



african monitor
African voices for Africa's development

THE CITIZENS REPORT

TANZANIA



2019

List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

AFRSD	African Regional Forum on Sustainable Development
CGD	Citizen-generated data
DWC	Domestic work and care
ECD	Early childhood development
ESDP	Education Sector Development Programme
ETP	Education and Training Policy
FYDP	Five-year national development plan
GBV	Gender-based violence
GDP	Gross domestic product
HLPF	High-level Political Forum
IAEG-GS	Inter-Agency and Expert Group on Gender Statistics
ILO	International Labour Organisation
MOI	Means of Implementation
NBS	National Bureau of Statistics
NPA-	VAWC 2017/18- 2021/22 - National Plan of Action to End Violence against Women and Children in Tanzania
NSGRP	National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty
PARIS 21	Partnership in Statistics for Development in the 21st Century
PEPFAR	President Emergency Plan Fund for AIDS Relief
PPP	Purchasing power parity
PWD	People with disabilities
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
TDV	Tanzania Development Vision
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
VNR	Voluntary National Review
WDF	Women's Development Fund

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Executive Summary

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (“Agenda 2030”) seeks to end poverty and hunger, reduce inequality, and protect the planet. It comprises 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), 169 targets, and 232 indicators aimed at addressing the economic, social, and environmental dimensions of sustainable development.

The follow-up and review of Agenda 2030 is guided by the requirement for “data which is high-quality, accessible, timely, reliable and disaggregated by income, sex, age, race, ethnicity, migration status, disability and geographic location and other characteristics relevant in national contexts”, as specified in paragraph 74 of the plan.¹ Agenda 2030 furthermore recognises the need for timely and disaggregated data to inform better decision-making and ensuring that no one is left behind, while also recognising that data availability is poor for a number of indicators.

The data gap on gender-specific indicators is well documented.² In closing such a gap and ensuring that no one is left behind, citizen-generated data (CGD) can complement official sources of data, fill existing gaps in a timely manner, and supplement official reporting when data quality is insufficient. CGD can help to make the best policy choices, track SDG progress at all levels, and ultimately, deliver on the promise of these crucial global goals. When data covering themes and topics that matter to citizens is collected, issues affecting marginalised and excluded groups are more likely to be brought to the fore.

The **methodology** adopted for this project- which focusses on selected targets from Goals 1, 4, 5, 8, 10, and 16³ - was guided by the principle of “leaving no one behind” and enabling citizens to generate data that is relevant to their circumstances.

The study was conducted in two districts: Temeke in Dar es Salaam, representing a marginalised urban community with stable power supply, but congested and poor infrastructure; and Kisarawe in the Coastal region, representing marginalised rural and semi-urban populations. The survey involved 602 households, of which 200 were from Tandika in Temeke district and a further 402 from Kisarawe district. The Kisarawe sample was split between three communities: Cholesamvula (194), a rural community with no electricity and poor sanitation; and Kazimzumbwi (100) and Kisarawe (108), both peri-urban communities with some power supply but poor sanitation.

The data reveals that gender is a critical factor cutting across all the goals covered by this survey as well as the Citizen Hearings that were undertaken, with significant implications for targeted development

¹ United Nations General Assembly (2015). *Transforming our World: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*, A/RES/70/1 (25 September 2015). Available from https://www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/RES/70/1&Lang=E.

² Azcona, G. and Valero, S. (2018). *Making women and girls visible: gender data gaps and why they matter*. UN Women Issue Brief. Available from <https://www.unwomen.org/en/digital-library/publications/2018/12/issue-brief-making-women-and-girls-visible>.

³ This project focusses on the following six sustainable development goals:

- 1 - ending poverty in all its forms everywhere;
- 4 - ensuring inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all;
- 5 - achieving gender equality and empower all women and girls;
- 8 – promoting sustained, inclusive, and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment, and decent work for all;
- 10 - reducing inequality within and among countries; and
- 16 - promoting peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, providing access to justice for all, and building effective, accountable, and inclusive institutions at all levels.

interventions. Geographic location has proven to have a similar effect in determining how well communities will fare.

