT SDGS & AFFECTED GROUPS	ASSESSMENT / ANALYSIS	IMPACT	LIKELIHOOD
	<p>with multiple diseases and conditions that require complex care over many years. Nearly 50 percent of deaths in Tanzania are now due to Non-Communicable Diseases (NCD) for the population above 5 years.</p> <p>With 1.7 million people living with HIV in 2020 and 860,000 AIDS orphans (0-17 years) Tanzania is a regional and global high priority country in the AIDS response. The significant heterogeneity in HIV prevalence is indicative of differentials in transmission risks: area of residence; urban versus rural; gender; age groups. Key populations and AGYW are disproportionately affected across Tanzania. The estimated number of HIV infections declined by 29 percent between 2010 and 2020 (from 90,600 to 68,800) against the global target of 75 percent. Limited resources mean that the coverage of the youth population with HIV combination prevention programmes is still low and therefore unlikely to result in a significant decrease in new HIV infections. Currently, initiatives are reaching only 23 percent of priority districts with high HIV prevalence and burden.</p> <p>While Tanzania continues to implement recommended public health measures to respond to the COVID-19 pandemic, the emergence of new SARS-CoV-2 variants of concern has been observed. Tanzania remains at an increased risk of community transmission as well as the importation of new variants due to the international movements of people and goods across borders. The COVID-19 variants have been associated with a high transmission rate among the general population although the older age groups and people with chronic conditions including NCDs remain the high-risk groups. The response efforts over the past year have assisted in enhancing technical response capacities including among health workers and other responders. Likewise, awareness among the community has been improved. It is anticipated that the ongoing political commitment and government efforts to implement response and mitigation measures including COVID 19 vaccination in the country will facilitate the management and control of risk in country.</p>		
<p>FOOD SECURITY, FOOD SAFETY, AGRICULTURE & LAND</p> <p>SDGS: 2/5/7/8</p> <p>RURAL POOR; URBAN POOR; AGYW; UNDER 5s; CAMP-BASED REFUGEES</p>	<p>The agricultural sector accounts for 27.7 percent of GDP and 24.1 percent of export earnings. The steady growth rate of the agricultural sector over the past decade has been driven primarily by the cultivation of virgin land in lieu of increases in productivity with damaging effects on the environment (see below). Most production in Tanzania still occurs within smallholder farm units.</p> <p>75.5 percent of the poor in Tanzania are dependent on agriculture for their livelihoods. Approximately two fifths of such households assert that they do not have enough money for food; another two-fifths have money only for food and clothes. Food producers in Tanzania are the most likely to be food insecure.</p> <p>Despite the food self-sufficiency ratio exceeding 110 percent for more than 10 years, approximately 50-60 districts across more than 10 regions of Tanzania Mainland regularly report food shortages even in years of surplus at aggregate level. This is attributed to adverse climatic conditions (floods and drought/prolonged dry spells), cultivation of unsuitable crops for the respective agro-ecological zones and poor husbandry practices as well as pest outbreaks.</p> <p>National food production is projected to decrease by 8–13 percent by 2050 due to increased heat stress, drying and erosion. The prolonged length of dry seasons and increased severity of periodic droughts reduces water and available pasture for livestock. Drought is also expected to further shrink the rangelands which are important for livestock keeping communities in Tanzania.⁶¹⁶ This is likely to exacerbate conflicts between livestock keepers and farmers in many areas.⁶¹⁷</p>	Medium	Medium

RISK FACTORS, RELEVANT SDGS & AFFECTED GROUPS	ASSESSMENT / ANALYSIS	IMPACT	LIKELIHOOD
	<p>In Tanzania, one third of children are stunted, one third of women of reproductive age are affected by anaemia, and one third of women are overweight or obese. Food systems are inadequate to ensure local production and consumption, as they mainly focus on producing for sale. On average, Tanzanian households rely on markets for 60 percent of their energy needs. Even in rural households, nearly 40 percent of the calories consumed are purchased. Among households in the lower income quintiles, spending on food staples still consumes more than 30 percent of total household spending.</p> <p>For refugees, food consumption scores (FCS) dropped from 53 in 2019 to 44 in 2020 while households with Acceptable FCS (ie >35) decreased from 86 to 81 percent. Households with insufficient FCS (ie FCS between 0-21) increased from 14 to 19 percent during the same period. This is likely attributed to the various restrictions on livelihoods and opportunities for income generation and trade including closure of markets which has led to an almost full dependence on humanitarian food rations.</p>		
ENVIRONMENT AND CLIMATE SDGs 12/13/15/17	Over-grazing and destruction of water catchment areas combined with rapid population growth and unplanned urbanisation are contributing to significant land degradation, deforestation and loss of biodiversity across Tanzania.	High	High

<p>POPULATIONS LIVING IN DROUGHT AND FLOOD PRONE AREAS</p>	<p>Projections indicate that under a business as usual scenario the country may deplete its forest cover in the next 50-80 years. The forests are under pressure from multiple uses, primarily from the expansion in farmlands and reliance on wood fuel for cooking, accounting for almost 90 percent of energy needs. Examples of areas particularly affected include Dodoma, Shinyanga, Singida, parts of Kilimanjaro and Manyara regions. In Kigoma region, refugee presence has contributed to increased demand for wood fuel and related deforestation This has caused occasional tension with host communities and has led to calls from the Government to the international community to address the issue.</p> <p>Tanzania has lost approximately one-third of ecosystems in recent decades including 38 percent of Tanzania’s forest cover. The 2019 State of the Environment Report calculates that continued biodiversity loss, unsustainable utilization and associated degradation of a wide range of ecosystem services currently amounts to at least five percent of the national GDP and will increase steadily.</p> <p>A combination of rising sea levels, inland floods, geology, and rapid coastal population growth accompanied by a sizeable increase of human activities have contributed to a deterioration of the coastline. Pressure on wetlands has also increased in recent years. Approximately 75 percent of the total area of 42,000 ha covered by wetland around Lake Victoria had been affected by changes in land use, with around 13 percent severely degraded.</p> <p>Although clear data regarding water pollution is sparse, there is evidence to suggest that the water quality of most surface and groundwater sources has deteriorated in recent years, whilst annual deaths attributable to water pollution are estimated at around 8 percent. Rapid population growth, associated unplanned settlements and industrialisation have led to an increase in a wide range of pollutants. Although plastic pollution is not presently considered a significant problem, it also requires attention going forward.</p> <p>Around 10 percent of annual deaths in Tanzania are caused by air pollution. Sources include agricultural processing, the mining, cement, timber and oil industries, vehicle emissions and waste burning. Indoor air pollution accounts for 5.6 percent of air pollution attributable deaths, much of which is created by using charcoal for cooking. Given women mostly assume responsibility for such tasks they are much more likely to be affected.</p> <p>In the 2018 Notre Dame Global Adaptation Initiative (ND-GAIN) Country Index, Tanzania ranked 148 of 181 countries, representing a steady decline of 10 places since 1995. It was designated as the 33rd most vulnerable country and 43rd least ready. These scores denote urgent need for investment. Currently, more than 70 percent of all-natural disasters in Tanzania are climate change-related and linked to recurrent droughts and floods.</p> <p>In the last 40 years, Tanzania has experienced a significant number of severe and recurring droughts with devastating effects on ecosystems, agriculture, food security, water, energy and health sectors. Countrywide, on average 11.8 million people (21.7 percent of the total population of 2018) are annually exposed to droughts. Under projected climate conditions, this number is expected to increase up to 33 percent (on average 43.6 million people if population growth is accounted for). This translates into 5.6 billion USD loss per year. By 2050, this could substantially increase to 15 billion USD, or 230 billion USD with socio-economic costs included.</p> <p>Floods affect on average 150,000 people every year in Tanzania, with an estimated economic loss of 215 million USD per year. By 2050, the affected population is likely to double and the effect on GDP multiplied by 15 plus. The regions affected by floods are concentrated in the eastern part of the country, specifically Morogoro, Pwani and Tanga provinces. In the future, marked increases in the eastern and western ends of the country as well as around the Lake Victoria area are anticipated. Taking socio-economic costs into account, including housing, service, transport and agricultural sectors, the value of annual direct economic losses amounts to 44 million USD. In view of varying levels of floods year on year, the likelihood of a 70 million</p>		
--	--	--	--

RISK FACTORS, RELEVANT SDGS & AFFECTED GROUPS	ASSESSMENT / ANALYSIS	IMPACT	LIKELIHOOD
	USD direct economic losses from floods is projected to occur once every 5 years.		

Annex IV: Acronyms

AAAA	Addis-Ababa Action Agenda
ACGD	African Centre for Gender Development
AfDB	African Development Bank
AGYW	Adolescent Girls and Young Women
ART	Antiretroviral Therapy
ASP	Afro-Shirazi Party
ATE	Association of Tanzania Employers
AU	African Union
BDS	Business Development Skills
BEST	Basic Education Statistics in Tanzania
BoT	Bank of Tanzania
BRELA	Business Registrations and Licensing Agency
CCA	Common Country Analysis
CCM	Chama cha Mapinduzi
CCP	Comprehensive Council Plan
CDP	Committee for Development Policy
CEDAW	Convention for the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women
CERD	Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination
CESCR	Committee of Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
CFSVA	Comprehensive Food Security and Vulnerability Assessment
CHESA	Community Health Education and Advocacy Services
CHRAGG	Commission for Human Rights and Good Governance
CRC	Committee on the Rights of the Child
CSW	Commission on the Status of Women
CVRS	<i>Civil</i> Registration and Vital Statistics
DFA	Development Finance Assessment
DfID	Department for International Development
DHIS 2	District Health Information Software
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
DRR	Disaster Risk Reduction
EAC	East African Community
EAMs	Eastern Arc Mountains
eLMIS	electronic Logistics Management Information System
EPRPs	Emergency Preparedness and Response Plans
ESRF	Economic and Social Research Foundation
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organisation
FCS	Food Consumption Scores
FDC	Folk Development Colleges
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
FGM	Female Genital Mutilation
FNG	Fill the Nutrient Gap
FPI	Flagship Programme Initiative
FYDP	Five Year Development Plan
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GePG	electronic Payment Gateway
GEWE	Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment
GFATM	Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria
GIS	Geographic Information System
GMWG-MP	Gender Mainstreaming Working Group on Macro-Policy
GNI	Gross National Income
GoT	Government of Tanzania
GRB	Gender Responsive Budgeting
GTI	Global Terrorism Index

HBS	Household Budget Survey
HBS	Mainland Household Budget Survey
HBV	Hepatitis B
HCV	Hepatitis C
HDR	Human Development Report
HLI	Higher Learning Institutions
HRBA	Human Rights-Based Approach
HSSP	Health Sector Strategic Plan
IAEA	International Atomic Energy Agency
ICPD	International Conference on Population and Development
ICT	Information Communication Technology
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
IIAG	Ibrahim Index of African Governance
ILFS	Integrated Labour Force Survey
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IMCI	Integrated Management of Childhood Illness
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IMTC	Inter-Ministerial Technical Committee ()
IOM	International Organisation for Migration
ITC	International Trade Centre
IVD	Immunization and Vaccine Development
JAM	Joint Assessment Mission
KYC	Know Your Customer
LAAC	Local Authorities Accounts Committee
LDC	Least Developed Countries
LFPR	Labour Force Participation Rate ()
LGA	Local Government Authorities
LGBT	Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender
LGBTQI	Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender, Queer and Intersex
LIC	Lower Income Country
LMIC	Lower Middle Income Country
LNOB	Leave No One Behind
MAM	Moderate Acute Malnutrition
mCPR	Modern Contraceptive Prevalence Rate
MDAs	Ministries, Department and Agencies
MHCDGEC	Ministry of Health, Community Development, Gender, Elders and Children
MHSWEGC	Ministry of Health, Social Welfare, Elderly, Gender and Children
MICs	Middle Income Country
MIT	Ministry of Industry and Trade
MKUZA	Zanzibar Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty
MMP	Mobile Money Providers
MMR	Maternal Mortality Ratio
MMS	Multiple Micronutrient Supplementation
MNO	Mobile Network Operators
MoA	Ministry of Agriculture
MoALF	Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Fisheries
MoANRLF	Ministry of Agriculture, Natural Resources, Livestock and Fisheries (Zanzibar)
MoCLA	Ministry of Constitutional and Legal Affairs
MoEST	Ministry of Education, Science and Technology
MoEVT	Ministry of Education and Vocational Training
MoFP	Ministry of Finance & Planning
MoH	Ministry of Health
MoHCDGEC	Ministry of Health, Community Development, Gender, Elderly and Children
MOHCDGEC	National AIDS Control Programme
MoHSW	Ministry of Health and Social Welfare

MoNRT	Ministry of Natural Resources in Tanzania
MoST	Ministry of Science and Technology
MPI	Multidimensional Poverty Index
MSMEs	Micro, Small And Medium Size Enterprises
MTCT	Mother to Child Transmission
MTDS	Medium Term Development Strategy 2021–2025
MTI	Ministry of Trade and Industrial Development (Zanzibar)
NAC	National Advisory Councils
NACP	National AIDS Control Programme
NAP	National Adaptation Plan
NBS	National Bureau of Statistics
NBSAP	National Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan
NCD	Non-Communicable Diseases
NCTC	National Counter-Terrorism Centre
NDC	Nationally Determined Contributions
ND-GAIN	Notre Dame Global Adaptation Initiative
NEAP	National Environmental Action Plans
NEC	National Electoral Commission
NFIF	National Financial Inclusion Framework
NFRA	National Food Reserve Agency
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organisations
NHRAP	National Human Rights Action Plan
NICTBB	National ICT Broadband Backbone
NMNAP	National Multisectoral Nutrition Action Plan
NPA-VAWC	National Plan of Action to End Violence Against Women and Children
NSA	Non-State Actors
NSAG	Non-State Armed Group
NSDS	National Strategy for the Development of Statistic
NSGD	National Strategy for Gender and Development
NSGRP (MKUKUTA)	National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty
NSMP	National Malaria Strategic Plan
NSPP	National Social Protection Policy
NSS	National Statistical System
NTDs	Neglected Tropical Diseases ()
OBS	Open Budget Survey
OCGS	Office of Chief Government Statistician (Zanzibar)
ODA	Official Development Assistance
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OGP	Open Government Partnership
OHCHR	Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights
OOF	Other Official Flows
OOP	Out-Of-Pocket
PAC	Public Accounts Committee
PBO	Parliamentary Budget Office
PCCB	Prevention and Combating of Corruption Bureau
PEPFRA	US President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief
PER	Public Expenditure Review
PLHIV	People Living with HIV
PMO-DMD	Prime Ministers Office – Disaster Management Department
PMTCT	Prevention Of Mother-To-Child Transmission
PO-RALG	Minister for Regional Administration and Local Government (within President's Office)
PPA	Power Purchase Agreement
PPCP	Public-Private Community Partnerships
PPPs	Public Private Partnerships
PSSN	Productive Social Safety Net

PTR	Pupil To Teacher Ratios
PVE	Prevention and Response to Violent Extremism
PWD	Persons With Disabilities
PWID	People Who Inject Drugs
REC	Reaching Every Child
RGZ	Revolutionary Government of Zanzibar
RMNCAH	Reproductive, Maternal, Newborn, Child and Adolescent Health
SADC	South African Development Community
SAM	Severe Acute Malnutrition
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SGBV	Sexual and Gender Based Violence
SIDP	Sustainable Industrial Development Policy
SMEs	Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises
SRH	Sexual Reproductive Health
SRHR	Sexual Reproductive Health and Rights
TACAIDS	Tanzania Commission for AIDS
TANU	Tanzania African Union
TASAF	Tanzania Social Action Fund
TCRA	Tanzania Communications Regulatory Authority
TDHS	Tanzania Demographic Health Survey
TEPDGHO	Tanzania Empowerment for Persons with Disability and Gender Health Organization
TEV	Total Economic Value
TGNP	Tanzania Gender Networking Programme
THRDC	Tanzania Human Rights Defenders Coalition
TIPS	Tanzania Instant Payment System
TNNS	National Nutrition Survey
TPDB	Teachers Professional Development Board
TPSF	Tanzania Private Sector Foundation
TSMP	Tanzania Statistical Master Plan
TUCTA	Trade Union Congress of Tanzania
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UN	United Nations
UN Women	United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women
UNAIDS	Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS
UNCDF	UN Capital Development Fund
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNDP	UN Development Programme
UNECA	UN Economic Commission for Africa
UNEP	UN Environment Programme
UNESCO	UN Economic, Social and Cultural Organisation
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
UNFPA	UN Population Fund
UNHCR	UN High Commission for Refugees
UNICEF	UN Children's Fund
UNIDO	UN Industrial Development Organisation
UNIDSR	United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction
UNOCHA	UN Office for the Coordination of Human Affairs
UNSDCF	United Nations Sustainable Development Cooperation Framework
UNV	UN Volunteers
UPR	Universal Periodic Review
URT	United Republic of Tanzania
VAWP	Violence Against Women In Politics
VET	Vocational and Education Training
VNR	Voluntary National Review
VPO	Vice President's Office

WASH	Water, Sanitation And Hygiene
WEF	World Economic Forum
WFP	World Food Programme
WHA	World Health Assembly
WHO	World Health Organisation
WSDP	Water Sector Development Programme
Z-ASDP	Zanzibar Agricultural Development Programme

Annex V: References

- African Development Bank (2020) Regional Economic Outlook, COVID Supplement
- African Initiatives (2018) Disability Needs Assessment and Situation Analysis, Monduli and Longido Districts, Arusha Region Moshi Rural and Urban Districts, Kilimanjaro Region
- African Institute for Development Policy, Pathfinder International & University of Dar es Salaam (2014) Opportunities for Harnessing the Demographic Dividend in Tanzania, <http://www.gatesinstitute.org/sites/default/files/Tanzania%20Research%20Brief.pdf>.
- Agricultural Development Strategy (2015/16-2024/25)
- Ajwad MI, Abels M, Novikova M, Mohamed MA (2018) Financing Social Protection in Tanzania, World Bank
- Amnesty International (2020) Tanzania, <https://www.amnesty.org/en/countries/africa/tanzania/report-tanzania/>
- Analysis of the Written Laws (Miscellaneous) Amendment Bill No. 3 (2020, 6 June)
- Anti-Trafficking in Persons Act (2008)
- Bank of Tanzania (2020) Annual Report 2019/20
- Bank of Tanzania (2020) Economic Statistics Publications, <https://www.bot.go.tz/>
- Bonny I & Dibua J I (2003) Deconstructing Ujamaa: The Legacy of Julius Nyerere in the Quest for Social and Economic Development in Africa, African Journal of Political Science / Revue Africaine De Science Politique, vol. 8, no. 1, pp. 59–83.
- Child Development Policy (2008)
- Cilliers J (2018, August) Getting to Africa’s Demographic Dividend, Institute for Security Studies, African Report 13.
- Cincotta R (2012) Demography: a Development Perspective in Spear J and PD Williams (eds.) Security and Development In Global Politics: A Critical Comparison, Georgetown University Press.
- Clean Cooking Alliance, <https://www.cleancookingalliance.org>
- Community Health Strategy (2020)
- Comprehensive Migration Management Strategy (renewed 2019)
- Comprehensive Review of the National Gender Policy (2020)
- Deep Seas Fisheries Management and Development Act (2020)
- Demographic Health Survey 2015/16
- Development Finance Assessment (mainland, 2021, May)
- Development Initiatives (2020) Global Nutrition Report Action on Equity to End Malnutrition.
- DfID (2018) Demographic Challenges and Opportunities In Tanzania
- East African Court of Justice, <https://www.eacj.org/?cases=application-no-5-of-2019-media-council-of-tanzania-others-v-the-attorney-general-of-the-united-republic-of-tanzania-2>
- Economic and Social Research Foundation (2010) TAKNET Policy Brief Series No. 012
- Economic and Social Research Foundation (2021, January) Private Sector’s Perspective on Priorities for FYDP III (2021-2026)
- ECORYS (2017, June) Political Economy Analyses in Countries in Eastern and Southern Africa, Case Study – Tanzania Mainland
- Education Sector Performance Report for Financial Year 2019/20
- Elimination of Mother to Child Transmission of HIV Strategic Plan II (2018-2021)
- Employment and Labour Relations Act (2004)