Summary of Findings

On ending poverty (Goal 1): Self-employment in the informal sector is the main source of income for all



four communities. In rural Cholesamvula, this is supplemented by smallholder farming; while the peri-urban areas of Kisarawe and Kizimzumbwi depend on both smallholder farming as well as the informal sector, with low levels of employment in the public and private sectors. Asset ownership (primary place of residence) provided the background on the forms and intensity of poverty in those communities: the survey reveals that this is high in rural areas – as illustrated in the case of Cholesamvula - and lowest in urban areas, as in Tandika. Social assistance and remittances remain low: while social protection assistance programmes are supported by government to reduce poverty across

communities, these are limited or hardly available. When the data is disaggregated by gender and age, it becomes clear that female-headed households are most affected.

Quality education (Goal 4): While the Tanzanian government has since 2015 implemented free



education, including the removal of all forms of fees and contributions, the study has found that households are still required to cover associated costs of schooling, including stationery, books, uniforms, transport, meals, development, etc. These added costs have a prohibitive effect on access to and the successful completion of education. In Tandika, 35% of female-headed households and 35% of those headed by men reported that they cannot afford the associated costs of schooling. In Kisarawe, 33% of female-headed household and 42% of those headed by males indicated that they cannot afford the associated costs of schooling. The situation was quite different in rural Cholesamvula, where 63% of female-headed

households and 27% of those headed by males said that they cannot afford the associated costs of schooling. Furthermore, 46% of female-headed households in Kazimzumbwi, 46% in Kisarawe, and 44% in Tandika indicated that their children could not attend school during the 12 months preceding the survey due to school fees and associated costs of schooling.

Gender equality (Goal 5): The survey measured unpaid domestic work and care, revealing that female



heads of households spend more time on unpaid domestic work. This imbalance carried through to girls under the age of 18, who spend more time on domestic work compared to boys of the same age. Data gathered on Goals 1, 4, 8, and 16 - disaggregated by the gender and age of the head of household - show that female-headed households have less members engaged in productive activities. They also have lower asset ownership, more children are out of school, feel less safe in their communities and have lower rates of civic participation.



Inclusive growth and decent jobs (Goal 8): High levels of unemployment are apparent across all four localities, with most of the unemployed actively seeking employment. In terms of decent work, the conditions of employment measured in terms of having written contract, sick leave, paid annual leave and maternity leave revealed that, for more than half of those who are employed, these are not met.

The findings related to ***peaceful and inclusive societies (Goal 16)*** are based on data on community safety, public participation, corruption, and satisfaction with service delivery. The data from the Citizens Survey shows that public participation at local government level is generally very low. In the urban community of Tandika, for example, 93% of female and 90% of male household heads agree that women and girls are safe during the day, and only 22% of female and 28% of male heads think that women and girls feel safe at night. In terms of corruption, the urban community of Tandika was more likely to report corruption than the rural and per-urban communities: 28% of male and 21% of female-headed households reported being asked to pay a bribe, with 20% of male and 14% female-headed households actually paying bribes to access services. On the other end of the spectrum, in the rural Cholesamvula community, 18% of female heads of household and 11% of their male counterparts reported being solicited for bribes, with only 6% of women and 5% of men actually paying.

Satisfaction with public service delivery generally is very low, with citizens in rural Cholesamvula most unhappy. In terms of electricity, 87% of female and 95% of male heads of households were dissatisfied. For social welfare services, 75% of female-headed households reported dissatisfaction and 81% of their male counterparts shared the sentiment. In terms of water and sanitation, 53% female-headed households reported dissatisfaction, with 59% of their male counterparts indicating the same.

For Tanzania to deliver on Agenda 2030, the country must implement a strategy that prioritises those who are poor and marginalised. This would require public services that are tailored to their needs. The application of the principle of “leaving no one behind” will be crucial for the Tanzanian effort to achieve Agenda 2030, thereby addressing social and economic marginalisation. The implementation of Agenda 2030 for sustainable development, therefore, has to adopt an approach that prioritises those who are furthest from realising their development. In other words, development has to start from the margins and move towards the centre, ensuring it includes those who are marginalised and excluded.

Furthermore, the principle of “leaving no one behind” also applies to the extent to which citizens’ voices and agency are strengthened at national, provincial, and local levels. A SDG monitoring framework highlights a clear plan to close the data gaps for Tier II and Tier III indicators, as well as identifying new reliable data sources - including citizen-generated data – needs to be developed.

Introduction and Background

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development seeks to end poverty and hunger in all forms and dimensions, reduce inequality, and protect the planet. It comprises 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), 169 targets, and 232 indicators, aimed at addressing the economic, social, and environmental dimensions of sustainable development. The plan makes provision for an open, inclusive, and transparent process in which all stakeholders, including civil society, can actively participate in a state-led follow-up and review process – the Voluntary National Review (VNR) – while regional and global reporting is facilitated through the African Regional Forum on Sustainable Development (ARFSD) and the High-level Political Forum (HLPF) respectively.



Agenda 2030 commits to gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls as noted in paragraph 20 of the plan – “Realizing gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls will make a crucial contribution to progress across all the Goals and targets”⁴ – and specifically through Goal 5 which seeks to achieve gender equality and women empowerment by 2030.

A 2018 UN Women issue paper on gender gaps in reporting⁵ identified 54 gender-specific indicators, while the UN’s Inter-Agency and Expert Group on Gender Statistics (IAEG-GS) identified 80 gender-relevant indicators.⁶ Of the 232 indicators identified to measure progress of Agenda 2030, as of May 2019 data is available for only 45% of Tier I indicators, 38% of Tier II indicators, and 14% of Tier III indicators.⁷ The UN Women issue paper further notes that “only 12 (22%) of the 54 gender specific indicators are produced with enough regularity to be classified as Tier I by the IAEG-GSs”.⁸

In closing the data gap, the role of citizen-generated data has to be considered. Women and youth can play a leading role in data generation and its use in order to inform the delivery of Agenda 2030, thus accelerating effective implementation of the SDGs during the remaining 15-year delivery period. Citizen-generated data offers the possibility of timely and relevant data that can inform decision-making. Timely data generated by citizens will facilitate informed and efficient delivery of the SDGs, where the end users will be public officials, decision makers, citizens, and local media. This data will also enable advocacy that can trigger action where there is no delivery.

⁴ United Nations, 2015.

⁵ Azcona, G. and Valero, S. (2018).

⁶ IAEG-GS (2018). Gender-relevant indicators, retrieved January 2020 from https://unstats.un.org/unsd/demographic-social/gender/documents/14Mar2018_Gender_relevant_SDG_indicators_MB-HSS.pdf

⁷ Azcona and Valero define the three categories of indicators as follows:

- Tier 1: Indicator is conceptually clear, has an internationally established methodology and standards are available, and data are regularly produced by countries for at least 50% of countries and of the population in every region where the indicator is relevant.
- Tier 2: Indicator is conceptually clear, has an internationally established methodology and standards are available, but data are not regularly produced by countries.
- Tier 3: No internationally established methodology or standards are yet available for the indicator, but methodology/standards are being (or will be) developed or tested.

⁸ Azcona and Valero, 2018.

Rationale

In the context of the SDGs, evidence of activities, outcomes, and impacts will play an important role in monitoring and tracking progress of the plan at all levels. Without a doubt, data will be crucial, especially citizen-generated data. This is because CGD can complement official sources of data, fill data gaps that exist in a timely way, and supplement official reporting when data quality is insufficient. Furthermore, CGD is gathered on themes and topics that matter at a disaggregated and geographic level, potentially flagging issues of social injustice and/or economic inequality that might otherwise be missed when collecting survey data.