- Eriksen SS (2018) Tanzania: A Political-Economy Analysis, Norwegian Institute of International Affairs
- ESRF (2020) Rapid Socio-Economic Impact Assessment of COVID-19 in Tanzania
- EU and UNDP (2021) Socio-Economic Impact of COVID-19: Recommendations for a Sustainable Recovery
- FAO (2014) Gender Inequalities in Rural Employment in Tanzania Mainland: An Overview.
- FAO (2020) Global Forest Resources Assessment Report, United Republic of Tanzania.
- Fee Free Education Policy (2016)
- Finscope (2017) Insights that Drive Innovation
- Five Year Development Plan II (2016/17-20/21)
- Five Year Development Plan III (2021/22-2025/26)
- Five Year Strategy for Progressive Child Justice Reform II (2020/21 - 2024/25)
- Formal Sector Employment and Earnings Survey - Tanzania Mainland (2016)
- Foundation for Civil Society (2017). Implementation Status of the UN Convention on Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) Tanzania
- Franklin A, Lund, P, Bradbury-Jones C, & Taylor J (2018) Children with Albinism in African Regions: Their Rights to 'Being' and 'Doing', BMC International Health and Human Rights, 18:2, pp1-8
- Freedom House (2020), Freedom in the World, <https://freedomhouse.org/country/tanzania/freedom-world/2020>
- Gamba FJ (2019) SME Development Policies of Tanzania and Rwanda: Comparability of Policy Presentation on Focus, Significance, Challenges and Participation, Journal of Development and Communication Studies, Vol. 6. No. 1, January - June 2019
- Global Alliance of National Human Rights Institutions, <https://nhri.ohchr.org/EN/Documents/Status%20Accreditation%20Chart%20%2804%20March%202019.pdf>
- Global Institute for Women's Leadership (2020) Women Political Leaders: The Impact of Gender in Democracy
- Global Nutrition Report (2017), <https://globalnutritionreport.org/reports/2017-global-nutrition-report/> accessed 05/03/2021
- Global Prevention Coalition (2020) 4th Progress Report
- Government notes No. 110, Published on 1st February 2019.
- Health Sector HIV and AIDS Strategic Plans (2017–2022)
- Health Sector Strategic Plan IV (2015-2020)
- Health Sector Strategic Plan IV Mid Term Review (2019)
- Health Sector Strategic Plan V (2021-2026)
- Hecker et al. (2013) Corporal Punishment and Children's Externalizing Problems: A Cross-sectional Study of Tanzanian Primary School Aged Children', Child Abuse and Neglect, the International Journal 38
- Household Budget Survey 2006/7, 2011/12, 2017/18
- Human Development Report (2019)
- Human Rights Watch (2019) Tanzania Drops Threat of Prison Over Publishing Independent Statistics Amendment to Statistics Act a Step in Right Direction for Free Expression, <https://www.hrw.org/news/2019/07/03/tanzania-drops-threat-prison-over-publishing-independent-statistics#:~:text=The%20Statistics%20Act%20of%202015,made%20about%20Tanzania's%20economic%20growth>
- Ibrahim Index of African Governance (2019), <https://iiag.online/>
- Idris I (2018) Barriers to Women's Economic Inclusion in Tanzania, K4D Helpdesk Report, Institute of

Development Studies

- IMF (2020, October) World Economic Outlook
- Institute for Economics & Peace (2020, June) Global Peace Index: Measuring Peace in a Complex World, Sydney, <http://visionofhumanity.org/reports>, accessed 05.03.2021
- Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation (2016) Global Burden of Disease Study.
- Integrated Industrial Development Strategy (2025)
- Integrated Labour Force Survey (2014)
- Intended Nationally Determined Contributions (2015)
- International Budget Partnership (2019) Open Budget Survey Tanzania
- International Growth Centre (2014) Urbanisation in Tanzania.
- IOM (2016) Dynamics of Trafficking in Persons in Tanzania
- Joint Annual Health Sector Review (2020)
- Kaiser PJ (1996, June) Structural Adjustment and the Fragile Nation: the Demise of Social Unity in Tanzania, *The Journal of Modern African Studies*, Cambridge University Press, pp227-237
- Kato CI (2019) Legal Framework Challenges to e-banking in Tanzania, Legal Department, Tanzania President's Office: Public Service Remuneration Board, <https://www.emerald.com/insight/content/doi/10.1108/PRR-06-2018-0016/full/pdf?title=legal-framework-challenges-to-e-banking-in-tanzania>
- Kikula IS (1997) Policy Implications on Environment: the case of villagisation in Tanzania. Uppsala: Nordiska Afrikainstitutet, pp 237.
- Kohler H & Behrman J (2014) Post-2015 Consensus: Population and Demography Assessment, Copenhagen Consensus, https://www.copenhagenconsensus.com/sites/default/files/population_assessment_-_kohler_behrman.pdf
- Kuper H, Walsham M, Myamba F, Mesaki S, Mactaggart I, Banks M & Blanchet K (2016) Social Protection for People With Disabilities In Tanzania: A Mixed Methods Study, *Oxford Development Studies*, 44:4, 441-457.
- Law of the Child (Apprenticeship) Regulations (2012)
- Law of the Child Act (2009)
- Legal and Human Rights Centre (2020) Human Rights Protection and The Threat Posed By Covid19 in Tanzania 2020, <https://www.humanrights.or.tz/assets/attachments/1617953964.pdf>.
- Legal and Human Rights Centre and Zanzibar Legal Services Centre (2017) Unknown Assailants: A Threat to Human
- LGA Nutrition Planning and Budgeting Scrutinization Report (2020)
- Lihiru, V (2019). Participatory Constitutional Reforms vs. Realization of Equal Representation of Men and Women in the Parliaments: A Study of Kenya, Rwanda and Tanzania, <https://open.uct.ac.za/handle/11427/31508>
- Lorgen CC (1999, January), The Experience of Villagisation: Lessons from Ethiopia, Mozambique, and Tanzania, Oxfam-GB
- Mainland Household Budget Survey (HBS) 2017/18
- Malaria Strategic Plan IV 2018-2023 Mid-term Review (2019, December)
- MAPS Tanzania 2019
- Maro EW, Mosha NR, Mahande MJ, Obure J, Masenga G. (2016) Ten Years Trend in Maternal Mortality at Kilimanjaro Christian Medical Centre Tanzania, 2003–2012, *Asian Pacific Journal of Reproduction* 5(3) pp214–220
- Match Maker Associates (2017, March) Horticulture Study Phase 1: Mapping of Production of Fruits and Vegetables in Tanzania,

www.rvo.nl/sites/default/files/2017/05/Studie%20Tanzaniaanse%20Tuinbouwsector%202017.pdf.

- Medium-Term Debt Management Strategy 2019/20 to 2021/22
- MHCDGEC (2018) Health Bulletin
- MHCDGEC (2019) Tanzania Joint Appraisal Update Report on Immunization
- MHCDGEC (2020-2024) Tanzania Cervical Cancer Prevention and Control Strategic Plan.
- MoFP (2020, June) Internal Auditor General's Division Independent Verification of Health Service Results Supported by the Health Basket Fund and the Strengthening of Primary Health Care for Results Programme for 2019/2020
- MoFP (2021, June) 2021/22 Budget Speech to the National Assembly
- Ministry of Agriculture (2019) National Postharvest Management Strategy 2019 – 2029.
- Ministry of Constitutional and Legal Affairs & UN Women (2020) Gender Analysis of Women in Conflict with the Law (draft report)
- Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (2018) Out of School Children Study <https://www.unicef.org/tanzania/media/596/file/Tanzania-2018-Global-Initiative-Out-of-School-Children-Country-Report.pdf>
- Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (2020) Basic Education Statistics in Tanzania (BEST)
- Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (2020) Education Statistical Abstract 2019/20
- Ministry of Finance & Planning (2020, June) Budget Speech 2020/21.
- Ministry of Finance & Planning, Internal Auditor General's Division (2020, June) Independent Verification of Health Service Results
- Ministry of Finance and Planning (2019/20) Budget Books II and III
- Ministry of Health (2018) Health Bulletin
- Ministry of Health (2021) Development Partners' Meeting minutes. 9th February 2021.
- Ministry of Health and Social Welfare (2009) Human Trafficking Baseline Assessment in Tanzania: Findings from Selected Regions
- Ministry of Industry and Trade, National Business Portal, <https://business.go.tz/about-us>
- Ministry of Lands, Housing and Human Settlements Development (2016) Habitat III National Report: Tanzania
- Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism (2015) National Forest Resources Monitoring and Assessment of Tanzania Mainland
- Mollel HA & Tollenaar A (2013) Decentralization in Tanzania: Design and Application in Planning Decisions, International Journal of Public Administration, 36:5, 344-353
- Mostert, MP (2016) Stigma as a Barrier to the Implementation of the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities in Africa. African Disability Rights Yearbook, pp2-24
- Mremi IR, Rumisha SF, Chiduo, MG et al. (2018) Hospital Mortality Statistics in Tanzania: Availability, Accessibility and Quality 2006–2015, Population Health Metrics 16, <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12963-018-0175-3>
- Mrisho M, Kakih B, Greenwood M & Steff M (2016) Hear My Voice: Old Age and Disability Are Not A Curse, Sightsavers
- Muganda C and Budlender D (2012) Public Expenditure Identification Survey on Child Protection in Tanzania.
- Mwang'onda ES, Mwaseba SL & Juma MS (2018, June) Industrialization in Tanzania: The Fate of Manufacturing Sector Lies upon Policies Implementations, International Journal of Business and Economics Research Volume 7, Issue 3, Pages: 71-78
- National Accounts of Tanzania, 2nd ED. 2020
- National AIDS Control Programme, MHCDGEC (2017) Integrated and Bio-behavioural Surveys Among Men

Who have Sex with Men in Dar es Salaam

- National Anti-FGM Strategy (2021)
- National Anti-Poaching and Illegal Wildlife Trade Strategy (2014)
- National Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan (2015-2020)
- National Child Labour Survey (2014).
- National Climate Change Strategy (2020) Stocktaking Report.
- National Climate Change Strategy (draft, 2021-2026).
- National Condom Strategy (2019–2023)
- National Council for Financial Inclusion (2018-2022) <https://www.afi-global.org/sites/default/files/publications/2017-12/NFIF%202018-2022.pdf>
- National Disability Mainstreaming Strategy (mainland, 2010-2015)
- National Disaster Risk Reduction Strategy (2020-2025)
- National Environmental Policy (1997)
- National Fisheries Policy (2015)
- National Gender and Development Policy Implementation Strategy (2020-2030)
- National Gender Policy Review (2020)
- National HIV/COVID-19 Task Team (2020), End Term Report
- National Inclusive Education Strategy (2018-2021)
- National Malaria Strategic Plan (2014-2020) Mid-term Review (2019, December)
- National Malaria Strategic Plan (2020-2025)
- National Multisectoral Nutrition Action Plan Midterm Review (2018)
- National Plan of Action to End Violence Against Women and Children (NPA-VAWC, 2017/18-2021/22)
- National Policy on Disability (mainland_2004)
- National Prevention and Response to Violent Extremism (PVE) Strategy and Action Plan (2021/22-2025/26)
- National Refugee Policy (2003)
- National Road Map Strategic Plan to Improve Reproductive, Maternal, Newborn, Child and Adolescent Health (One Plan II, 2016-2020)
- National Skills Development Strategy (2016–2021)
- National Strategic Plan For Control Of Viral Hepatitis 2018/19 -2022/23
- National Strategy for Gender and Development (2002)
- National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP/MKUKUTA) 2005/06-2009/10
- National Women and Gender Policy (2000)
- NBS (2015) Environmental Statistics 2014
- NBS (2016) Disability Monograph, URT
- NBS (2017) Tanzania HIV Impact Survey 2016-2017 (THIS) Final Report, nbs.go.tz.
- NBS (2018) National Data Roadmap for Sustainable Development - Lessons and Recommendations
- NBS (2018) National Population Projections, Revision of World Urbanization Prospects
- NBS, MoFP and OGCS (2018), National Population Projections 2013-2035.
- Ndumbaro DD (2016) The Cyber Law and Freedom of Expression: The Tanzanian Perspectives

- Nellemann C et al (ed) (2016) The Rise of Environmental Crime – A Growing Threat to Natural Resources Peace, Development and Security. A UNEP- INTERPOL Rapid Response Assessment.
- Nutrition Public Expenditure Review (2014–2016) Mainland Tanzania
- Nyalali Commission Report
- OCGS (2016, 2019, 2020) Statistical Abstracts, <https://www.ocgs.go.tz/Abstract.php>
- OCGS (2021) SDG Report, <https://www.ocgs.go.tz>
- OCHA (2021) Tanzania Country Team Flood Contingency Plan
- OECD (2020) Aid at a Glance, 2016-2018, <http://www.oecd.org/countries/tanzania/aid-at-a-glance.htm#recipients>
- OECD (2021) Transition Finance Toolkit, <http://www.oecd.org/dac/transition-finance-toolkit/>
- OHCHR (2019) <https://www.ohchr.org/Documents/Publications/OHCHRreport2019.pdf>
- OHCHR (2020, 10 November), <https://www.ohchr.org/EN/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID=26489&LangID=E>
- OHCHR (2020, 22 July) UN experts call on Tanzania to end crackdown on civic space, <https://www.ohchr.org/EN/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID=26117&LangID=E>.
- Oxford Business Group (2018) An Overview of Tanzania’s Political History
- Pirio G, Pittelli R & Adam Y (2019, 20 May) ‘The Many Drivers Enabling Violent Extremism in Northern Mozambique’, Africa Centre. Available at <https://africacenter.org/spotlight/the-many-drivers-enabling-violent-extremism-in-northern-mozambique/>
- PMO/MITI (2018): Blueprint for Regulatory Reforms to Improve the Business Environment ([Blueprint-for-Business-Environment-Regulatory-Reforms-FINAL-Cabinet-Comments-yet-to-be-included-May-2018.pdf](https://www.pmo.go.tz/wp-content/uploads/2018/05/Blueprint-for-Business-Environment-Regulatory-Reforms-FINAL-Cabinet-Comments-yet-to-be-included-May-2018.pdf) (hat-tz.org).
- Policy on Disability (Zanzibar, 2019)
- PO-RALG (2020), Pre-Primary, Primary, Secondary, Adult and Non-Formal Education Statistics
- Quigley J (1992) Perestroika African Style: One-Party Government and Human Rights in Tanzania, Michigan Journal of International Law, 13: 611, <https://repository.law.umich.edu/mjil/vol13/iss3/2>.
- Regional Declaration and Action Plan to End Cross Border FGM (2019)
- REPOA (2010) Planning in Local Government Authorities in Tanzania: Bottom-up Meets Top-down.
- Reuters (2017, September 2) <https://www.reuters.com/article/us-tanzania-media/tanzania-shuts-down-another-days-numbered-newspaper-idUSKCN1BV14Y?il=0>
- Reuters (2019, July 10) <https://www.reuters.com/article/us-tanzania-politics-idUSKCN1U51AZ>)
- Rossana Galli R (2019) The “Possible Trinity” of Agricultural Investment Policies: Enhancing Employment Creation, Productivity and Sustainability of Agricultural Investments in Sub-Saharan Africa, ILO Employment Working Paper No. 249
- Ruvuma and Greater Kilimanjaro landscape in Roe (ed) (2015) Conservation, Crime and Communities: Case Studies of Efforts To Engage Local Communities In Tackling Illegal Wildlife Trade.
- Second National Strategy for the Development of Statistics (NSDS).
- Second VPO Zanzibar, the Global Fund and UNFPA (2018) Situational Analysis for Youth with Disability on SRHR of Family Planning Services in Zanzibar
- Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030
- Small and Medium Enterprises Development Policy (2003)
- Soanes M, Rai N, Steele P, Shakya C & MacGregor J (2017) Delivering Real Change: Getting International Climate Finance to the Local Level, International Institute for Environment and Development, <https://www.iied.org/climate-finance-not-reaching-local-level>

- Statement by the Commonwealth Secretary-General on the 2020 General Elections in the URT, 2 November 2020, <https://thecommonwealth.org/media/news/statement-commonwealth-secretary-general-2020-general-elections-united-republic-tanzania>, Declaration by the High Representative on behalf of the EU on the elections in Tanzania, 2 November 2020
- Strategy for Urgent Actions on the Conservation of Marine and Coastal Environment, Lakes, Rivers and Dams (2008)
- Sustainable Industrial Development Policy (1996-2020)
- TACAIDS (2020) Gender Assessment of the National HIV/AIDS Response, Tanzania (mainland).
- Tanzania Cervical Cancer Prevention and Control Strategic Plan (2020-2024)
- Tanzania Child Labour Survey (2016)
- Tanzania Demographic Health Survey, 1991/92, 1996, 2004/05, 2010, 2015/16
- Tanzania Invest, <https://www.tanzaniainvest.com/industry>, accessed 05.03.21
- Tanzania Joint UN Team on AIDS (2021) UBRAF 2020 Country Progress Report
- Tanzania Mainland Household Budget Survey 2011/12, 2017/18
- Tanzania National Business Council (2020) Status Report of the Implementation of Blueprint Recommendations On Business Regulatory Reforms, <https://www.tnbc.go.tz>
- Tanzania National Nutrition Survey (2018)
- Tanzania Statistical Master Plan (TSMP) 2011-2018
- Tanzania Universal Periodic Review (2016) Recommendations, CRC/C/TZA/CO/3-5, paras. 72-73.
- Tanzania Universal Periodic Review (2021) 39th session, 01-12 November 2021, Submissions, <https://www.ohchr.org/EN/HRBodies/UPR/Pages/TZIndex.aspx>
- Tanzania Women Cross-Party Platform (2016) Violence Against Women in Elections: Evidence From 2015 Tanzania General Elections, UN Women
- The Vice President's Division of Environment (2018) Land Degradation Neutrality Target Setting Programme Report
- The Walk Free Foundation (2013) Global Slavery Index
- Tiwari S, Savastano S, Improtta M & Winters PC (2019) Rural Economic Activities and Persons with Disabilities in Sub-Saharan Africa, IFAD.
- Trading Economics, Terrorism Index. <https://tradingeconomics.com/country-list/terrorism-index>
- Traerup S, Ortiz R and Markandya A (2011) The Costs of Climate Change: A Study of Cholera in Tanzania, International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 8, pp4386-4405
- United Nations Economic Commission for Africa and the Centre for International Research and Economic Modelling (CIREM) of the Centre d'Etudes Prospectives et d'Information Internationales, (2021 July) Assessment of the Economic Implications of AfCFTA's Implementation
- United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (2021) The Interlinkages between the Development, Peace and Security, Human Rights and Humanitarian Pillars in Southern Africa
- UN Global Study on Children Deprived of Liberty (2019), <https://gchumanrights.org/research/projects/un-global-study/about.html>
- UN Triennial Review (2018), <https://www.un.org/development/desa/dpad/least-developed-country-category-united-republic-of-tanzania.html>
- UN Women (2020) Gender Bench Book for Women's Rights in Tanzania
- UNAIDS & EGPAF (2020) National PMTCT Programme, 2019 PMTCT Data Analysis
- UNAIDS (2020) Tanzania HIV Estimates
- UNAIDS AIDSInfo, <http://aidsinfo.unaids.org/> accessed 10.05.21

- UNCTAD (2020) Tanzania Rapid eTrade Readiness Assessment, https://unctad.org/system/files/official-document/dtlstict2020d2_en.pdf
- UNCTAD (2020) The Least Developed Countries Report: Productive Capacities for the New Decade
- UNCTAD (2020) World Investment Report https://unctad.org/system/files/official-document/wir2020_overview_en.pdf
- UNCTAD (2021) Tanzania Country Profile, <https://unctadstat.unctad.org/countryprofile/generalprofile/en-gb/834/index.htm>
- UNDESA (2018) World Urbanization Prospects, <https://population.un.org/wup/>
- UNDESA (2019) World Population Prospects Median Variant Projection, <https://population.un.org/wpp/Download/Standard/Population/>
- UNDP (2019) Human Development Report
- UNDP (2020) Human Development Report.
- UNESCO Institute of Statistics, in World Bank, <https://data.worldbank.org/>, accessed 04.03.2021
- UNFPA (2020) Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights Country Profile, <https://www.unfpa.org/resources/sexual-and-reproductive-health-and-reproductive-rights-country-profile> accessed 23.11.20
- UNHCR (2021, May) Tanzania Refugee Population Update
- UNHCR/WFP Joint Assessment Mission (2020) Report
- UNICEF & WHO (2012) Progress on Drinking Water and Sanitation Update
- UNICEF & WHO (2018) Drinking Water, Sanitation And Hygiene In Schools: Global Baseline Report
- UNICEF & WHO Joint Monitoring Report (2019) Progress on Household Drinking Water, Sanitation and Hygiene 2000-2017, Special Focus on Inequalities
- UNICEF (2017) Generation 2030, Africa 2.0
- UNICEF (2021) Zanzibar National Budget Brief 2019/20 <https://www.unicef.org/esa/media/8436/file/UNICEF-Tanzania-Zanzibar-2020-National-Budget-Brief-revised.pdf>
- UNICEF Tanzania (2020) WASH Budget Brief
- UNICEF Tanzania (2018) Tanzania Education Budget Brief and Zanzibar Education Budget Brief
- UNICEF Tanzania, US Centres for Disease Control and Prevention and Muhimbili University of Health and Allied Sciences (2011) Violence against Children in Tanzania: Findings from a National Survey Tanzania
- UNICEF, Children and AIDS, <https://www.unicef.org/tanzania/what-we-do/hiv-aids>, accessed 10.05.21
- UNICEF/WHO/World Bank Group: Joint Child Malnutrition Estimates
- UNIDO (2012) Tanzania SME Development Policy 2003 Implementation Review: Ten Years After, <https://open.unido.org/api/documents/5403996/download/TANZANIA%20SME%20DE>
- UNISDR (2019) Tanzania Disaster Risk Profile. Sex disaggregated data re the impact of droughts on the population is currently unavailable.
- University of Dar es Salaam and Dodoma (2020) PCCB research, <https://jamii.app/RushwaNgonovyuoni>, accessed 27.11.2020
- UNOCHA (2020) Mozambique Cabo Delgado, Humanitarian Snapshot, <https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/Mozambique%20-%20Cabo%20Delgado%20-%20Humanitarian%20Snapshot%2C%20July%202020.pdf>.
- URT (2019) State of the Environment Report
- URT (2019) Voluntary National Review (VNR): Empowering People and Ensuring Inclusiveness and Equality: (https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/content/documents/23429VNR_Report_Tanzania_2019_FINAL.pdf).
- URT President's Office (2011) Taarifa ya Miaka Hamsini ya Uhuru wa Tanzania Bara 1961-2011