Improving the capacity of the youth, in particular young women, puts them at the centre of development and encourages their contribution towards achieving the 17 Goals. Furthermore, their involvement offers an opportunity for indigenous knowledge transfer, anchoring capacity beyond 2030.

1.2 Focus goals, targets and indicators

The focus of goals and targets selected for this project is based on African Monitor's work from 2016/ 2017 in more than 20 communities in west, east, and southern Africa. For grassroots communities, the realisation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development anchors on the improvement of their livelihoods and access to economic opportunities, with a particular focus on youth and women empowerment. This includes access to quality education, gender equality, public participation, and effective service delivery.



The focus of this project is on the six Goals listed below; the specific targets and indicators were selected based on a country level scoping and data gap analysis:⁹

- Goal 1 calls for an end to poverty in all its manifestations by 2030.
- Goal 4 calls for inclusive and equitable quality education and the promotion of lifelong opportunities for all.
- Goal 5 aims to achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls.
- Goal 8 aims to promote sustained, inclusive, and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment, and decent work for all.
- Goal 10 aims to reduce inequality within and among countries.
- Goal 16 focusses on peace, justice, and strong institutions.

The targets and indicators were selected along the following criteria:

- 1) Targets that provide a context to and increase our understanding of development outcomes (i.e. poverty, education, unemployment, and governance outcomes);
- 2) Targets focused on interventions and processes that drive progress in these key outcomes;

⁹ IAE-SDGs (2019). *Compilation of Metadata for the Proposed Global Indicators for the Review of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*. Retrieved from <http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/iaeg-sdgs/metadata-compilation/> on 26 September 2019.

- 3) The information or data is not being collected by National Statistical Offices (i.e. there is an apparent data gap) and these are thus likely to be category II and category III indicators; and
- 4) The targets identified include process - including method of implementation (MOI) - and outcome indicators.

Methodology

The methodology for citizen-generated data is guided by the concept of *“leaving no-one behind”* with the focus on communities and populations that are likely to be excluded from service delivery and other development programmes. The principle has also informed the choice of indicators, analysis, and sampling techniques for additional data.

DataShift defines CGD as “data that people or their organizations produce to directly monitor, demand or drive change on issues that affect them. This can be produced through crowdsourcing mechanisms or citizen reporting initiatives, often organized and managed by civil society groups.”¹⁰

Firstly, it is important to note both the advantages as well as the limitations of CGD. CGD can provide contextual information to drive progress around the SDGs (Wilson and Rahman, 2017)¹¹. From African Monitor’s 2017 Citizens Hearings it has become clear that qualitative CGD was useful in explaining the progress - or lack thereof - of SDG targets and indicators. Furthermore, CGD provides information that is more relevant for local actions, and generally tends to focus on SDG targets - rather than indicators - using different units of analysis.

The methodological limitations of CGD can be summarised as follows:¹²

- *Representativity*: data represents only a limited group of people and thus is not representative of a larger group or geographic area, i.e. the sample is not representative of the whole population.
- *Coverage*: data covers a geographical area that is not comparable to the area analysed by official observations (too narrow or too wide).
- *Reliability*: the diverse collection and verification methods and lack of methodological refinement often bring the issue of data reliability to the fore.
- *Complementarity*: the issues monitored through CGD are not always comparable or complementary to those analysed by governmental agencies.
- *Interoperability*: the format of CGD is such that it requires further processing before it is compatible with official data.

On the balance of advantages and limitations, CGD should be used as an indicative and/or informative tool to learn about specific population groups, or understand the depth and nuance of specific issues or themes.

Sampling Criteria

¹⁰ DataShift (2017). *Using citizen-generated data to monitor the SDGs: A tool for the GPSDD Data Revolution Roadmaps Toolkit*. Retrieved from <http://www.data4sdgs.org/sites/default/files/2017-09/Making%20Use%20of%20Citizen-Generated%20Data%20-%20Data4SDGs%20Toolbox%20Module.pdf>.