- URT Second Review Session 25, Review in the Working Group: 9 May 2016 Adoption in the Plenary: United Republic of Tanzania's responses to recommendations (as of 22.09.2016), https://www.upr-info.org/sites/default/files/document/tanzania_united_republic_of/session_25_-_may_2016/recommendations_and_pledges_tanzania_2016.pdf
- URT, Agricultural Sector Development Strategy II, 2015/16 – 2024/25
- URT, Five Year Development Plan 2021/22-2025/26
- US Department of State (2018, June) Trafficking in Persons Report
- US Department of State Bureau of International Narcotics and Law Enforcement Affairs (2021, March) International Narcotics Control Strategy Report Volume I.
- US President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief
- US State Government (2019) Tanzania Human Rights Report, <https://www.state.gov/wp-content/uploads/2020/03/TANZANIA-2019-HUMAN-RIGHTS-REPORT.pdf>.
- VPO, Division of Environment, URT (2014) Fifth National Report on the Implementation of the Convention on Biological Diversity
- Wangwe S, Mmari D, Aikaeli J, Rutatina N, Mboghoina T, Kinyondo A (2014) The Performance of the Manufacturing Sector in Tanzania Challenges and the Way Forward, WIDER Working Paper 085, <https://www.wider.unu.edu/sites/default/files/wp2014-085.pdf>
- WFP (2018) Fill the Nutrient Gap, <https://docs.wfp.org/api/documents/WFP-0000023276/download/?%20iframe>
- WHO & UNICEF (2019) WASH in Health Care Facilities: Global Baseline Report
- WHO (2014, March) Multi-Country Survey on Maternal Newborn Health Research Network. Pregnancy and Childbirth Outcomes Among Adolescent Mothers, BJOG 121 Suppl 1:40-8.
- WHO (2016) Concentrations of fine particulate matter (PM2.5), [https://www.who.int/data/gho/data/indicators/indicator-details/GHO/concentrations-of-fine-particulate-matter-\(pm2-5\)](https://www.who.int/data/gho/data/indicators/indicator-details/GHO/concentrations-of-fine-particulate-matter-(pm2-5)).
- WHO (2016) INSPIRE: Seven Strategies for Ending Violence Against Children
- WHO (2018, 12 January), [Cholera – United Republic of Tanzania WHO Disease Outbreak News, 12 January 2018, https://www.who.int/csr/don/12-january-2018-cholera-tanzania/en/#:~:text=From%2015%20August%202015%20through,\(Tanzania%20mainland%20and%20Zanzibar\)](https://www.who.int/csr/don/12-january-2018-cholera-tanzania/en/#:~:text=From%2015%20August%202015%20through,(Tanzania%20mainland%20and%20Zanzibar)).
- WHO (2019) Global TB Report, <https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/336069/9789240013131-eng.pdf>
- WHO (2019) MHCDGEC, National Strategic Plan For Control Of Viral Hepatitis 2018/19 -2022/23
- WHO (2019) World Malaria Report, <https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/9789241565721>
- WHO (2020) Service Availability and Readiness Assessment Survey found 86 percent of health facilities had Vitamin A in stock.
- WHO and UNFCCC (2015) Climate and Health Country Profile, URT
- WHO, MHCDGEC, NBS (2019) Results of the HBS Analysis 2011/12: a Baseline For Monitoring Health Financing Reforms in the United Republic of Tanzania (Mainland)
- WHO, Mother-to-Child Transmission of HIV, <https://www.who.int/hiv/topics/mtct/about/en/>, accessed 10.05.21
- World Bank (2020) Human Capital Index
- World Bank (2018) Policy Research Working Paper 8454 <https://documents1.worldbank.org/curated/en/804301527601436747/pdf/WPS8454.pdf>
- World Bank (2018, 2 October) Statement on Amendments to 2015 Statistics Act, <https://www.worldbank.org/en/news/statement/2018/10/02/world-bank-statement-on-amendments-to>

tanzanias-2015-statistics-act

- World Bank (2018, 2 October) World Bank Statement on Amendments to Tanzania's 2015 Statistics Act,
- World Bank (2019) A Pathway to Tourism for All: Integrated Strategic Plan, <http://documents1.worldbank.org/curated/pt/993701565250577192/pdf/Zanzibar-A-Pathway-to-Tourism-for-All-Integrated-Strategic-Action-Plan.pdf>
- World Bank (2019) Tanzania Economic Update: The Power of Investing in Girls: Educating Girls and Ending Child Marriage in Tanzania
- World Bank (2019) Tanzania Mainland Poverty Assessment.
- World Bank (2020) The African Continental Free Trade Area Economic and Distributional Effects
- Bank (2020) World Integrated Solutions, <https://wits.worldbank.org/>
- World Bank (2020, June) Tanzania Economic Update
- World Bank (2021, March) Tanzania Economic Outlook
- World Bank (2021, June) Tanzania Economic Outlook
- World Bank, Results for Development Institute (R4D) and 1,000 Days, in partnership with the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation and the Children's Investment Fund Foundation, <https://documents1.worldbank.org/curated/en/963161467989517289/pdf/104865-REVISED-Investing-in-Nutrition-FINAL.pdf>, accessed 24.07.21
- World Economic Forum (2018) Global Competitiveness Report
- YouthMap (2014, April) Tanzania Youth: Assets and Opportunities, accessed 24.07.20, https://www.iyfnet.org/sites/default/files/library/YouthMap_Tanzania.pdf
- Zanzibar Agricultural Development Programme (2018-2028)
- Zanzibar Climate Change Strategy (2014)
- Zanzibar Constitution amendment of 2010.
- Zanzibar Education Statistical Abstract 2016-2018
- Zanzibar Gender Policy (2016)
- Zanzibar Household Budget Survey 2014/15, 2019/20
- Zanzibar Medium Term Development Strategy (2021-25)
- Zanzibar Ministry of Agriculture, Natural Resources, Livestock and Fisheries, *Enhancing Climate Change Resilience of Coastal Communities of Zanzibar*. https://www.adaptation-fund.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/08/Correct-file_Tanzania_Zanzibar_for-web.pdf
- Zanzibar Ministry of Health (2018) Health Bulletin
- Zanzibar Policy on Disability (2019).
- Zanzibar Small and Medium Enterprises Policy (2006)
- Zanzibar Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (MKUZA) III
- ZanzibarInfo Dashboard, <http://www.dataforall.org/dashboard/zanzibarinfo/ZanzibarInfo#/>

Annex VI: Endnotes

-
- ¹ For latest assessment see <https://www.un.org/development/desa/dpad/least-developed-country-category-united-republic-of-tanzania.html>.
- ² World Bank (2021, March).
- ³ Agricultural Development Strategy (2015/16-2024/25)
- ⁴ UNCDF (2020) Tanzania Country Strategy 2020-24
- ⁵ World Bank (2020) Human Capital Index
- ⁶ Ibid
- ⁷ DfID (2018) Demographic Challenges and Opportunities In Tanzania
- ⁸ TDHS 2015/16
- ⁹ See section below for more details of the negative impact on health early childbearing can have.
- ¹⁰ Nearly 30 percent of maternal deaths occur among 15-24 year olds.
- ¹¹ It is estimated that 30 percent of incomplete abortions in hospitals are among 15 to 19-year-old girls.
- ¹² Prevalence rate is 6.2 percent amongst women and 3.1 percent amongst men.
- ¹³ Despite criminalisation in 1998, around 1 in 10 women and girls aged 15-49 years have been cut in Tanzania. TDHS 2015/16. Figures for Zanzibar are lower at 18 percent in 2015
- ¹⁴ Foundation for Civil Society (FCS) (2017). Implementation Status of the UN Convention on Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) Tanzania; Kuper et al (2016); Tiwari et al
- ¹⁵ African Initiatives (2018) Disability Needs Assessment and Situation Analysis, Monduli and Longido Districts, Arusha Region Moshi Rural and Urban Districts, Kilimanjaro Region
- ¹⁶ Mrisho M, Kahir B, Greenwood M & Steff M (2016) Hear My Voice: Old Age and Disability Are Not A Curse, Sightsavers
- ¹⁷ Police officers have a tendency to encourage victims to 'make peace with perpetrators and solve 'family issues' at home, especially when the perpetrator is a relative. Legal and Human Rights Centre (2020) Human Rights Protection and The Threat Posed By Covid19 in Tanzania 2020, <https://www.humanrights.or.tz/assets/attachments/1617953964.pdf>.
- ¹⁸ Legal and Human Rights Centre (2020)
- ¹⁹ Only three are covered: the right to work, right to just remuneration and the right to property.
- ²⁰ GURT & UNHCR (2021, 30 September) Tanzania Refugee Situation Statistical Report
- ²¹ Many of the inputs received also apply to the UNSDCF. These will duly be reflected during the formulation process.
- ²² In Zanzibar, per capita income rose to USD 1,114 in 2019 up from USD 817 in 2015.
- ²³ During the most recent Triennial Review (2021), Tanzania scored the following across the three criteria: GNI per capita USD 1,031 (graduation threshold USD 1,222); Human Assets Index 61.1 (graduation threshold 66); Economic and Environmental Vulnerability Index 34.7 (graduation threshold 32). Tanzania will need to deliver these figures for two consecutive Triennial Reviews plus meet the requirements of the DESA impact assessment and UNCTAD vulnerability profile before it will be considered for graduation. For latest assessment see <https://www.un.org/development/desa/dpad/least-developed-country-category-united-republic-of-tanzania.html>.
- ²⁴ Mainland Household Budget Survey 2017/18. The World Bank suggests that the national poverty rate may have declined slightly from to 26.2 percent in 2019. However, due to rapid population growth the number of Tanzanians below the poverty line rose by an estimated 250,000 during the period. World Bank (2021, March) Tanzania Economic Update
- ²⁵ World Bank (2021, March).
- ²⁶ Mainland Household Budget Survey (HBS) 2017/18.
- ²⁷ In Zanzibar, those considered as living in (basic needs) poverty earn less than TZS 66,313 per month; those assessed as living in extreme/food poverty earn less than TZS 47,541 per month.
- ²⁸ Over the last three Household Surveys for Zanzibar, the poverty rate has declined by 9.2 percent (from 34.9 percent in 2009/10 to 25.7 percent in 2019/20) and the extreme poverty rate has reduced by 2.4 percent (from 11.7 to 9.3 percent). However, the absolute number of poor people only declined by about 27,000 people due to population growth.
- ²⁹ NBS, MoFP and OGCS (2018) National Population Projections 2013-2035
- ³⁰ World Bank (2020, June) Tanzania Economic Update
- ³¹ World Bank (2021, March)
- ³² In Zanzibar, there has not been a significant change in the Gini Coefficient over the last decade. Between 2009 and 2019, for Zanzibar as a whole is rose by 0.01 to 0.31, amongst the rural population by 0.02 to 0.29 and amongst urban dwellers dropped by 0.01 to 0.31. Zanzibar HBS 2019/20.
- ³³ World Bank (2019) Tanzania Poverty Assessment
- ³⁴ This equates to almost 78 percent. World Bank Poverty Assessment 2019
- ³⁵ Mainland HBS 2017/18. Areas surrounding Dar es Salaam, as the commercial and economic centre of the country, have better access to markets, a wider, a denser road network and benefit from the economies of agglomeration.
- ³⁶ This equates to 4.6 million living in poverty and 1.3 million living in extreme poverty. Meanwhile, in the northern and eastern zones, less than 1.4 million live in poverty and 420,000 people in extreme poverty. Tanzania Mainland, HBS 2017-18. Later sections address issues related to economic activity in rural areas.
- ³⁷ Regions with high poverty rates and large number of poor include the area around Lake Victoria and Simiyu region in the north, Kigosi, located between Shinyanga and Tabora regions and Moyowosi in Kigoma region. There are also significant numbers of poor

people in Lushoto district in Tanga and Ilala district in Dar es Salaam given their sizeable populations, Mainland HBS 2017-18

³⁸ Poverty reduced from 39.1 to 33.1 percent compared to a drop from 20.0 to 15.8 percent in urban areas. Extreme poverty declined from 13.3 to 9.7 percent in rural areas and from 7.4 to 4.4 percent in urban areas. Figures from the HBS 2006/7, 2011/12, 2017/18 mainland sourced from the World Bank (2019) Tanzania Mainland Poverty Assessment.

³⁹ According to Zanzibar's HBS 2019/2020, 33.7 of the rural population can be considered below the poverty line versus 15.5 percent of the urban population, whilst 12.7 percent of the rural population are below the extreme poverty threshold compared to 4.9 percent in urban areas.

⁴⁰ Tanzania median average of urbanisation at 5.21 percent between 2014-2019 compares to 4.03 percent for Sub-Saharan Africa. Amongst sub-regional peers between 2014-2019, Rwanda experienced the lowest rates of urbanisation at an average of 2.94 percent, with Kenya at 4.13 percent and Uganda at 6.10 percent. World Bank, Databank <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.URB.TOTL.IN.ZS?locations=TZ> accessed 20.10.20

⁴¹ A survey conducted in 2015 revealed that 61.4 percent of urban dwellers migrated from rural areas. Ministry of Lands, Housing and Human Settlements Development (2016) Habitat III National Report: Tanzania

⁴² Dar es Salaam is growing at annual rate of 5.6 percent and is projected to become home to almost 11 million people by 2030. NBS (2018) National Population Projections, Revision of World Urbanization Prospects

⁴³ Additional factors listed by the International Growth Centre include: extension of shanty type settlements around existing urban centres; growth of villages formed during villagization; temporary or semi-permanent settlements associated with small scale mining activities; camps or settlements formed by refugees from neighbouring countries. International Growth Centre (2014) Urbanisation in Tanzania.

⁴⁴ 38.7 percent for basic needs poverty and 12.9 percent for food poverty compared to 0.7 percent for basic needs poverty and 0.1 percent for food poverty for one-person households. Similarly, the rates of basic needs poverty and food poverty increases with the number of children in a household, from 20.6 percent and 5.9 percent respectively in households with no children to 40.7 percent and 17.4 percent respectively in households with 6 or more children. Mainland HBS 2017/18

⁴⁵ World Bank (2021, March)

⁴⁶ Mainland HBS 2017/2018.

⁴⁷ According to the Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey (TDHS) 2016, only 9 percent of women have sole ownership of a house or land and in rural areas only 4.1 percent of land titles include a woman's name. During the 60th session of the CEDAW Committee, the legal framework of the URT which treats widows and widowers differently in terms of ownership, acquisition, management and disposition of property was found to be discriminatory. It held, inter alia, that the State should ensure that all discriminatory customary laws limiting women's equal inheritance rights are repealed or amended and brought into full compliance with CEDAW. CEDAW/C/60/D/48/2013 Communication No. 48/2013.

⁴⁸ NBS and UNICEF (2019, June) Child Poverty in Tanzania Summary Report based on 2014/2015 National Panel Survey

⁴⁹ For children, the basic needs poverty at 34.5 percent in rural areas and 11.0 percent in urban areas only registered a decline in the last 5 years. The food poverty rate at 11.4 percent in rural areas is more than double of those living in urban areas (5.4 percent), having decreased only 2.3 percentage points in the last 10 years. At the regional level, Rukwa recorded the highest proportion of children living in basic needs poverty (47.6 percent) and in extreme poverty (21.2 percent), Mainland HBS 2017/18. In Zanzibar, basic needs and food poverty rates have reduced by 8.6 percent and 2.3 percent respectively since 2009/10.

⁵⁰ OCGS and UNICEF (2019) Child Poverty in Zanzibar, Report based on the Zanzibar Budget Household Survey 2014/15

⁵¹ National Bureau of Statistics and UNICEF, Child Poverty in Tanzania, June 2016.

⁵² Ibid.

⁵³ African Initiatives (2018) Disability Needs Assessment and Situation Analysis, Monduli and Longido Districts, Arusha Region Moshi Rural and Urban Districts, Kilimanjaro Region

⁵⁴ Tiwari S, Savastano S, Improta M & Winters PC (2019) Rural Economic Activities and Persons with Disabilities in Sub-Saharan Africa, IFAD

⁵⁵ Zanzibar saw similar, albeit less significant reductions in the basic needs poverty gap index, with a decline from 8.2 percent in 2009/10 to 5.8 percent in 2019/20. The poverty gap is also higher in rural areas (8.1 percent) compared to urban areas (3 percent), implying that rural population are deeper in poverty than their urban counterparts.

⁵⁶ This is a per capita household consumption level of between USD 5.50-15 per day; deemed sufficient to cover daily expenses, absorb income shocks and have additional resources to finance non-essential consumption.

⁵⁷ ESRF (2020) Rapid Socio-Economic Impact Assessment of COVID-19 in Tanzania

⁵⁸ World Bank (2021, March)

⁵⁹ Whilst there has been an increase in enrolment in social health insurance schemes from 19 percent in 2015/16 to 33 percent in 2018/19, a significant number remain without coverage and may still cross the poverty line with high out of pocket expenditures when accessing healthcare. Moreover, even for those with coverage, some specialised care and essential interventions are not always included, Health Policy Plus (2018, October) Tanzania's Improved Community Health Fund: An Analysis of Scale Up Plans and Designs. Households with elderly members (more commonly female-headed) may be particularly vulnerable to unexpected costs for health care. A health cost shock equivalent to 20 percent of per capita consumption of these households would increase poverty by two percentage points. World Bank (2020, June)

⁶⁰ The Zanzibar Social Protection Policy (2014) stresses the importance of providing social protection to vulnerable groups including women, elderly and PWDs.

⁶¹ The PSSN I programme had more than 5 million direct beneficiaries (September 2019): more than half (52.1 percent) were women,

who used the grant to generally support positive outcomes for all members of the household; 38.7 percent were children of school age (6 to 18 years); 12 percent are children between 0 and 5 years, TASAF (2018, March) PSSN I quarterly progress report.

⁶² HBS (2018)

⁶³ National Social Protection Policy (2018) (3rd Draft, December).

⁶⁴ The World Bank suggests that approving the draft National Social Protection Policy would be a good step in this direction. World Bank (2021, March)

⁶⁵ Ajwad MI, Abels M, Novikova M, Mohamed MA (2018) Financing Social Protection in Tanzania, World Bank

⁶⁶ Kuper H, Walsham M, Myamba F, Mesaki S, Mactaggart I, Banks M & Blanchet K (2016) Social Protection for People With Disabilities In Tanzania: A Mixed Methods Study, Oxford Development Studies, 44:4, 441-457.

⁶⁷ NBS (2016) Disability Monograph, URT

⁶⁸ Between 1990 and 2019: life expectancy increased from 50.2 years to 65.5 years; expected years of schooling rose from 5.5 to 8.1 mean years of schooling from 3.6 to 6.1 years, UNDP (2020) Human Development Report.

⁶⁹ Ibid

⁷⁰ The median age is projected to reach 19 years by 2030 and 22.3 years by 2050. NBS, MoFP and OGCS (2018), National Population Projections 2013-2035. Nearly 300 million by 2100 under the “medium variant is predicted by UNDESA (2019) World Population Prospects Median Variant Projection, <https://population.un.org/wpp/Download/Standard/Population/>

⁷¹ For the period 2013 to 2035, national projections show that for the mainland the population growth rate will decrease from 3.1 in 2013 to 2.8 percent in 2035 (reaching a population of 86,871,546) and in Zanzibar, the rate will decrease from 3.4 to 1.9 percent in 2035 (reaching a population of 2,333,235). NBS, MoFP and OGCS (2018), National Population Projections 2013-2035.

⁷² As referenced in the poverty section, disaggregated information on the number of children per woman in Tanzania is available in the TDHS 2015-2016, which placed the average fertility rate at 5.2, with significant variations across location, income and education.

⁷³ According to Cincotta, the ‘demographic window’ commonly occurs when the median age of the population is between 25.5 and 41 years or when those aged 14 years and under comprise less than 30 percent of the population and those aged 64 years or more comprise less than 15 percent. Cincotta R (2012) Demography: a Development Perspective in Spear J and PD Williams (eds.) Security and Development In Global Politics: A Critical Comparison, Georgetown University Press. Cilliers asserts to facilitate the demographic window of opportunity, the fertility rate should typically be at 2.8 children per woman or lower and shared across all demographic factors, Cilliers J (2018, August) Getting to Africa’s Demographic Dividend, Institute for Security Studies, African Report 13.

⁷⁴ The Modern Contraceptive prevalence rate (mCPR) increased from 32 percent in 2015-16 (DHS) to approximately 37 percent (FP2020 estimates presented in Consensus Meeting September 2020)

⁷⁵ African Institute for Development Policy, Pathfinder International & University of Dar es Salaam (2014) Opportunities for Harnessing the Demographic Dividend in Tanzania, <http://www.gatesinstitute.org/sites/default/files/Tanzania%20Research%20Brief.pdf>. See also World Bank (2021, March) These issues, their drivers and their impact across a range of concerns related to education, health, nutrition and prevention of violence against women and children are discussed in more detail in successive sections.

⁷⁶ A 2014 study identified the multiple benefits of pursuing pre-market investments in family planning, education, health care and governance to further socio-economic development of the type envisaged in the country’s Vision 2025 alongside pro-growth policies. The modelling suggests that such measures could increase GDP per capita to USD 9,018 by 2050 in Tanzania, compared to USD 5,871 in the stand alone economic model or USD 2,513 under the baseline scenario. African Institute for Development Policy, Pathfinder International, University of Dar es Salaam (2014) opportunities for Harnessing the Demographic Dividend in Tanzania

⁷⁷ DfID (2018) Demographic Challenges and Opportunities In Tanzania

⁷⁸ Under the UN medium variant, youth aged 15-34 years could be as much as 62 million by 2065.

⁷⁹ MoEVT (2020) Basic Education Statistics in Tanzania (BEST)

⁸⁰ Ibid

⁸¹ World Bank (2018) Policy Research Working Paper 8454

<https://documents1.worldbank.org/curated/en/804301527601436747/pdf/WPS8454.pdf>

⁸² 38.7 percent of schools were operating double shifts at primary level and 27.3 percent at secondary level in 2018. zMoEVT (2016-2018) Education Statistical Abstract 2016-2018

⁸³ MoEVT (2020) Education Statistical Abstract 2019/20

⁸⁴ Double shifts are more prevalent in Mjini district, averaging 38.7 percent in public primary schools and 27.3 percent of secondary schools which operate on double shift. MoEVT (2018) Out of School Children Study <https://www.unicef.org/tanzania/media/596/file/Tanzania-2018-Global-Initiative-Out-of-School-Children-Country-Report.pdf>

⁸⁵ UNESCO (2019) Country Statistics, <http://uis.unesco.org/en/country/tz>

⁸⁶ There are also significant geographical disparities on the archipelago across a number of key education indicators. For example, the highest recorded primary student teacher ratios are recorded in Micheweni district at 1:69 and lowest at 1:27 in Mjini District. In terms of primary school retention, Magharibi has a survival rate of 96.7 percent whilst Mkoani stands at 38.0 percent of students. Student to classroom ratios are exceptionally high in Magharibi A district at 1:113 and much lower in Kusini district at 1:46. Ibid.

⁸⁷ According to the 2016 Tanzania Child Labour Survey, there are estimated 5.06 million children aged 5 to 17 are engaged in child labour; of these approximately 4.2 million are located in rural areas and 2.6 million are boys.

⁸⁸ Shinyanga, Tabora, Mara and Dodoma have high prevalence rates of child marriage of between 59-51 percent whereas Iringa and

Dar es Salaam had the lowest prevalence rates at 8 percent and 17 percent respectively. TDHS 2015/16.

⁸⁹ See section below for more details of the negative impact on health early childbearing can have.

⁹⁰ Some of these measures are discussed in Part II. The World Bank also suggests: better targeting of government resources to address the needs of girls in remote communities; creating a more inclusive school culture that encourages girls to remain in school; providing girls with positive role models through the deployment of more female teachers; and increasing the returns on girls' completing secondary school by improving opportunities for local employment. World Bank (2019) Tanzania Economic Update: The Power of Investing in Girls: Educating Girls and Ending Child Marriage in Tanzania

⁹¹ NBS (2016) Disability Monograph

⁹² According to the 2012 Census, 64.6 percent of PWDs aged 5 and above were literate, with higher levels of literacy in urban areas (81.3 percent) than in rural areas (58.7 percent). Women with disabilities had lower levels of literacy (60.5 percent) than women without disabilities (67.9 percent). The gap was slightly smaller between men with disabilities (68.2 percent) and men without disabilities (72.4 percent), NBS (2016) Disability Monograph

⁹³ Zanzibar Education Statistical Abstract 2016-2018; NBS (2016) Disability Monograph

⁹⁴ African Initiatives (2018)

⁹⁵ Mrisho M, Kaki, B, Greenwood M, & Steff M (2016) Hear My Voice: Old Age and Disability Are Not A Curse, Sightsavers

⁹⁶ African Initiatives (2018)

⁹⁷ Kohler H & Behrman J (2014) Post-2015 Consensus: Population and Demography Assessment, Copenhagen Consensus, https://www.copenhagenconsensus.com/sites/default/files/population_assessment_-_kohler_behrman.pdf

⁹⁸ Global Nutrition Report (2017), <https://globalnutritionreport.org/reports/2017-global-nutrition-report/> accessed 05/03/2021

⁹⁹ UNDP (2019) Human Development Report. Evidence shows that a well-nourished boy or girl completes more years of schooling, learns faster, earns higher wages in adulthood, and is much more likely to escape a life of poverty.

¹⁰⁰ EU and UNDP (2021) Socio-Economic Impact of COVID-19: Recommendations for a Sustainable Recovery

¹⁰¹ Life expectancy at birth has risen from 50.801 (female 52.71; male 48.94) in 2000 to 65.01 in 2018 (66.824; 63.17), World Bank (2021) Databank. On the mainland, in 2015, average life expectancy stood at 63.2 compared to 66.2 in Zanzibar and 65.4 years among women compared to 61.2 years among men. TDHS 2015/2016

¹⁰² Neo-natal mortality rate (per 1,000 live births) dropped from 33.6 in 2000 to 20.3 in 2019 on the mainland; under-5 mortality rates (per 1,000 live births) decreased from 128.8 (female 123.3; male 134.1) to 50.3 (46.6 female; 53.9 male) across the same period. In Zanzibar, under-5 mortality rates in 2016 stood at 45. In urban areas, neo-natal mortality rate stood at 43 compared to 24 in rural areas in 2015, TDHS 2015/2016.

¹⁰³ DPT3 vaccine coverage has increased from 95 percent to 98 percent during the past four years on the mainland. The coverage of second dose of measles-containing vaccine for every child reaching 18 months increased to 91 percent in 2018. MHCDGEC (2019) Tanzania Joint Appraisal Update Report on Immunization

¹⁰⁴ Ibid

¹⁰⁵ Measles immunization coverage for children aged 9 to 18 months was 92.8 percent in 2018, showing an improvement of 24 percentage points from 2017. MHCDGEC (2018) Health Bulletin

¹⁰⁶ Health Sector Strategic Plan (HSSP, 2019) IV Mid Term Review

¹⁰⁷ This was introduced in April 2018 for girls of 14 years and above to prevent cervical cancer.

¹⁰⁸ WHO (2019) MHCDGEC, National Strategic Plan For Control Of Viral Hepatitis 2018/19 -2022/23

¹⁰⁹ The incidence of malaria per 1000 population dropped to 118 in 2019 from 162 in 2015, representing a 23 percent decline, National Malaria Strategic Plan (NSMP) 2020-2025. However, Zanzibar experienced a 38 percent increase in cases between 2017 and 2019 - 4171 in 2017 to 6736 in 2019, while the number of deaths increased from 1 in 2017 to 5 in 2019 – with 68 percent imported and 32 percent indigenous (the mid-term review of the Malaria Strategic Plan IV – 2018-2023 conducted in December 2019). Decline in distribution of ITNs may explain the rising of indigenous cases and increased economic activities between the mainland and Unguja including trade, fishing and agriculture may explain the rising of imported cases.

¹¹⁰ WHO (2019) World Malaria Report, <https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/9789241565721>

¹¹¹ The incidence of tuberculosis (per 100,000 people) reduced to 237 in 2019 down from 503 in 2000. WHO (2019) Global TB Report, <https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/336069/9789240013131-eng.pdf>

¹¹² WHO (2019) Global Tuberculosis Report

¹¹³ DHIS2, 2019

¹¹⁴ According to the MoH (2018) Health Bulletin, hypertension is the top reason for hospital admission for 9.4 percent of Zanzibaris.

¹¹⁵ Rates are higher in Zanzibar than the mainland. The rate of overweight and obesity among women of reproductive age increased from 27 percent in 2004-05 to 39 percent in 2015-16, Tanzania National Nutrition Survey 2018

¹¹⁶ The costing study of Health Sector Strategic Plan V indicates that the costs of NCDs will be rising to trillions, representing 52 percent of health programme costs in the coming 5 years.

¹¹⁷ TDHS 2015/2016

¹¹⁸ Estimated MMR in Sub Saharan Africa is 542 deaths per 100,000 Live Births: 342 in Kenya; 248 in Rwanda; 375 in Uganda.

¹¹⁹ Zanzibar's maternal mortality rate per 100,000 births was calculated at 155 in 2018, TDHS-MIS 2015-2016.

¹²⁰ Nearly 30 percent of maternal deaths occur among 15-24 year olds. Amongst these, there is also an increased risk of maternal morbidity, such as obstetric fistula. The adolescent fertility rate rose to 132 in 2015/16, up from 116 in 2010, whilst teenage pregnancy rates increased by 4 percent to 27 percent. There are significant differences in teenage childbearing rates across regions, ranging from 5 percent in Mjini Magharibi in Zanzibar to 45 percent in Katavi. Evidence shows that early childbearing also has

adverse effects on infants' health, with higher perinatal deaths and low birth weight among key outcomes. WHO (2014, March) Multi-Country Survey on Maternal Newborn Health Research Network. Pregnancy and Childbirth Outcomes Among Adolescent Mothers, *BJOG* 121 Suppl 1:40-8.

¹²¹ It is estimated that 30 percent of incomplete abortions in hospitals are among 15 to 19-year-old girls. The CRC in the 2016 UPR raised concerns that adolescents who became pregnant as a result of sexual violence had limited options and often resorted to unsafe abortions. It urged the URT to reduce maternal deaths relating to teenage abortions and ensure by law and in practice that the views of the child are respected in abortion decisions.

¹²² Prevalence rate is 6.2 percent amongst women and 3.1 percent amongst men.

¹²³ According to TDHS 2015/16, 10 percent of women aged 15-49 have undergone FGM, down by 4 percent since 2010. FGM is most widespread in Manyara (57.7 percent), Dodoma (46.7 percent), Arusha (41 percent), Mara (32 percent) Singida (30.9 percent) and nearly obsolete in regions such as Shinyanga and in Zanzibar. (Factors contributing to/attempts to address FGM are discussed more in Part II).

¹²⁴ Almost two-thirds of deaths in pregnancy and childbirth are due to obstetric haemorrhage and eclampsia which cannot be controlled if there is a delay in accessing necessary healthcare. Given over one in five women deliver at home and amongst many women and their families there is little knowledge of the dangers of pregnancy/childbirth in general and in home delivery particular, decisions to seek healthcare are often not taken in time. TDHS 2010 and 2015/16

¹²⁵ This rises to an average of 61 percent in Sub Saharan Africa: 56.3 in Kenya; 50.1 in Rwanda; 59.9 in Uganda

¹²⁶ According to the DHS 2015/16, modern contraceptive prevalence rate (m-CPR) among currently married women (aged 15-49) stands at 32 percent, with notable differences between regions, ranging from a low of 7 percent in Pemba, Zanzibar to 52 percent in Lindi. (Note, as stated above, FP2020 estimates presented in Consensus Meeting September 2020 place the overall figure higher at 37 percent). The government of Tanzania increased its budget for family planning services by 180 percent between 2016/17-2017/18. However, in September 2018, the government contacted USAID funded agencies involved in birth control projects and told them to stop running any family planning content in the media. President Magufuli also called upon women to stop using contraceptives and bear more children, (Reuters (2019, July 10) President urges Tanzania's women to 'set ovaries free', have more babies to boost economy, <https://www.reuters.com/article/us-tanzania-politics-idUSKCN1U51AZ>). The ban on advertising was subsequently lifted in March 2019.

¹²⁷ UNFPA (2020) Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights Country Profile, <https://www.unfpa.org/resources/sexual-and-reproductive-health-and-reproductive-rights-country-profile> accessed 23.11.20

¹²⁸ Even among the lower 10-19 age group, there are more females (54,000) than males (39,000) who are HIV positive. AGYW acquire new infections at nearly twice the rate (24,000 versus 16,500), are less knowledgeable on HIV (40.1 percent versus 46.7 percent) and used condoms less often during high-risk sex situations than their male counterparts (29.9 percent females versus 33.5 percent males). Sexual violence is one factor exacerbating HIV transmission: nearly 3 in 10 females and 1 in 7 males have experienced such violence before the age of 19. TACAIDS (2020) Gender Assessment of the National HIV/AIDS Response, Tanzania (Mainland).

¹²⁹ DHIS 2 data, communicated during the Joint Annual Health Sector Review (2020).

¹³⁰ Ibid

¹³¹ Availability of medicines at health facilities has increased to 90 percent according to the DHIS (10 tracer medicines) and 75 percent according to eLMIS (312 tracer medicines), (2020).

¹³² HSSP IV (2019) Mid-Term Review

¹³³ Ibid

¹³⁴ Ibid

¹³⁵ The proportion of deliveries taking place in health facilities is a key determinant of perinatal health outcomes as the 48-hour window around childbirth is when most maternal and newborn deaths occur. There is, however, a nearly two-fold difference in the proportion of health facility delivery rate, between the lowest rate region (Kilimanjaro 53 percent) and those with the highest rate (Rukwa and Pwani 100 percent).

¹³⁶ Delays in obtaining care or referrals between facilities, limited availability of quality skilled attendance at delivery, and overall substandard management of cases still result in injury and death for too many.

¹³⁷ Ministry of Health (2018) Zanzibar Health Bulletin

¹³⁸ TDHS 2015/16

¹³⁹ Maro EW, Mosha NR, Mahande MJ, Obure J, Masenga G. (2016) Ten Years Trend in Maternal Mortality at Kilimanjaro Christian Medical Centre Tanzania, 2003–2012, *Asian Pacific Journal of Reproduction* 5(3) pp214–220

¹⁴⁰ DHIS 2 (2017)

¹⁴¹ Among women living with HIV, cervical cancer is the most common form of cancer, often occurring in tandem with HIV infection and exacerbating or being exacerbated by positive HIV status. MHCDGEC (2020-2024) Tanzania Cervical Cancer Prevention and Control Strategic Plan.

¹⁴² Ibid

¹⁴³ TDH-MIS 2015/16 document coverage of 35 percent for 2 doses and 8 percent for 3 doses plus (far short of the 80 percent target for 2020)

¹⁴⁴ Tanzania National Nutrition Survey (2018).

¹⁴⁵ Ibid

¹⁴⁶ WHO (2020) Service Availability and Readiness Assessment Survey found 86 percent of health facilities had Vitamin A in stock.

¹⁴⁷ Ibid

-
- ¹⁴⁸ TDHS-MIS 2015/16
- ¹⁴⁹ Ibid.
- ¹⁵⁰ PO-RALG (2020), Pre-Primary, Primary, Secondary, Adult and Non-Formal Education Statistics
- ¹⁵¹ TEPDGHO (2018) The Right of Persons with Disabilities To The Highest Attainable Standard Of Health In Tanzania
- ¹⁵² Ibid
- ¹⁵³ WHO, MHCDGEC, NBS (2019) Results of the HBS Analysis 2011/12: a Baseline For Monitoring Health Financing Reforms in the United Republic of Tanzania (Mainland)
- ¹⁵⁴ UNAIDS (2020) Tanzania HIV Estimates
- ¹⁵⁵ UNAIDS AIDSInfo, <http://aidsinfo.unaids.org/> accessed 10.05.21
- ¹⁵⁶ UNICEF, Children and AIDS, <https://www.unicef.org/tanzania/what-we-do/hiv-aids>, accessed 10.05.21
- ¹⁵⁷ Only 8 percent of domestic HIV funding targets AGYW, despite this group comprising 25 percent of new infections.
- ¹⁵⁸ NBS (2017) Tanzania HIV Impact Survey 2016-2017 (THIS) Final Report, nbs.go.tz.
- ¹⁵⁹ National AIDS Control Programme, MHCDGEC (2017) Integrated and Bio-behavioural Surveys Among Men Who have Sex with Men in Dar es Salaam
- ¹⁶⁰ http://www.ilo.org/aids/legislation/WCMS_125594/lang--en/index.htm
- ¹⁶¹ Global Prevention Coalition (2020) 4th Progress Report
- ¹⁶² Ibid
- ¹⁶³ Tanzania Joint UN Team on AIDS (2021) UBRAF 2020 Country Progress Report
- ¹⁶⁴ UNICEF (2017) Generation 2030, Africa 2.0
- ¹⁶⁵ UNAIDS (2020)
- ¹⁶⁶ WHO, Mother-to-Child Transmission of HIV, <https://www.who.int/hiv/topics/mtct/about/en/>, accessed 10.05.21
- ¹⁶⁷ US President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief
- ¹⁶⁸ UNAIDS & EGPAF (2020) National PMTCT Programme, 2019 PMTCT Data Analysis
- ¹⁶⁹ UNAIDS AIDSInfo
- ¹⁷⁰ The global vision was '0 new infections, 0 AIDS-related deaths and 0 Discrimination' designed to end AIDS by 2030. This vision was translated to public health targets of 90 percent of people living with HIV know their status, 90 percent of those who know their status placed on treatment, and 90 percent of those on treatment have viral load suppression by 2010.
- ¹⁷¹ The global vision was '0 new infections, 0 AIDS-related deaths and 0 Discrimination' designed to end AIDS by 2030. This vision was translated to public health targets of 90 percent of people living with HIV know their status, 90 percent of those who know their status placed on treatment, and 90 percent of those on treatment have viral load suppression by 2010.
- ¹⁷² Tanzania reached its target with 91 percent of eligible patients initiated optimized dolutegravir regimens. However, there has been delay in scale up of optimized paediatric regimens (only 86 percent of eligible children). UNAIDS (2020)
- ¹⁷³ Ibid. UNAIDS AIDSInfo. Mremi IR, Rumisha SF, Chiduo, MG et al. (2018) Hospital Mortality Statistics in Tanzania: Availability, Accessibility and Quality 2006–2015, Population Health Metrics 16, <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12963-018-0175-3>
- ¹⁷⁴ National HIV/COVID-19 Task Team (2020), End Term Report
- ¹⁷⁵ Ministry of Health (2021) Development Partners' Meeting minutes. 9th February 2021.
- ¹⁷⁶ NBS (2017) Tanzania HIV Impact Survey 2016-2017 (THIS) Final Report, nbs.go.tz
- ¹⁷⁷ HIV/AIDS-related human rights include but are not limited to: the right to life; the right to liberty and security of the person; the right to the highest attainable standard of mental and physical health; the right to non-discrimination, equal protection and equality before the law; and the right to be free from torture and other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment, <https://www.ohchr.org/en/issues/hiv/pages/hivindex.aspx#:~:text=HIV%2FAIDS-related%20human%20rights,the%20right%20to%20seek%20an>
- ¹⁷⁸ Over half of the regions in the URT exceed the 30 percent threshold of stunting prevalence. The most affected regions are: Njombe (53.6 percent); Rukwa (47.9 percent); Iringa (47.1 percent); Songwe (43.3 percent); Kigoma (42.3 percent); Ruvuma (41.0 percent), NMNAP Midterm Review (2018) and National Nutrition Survey (TNNS, 2018)
- ¹⁷⁹ TDHS 2010, 2015/16
- ¹⁸⁰ TDHS 1991-92, 1996, 2004-05, 2010, 2015-16
- ¹⁸¹ 47 percent in Nyarugusu, 52 percent in Nduta and 51 percent in Mtendeli. Joint Assessment Mission (JAM 2020) Report, referencing WFP (2020) Community Household Surveillance.
- ¹⁸³ 2018 Health Bulletin
- ¹⁸⁴ See earlier health section for more information around risk factors.
- ¹⁸⁵ Tanzania National Nutrition Survey (2018)
- ¹⁸⁶ Development Initiatives (2020) Global Nutrition Report Action on Equity to End Malnutrition. The report shows that stunting prevalence is 19.1 percent in the highest wealth quintile compared to 39.9 percent in the lowest. Wasting prevalence is 3.3 percent in the highest wealth quintile as compared to 4.9 percent in the lowest wealth quintile, UNICEF/WHO/World Bank Group: Joint Child Malnutrition Estimates
- ¹⁸⁷ Tanzania Mainland HBS 2011/12 and Zanzibar HBS 2014/15
- ¹⁸⁸ WFP (2018) Fill the Nutrient Gap, <https://docs.wfp.org/api/documents/WFP-0000023276/download/?%20iframe>
- ¹⁸⁹ JAM 2020
- ¹⁹⁰ Ibid

¹⁹¹ Ibid

¹⁹² Although the availability of safe water to the refugees in the camps is considered adequate, challenges remain with limited hours of availability and long distances to the tap stands.