¹¹ Wilson, C. and Rahman, Z. (2017). *Citizen-generated data and governments: towards collaborative model*. DataShift report retrieved from <http://civicus.org/images/citizen-generated%20data%20and%20governments.pdf>.

¹² Piovesan, F. (2015). *Statistical perspectives on citizen-generated data*. Civicus: DataShift. Retrieved from http://civicus.org/thedatashift/wp-content/uploads/2015/07/statistical-perspectives-on-cgd_web_single-page.pdf

Purposive sampling was used to select four communities across two wards, whereas random sampling was used to select households from each communities.

The criteria for purposive sampling is based on concept of *leaving no one behind* as espoused in Agenda 2030, which seeks to focus on poor and marginalised communities, which the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) defines as “people [who] get left behind when they lack the choices and opportunities to participate in and benefit from development progress”.¹³

Five key factors are considered: socio-economic status, geography (spatial settlement), discrimination, governance, shock and fragility, and other country-specific fault lines. On this basis, from communities were selected from urban, semi-urban, and rural locations.

A sample of 200 households was randomly drawn from two wards (lowest administrative unit) from one municipality which is purposefully selected. The study adopted random systematic sampling techniques to determine which households had to be interviewed in each of the selected communities in the county (district). The enumerators were to select the first respondent randomly and systematically choose the eighth household after the first. This sampling method was chosen to ensure that the population would be evenly sampled.

Field work

- Youth Champions and country focal persons from Uganda, Kenya, and Tanzania attended a five-day training workshop on 16- 20 of October 2018 at the University of Dar Salaam.
- The Champions (three women and two men) were trained on data collection techniques based on the questionnaire and practiced interviewing techniques.
- The survey instrument deployed to collect data focused on inputs and interventions that explain “what is behind the outcome indicators
- The KoBo Toolbox, a free open-source tool data collection, was used on mobile tablets.



1.3 Country Context

Tanzania has a population of 55.57 million (2016 figures), with a population growth rate at 3.1% per annum. Progress in the country in social development can be expressed through a few selected social indicators, such as life expectancy at birth, which is estimated at 65 years; child mortality rate (under 5 per 1000 live births) at 49; and primary school completion rate of 74% as of 2016. This summarises some of the social determinants of poverty in Tanzania.

¹³ UNDP (2018). *What does it mean to leave no one behind? A UNDP discussion paper and framework for implementation*. UNDP discussion paper, July 2018. Retrieved from https://www.undp.org/content/dam/undp/library/Sustainable%20Development/2030%20Agenda/Discussion_Paper_LNOB_EN_Ires.pdf

Tanzania is a low-income country with per capita income of 2,740 (PPP current international USD). The economy has grown with an annualised average of 2.6% over the last two decades. Since 2014, a growth rate of 7% has been maintained, with an improvement to an estimated rate of 7.2% in 2016. These new figures suggested a stronger impact of economic growth on poverty reduction than previously observed. This record makes Tanzania one of the best performing and most stable economies in Africa.¹⁴ The country has undergone a structural transformation with a shift from the agricultural sector to the service sector, while the share of the industrial sector has risen. The growth in real GDP is driven mainly by the strong performance of industry, construction, services, and information and communication technology.

In terms of sectoral classifications, 67% are employed in agriculture, 26% in industry, and 6.2% in services. The relatively lower growth rate of the agricultural sector, which is the major employer of labour, is due to dependence on rainfall where the farm output varies with changes in rainfall patterns.