¹⁹³ Figures from the World Bank assert that between 2012 and 2018, share of urban households with access to improved sanitation rose from 36 to 58 percent, while share of rural households with access increased from 5 to 11 percent. World Bank (2021, June)

¹⁹⁴ UNICEF & WHO Joint Monitoring Report (2019) Progress on Household Drinking Water, Sanitation and Hygiene 2000-2017, Special Focus on Inequalities

¹⁹⁵ These three regions are close to meeting the Government's Vision 2025 target of 95 percent access to safe water. Dar es Salaam and the tourist hub of Arusha are close behind with coverage above 80 percent.

¹⁹⁶ Climate Change will be discussed in more detail in the final section.

¹⁹⁷ UNICEF & WHO Joint Monitoring Report (2019)

¹⁹⁸ UNICEF & WHO (2012) Progress on Drinking Water and Sanitation Update

¹⁹⁹ UNICEF & WHO (2018) Drinking Water, Sanitation And Hygiene In Schools: Global Baseline Report

²⁰⁰ WHO & UNICEF (2019) WASH in Health Care Facilities: Global Baseline Report

²⁰¹ UNICEF Tanzania (2020) WASH Budget Brief. If Tanzania is to meet SDG 6 targets for drinking water and sanitation, the Government will need to significantly increase investments to USD 1.2 billion annually from 2020 onwards.

²⁰² Nutrition Public Expenditure Review (PER, 2014–2016) Mainland Tanzania

²⁰³ The World Bank, Results for Development Institute (R4D) and 1,000 Days, in partnership with the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation and the Children's Investment Fund Foundation estimated that it will cost approximately USD 8.50 more per child per year to meet the global stunting target. This covers the scale-up of high-impact, proven interventions focused on the 1,000 day window: namely, improving maternal nutrition, infant and young child feed practices (including exclusive breastfeeding for the first six months of life) and child nutrition through micronutrient supplementation and the provision of nutritious complementary foods.

²⁰⁴ As per the 2020 LGA Nutrition Planning and Budgeting scrutinization report, 6 out of the 26 regions were not allocating the minimum budget amount of 1000 TZS per child under five years in fiscal year 2020/21.

²⁰⁵ MoFP, Internal Auditor General's Division (2020, June) Independent Verification of Health Service Results Supported by the Health Basket Fund and the Strengthening of Primary Health Care for Results Programme for 2019/2020

²⁰⁶ Domestic resources increased from USD 36.8 million in fiscal year 2014/15 to USD 52.3 million in 2016/17, a 42 percent increase.

²⁰⁷ To resource the national response, efforts by the UN are focusing on: promoting the further increase of Government allocations to meet the Abuja targets of 15 percent, improving domestic HIV resource mobilization through the AIDS Trust Fund; and including HIV services provision in the discussion around Universal Health Coverage

²⁰⁸ This is a slight improvement from 57.2 percent in 2017/18

²⁰⁹ Ministry of Finance and Planning (2019/20) Budget Books II and III.

²¹⁰ Decentralisation of funding in Zanzibar—as per nutrition—could represent an opportunity to address some of these challenges. If tailored support was given to ensure local governments' ability to plan and budget for transfers, prioritize expenditures within the resource envelope and fully execute monies received, real progress for relevant SDGs could be achieved on the archipelago.

²¹¹ UNDP (2019) Human Development Report. Access to Mobile Phones is discussed in a later section.

²¹² In 2018, only 5 percent of the Tanzanian labour force aged 15 and older possessed intermediate or advanced education, as classified by the International Standard Classification of Education. ILO (2019). ILOSTAT database. www.ilo.org/ilostat, accessed 17.06.19

²¹³ UNCTAD (2020) The Least Developed Countries Report: Productive Capacities for the New Decade. The Zanzibar Investment Policy 2005 emphasizes the need to promote training and skills development for employment opportunities.

²¹⁴ WEF (2018) Global Competitiveness Report

²¹⁵ The Folk Development Colleges were established in 1975 by the Ministry of National Education as part of the more comprehensive Adult Education Programme. The majority operate in rural areas, providing access to training relevant to local communities, encouraging participants to develop skills for formal employment or self-employment and continue their studies. Courses cover vocational training, general knowledge such as entrepreneurship, life skills, civic education, and communication skills.

²¹⁶ A budget of USD 10 Million has been set aside for the purpose of equipping the FDCs and VET Institutions owned by the Government for the financial year 2020/2021.

²¹⁷ These are: ICT - Dar es Salaam Institute of Technology-DIT; Aviation and Logistics - National Institute of Technology-NIT; Energy - Arusha Technical College-ATC; Leather processing - Dar es Salaam Institute of Technology-Mwanza.

²¹⁸ Education Sector Performance Report for Financial Year 2019/20; VETA, 2020. No data provided for Zanzibar.

²¹⁹ World Bank Databank 2019, <https://data.worldbank.org/>. Figures for 2020 not yet available, accessed 12.12.20

²²⁰ Zanzibar's Medium Term Development Strategy (2021-2025) places GDP growth rate between 5.8 and 7.7 percent from 2016 to 2019.

²²¹ Between 2013-2018, Tanzania's growth volatility was third lowest in the region, after Mauritius and Kenya, World Bank (2020, June)

²²² In 2010 inflation almost halved from 12.14 percent in the previous year to 6.20 percent, only to rise again to 12.69 percent in 2011 and further to 16.00 percent in 2012. World Bank Databank 2019, <https://data.worldbank.org/>, accessed 12.12.20. Low volatility in exchange rate has been maintained partially due to interventions by the Bank of Tanzania (BoT) to smooth out

fluctuations and keep the interbank foreign exchange market orderly, including during the first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic. Meanwhile, growing credit to the private sector alongside the accommodative monetary policy of the BoT has enabled M3 to expand, registering growth of 9.6 percent in December 2019 up from 4.5 percent on the previous year. World Bank (2020, June)

²²³ MoFP (2020, June) Budget Speech 2020/21 and Bank of Tanzania September 2021 Monthly Review, accessed 6/10/2021. Zanzibar's Medium Term Development Strategy (2021-25) reports a declining rate of inflation for 2016-20. The rate steadily dropped from 6.7 percent in 2016 to 2.7 in 2019.

²²⁴ World Bank (2021, March)

²²⁵ Ibid.

²²⁶ Ibid

²²⁷ EU and UNDP (2021)

²²⁸ The national definition of employment includes all persons who worked in economic activity for any amount of time, even for one hour, in the course of the reference week but excludes all persons who are marginally attached to self-employment activities and includes them in the unemployment figures.

²²⁹ Under the third indicator, Zanzibar rural appears to be the only element to reverse the overall trend towards reduced unemployment, with an increase from 10.3 to 13.8 percent. It is unclear at this point, what this might signify.

²³⁰ Other Urban measures 70.2 percent and Dar es Salaam 40.1 percent.

²³¹ Formal Sector Employment and Earnings Survey - Tanzania Mainland, 2016 Pg. 31

²³² Women's incomes are further constrained given their aforementioned limited access to productive resources. For example, studies have shown that yields per hectare are lower on land primarily worked by women compared with those from land worked by men. UNCDF (2020) Tanzania Country Strategy 2020-24. Women often own land at a later stage of their productive life compared to men. 27 percent of males holders are aged between 25 and 34 years, compared to 19 percent of female holders, FAO (2014) Gender Inequalities in Rural Employment in Tanzania Mainland: An Overview.

²³³ Idris I (2018) Barriers to Women's Economic Inclusion in Tanzania, K4D Helpdesk Report, Institute of Development Studies

²³⁴ ILFS (2014)

²³⁵ Ibid. No data available from the FYDP II 2020/21 review or ILFS 2020 at present.

²³⁶ One such programme dubbed '4th Cohort of the Female Future' was launched in February 2020 under the umbrella of Association of Tanzania Employers (ATE) in collaboration with the Confederation of Norwegian Enterprise (NHO), This supports women to progress within their respective organizations and provides a professional forum for women to interact and exchange their expertise.

²³⁷ Integrated Labour Force Survey (2014) and National Child Labour Survey (2014).

²³⁸ With subsequent Law of the Child (Apprenticeship) Regulations, 2012, and The Law of the Child (Child Employment) Regulations, 2012

²³⁹ OUTPUT 2.3 Safe neighborhoods and other environments where women and children gather and spend time are established and sustained: Guidelines for the inspection of places of work that address violence against women and children developed and operationalized

²⁴⁰ National Accounts of Tanzania, 2nd ED. 2020. In Zanzibar, services dominate GDP share. In 2014 the sector accounted for 44.7 percent, by 2018 this had risen to 51.3 percent. Industry and manufacturing collectively accounted for just over 23 percent over the same period. Meanwhile, the share of GDP by agriculture, forestry and fishing has steadily reduced from 27.8 percent to 21.3 percent. MoTI (2018) Zanzibar Economic Survey, https://tradesmz.go.tz/Downloads/Zanzibar_Industrial_Policy_3.1.pdf

²⁴¹ Between 2013-2019, mining grew by 131 percent, construction by 152 percent, financial services by 94 percent, transport by 83 percent and communications by 43 percent. National Accounts of Tanzania, 2nd ED. 2020.

²⁴² World Bank (2019)

²⁴³ Lack of employment opportunities in rural areas has also contributed to the aforementioned high rates of rural urban migration.

²⁴⁴ Many of the jobs created in the tertiary sector have been principally characterised as non-tradeable services, with low productivity and minimal opportunities for formal decent employment. MAPS 2019

²⁴⁵ YouthMap (2014, April) Tanzania Youth: Assets and Opportunities, accessed 24.07.20, https://www.iyfnet.org/sites/default/files/library/YouthMap_Tanzania.pdf

²⁴⁶ World Bank (2019) Tanzania Mainland Poverty Assessment

²⁴⁷ Whilst some gains have been made in labour productivity, in 2018 these were still 69 percent of Kenya's level. Total factor productivity has contributed less than 0.2 percent to growth since 2010, with some years registering negative. World Bank (2021, March)

²⁴⁸ ILO modelled estimates for 2019, ILO (2020, 22nd December), ILOStats.org

²⁴⁹ The FYDP III asserts that 65 percent of the population earn their living through agriculture-related activities.

²⁵⁰ UNCDF (2020)

²⁵¹ World Bank (2021, March)

²⁵² Tanzanian farmers use only 9 kg/ha of fertilizer compared to average 16 kg/ha for SADC countries (China is 279 kg/ha). Likewise, the annual supply of improved seeds is around 12,000 tons or 10 percent of total estimated requirements of 120,000 tons per year. URT, Agricultural Sector Development Strategy II, 2015/2016 – 2024/2025.

²⁵³ Ministry of Agriculture (2019) National Postharvest Management Strategy 2019 – 2029. Food crop storage capacity has improved, with an increase to 621,000 tonnes in 2020 from 371,000 tonnes in 2015.

²⁵⁴ The majority rely upon hand hoes (97.8 percent) and swords (93.5 percent) whilst only 14.4 percent use ox-ploughs.

²⁵⁵ URT, Five Year Development Plan 2015/16-2020/21. Tanzania spends more than USD 150,000 annually to import edible oil, accounting for 60 percent of the total consumed.

²⁵⁶ NBS (2018)

²⁵⁷ UNCDF (2020)

²⁵⁸ URT, Agricultural Sector Development Strategy II, 2015/16 – 2024/25

²⁵⁹ Cash crop production increased to 1,156,389 tonnes in 2018/19 (from 796,502 tonnes in 2015/16). FYDP III (2021/22-2025/26)

²⁶⁰ The horticulture industry is the fastest growing sub-sector within agriculture, with annual average growth rate of between 9-12 percent, currently employing around 4 million. (This is more than double the annual growth rate of the agricultural sector as a whole.) Match Maker Associates (2017, March) Horticulture Study Phase 1: Mapping of Production of Fruits and Vegetables in Tanzania, www.rvo.nl/sites/default/files/2017/05/Studie%20Tanzaniaanse%20Tuinbouwsector%202017.pdf. Horticulture accounts for more than 40 percent of foreign exchange earnings. Exports of horticultural produce rose to USD 779 million in 2018/19 (from USD 412 million in 2015). It is estimated that this will rise to USD 2 billion by 2026. Approximately 90 percent of the horticultural products produced in Tanzania are consumed in country with around 10 percent or less exported.

²⁶¹ Horticultural Development Council of Tanzania (2010) Tanzania Horticultural Development Strategy 2012- 2021

²⁶² UNCDF (2020)

²⁶³ World Bank (2021, March)

²⁶⁴ According to FYDP III, food self-sufficiency has now reached 118 percent.

²⁶⁵ URT, Agricultural Sector Development Strategy II

²⁶⁶ In 2020, there was also a concern that the COVID-19 pandemic would affect food systems. In response, the Government conducted a comprehensive assessment of the impact across Tanzania Mainland and Zanzibar, with technical support from FAO and WFP.

²⁶⁷ FYDP III (2021/22-2025/26)

²⁶⁸ Ministry of Livestock and Fisheries (2018) Tanzania Livestock and Fisheries Master Plan

²⁶⁹ RGZ (2014) Zanzibar Fisheries Policy (draft)

²⁷⁰ The Government of Tanzania through IFAD has approved a six-year concessional loan for agriculture and fishery. It is designed around an inclusive value chain and food system approach, supporting access to and use of production-enhancing technologies, post-harvest, value addition and marketing infrastructure and services. The programme, which has a heavy focus on deep sea fishing, will promote sustainable utilization of resources and finance a 4P joint venture for the acquisition and operation of eight longline fishing vessels and two fish processing plants.

²⁷¹ Between 2016-2019, almost 8,500 industries were established, of which 7,816 were small or micro enterprises. FYDP II 2016/17-20/21

²⁷² FYDP III (2021/22-2025/26)

²⁷³ Other goods include beverages, leather and leather products, paper and paper products, publishing and printing and plastics.

²⁷⁴ The agricultural sector provides approximately 65 percent of inputs to the industrial sector. Tanzania Invest, <https://www.tanzaniainvest.com/industry>, accessed 05.03.21

²⁷⁵ FYDP III (2021/22-2025/26)

²⁷⁶ World Bank (2019) A Pathway to Tourism for All: Integrated Strategic Plan, <http://documents1.worldbank.org/curated/pt/993701565250577192/pdf/Zanzibar-A-Pathway-to-Tourism-for-All-Integrated-Strategic-Action-Plan.pdf>

²⁷⁷ FYDP III (2021/22-2025/26)

²⁷⁸ World Bank (2019) A Pathway to Tourism for All

²⁷⁹ World Bank (2020, June)

²⁸⁰ World Bank (2021, March)

²⁸¹ Ibid

²⁸² Ibid

²⁸³ UNCDF://local-government-finance-is-development-finance.blog/

²⁸⁴ MTDS (2021-25)

²⁸⁵ A micro enterprise is defined as an establishment with fewer than five employees, a small firm has 5 to 49 employees, and medium enterprise has 50 to 99 employees. Ministry of Industry and Trade (2003) Small and Medium Enterprise Development Policy <https://www.mit.go.tz/uploads/documents/sw/1455890063-SME-Development-Policy.pdf>

²⁸⁶ Gamba FJ (2019) SME Development Policies of Tanzania and Rwanda: Comparability of Policy Presentation on Focus, Significance, Challenges and Participation, Journal of Development and Communication Studies, Vol. 6. No. 1, January - June 2019

²⁸⁷ Ibid

²⁸⁸ UNIDO (2012) Tanzania SME Development Policy 2003 Implementation Review: Ten Years After, <https://open.unido.org/api/documents/5403996/download/TANZANIA%20SME%20DE>

²⁸⁹ EU and UNDP (2021)

²⁹⁰ Under the SME Policy, institutions such as the Small Industries Development Organization (SIDO) were established to provide key support, whilst others were tasked with assisting SMEs as one of their primary functions. The latter include: Tanzania Trade Development Authority (TAN-TRADE), Weights and Measures Agency (WMA), Tanzania Bureau of Standards (TBS) and Tanzania Private Sector Foundation (TPSF).

²⁹¹ UNCDF (2020)

²⁹² Wangwe S, Mmari D, Aikaeli J, Rutatina N, Mboghoina T, Kinyondo A (2014) The Performance of the Manufacturing Sector in Tanzania Challenges and the Way Forward, WIDER Working Paper 085, <https://www.wider.unu.edu/sites/default/files/wp2014-085.pdf>

²⁹³ Bank of Tanzania (2020) Statistics

²⁹⁴ In 2019, the current account deficit widened to 4.5 percent of GDP, due to an increase in imports of intermediate and capital goods (BOT 2019). This was financed through external borrowing, which rose to USD 22.4 billion, up from USD 21 billion in the previous year. World Bank (2020, June)

²⁹⁵ Commercial financing of the budget rose to 25 percent in December 2019 from 4 percent in 2010/11. Ibid. See Part II for more discussion of Public Debt.

²⁹⁶ IMF Country Data, <https://www.imf.org/en/Countries/TZA#countrydata>, accessed 6/10/2021

²⁹⁷ The top five countries to which Tanzania exported were: Rwanda (18.9 percent); Kenya (9.23 percent); Democratic Republic of Congo (8.48 percent); Zambia (7.27 percent) and Uganda (5.3 percent). An additional 142 countries accounted for the remaining 51.03 percent. World Bank (2020) World Integrated Solutions, <https://wits.worldbank.org/>

²⁹⁸ World Bank (2020, June)

²⁹⁹ Atlas of Economic Complexity, <https://atlas.cid.harvard.edu/rankings> accessed 6/10/2021

³⁰⁰ World Bank (2020, June)

³⁰¹ Redress of challenges pertaining to obstacles to women's engagement are not specifically reflected under the 'economic' elements of the Plans, such as unpaid care duties or violence in public spaces although are referenced under the social development pillars.

³⁰² PMO/MITI (2018): Blueprint for Regulatory Reforms to Improve the Business Environment ([Blueprint-for-Business-Environment-Regulatory-Reforms-FINAL-Cabinet-Comments-yet-to-be-included-May-2018.pdf](https://www.pmo.go.tz/wp-content/uploads/2018/05/Blueprint-for-Business-Environment-Regulatory-Reforms-FINAL-Cabinet-Comments-yet-to-be-included-May-2018.pdf) (hat-tz.org)). Despite progress made, the World Bank has raised concerns that implementation is not moving fast enough. World Bank (2021, March)

³⁰³ Tanzania National Business Council (2020) Status Report of the Implementation of Blueprint Recommendations On Business Regulatory Reforms, <https://www.tnbc.go.tz>

³⁰⁴ Among others, the amendments included moving the PPP Centre from PMO to MoF to empower the latter to make decisions on projects requiring government financing.

³⁰⁵ UNCTAD (2020) Tanzania Rapid eTrade Readiness Assessment, https://unctad.org/system/files/official-document/dt1stict2020d2_en.pdf

³⁰⁶ MIT, National Business Portal, <https://business.go.tz/about-us>

³⁰⁷ World Bank (2020) The African Continental Free Trade Area Economic and Distributional Effects. The UN Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) forecasts a 400 percent increase in the value of intra-African trade compared to 2020 (270 percent without AfCFTA), United Nations Economic Commission for Africa and the Centre for International Research and Economic Modelling of the Centre d'Etudes Prospectives et d'Information Internationales, (2021. July) Assessment of the Economic Implications of AfCFTA's Implementation.

³⁰⁸ FYDP III (2021/22-2025/26)

³⁰⁹ MTDS (2021-25)

³¹⁰ PPPs at the local level are governed by a range of legislation and regulations in Tanzania. These include: the PPP Policy (2009); the PPP Act (2010 and as amended in 2014 and 2018); PPP regulations of 2020; Public Procurement Act of 2011 (and its amendments).

³¹¹ World Bank (2021, March)

³¹² FYDP III (2021/22-2025/26) and MTDS (2021-25)

³¹³ Finscope (2017) Insights that Drive Innovation

³¹⁴ UNCDF (2020)

³¹⁵ See Part II for loans available through municipal funds.

³¹⁶ Non-bank institutions are serving approximately 48 percent of rural adults; meanwhile commercial banks are serving only 6 percent of rural adults.

³¹⁷ World Bank (2021, March)

³¹⁸ 30 percent of Tanzanian women do not own a phone, compared to 15 percent of men. This figure increases to 39 percent compared to 18 percent in rural areas. UNCDF (2020)

³¹⁹ UNCDF (2020)

³²⁰ The first Framework facilitated the increase of adults accessing formal financial services from 58 percent in 2013 to 65 percent in 2017 plus the reduction of informal financial services from 16 percent to 7 percent for in the same period. National Council for Financial Inclusion (2018-2022) <https://www.afi-global.org/sites/default/files/publications/2017-12/NFIF%202018-2022.pdf>

³²¹ UNCTAD (2020)

³²² World Bank (2020, June)

³²³ Ibid

³²⁴ Through public private partnerships, the network has reached the offices of 150 District Councils, 150 District Hospitals, 121 Police Centres, 65 Postal Offices, 25 Courts, providing free WiFi to 455 Secondary Schools, launch of the e-Schools and 43 Video Conference Systems for some regions of the mainland and Zanzibar. FYDP III (2021/22-2025/26).

³²⁵ FYDP III (2021/22-2025/26). In the 2020/21 budget speech, the MoFP asserted that mobile phone lines had increased from 39 million in 2015 to 43 million in March 2020.

³²⁶ World Bank (2020, June)

³²⁷ According to 2019 second quarter prices, Dar es Salaam comes in at USD 15.5 compared to Johannesburg at USD 3, Lagos at USD 5, and Kampala at USD 10. World Bank (2020, June)

³²⁸ Rwanda 64 percent, Uganda 44 percent and Kenya 39 percent. Ibid.

³²⁹ Ibid

³³⁰ Rights of way charges are much higher than neighbouring countries, amounting to approximately 80 percent, compared to an average of approximately 60 percent of total cost of fibre rollout for construction, permits, and design combined) (Deloitte 2017, cited in World Bank (2020, June)

³³¹ These keep local data local, offering more flexibility with alternatives for routing. Ibid

³³² The World Bank suggests that this might be because operators wish to redeem their 3G network investment first and/or because the Government has been slow in awarding the required licenses. World Bank (2020, June)

³³³ World Bank (2020, June)

³³⁴ In his updated presentation titled Tanzania's Digital ID Ecosystem Roadmap: A Vision For Integration And Enhanced Service Delivery, Alphonse Malibiche, Director of Identification Management at the National Identification Authority, identified challenges to further roll-out including: geography; population size/density; inadequate resources for mass registration; poor connectivity restricting authentication services and use cases, https://www.id4africa.com/2018_event/Presentations/PS2/1-2-2_Tanzania_Alphonse_Malibiche.pdf

³³⁵ There is no single data protection authority in Tanzania. It is the authorities under the specific sectoral legislations which have the mandate to administer the data protection provisions under which they are established. For instance, TCRA is responsible for administering the provisions in the electronic and postal communications sector Acts, and the Bank of Tanzania (BOT) is responsible for the Banking and Financial Institutions Act.

³³⁶ For example, an offence of interception of a private communication is punishable by a fine of TZS 10 million or imprisonment for three years under the Cybercrimes Act, while under the Investigation Regulations of 2017 the same offence is punishable by a fine of TZS 5 million or imprisonment for one year. Similarly, under the Cybercrimes Act, an order of disclosure of information can be made by a police officer in charge of a police station, while under the Investigation Regulations of 2017, an order of disclosure of protected information must be made by the Inspector General of Police.

³³⁷ World Bank (2020, June)

³³⁸ Kato CI (2019) Legal Framework Challenges to e-banking in Tanzania, Legal Department, Tanzania President's Office: Public Service Remuneration Board, <https://www.emerald.com/insight/content/doi/10.1108/PRR-06-2018-0016/full/pdf?title=legal-framework-challenges-to-e-banking-in-tanzania>

³³⁹ The country comprises of: 94,508,700 ha of territorial area and nearly 89 million ha of land underwater; rich and diverse forests (approximately 48.1 million ha); extensive freshwater cover (54,337 km²); a territorial sea of 64,000 km² with a coastline of about 1,424 km² and Exclusive Economic Zone (240,000 km²); national parks reserved as conservation areas (57,424 km²).

³⁴⁰ The first NEAP was prepared in 1994; the second covered the period 2013 -2018.

³⁴¹ The Plan is expected to address the following: land degradation; deforestation; loss of wildlife habitat and biodiversity; deterioration of water sources and aquatic systems; environmental pollution, including waste; climate change; cross cutting issues such as institutional coordination and capacity, stakeholders' participation and gender.

³⁴² These include: National Land Policy, 1995; Sustainable Industrial Development Policy, 1996- 2020; National Forest Policy, 1998; National Water Policy, 2002; Wildlife Policy, 2007; Mineral Policy of Tanzania, 2009; National Agriculture Policy, 2013; National Fisheries Policy, 2015; National Energy Policy, 2015.

³⁴³ These include three key Conventions ratified in 1996, namely the Convention on Biological Diversity, the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change and the Convention to Combat Desertification.

³⁴⁴ As referenced in earlier sections, the rate of urbanisation was measured at 5.07 percent in 2019. World Bank staff estimates based on the United Nations Population Division's World Urbanization Prospects: 2018 Revision. World Bank (2020, 23 Dec).

³⁴⁵ The Vice President's Division of Environment (2018) Land Degradation Neutrality Target Setting Programme Report identifies Dodoma, Singida, Tabora, Shinyanga and Manyara regions as particular land degradation hotspots.

³⁴⁶ Tanzania is among 15 countries globally registering the highest number of threatened species, with at least 900 threatened species on the IUCN Red List, 2013. Additional factors contributing to biodiversity loss in Tanzania include invasive alien species, pollution and climate change. National Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan (NBSAP) 2015-2020.

³⁴⁷ General Land is under the authority of the national government. The Village Land Act (1999) defines General Land as a residual category encompassing only that which cannot be defined as Village or Reserved Land. The Land Act (1999) states general land includes unoccupied or unused village land.

³⁴⁸ FAO (2020) Global Forest Resources Assessment Report, United Republic of Tanzania.

³⁴⁹ The Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination was concerned about information received that the situation of pastoralist Masai communities affected by evictions had worsened and that those communities had allegedly suffered intimidation, arrest, physical ill-treatment and arbitrary detention. It requested that the URT take immediate measures to protect the Masai

community, take concrete steps to find a peaceful solution to the dispute, take concrete measures to ensure access of Masai people to their traditional lands and provide adequate compensation, as appropriate, for the alleged losses suffered. The CEDAW Committee raised particular concerns regarding the status of Masai women, identifying them as among the poorest and most marginalized groups in Tanzania. 111 A/HRC/WG.6/25/TZA/2 14 L.

³⁵⁰ The report also states that more than half of inland water ecosystems (rivers, lakes and dams) have been degraded and 90 percent of the wetlands are under increasing pressure.

³⁵¹ The forests contribute significant revenues generated through tourism (maintenance of wildlife habitat) and extraction of forest products both timber and non-timber. They also add value indirectly through carbon storage, nutrient cycling, water and air purification and prevention of soil erosion.

³⁵² FAO (2020) Global Forest Resources Assessment Report, United Republic of Tanzania. Katavi, Lindi, Ruvuma and Mbeya regions are the most forested. Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism (2015) National Forest Resources Monitoring and Assessment of Tanzania Mainland

³⁵³ National Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan (NBSAP) 2015-2020

³⁵⁴ URT (2019) State of the Environment Report

³⁵⁵ Ibid

³⁵⁶ This will amount to 20 percent of terrestrial and 10 percent of marine areas, MTDS (2021-2025)

³⁵⁷ VPO, Division of Environment, URT (2014) Fifth National Report on the Implementation of the Convention on Biological Diversity

³⁵⁸ While poaching is often defined as 'the illegal practice of hunting, capturing, taking or killing wildlife', there are a number of reasons why wildlife is being killed, including protection of livestock. The latter is not always interpreted as illegal. See case studies for Ruvuma and Greater Kilimanjaro landscape in Roe (ed) (2015) Conservation, Crime and Communities: Case Studies of Efforts To Engage Local Communities In Tackling Illegal Wildlife Trade. More broadly on the development impacts of environmental crimes, refer to Nellemann C et al (ed) (2016) The Rise of Environmental Crime – A Growing Threat to Natural Resources Peace, Development and Security. A UNEP- INTERPOL Rapid Response Assessment.

³⁵⁹ URT (2019) State of the Environment Report

³⁶⁰ Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation (2016) Global Burden of Disease Study. Contamination of the water table contributes to cholera, typhoid, dysentery, and diarrhoea as well as other non-communicable diseases. From 15 August 2015 through 7 January 2018, 33 421 cholera cases including 542 deaths were reported across all 26 regions of the United Republic of Tanzania (mainland and Zanzibar). Children under five years old accounted for 11.4 percent of cases. WHO (2018, 12 January), [Cholera – United Republic of Tanzania WHO Disease Outbreak News, 12 January 2018, https://www.who.int/csr/don/12-january-2018-cholera-tanzania/en/#:~:text=From%2015%20August%202015%20through,\(Tanzania%20mainland%20and%20Zanzibar\)](https://www.who.int/csr/don/12-january-2018-cholera-tanzania/en/#:~:text=From%2015%20August%202015%20through,(Tanzania%20mainland%20and%20Zanzibar).). See below for link between cholera and climate change.

³⁶¹ Over 8,400 new industries have been established mostly in urban areas.

³⁶² It is estimated that impacts resulting from poor sanitation and hygiene cost the country about USD 206 million per year or equivalent to 1 percent of annual GDP. NBS (2015) Environmental Statistics 2014

³⁶³ It is calculated that between 2 to 10 percent of nitrogenous fertilizers interfere with surface and groundwater sources thus leading to further deterioration of the ecological systems. URT (2019)

³⁶⁴ Ibid

³⁶⁵ 1 percent of deaths by pollution are caused by other chemicals and occupational carcinogens. Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation (2016). The air pollution data collected by WHO indicates that an annual mean concentration of fine particulate matter (PM2.5) level recorded 25.59 µg/m³ in 2016 in Tanzania which is above the WHO guideline value of 10 µg/m³. High concentrations of fine particulates contribute to the risk of developing cardiovascular, respiratory disease and lung cancer. WHO (2016) Concentrations of fine particulate matter (PM2.5), [https://www.who.int/data/gho/data/indicators/indicator-details/GHO/concentrations-of-fine-particulate-matter-\(pm2-5\)](https://www.who.int/data/gho/data/indicators/indicator-details/GHO/concentrations-of-fine-particulate-matter-(pm2-5)).

³⁶⁶ Clean Cooking Alliance, <https://www.cleancookingalliance.org>

³⁶⁷ Reference to the need to diversify the energy mix is picked up again in the next segment.

³⁶⁸ Drought is more common now in parts of Arusha, Manyara, Shinyanga, Simiyu, and Dodoma regions. Among the most drought-stricken districts is Longido in Arusha region, where poverty is also estimated to be high. World Bank (2019). The UNDP 2019 Human Development Report states that climate change risks are unevenly distributed and generally higher for the poorest and most vulnerable; ie they experience the least resilience.

³⁶⁹ Maize production is concentrated in the southern highlands (e.g., Iringa and Mbeya); the southwest (e.g., Shinyanga and Rukwa); and Arusha, where the climate is non-tropical and the land is most fertile.

³⁷⁰ World Bank (2019)

³⁷¹ https://www.un.org/womenwatch/feature/climate_change/downloads/Women_and_Climate_Change_Factsheet.pdf

³⁷² Ibid

³⁷³ UNISDR (2019) Tanzania Disaster Risk Profile. Sex disaggregated data re the impact of droughts on the population is currently unavailable.

³⁷⁴ IOM Tanzania has commissioned a study to examine the causes and consequences of a perceived increase in southward migration of cattle herds (and herders) from the north to the south, brought about by recurring droughts. Its findings will be published late 2021.

³⁷⁵ National Climate Change Strategy 2021-2026 (draft). Between November 2019 and April 2020, nearly one million people, 20

percent of a population of 4.8 million in 16 districts of Tanzania were estimated to be experiencing severe food insecurity (IPC Phase 3 and 4). This was driven primarily by a prolonged dry spell, coupled with Fall Armyworm infestations and erratic rainfall in the 2018/19 planting season, leading to decreased production in both the Masika and Msimu harvests. The poor harvest resulted in limited food availability and a reduction of casual on-farm labour opportunities for post-harvest activities. During this period, unusually high commodity prices were recorded in all districts analysed. Between May and September 2020, nearly half a million people were in a Crisis situation (Phase 3) and 7,600 (0.2 percent) people were in an Emergency situation (Phase 4). Around 1,845,800 (38 percent) people are projected to be in a Stressed situation (Phase 2). The improvement in the level of food security during the projection period was attributed to the anticipated positive impact of for the Vuli and Msimu rains, which are expected to be normal.

³⁷⁶ Reports from the PMO-DMD indicates that, about half of the regions on the mainland were affected by floods/landslides at various degrees during 2019 /2020. These destroyed livelihoods, infrastructure and displaced about 20,000.

³⁷⁷ UNISDR (2019)

³⁷⁸ Ibid.

³⁷⁹ In addition to the terrible morbidity and mortality caused, cholera has far-reaching consequences on the tourist economy. The Revolutionary Government of Zanzibar has therefore developed a 10-year Comprehensive Cholera Elimination Plan (2018–2027) and began implementation of Zanzibar Comprehensive Cholera Elimination Programme in 2019, with the aim of improving sanitation and hygiene services as fundamental to cholera elimination. There has been no reported cholera case in Zanzibar since then, but this cannot be solely attributed to the programme. There is no parallel programme for the mainland, although there is a draft National Cholera Prevention and Control Strategy that is awaiting approval from the Minister of Health.

³⁸⁰ Traerup S, Ortiz R and Markandya A (2011) The Costs of Climate Change: A Study of Cholera in Tanzania, *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 8, pp, 4386-4405

³⁸¹ WHO and UNFCCC (2015) Climate and Health Country Profile, URT

³⁸² National Climate Change Strategy for Zanzibar (2014); Intended Nationally Determined Contributions (2015); National Climate Change Strategy (2020) Stocktaking Report.

³⁸³ 26 percent of people in Zanzibar are food-insecure and 3.6 percent are facing chronic food insecurity. Ministry of Agriculture, Natural Resources, Livestock and Fisheries, Zanzibar. *Enhancing Climate Change Resilience of Coastal Communities of Zanzibar*. https://www.adaptation-fund.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/08/Correct-file_Tanzania_Zanzibar_for-web.pdf

³⁸⁴ Rossana Galli R (2019) The “Possible Trinity” of Agricultural Investment Policies: Enhancing Employment Creation, Productivity and Sustainability of Agricultural Investments in Sub-Saharan Africa, ILO Employment Working Paper No. 249

³⁸⁵ UNDP (2019) Human Development Report

³⁸⁶ Draft National Climate Change Strategy 2021-2026 (Current draft to be validated end of February or early March 2021)

³⁸⁷ Despite the impacts of climate change being most dramatically observed and experienced at the local level and LGAs therefore being uniquely positioned to understand and address related issues, according to the International Centre for Climate Change and Development less than 20 percent of funding for adaptation goes to the most vulnerable communities in the most vulnerable countries. Soanes M, Rai N, Steele P, Shakya C & MacGregor J (2017) Delivering Real Change: Getting International Climate Finance to the Local Level, International Institute for Environment and Development, <https://www.iied.org/climate-finance-not-reaching-local-level>. The Zanzibar Disaster Management Policy (2011) acknowledges that during disasters, it is women, children, PWD, and older persons that are more at risk and are the ones who tolerate the largest burden. The Government has committed itself to ensure that all necessary needs of the special groups are considered and mainstreamed into disaster management Programmes.

³⁸⁸ This is essential given the country’s water scarcity, low levels of access to clean and safe water and sanitation and the increasing frequency and intensity of droughts and floods across the country, along with sea level rise in coastal areas.

³⁸⁹ The Plan is designed to replace the 2007 National Adaptation Programme of Action which prioritised six key areas: improving food security in drought-prone areas; improving water availability in central areas; shifting shallow water wells affected by inundation on the coastal regions, participatory reforestation in Kilimanjaro Mountain; community-based mini-hydro; combating malaria epidemics in newly mosquito-infested areas.

³⁹⁰ The Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030 outlines seven clear targets and four priorities for action to prevent new and reduce existing disaster risks. The primary purpose of the tool is to assist the countries to monitor and review their progress and challenges in the implementation of Sendai Framework’s priorities.

³⁹¹ The UN collectively contributed to the Strategy under the umbrella of the Emergency Coordination Group which is comprised of senior programme experts from relevant agencies responsible for emergency planning and response. Assistance has also been afforded for the development of a new Contingency Plan. This focuses on mitigating potential large-scale flooding during the rainy season and inclusion of risks associated with influx of refugees from Cabo Delgado, Mozambique to Mtwara region of Tanzania. Coordinated support in emergencies such as the Mount Kilimanjaro fire in 2020 and Cyclone Kenneth in 2019 has also been provided, as and when required.

³⁹² https://www.un.org/womenwatch/feature/climate_change/downloads/Women_and_Climate_Change_Factsheet.pdf

³⁹³ A historical overview which helps explain some of the challenges experienced in the economy and environment today, especially in relation to agricultural productivity, industrial competitiveness and urbanisation is provide in Annex I.

³⁹⁴ Specific details are provided in Part I under relevant sections

³⁹⁵ The Constitution of the URT, 1977 (2005 version), Part I, 3 (1)

³⁹⁶ The URT Constitution (as amended) provides for Affirmative Action (Special Seats) as stipulated in Article 66 (1) (b), Article 78 (1) and Section 86A of the National Elections Act, CAP 343. It requires that women MPs should constitute 30 percent of the total number.

In 2015 the government made a commitment to increase women MPs through Special Seats to 40 percent; a progressive measure towards the SADC benchmark of 50/50.

³⁹⁷ Part III (9), Budget Act. Cap 439. (2015)

³⁹⁸ Part II, 5(1), and 7, The National Assembly (Administration) Act, 2015, as amended

³⁹⁹ Part III 14 (1), The National Assembly (Administration) Act, 2015, as amended

⁴⁰⁰ Analysis of the Written Laws (Miscellaneous) Amendment Bill No. 3 (2020) submitted by 210 CSOs to the Parliamentary Committee on Constitutional and Legal Affairs dated 6 June 2020

⁴⁰¹ Women make up 15 percent of Regional Commissioner and 32 percent of the Regional Administrative Secretaries

⁴⁰² Directorate of Presidential Communications-State House, United Republic of Tanzania, Press Release 15 May 2021.

⁴⁰³ On 10 May 2019, the High Court of Tanzania in Dar es Salaam declared null and void provisions 7 and 7A of the National Elections Act (Cap.343 R.E. 2010). These provisions allowed District Executive Directors to be returning officers during elections, contrary to Article 74 (14) of the Constitution which prohibits persons concerned with conducts of elections to join any political party. The High Court's decision was subsequently reversed by the Court of Appeal on 16 October 2019, Civil Appeal, No. 138.

⁴⁰⁴ These are first proposed by political parties and then declared by the electoral authority. Their numbers may not exceed one quarter of the council.

⁴⁰⁵ Lihiru, V (2019) Participatory Constitutional Reforms vs. Realization of Equal Representation of Men and Women in the Parliaments: A Study of Kenya, Rwanda and Tanzania. Faculty of Law, Department of Public Law. Retrieved from <http://hdl.handle.net/11427/31508>. Available at <https://open.uct.ac.za/handle/11427/31508>. Accessed 15 May 2021.

⁴⁰⁶ Women's participation at local level remains a key challenge; they are often excluded or given minority positions in the village land councils. This limits women's capacity to engage in land matters and impacts women's land ownership.

⁴⁰⁷ Eriksen (2018) maintains that, despite centralised budget allocations, market-oriented reforms have made local government critically important for businesses of all sizes, and an important source of rents for officials, local politicians and the business community. PO-RALG estimates one in five shillings in the public sector are spent at the local government level. ECORYS (2017, June) Political Economy Analyses in Countries in Eastern and Southern Africa, Case Study – Tanzania Mainland.

⁴⁰⁸ REPOA (2010) Planning in Local Government Authorities in Tanzania: Bottom-up Meets Top-down. The Local Government Finance Act Amendments 2018/9 required each LGA to set aside a mandatory 4 percent of their own sourced revenues for women development projects, 4 percent for Youth, and 2 percent for People with Disabilities. Since 2018/19, the government has also issued directives to all relevant accounting officers to ensure their budgets incorporate activities in line with NPA-VAWC 2017/18-2021/22. See section below related to Violence Against Women and Children.