Inequality

At 37%, Tanzania's Gini coefficient is on par with the sub-Saharan Africa average of 37.7%. Based on 2010 data, the highest 20% of income earners account for 44% of national income, while the bottom 40% account for 19% of national income.¹⁵

The Gini coefficient of real per capita monthly consumption indicates that the level of inequality for Tanzania was approximately 36% in 2011/12, declining from around 39% in 2001. The improvements in the distribution of consumption seem to be driven by an increase of the consumption share accruing to the 20% poorest segment of the population.¹⁶



As of 2011 (latest data available) 46% people of Tanzania live below the USD.1.9 international poverty line; 28% live below the national poverty line; and 56% live below the multidimensional poverty line. Tanzania's poverty rate fell from 85% in 2000 to an estimated 49% in 2011, based on the global poverty line. When data is disaggregated by gender, though, Tanzania ranks 125 out of 155 countries with a rating of 0.547 due to cultural settings and stereotypes.¹⁷

Implementation of Agenda 2030

In Tanzania, Agenda 2030 is implemented through the five-year national development plan (FYDP II), which in turn is informed by Tanzania Development Vision (TDV) 2025, a long-term national development plan implemented through multiple mid-term plans. Since 2016, Tanzania's multiple mid-term plans – the National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP or MUKUTA) and five-year development plan - have been consolidated into a single five-year national development plan, FYDP-II (2016/17-2020/21), to maximize synergies. The formulation of was informed by the processes

¹⁴ Charles, P., Dhlwayo, R. and Emenuga, C. (2017) *Tanzania: African Economic Outlook*. www.africaneconomicoutlook.com

¹⁵ Alkire, S. and Robles, G. (2017) "Multidimensional Poverty Index - Summer 2017: Brief methodological note and results." Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI) Methodological Notes 45, University of Oxford.

¹⁶ Martorano, B. and Cornia, G.A. (2017), "The African Macroeconomic Dataset" and "Integrated Inequality Data for SSA". UNDP Regional Bureau for Africa.

¹⁷ UNDP (2019). Gender Equality Index. Accessed February 2020 from <http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/gender-inequality-index-gii>

and outcomes of both the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and the African Union's Agenda 2063.

A government key informant noted, "SDGs are well aligned to the plan and even the Vision 2025. It is fortunate that SDGs were developed concurrently with Tanzania's Plan and it happened that Tanzania was a member of the Open Working Group, so we ensured our priorities are incorporated in the SDGs." The preparation of the Tanzania's FYDP II was year-long consultative process across all the groups, sectors and institutions.

Tanzania's FYDP II focuses on four priorities: manufacturing, infrastructure, human development and good governance, peace and security. The Tanzanian government has taken a stance that Agenda 2030, through the FYDP II, should be implemented as an integrated framework and by using an incremental approach.

The implementation of Agenda 2030 is being mainstreamed in the national budget, as SDGs are mainstreamed in the national planning and budgeting processes. The Ministry of Finance and Planning coordinates the national framework for the implementation, monitoring and evaluation of Agenda 2030 and Agenda 2063. There have been conscious attempts to make the process inclusive, but these attempts have been hampered by the lack of an institutional framework which balances the three dimensions of sustainability (such as a sustainable development commission) and which could coordinate and harmonize efforts.

The National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) in Tanzania, in collaboration with Partnership in Statistics for Development in the 21st Century (PARIS 21,) conducted a data gap assessment in Tanzania in line with the SDGs and Tanzania's second Five-Year Development Plan. A six-month work-plan and budget for a data roadmap process was developed and is implemented by the NBS. As part of the data road map process in Tanzania, NBS is working in collaboration with ministries, departments, and other agencies (MDAs) to collate, clean, better organise, and facilitate data collaboration and sharing of existing data between MDAs.

RESEARCH RESULTS

Household and Community Characteristics

The study was conducted in two districts, Temeke in Dar es Salaam which represented 200 households from marginalised communities in an urban setting (Tandika); and Kisarawe in the Coast region. The 402 households sampled in the Kisarawe district represent households from rural and semi-urban populations, and were distributed across three wards: 194 in rural Cholesamvula, 100 in rural Kazimzumbwi, and 108 in semi-urban Kisarawe.