⁴⁰⁹ Examples of local communities supporting education services are provided in Mollel HA & Tollenaar A (2013): Decentralization in Tanzania: Design and Application in Planning Decisions, International Journal of Public Administration, 36: 5, pp344-353

⁴¹⁰ <https://www.igi-global.com/dictionary/public-private-community-partnership-ppcp/41499>

⁴¹¹ Article 109 of the Constitution

⁴¹² Kadhi Courts adjudicate all Islamic family matters in Zanzibar, such as divorce, distribution of matrimonial assets, custody of children and inheritance for Muslim families only.

⁴¹³ The 1963 Local Customary (Declaration) Order, which allowed for the application of customary laws in formal courts, only applies to all communities with a patrilineal system. This excludes around 20 percent of the population, who follow a matrilineal system.

⁴¹⁴ Global Alliance of National Human Rights Institutions, <https://nhri.ohchr.org/EN/Documents/Status%20Accreditation%20Chart%20%2804%20March%202019.pdf>

⁴¹⁵ https://www.upr-info.org/sites/default/files/document/tanzania_united_republic_of/session_25_-_may_2016/recommendations_and_pledges_tanzania_2016.pdf

⁴¹⁶ Tanzania Universal Periodic Review (2021) 39th session, 01-12 November 2021, Submissions, <https://www.ohchr.org/EN/HRBodies/UPR/Pages/TZIndex.aspx>

⁴¹⁷ ICCPR 11 Jun 1976; CED 29 Sep 2008; CEDAW 20 Aug 1985; CERD 27 Oct 1972; CESCR 11 Jun 1976; CRC 10 Jun 1991; CRC-OP-AC 11 Nov 2004; CRC-OP-SC 24 Apr 2003; CRPD 10 Nov 2009.

⁴¹⁸ However, there were some caveats provided. For example, the EU raised concerns regarding the transparency of the election administrations and use of state resources, such as public stadiums, that were not accessible to opposition parties.

⁴¹⁹ Elections in Zanzibar since 1995 have been contentious. In 2010, these led to the creation of a GNU, whereby CUF as the principal opposition was given a role in government for the first time. Eriksen (2018) suggests that in Zanzibar, party elites have an interest in maintaining unity given the multiple avenues for taxation through both the Tanzania Revenue Authority and the Zanzibar Revenue Board, the export-oriented clove industry and tourism, which offer significant opportunities for rent-seeking, with the emerging petroleum sector promising more.

⁴²⁰ 2019 Ibrahim Index of African Governance, <https://iiag.online/>

⁴²¹ See Part I, Public Financing for Social Development for brief analysis of challenges in the public service sector.

⁴²² See Part I for more analysis of these areas.

⁴²³ The 2019 IIAG classifies Tanzania as ‘increasing deterioration’ for both Security and the Rule of Law plus Participation, Inclusion and Rights. Access to Information, Timeliness of Criminal Justice, Budget Transparency as well as Due and Fair Process are amongst the least well-performing indicators across the entire Index for 2019.

⁴²⁴ According to the 2019 IIAG, some improvements have been seen in the category of ‘Participation, Inclusion and Inequality,’ with advances made under the indicators of political power by sexual orientation (although this remains one of the lowest scoring indicators across the index) and promotion of the socio-economic integration of youth. In general however, the category has seen a substantial decline since 2015. Across the index, issues around freedom of association and assembly, representation of youth in parliament, equal access to public services for women, laws on violence against women and workplace equality for women are amongst the lowest scoring and/or most reduced indicators across the index.

⁴²⁵ According to the 2019 IIAG, under the ‘Rule of Law and Justice’ sub-category, the most decline has been seen in indicators related to the impartiality of the judicial system, appointment of judges, timeliness of criminal justice and equal treatment before the law. Under the ‘Accountability and Transparency’ sub-category, indicators referencing separation of power and citizen complaint mechanisms have deteriorated the most.

⁴²⁶ Legal and Human Rights Centre (2020) Human Rights Protection and The Threat Posed By Covid19 in Tanzania 2020, <https://www.humanrights.or.tz/assets/attachments/1617953964.pdf>. Some improvements have been registered with the recruitment of more women into the justice system, UN Women (2020) Gender Bench Book for Women’s Rights in Tanzania.

⁴²⁷ Legal and Human Rights Centre (2020)

⁴²⁸ Legal and Human Rights Center, Human Rights Protection and The Threat Posed By Covid19 In Tanzania 2020, <https://www.humanrights.or.tz/assets/attachments/1617953964.pdf>.

⁴²⁹ MoCLA & UN Women (2020) Gender Analysis of Women in Conflict with the Law (draft report).

⁴³⁰ According to the UN Global Study on Children Deprived of Liberty (2019), in 2017, a total of 1,113 children (176 girls and 937 boys) were taken into police detention for suspected offences, 312 (31 girls and 281 boys) were taken into pre-trial detention and 198 (10 girls and 188 boys) were taken to prison or correctional detention.

⁴³¹ The Committee on the Rights of the Child also expressed concern about the lack of adequate legal-aid services for children in conflict with the law and encouraged the provision of qualified and independent legal aid and the expeditious adoption of the Legal Aid Bill, as referenced in the 2016 UPR, CRC/C/TZA/CO/3-5, paras. 72-73.

⁴³³ OBS is part of the International Budget Partnership’s Open Budget Initiative, a global research and advocacy programme to promote public access to budget information and the adoption of accountable budget systems.

⁴³⁴ For instance, the Executive’s Budget Proposal for 2018/19 which was submitted to the legislature for approval was only available in hard copy. The In-Year Reports which include information on actual revenues collected, actual expenditures made, and debt incurred at different intervals were produced late in 2017/18 and 2018/19, while the Mid-Year Review that gives update on the implementation of the budget was not produced. The year-end report of the government’s accounts and evaluation of progress made was also not produced for 2016-17.

⁴³⁵ Freedom House refers to a World Bank arbitration court in October 2014, which ordered Tanzania to pay USD 185 million in a case arising from a corruption scandal involving Independent Power Tanzania Ltd for which the government denies responsibility. Also, an audit in 2018 which uncovered USD 640 million in missing revenue from the 2016–17 fiscal year and follow-up assessments in 2019 which revealed more than USD 1 billion in missing or misappropriated funds. The chair of the parliament’s Public Accounts Committee has denied any loss or theft. Freedom House (2020), Freedom in the World, <https://freedomhouse.org/country/tanzania/freedom-world/2020>.

⁴³⁶ Challenges related to the situation of refugees in the Kigoma region are discussed in the section related to Participation, Rights and Inclusion

⁴³⁷ Tanzania has witnessed a series of terrorist incidents, primarily against police stations on the mainland in recent years. These are suspected (although not proven) to have been undertaken by groups in some way connected or sympathetic to Al-Shabaab. Despite these incidents, the 2020 Global Peace Index placed Tanzania at 1.85, ranking 52 of 163 countries, representing an improvement of 6 places from the previous year. Institute for Economics & Peace (2020, June) Global Peace Index: Measuring Peace in a Complex World, Sydney, <http://visionofhumanity.org/reports>, accessed 05.03.2021

⁴³⁸ <https://www.theeastafrican.co.ke/news/ea/Missing-380-people-Tanzanian-MPs-ask-government/4552908-4546368-t0bbww/index.html>

⁴³⁹ <https://www.reuters.com/article/us-tanzania-security-mozambique-idUSKBN2781PB>

⁴⁴⁰ <https://www.bbc.com/news/world-africa-56557623>

⁴⁴¹ ACCORD (2021, September 1), The Prospects for a Successful SADC Mission in Mozambique,

<https://www.accord.org.za/analysis/the-prospects-for-a-successful-sadc-mission-in-mozambique/>

⁴⁴² Search for Common Ground (2017). Baseline Evaluation of: *Katika Usalama Tunategemeana and Pamoja* ! Strengthening Community Resilience in Tanzania

⁴⁴³ The region’s population is predominantly rural (77.1 percent) with 50 percent of the population under 19 years of age. They are vulnerable to extreme weather events alongside food insecurity, with most food stuff supplied from other regions. More than half of the households live in conditions of extreme poverty. The gas reserves, discovered in Mtwara (2009) and in Cabo Delgado (around 2012), were expected to transform the regions, attracting investments of around USD 30 billion to Tanzania and USD 50 billion to Mozambique. In Tanzania, the local population protested the construction of a natural gas-pipeline from Mtwara to Dar Es Salaam,

threatening to secede. There are perceptions are that there has been little benefit to local communities. By being insensitive to local power dynamics, current resettlement programmes have disrupted traditional power structures established around the use of land. Land resettlement and loss the of livelihood especially in coastal areas, despite reported successful compensation schemes by multinationals may have served as a trigger for outbreak of violence since 2017.

⁴⁴⁴ Eriksen also references what he sees as the ‘mistaken conflation’ of separatist groups such as Zanzibar’s Uamsho and transnational violent extremist groups, with leaders detained on terrorism charges since 2013. Eriksen (2018).

⁴⁴⁵ US Department of State Bureau of International Narcotics and Law Enforcement Affairs (2021, March) International Narcotics Control Strategy Report Volume I. The report also suggests that drug use in Tanzania is on the rise. In June 2021, Tanzania opened a methadone clinic in Tanga Region, on the border with Kenya, designed to serve a growing number of persons suffering from substance use disorders, likely resulting from traffickers who pay employees in narcotics instead of cash.

⁴⁴⁶ *International Narcotics Control Strategy Report*, INL, 2016 <https://2009-2017.state.gov/INL>

⁴⁴⁷ <https://www.dailymaverick.co.za/article/2020-05-08-are-mozambiques-insurgents-closing-in-on-illicit-trafficking-profits>

⁴⁴⁸ On seizures and arrests see *Maritime Security Review*, March 10th, 2020 <https://marsecreview.com>.

⁴⁴⁹ *Country Profile: Tanzania*, GMP, <https://pubdocs.worldbank.org>. This is a good example of the contradictory nature of Serious Organised Crime (SOC) on livelihoods. In the short term SOC appears to provide economic activity and sustenance to some sections of society but its longer-term impact is destabilizing and effectively crowds out legitimate economic activity.

⁴⁵⁰ See ENACT Observer (2021, 25 May) for an account of the impact and extent of gold smuggling, <https://enactfrica.org>.

⁴⁵¹ Over the period 2008-2019, 225,000 kgs of African elephant ivory were seized in nine South Eastern Asian countries. This illustrates the extent of the market for the products and a fraction of the scale. See South East Asia: At the Heart of the Wildlife Trade, <https://www.traffic.org>.

⁴⁵² Ndumbaro DD (2016) *The Cyber Law and Freedom of Expression: The Tanzanian Perspectives*

⁴⁵³ World Bank (2018, 2 October) World Bank Statement on Amendments to Tanzania’s 2015 Statistics Act, <https://www.worldbank.org/en/news/statement/2018/10/02/world-bank-statement-on-amendments-to-tanzanias-2015-statistics-act>

⁴⁵⁴ It is yet unclear how these recent changes have impacted upon academic freedom in particular. Human Rights Watch (2019) <https://www.hrw.org/news/2019/07/03/tanzania-drops-threat-prison-over-publishing-independent-statistics#:~:text=The%20Statistics%20Act%20of%202015,made%20about%20Tanzania's%20economic%20growth>.

⁴⁵⁵ Tanzania has a highly diverse media, with over 450 registered newspapers and journals, as well as 180 radio and television stations. Reuters (2017, September 2) <https://www.reuters.com/article/us-tanzania-media/tanzania-shuts-down-another-days-numbered-newspaper-idUSKCN1B14Y?il=0>

⁴⁵⁶ OHCHR, (2020 July 22) <https://www.ohchr.org/EN/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID=26117&LangID=E>

⁴⁵⁷ East African Court of Justice, <https://www.eacj.org/?cases=application-no-5-of-2019-media-council-of-tanzania-others-v-the-attorney-general-of-the-united-republic-of-tanzania-2>

⁴⁵⁸ Amnesty International (2020) Tanzania, <https://www.amnesty.org/en/countries/africa/tanzania/report-tanzania/>

⁴⁵⁹ See <https://www.state.gov/wp-content/uploads/2020/03/TANZANIA-2019-HUMAN-RIGHTS-REPORT.pdf>. The NGO Act of 2019 gives the government broad powers to monitor and evaluate each NGO’s activities every three months, with discretionary powers to suspend operations pending a hearing.

⁴⁶⁰ Freedom House (2020), <https://freedomhouse.org/country/tanzania/freedom-world/2020>

⁴⁶¹ <https://www.ohchr.org/EN/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID=26117&LangID=E>. In late 2019, Tanzania withdrew from the Article 34(6) of the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights, which allows individuals and NGOs to directly access the Court. Of the 70 decisions issued by the court up to September 2019, approximate 40 percent, were related to Tanzania. Likewise, most of the cases still pending before the African Court are against Tanzania, OHCHR (2019) <https://www.ohchr.org/Documents/Publications/OHCHRreport2019.pdf>

⁴⁶² The authorities temporarily suspended bulk messaging and bulk voice calling services around the elections, social media sites were blocked and the internet was shut down on 27 October. OHCHR, 10 November 2020, <https://www.ohchr.org/EN/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID=26489&LangID=E>

⁴⁶³ Statement by the Commonwealth Secretary-General on the 2020 General Elections in the URT, 2 November 2020, <https://thecommonwealth.org/media/news/statement-commonwealth-secretary-general-2020-general-elections-united-republic-tanzania>; Declaration by the High Representative on behalf of the EU on the elections in Tanzania, 2 November 2020

<https://www.consilium.europa.eu/en/press/press-releases/2020/11/02/tanzania-declaration-by-the-high-representative-on-behalf-of-the-eu-on-the-elections-in-tanzania/>, US State Department Statement, 2 November 2020, <https://stlnewsusa.livejournal.com/3263167.html>

⁴⁶⁴ Reuters, <https://www.reuters.com/world/tanzania-opposition-calls-new-constitution-faster-covid-19-research-2021-04-11>

⁴⁶⁵ This section provides an overview of the status of women and girls in Tanzania and delves deeper into political representation, social norms, issues of violence and protection. Further detail regarding women’s access to education, health, nutrition and WASH, as well as their overall economic status is provided in Part I.

⁴⁶⁶ These include: CEDAW (ratified 1986); Beijing Platform of Action 1995; the Protocol to the ACHPR on the Rights of Women in Africa also known as the Maputo Protocol (ratified 2007); the ICPD Programme of Action 1994

⁴⁶⁷ The NEC data for 2020 general election demonstrates that the number of female voters was slightly higher at 50.33 percent compared to male voters (49.67 percent).

⁴⁶⁸ Among the female MPs holding special seats, there are 3 female MPs living with a disability and 10 are less than 35 years old.

⁴⁶⁹ Of the 50 elected members, 8 (16 percent) are women, one more than in 2015. There are three presidential appointees as per the Zanzibar Constitution.

⁴⁷⁰ Tanzania Women Cross-Party Platform (2016) Violence Against Women in Elections: Evidence From 2015 Tanzania General Elections, UN Women

⁴⁷¹ Tanzania Election Watch, Not Free; Not Fair, Final Observation Report on The General Election Held In Tanzania On October 28, 2020.

⁴⁷² If only the current 26 percent of elected women MPs are taken into account, Tanzania ranks 76 of 190 countries, and sits just above the global average of women in parliament, which is 25.1 percent. If the non-elected Special Seats are included, Tanzania ranks 34 of 190. See Inter-Parliamentary Union, Monthly Ranking of Women in National Parliaments, www.ipu.org. Data is not yet systematically collected regarding women in local government. The NBS intends to compile these statistics in 2021.

⁴⁷³ Global Institute for Women's Leadership (2020) Women Political Leaders: The Impact of Gender in Democracy

⁴⁷⁴ UN Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA), African Union (AU), East African Community (EAC), South African Development Community (SADC), African Centre for Gender Development; the Commission on the Status of Women (CSW).

⁴⁷⁵ The Zanzibar Youth Development Policy (2005) emphasizes the participation of young women in all levels of development. The primary goal of the policy is to uplift the standard of living of youths through the improvement in their social political and economic status by equipping them with relevant education skills, good health, and socially acceptable cultural norms.

⁴⁷⁶ Half of all ever-married women have ever experienced spousal violence, most commonly physical violence (39 percent) and emotional violence (36 percent) whilst 14 percent have experienced sexual violence. 8 percent of women who have ever been pregnant have experienced physical violence during pregnancy. 17 percent of women age 15-49 have ever experienced sexual violence and 9 percent have experienced sexual violence in the past 12 months. 7 percent of women age 18 or older experienced sexual violence before age 18, and 2 percent of all women age 15-49 have experienced sexual violence before the age of 15.

⁴⁷⁷ The regions with highest VAW prevalence include: Mara (78 percent), Shinyanga (76 percent), Tabora (71 percent), Kagera (67 percent), Geita (63 percent), and Simiyu (62 percent). The regions with the lowest prevalence include: Tanga (25 percent) and Zanzibar, which reports prevalence rates in its sub-regions ranging from 22 percent in Kusini Unguja to 8 percent in Kaskazini Pemba.

⁴⁷⁸ TDHS 2015

⁴⁷⁹ The percentage of ever married women who experienced sexual violence and reported their former husbands/partners as the perpetrators jumped from 21 to 40 percent and never-married women who experienced sexual violence and reported current/former boyfriends as perpetrators rose from 27 percent to 42 percent between the 2010 and 2015/16 DHS. Nearly three quarters of ever-married women having experienced marital control by their husbands/partners. Twenty-nine percent of women experienced three or more types of marital controlling behaviours by their husbands/partners.

⁴⁸⁰ Legal and Human Rights Center, Human Rights Protection And The Threat Posed By Covid19 In Tanzania 2020, available at <https://www.humanrights.or.tz/assets/attachments/1617953964.pdf>.

⁴⁸¹ DHS 2 figures, accessed March 2021.

⁴⁸² 100 percent of the reported cases received comprehensive case management services such as psychosocial counselling and multi sectoral assistance. Across all three camps, 688 Burundian GBV survivors received legal counselling, 387 pursued legal action against their perpetrators and a total of 24 convictions were achieved.

⁴⁸³ UNICEF Tanzania, US Centres for Disease Control and Prevention and Muhimbili University of Health and Allied Sciences (2011) Violence against Children in Tanzania: Findings from a National Survey Tanzania

⁴⁸⁴ Hecker et al. (2013) Corporal Punishment and Children's Externalizing Problems: A Cross-sectional Study of Tanzanian Primary School Aged Children', Child Abuse and Neglect, the International Journal 38

⁴⁸⁵ Ministry of Health, Community Development, Gender, Elderly and Children (2017) Child Marriage in Tanzania at a Glance, <https://genderjustice.org.za/publication/child-marriage-tanzania-glance/> Accessed on 23 November 2020.

⁴⁸⁶ TDHS 2015/2016

⁴⁸⁷ 'After getting pregnant, you are done': no more school for Tanzania's mums-to-be,' available at <https://www.theguardian.com/global-development/2017/jun/30/tanzania-president-ban-pregnant-girls-from-schooljohn-magufuli> accessed on 5 May 2021.

⁴⁸⁸ The Sexual Offences Special Provisions Act (1998) criminalizes all sexual activity with girls below the age of 18 but provides exceptions for those who are 15 years or older and married.

⁴⁸⁹ TDHS 2015/16. Figures for Zanzibar are lower at 18 percent in 2015.

⁴⁹⁰ IOM (2016) Dynamics of Trafficking in Persons in Tanzania; US Department of State (2018, June) Trafficking in Persons Report

⁴⁹¹ Ministry of Health and Social Welfare (2009) Human Trafficking Baseline Assessment in Tanzania: Findings from Selected Regions. In 2015, Reuters reported that more than 12,000 children had been rescued in the three years prior from gold mines in Northern Tanzania, <https://www.reuters.com/article/us-tanzania-children-workers-idUSKCN0PA1ZO20150630>. Children are often recruited with the false promise of a good education.

⁴⁹² The Walk Free Foundation (2013) Global Slavery Index

-
- ⁴⁹³ As one example, PCCB research at the University of Dar es Salaam and Dodoma confirmed the presence of a “sex for grades” problem (one type of sextortion) in both institutions by lecturers (<https://jamii.app/RushwaNgonoVyuoni>, accessed 27.11.2020).
- ⁴⁹⁴ Relevant sections: CAP 16 section 130 of 2002; title 135 of Sexual Offences Special Provision Act of 1998; section 25 of PCCB Act No. 11 of 2007 [6].
- ⁴⁹⁵ Legal and Human Rights Center, Human Rights Protection and The Threat Posed By Covid19 In Tanzania 2020, available at <https://www.humanrights.or.tz/assets/attachments/1617953964.pdf>.
- ⁴⁹⁶ UN Women, 2019. Safe Cities and Safe Public Spaces for Women and Girls Global Flagship Initiative: Second International Compendium of Practices. <https://www.unwomen.org/-/media/headquarters/attachments/sections/library/publications/2020/safe-cities-and-safe-public-spaces-international-compendium-of-practices-02-en.pdf?la=en&vs=2013>.
- ⁴⁹⁷ WHO (2016) INSPIRE: Seven Strategies for Ending Violence Against Children
- ⁴⁹⁸ These include guidelines by public space governing boards to promote gender equality and women safety in public spaces.
- ⁴⁹⁹ A 2011 survey revealed that only 0.1 percent of the resources in key ministries in the Mainland were allocated to child protection. Muganda C and Budlender D (2012) Public Expenditure Identification Survey on Child Protection in Tanzania.
- ⁵⁰⁰ Data provided by the President’s Office – Regional and Local Administrative Government.
- ⁵⁰¹ The number of new One-Stop Centres, Police Gender and Children’s Desks, and shelters are currently below target and their distribution across regions and districts is uneven. In Kigoma, for example, there is only one shelter for a population of 30,000 children and women. Protection and security services to prevent or mitigate VAC, child marriage, and FGM are virtually non-existent as safe houses for women and children are mostly run by CSOs that lack sustainable funding sources despite an increasing demand.
- ⁵⁰² The Report of the Independent Expert on the enjoyment of human rights by persons with albinism on her mission to the URT states that both the Government and Tanzanians with albinism agree that the numbers for people with albinism are likely to be well under the reality. Also, the Legal and Human Rights Centre and Zanzibar Legal Services Centre’s report ‘Unknown Assailants’: A Threat to Human Rights - Tanzania Human Rights Report – 2017 identifies in Zanzibar the phenomenon where some families with persons with disabilities try and hide them and keep information about them a secret.
- ⁵⁰³ The 1977 Constitution prohibits discrimination against people with disabilities
- ⁵⁰⁴ Two examples of action taken after the latter are the introduction of separate queues in polling stations for PWDs and the introduction of tactile ballot papers.
- ⁵⁰⁵ Mostert, MP (2016). Stigma as a Barrier to the Implementation of the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities in Africa, African Disability Rights Yearbook, pp2-24
- ⁵⁰⁶ African Initiatives (2018)
- ⁵⁰⁷ Ibid
- ⁵⁰⁸ Foundation for Civil Society (FCS) (2017). Implementation Status of the UN Convention on Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) Tanzania; Kuper et al (2016); Tiwari et al
- ⁵⁰⁹ Mrisho M, Kakih B, Greenwood M & Steff M (2016) Hear My Voice: Old Age and Disability Are Not A Curse, Sightsavers
- ⁵¹⁰ Second VPO Zanzibar, the Global Fund and UNFPA (2018) Situational Analysis for Youth with Disability on SRHR of Family Planning Services in Zanzibar
- ⁵¹¹ Ibid.
- ⁵¹² Mostert, MP (2016)
- ⁵¹³ Franklin A, Lund, P, Bradbury-Jones C, & Taylor J (2018) Children with Albinism in African Regions: Their Rights to ‘Being’ and ‘Doing’, BMC International Health and Human Rights, 18:2, pp1-8
- ⁵¹⁴ The Committee on the Rights of the Child expressed concern that the root causes of violence were insufficiently addressed in the UPR 2016, and that prosecution of alleged offenders was hampered by fear and the reported complicity of some State authorities. The Committee urged the URT to adopt a comprehensive strategy targeting “witch doctors”, to expedite the investigation and prosecution of all cases involving children with albinism, and to provide victims with rehabilitation and redress.
- ⁵¹⁵ Government notes No. 110, Published on 1st February 2019.
- ⁵¹⁶ Ibid
- ⁵¹⁷ UNHCR (2021, February 20) 2021 Burundi Refugee Return and Reintegration Plan, <https://Reporting.Unhcr.Org/Sites/Default/Files/2021%20Burundi%20JRRRP%2015%20February%202021.Pdf>
- ⁵¹⁸ The main resettlement countries are the USA, Canada, Australia and Sweden (since 2020). In 2020, the number of submissions was low due to a halting of the US resettlement programme in November 2019 as well as the COVID-19 pandemic. The change in US administration in November 2020 brought a change in policy: in March 2021, Tanzania received a US quota for submission of 3,000 individuals.
- ⁵¹⁹ International instruments which have been ratified but not domesticated include: the Fourth Geneva Convention Relative to the Protection of Civilians in Times of War (1949); the International Convention for Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearances (2007); the Slavery Convention (1926). Although a few provisions of the Slavery Convention can be found in the Anti-Trafficking in Persons Act, 2008. Tanzania mainland has only ratified (but not domesticated) one ILO convention related to migration which is the ILO Forced Labour Convention (1930). However, there are still a few provisions on forced labour scattered in various domestic laws for the example the Employment and Labour Relations Act (2004) and the Law of the Child Act (2009). Zanzibar has also ratified only one Convention related to migration (CO97 Migration for Employment Convention (revised) 1949, but this has not been domesticated in full. A few provisions of the Convention can be found in the Employment Act (2005). Some additional migration

related international instruments which have neither been ratified nor domesticated include: the Convention Relating to the Status of Stateless Persons (1954); Convention against Torture Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (1984); ILO Conventions such as the Migration for Employment Convention (1949), Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention (1975), Private Employment Agencies Convention (1997) and the Domestic Workers Convention (2011).

⁵²⁰ Only three are covered: the right to work, right to just remuneration and the right to property.

⁵²¹ These were preceded by two phases of the National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP/MKUKUTA), implemented from 2005/06 to 2009/10 and from 2010/11 to 2014/15. The theme of FYDP I was 'Unleashing Tanzania's Latent Growth Potentials'. Its five core priorities were: Infrastructure; Agriculture; Industrial Development; Human Capital and Skills Development; Tourism, Trade and Financial Services. The second FYDP had four priority areas: Promotion of Growth and Industrialization for Economic Transformation; Enhancement of Human Development; Improvement of the Enabling Environment for Enterprise Development; Improving Implementation Effectiveness.

⁵²² The five results areas of MKUZA III were: enabling sustainable and inclusive growth in key sectors; promoting human capital development; providing quality services for all; attaining environmental sustainability and climate resilience; adherence to good governance principles.

⁵²³ Economic and Social Research Foundation (2021, January), Private Sector's Perspective on Priorities for FYDP III (2021-2026)

⁵²⁴ URT (2019) Voluntary National Review (VNR): Empowering People and Ensuring Inclusiveness and Equality:

(https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/content/documents/23429VNR_Report_Tanzania_2019_FINAL.pdf). Focused on 4, 8, 10, 13, 16, and 17.

⁵²⁵ IOM is currently working with NBS to include migration indicators into national statistics collection, as part of their work under SDG indicator 10.7.2.

⁵²⁶ The 2019 Statistics Act mandates the NBS to produce and coordinate the production, processing and dissemination of official statistics within the National Statistical System (NSS) on the mainland; an institutional arrangement which includes MDAs as producers and users of official statistics and non-state actors whose statistics meet a minimum set of quality criteria and standards. OCGS shares the same functions for Zanzibar. The NBS collaborates with OCGS to conduct most censuses and surveys including the Industrial Census, Agriculture Sample Census, the ILFS, HBS and DHS. However, NBS retains responsibility for the Population and Housing Census of the URT.

⁵²⁷ NBS (2018) National Data Roadmap for Sustainable Development - Lessons and Recommendations

⁵²⁸ OCGS (2021) SDG Report, <https://www.ocgs.go.tz>

⁵²⁹ The ADAPT process contributed to the development of the Second National Strategy for the Development of Statistics (NSDS).

⁵³⁰ Under the NCF-SDGs, key actors will produce or collate the VNR report, annual implementation reports, stakeholder group reports (detailing dialogues around the implementation of individual or grouped SDGs), policy briefs, evaluation reports, and other reports as deemed necessary, including those required for the AU 2063 Agenda and the EAC Vision 2050. An annual multi-stakeholder SDG Forum involving government, development partners, civil society and the private sector is also planned to deliberate the various reports and research plus agree on policy and operational matters related to the implementation, monitoring and reporting of SDGs. At present, the NCF-SDGs is mostly dependent upon financial support from UN agencies and development partners with a small budget allocation from government. It is managed by middle-level personnel, with insufficient human resources to undertake the required coordination. There is also a need for much stronger linkages and communication across the political leadership, policy-makers and technical teams to enable full operationalisation of the Framework. The annual stakeholder forum has yet to take place and many relevant actors are yet to be sensitised as to their expected contribution. To date, the Framework has held three technical multi-stakeholder consultation meetings to discuss the alignment of SDG indicators against the various national plans.

⁵³¹ A series of measures to improve birth registration on the mainland have been introduced by the Government. A simplified birth registration system addresses the core issues of 'access' and 'affordability' by making the registration and certification a 'one-step, one-visit' process, either at health facilities or Ward Executive Offices, and waiving the fees for registration and certification for children below 5 years. Birth registration for children under 5 years has therefore improved substantially, from 16 percent in 2010 to 58 percent in 2020, with 18 regions operationalizing the decentralized birth registration system supported by the UN. As of January 2021, more than 5.3 million children under five had a birth certificate. Boys and girls are equally likely to be registered. Notwithstanding, a substantial percentage of the population remain unregistered and therefore additional measures will be required to plug the current gap.

⁵³² With UN support, the use of Mobile Geographic Information System (GIS) technology is planned to generate maps for enumeration and data presentation purposes. NBS has acknowledged its advantages which include a reduction in costs, faster creation of enumeration areas and improved accuracy, including for hard to reach areas.

⁵³³ The HDR 2019 report emphasises the importance of looking within households to better understand who is furthest behind. It asserts that in 30 Sub-Saharan countries roughly three-quarters of underweight women and undernourished children are not in the poorest 20 percent of households, and around half are not in the poorest 40 percent.

⁵³⁴ <http://www.dataforall.org/dashboard/zanzibarinfo/ZanzibarInfo#/>

⁵³⁵ The Tanzania Statistical Master Plan (TSMP), implemented between 2011 and 2018, was a national strategy for the development of statistics which set out a comprehensive framework to strengthen national statistical capacity in five thematic areas: Institutional Development and Legal Framework, Human Resource and Capacity Development, Development of Statistical Infrastructure, Data Development and Dissemination, Physical Infrastructure and Equipment, and Project Management. The evaluation of the 2011-2018 Tanzania Statistics Master Plan (TSMPI) has been completed. The next step will be to conduct National Stakeholders consultations to agree, topics and timeline.

536 The DFA for the mainland commissioned by the Ministry of Finance and Planning and supported by UNDP was completed in May 2021.

537 FYDP III, Chapter 2

538 UNICEF (2021) Zanzibar National Budget Brief 2019/20

539 OCGS, (2020) Statistical Abstract <https://www.ocgs.go.tz/Abstract.php>

540 Such as the review of the Government Loans, Guarantees and Grants Act

541 IMF, COVID-19 Policy Tracker, Tanzania: <https://www.imf.org/en/Topics/imf-and-covid19/Policy-Responses-to-COVID-19#T>

542 Minister of Finance and Planning 2021/22 Budget Speech to the National Assembly (10 June 2021)

543 IMF, Press Release 21/256, <https://www.imf.org/en/News/Articles/2021/09/07/pr21256-tanzania-imf-executive-board-approves-us-million-emergency-support-address-covid-19-pandemic>

544 FYDP III, Chapter 2

545 DFA for the mainland (2021, May)

546 Minister of Finance and Planning 2021/22 Budget Speech to the National Assembly (10 June 2021), Annex 2b

547 Minister of Finance and Planning 2021/22 Budget Speech to the National Assembly (10 June 2021) has 2 figures for the projected domestic revenue in 2021/22 – 15 percent and 15.9 percent; FYDP III puts 15.9 percent for 2021/22

548 BoT (2020), Annual Report 2019-2020

549 FYDP III

550 World Bank (2021) DataBank, <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/GC.TAX.TOTL.GD.ZS>, accessed 05.05.2021

551 FYDP III

552 OCGS, (2020) Statistical Abstract <https://www.ocgs.go.tz/Abstract.php>

553 The Economic and Social Research Foundation (2010) TAKNET Policy Brief Series No. 012

554 World Bank (2021, March) Tanzania Economic Outlook

555 The Medium-Term Debt Management Strategy 2019/20 to 2021/22 guides borrowing, external and domestic, and serves as the basis for government's Annual Borrowing Plans (ABP).

556 MoFP (2021) FYDP III Financing Strategy, <https://www.tro.go.tz/wp-content/uploads/2021/06/FYDP-III-Financing-Strategy-Final.pdf>

557 DFA for the mainland, May 2021

558 FYDP III

559 World Bank (2021, March)

560 World Bank (2021, March)

561 The Medium-Term Debt Management Strategy guides borrowing, external and domestic, and serves as the basis for government's Annual Borrowing Plans (ABP). The MTDMS for 2020/21 -2022/23 is currently under development.

562 UNICEF (2021) Zanzibar National Budget Brief 2019/20 <https://www.unicef.org/esa/media/8436/file/UNICEF-Tanzania-Zanzibar-2020-National-Budget-Brief-revised.pdf>

563 OCGS, (2020) Statistical Abstract <https://www.ocgs.go.tz/Abstract.php>

564 OECD (2021) Transition Finance Toolkit, <http://www.oecd.org/dac/transition-finance-toolkit/>

565 MoFP (2020, 10 June) Budget Speech 2020/21

566 Eriksen 2017

567 MoFP (2021) FYDP III Financing Strategyf

568 OECD (2020) Aid at a Glance, 2016-2018, <http://www.oecd.org/countries/tanzania/aid-at-a-glance.htm#recipients>

569 Bank of Tanzania (2019) Annual Report

570 OECD (2021) Aid Activities Targeting GEWE (CRS), https://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=DV_DCD_GENDER

571 DFA for the mainland (2021, May)

572 Bank of Tanzania (2020) Annual report 2019-2020

573 OCGS, (2016 and 2019) Statistical Abstracts -calculations; OCGS, 2020 abstract <https://www.ocgs.go.tz/Abstract.php>

574 Resources mobilized by UN Agencies over 2016/17-2020/21: USD 1,007 billion with the following breakdown per thematic area: Resilience USD 440,392,908; Inclusive Growth USD 223,535,757; Healthy Nation USD 230,367,219; Governance USD 113,645,994. UNINFO, May 2021.

575 Zanzibar 2050 Vision

576 UNCTAD (2021) Tanzania Country Profile, <https://unctadstat.unctad.org/countryprofile/generalprofile/en-gb/834/index.htm>

577 World Bank (2021, March)

578 Bank of Tanzania (2020) Annual Report 2019/20

579 FYDP III

580 MoFP (2021) FYDP III Financing Strategy

581 UNCTAD (2020) World Investment Report https://unctad.org/system/files/official-document/wir2020_overview_en.pdf

582 MoFP (2021) FYDP III Financing Strategyf

583 Minister of Finance and Planning 2021/22 Budget Speech to the National Assembly (2021, June)

584 World Bank (2020, June)

585 DFA for the mainland (2021 May)

586 FYDP III

-
- ⁵⁸⁷ Note this list is by no means exhaustive.
- ⁵⁸⁸ The former Tanganyika is commonly referred to as mainland Tanzania and includes Mafia Island. Zanzibar is comprised of two islands, Unguja and Pemba located in the Indian Ocean.
- ⁵⁸⁹ Quigley J (1992) *Perestroika African Style: One-Party Government and Human Rights in Tanzania*, Michigan Journal of International Law, 13: 611, <https://repository.law.umich.edu/mjil/vol13/iss3/2>.
- ⁵⁹⁰ LGAs were abolished in 1972. Centrally appointed public servants staffed all levels of government until LGAs were reinstated in 1982. Mollel HA & Tollenaar A (2013)
- ⁵⁹¹ Quigley J (1992)
- ⁵⁹² In 1985, the Preventive Detention Act was amended to authorise the High Court to hear challenges to the legality of an order. It remains on the statute book.
- ⁵⁹³ Wangwe S et al (2014)
- ⁵⁹⁴ Eriksen SS (2018) *Tanzania: A Political-Economy Analysis*, Norwegian Institute of International Affairs
- ⁵⁹⁵ Kaiser PJ (1996, June) *Structural Adjustment and the Fragile Nation: the Demise of Social Unity in Tanzania*, The Journal of Modern African Studies, Cambridge University Press, pp227-237
- ⁵⁹⁶ The World Bank estimates the population of Tanzania at almost 16 million in 1975. World Bank Data, World Bank Indicators, <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.POP.TOTL?locations=TZ>, accessed 29.05.2021
- ⁵⁹⁷ Some individuals were moved to areas which already suffered from poor soil quality, and therefore were naturally restricted in terms of the productivity they could achieve. Lorgen CC (1999, January), *The Experience of Villagisation: Lessons from Ethiopia, Mozambique, and Tanzania*, Oxfam-GB
- ⁵⁹⁸ This remains a challenge to this day, as highlighted in the current Agricultural Development Strategy under Part I
- ⁵⁹⁹ In some cases, inputs did not reflect the relevant agro-economic zone and were therefore either ineffective or even damaging, Lorgen (1999)
- ⁶⁰⁰ For example, between 1973 to 1977, the cashewnut authority's purchases fell from 140,000 to 44,000 tonnes, Lorgen (1999), January), Meanwhile, an initial flurry of government incentives and initiatives generated an over-dependence on government aid, with villagers perceiving such assistance as a substitute to their labour rather than complementary. Bonny I & Dibua J. I (2003) *Deconstructing Ujamaa: The Legacy of Julius Nyerere in the Quest for Social and Economic Development in Africa*, African Journal of Political Science / Revue Africaine De Science Politique, vol. 8, no. 1, pp. 59–83.
- ⁶⁰¹ Kikula IS (1997) *Policy Implications on Environment: the case of villagisation in Tanzania*. Uppsala: Nordiska Afrikainstitutet, pp 237.
- ⁶⁰² Ibid.
- ⁶⁰³ School enrolment at primary level in 1981 stood at 97.68 percent: 93.85 percent of females; 101.45 percent of males. Survival to the last grade in 1982 was 89.11 percent: 89.56 percent of females; 88.22 percent of males. UNESCO Institute of Statistics, in World Bank, <https://data.worldbank.org/>, accessed 04.03.2021
- ⁶⁰⁴ Mollel HA & Tollenaar A (2013)
- ⁶⁰⁵ URT President's Office (2011) *Taarifa ya Miaka Hamsini ya Uhuru wa Tanzania Bara 1961-2011*
- ⁶⁰⁶ Ibid
- ⁶⁰⁷ These were partially attributable to a range of economic shocks experienced during the previous decade including: two oil crises, an extensive drought and a war with Uganda.
- ⁶⁰⁸ Mwang'onda ES, Mwaseba SL & Juma MS (2018, June) *Industrialization in Tanzania: The Fate of Manufacturing Sector Lies upon Policies Implementations*, International Journal of Business and Economics Research Volume 7, Issue 3, Pages: 71-78
- ⁶⁰⁹ Oxford Business Group (2018) *An Overview of Tanzania's Political History*
- ⁶¹⁰ Quigley J (1992)
- ⁶¹¹ Nyalali Commission Report
- ⁶¹² The first two multi-party parliamentary by-elections were held in 1994, which were won by CCM.
- ⁶¹³ The Constitution of the URT, 1977 (2005 version), Part II, 40 (2)
- ⁶¹⁴ The information herein is a summary of analysis shared in the main text. Please see relevant sections for further elaboration.
- ⁶¹⁵ Trading Economics. Terrorism Index. <https://tradingeconomics.com/country-list/terrorism-index>
- ⁶¹⁶ IOM Tanzania has commissioned a study to examine the causes and consequences of a perceived increase in southward migration of cattle herds (and herders) from the north to the south, brought about by recurring droughts. Its findings will be published late 2021.
- ⁶¹⁷ National Climate Change Strategy 2021-2026 (draft). Between November 2019 and April 2020, nearly one million people, 20 percent of a population of 4.8 million in 16 districts of Tanzania were estimated to be experiencing severe food insecurity (IPC Phase 3 and 4). This was driven primarily by a prolonged dry spell, coupled with Fall Armyworm infestations and erratic rainfall in the 2018/19 planting season, leading to decreased production in both the Masika and Msimu harvests. The poor harvest resulted in limited food availability and a reduction of casual on-farm labour opportunities for post-harvest activities. During this period, unusually high commodity prices were recorded in all districts analysed. Between May and September 2020, nearly half a million people were in a Crisis situation (Phase 3) and 7,600 (0.2 percent) people were in an Emergency situation (Phase 4). Around 1,845,800 (38 percent) people are projected to be in a Stressed situation (Phase 2). The improvement in the level of food security during the projection period was attributed to the anticipated positive impact of for the Vuli and Msimu rains, which are expected to be normal.