Table 1: Socio-economic profile of sampled communities					
District	Ward	No.	Male	Female	Representation
Temeke	Tandika	200	115	83	Urban population with stable power supply but congested and poor infrastructure such as road, sewage systems, etc.
Kisarawe	Cholesamvula	194	120	74	Rural population with unstable internet connectivity, no power supply, and poor latrine conditions.
	Kazimzumbwi	100	75	25	
	Kisarawe	108	76	31	Semi-urban population with power and connectivity in some areas but poor latrines conditions.

Kisarawe

According to the 2002 Tanzania National Census, the population of the Kisarawe District is 95,614. Communities in Kisarawe mostly engage in agriculture, and have poor infrastructure conditions and access to quality education. Kazimzumbwi has poor power supply and internet connectivity. Access to social assistance and remittances is very low in all communities included in the study.

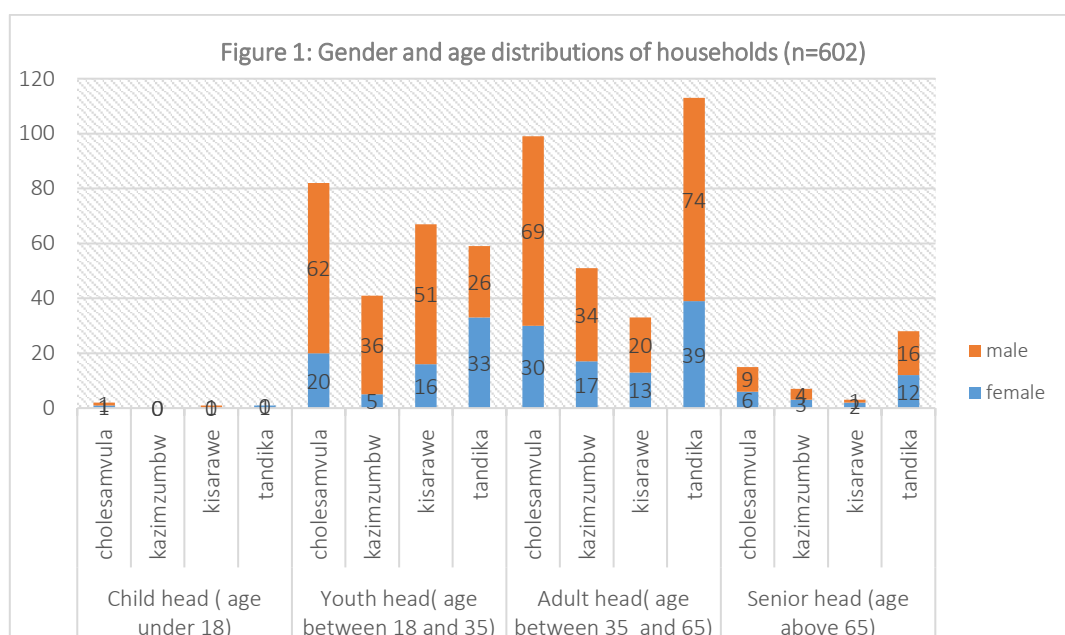
Temeke

The 2002 Tanzania National Census reported that the population of Temeke District is 768,451. Communities in urban Temeke mostly engage in small businesses in the informal sector. This is true for Tandika, which further is among the areas most affected by floods associated with poor drainage systems. It is also associated with poor latrines conditions and high prevalence of HIV/AIDS, gender-based violence, and teen pregnancies.

Gender and age distribution of households

Across the communities surveyed, most households are headed by males between the ages of 18 and 65. In Tandika, 42% of the households were headed by women and 58% by men. In the rural communities of Kisarawe the distribution was: in Cholesamvula 28% female- and 72% male-headed

households; Kazimzumbwi, 25% female- and 75% male-headed households; and in Kisarawe 29% are headed by women and 71% by men.



In terms of age brackets, in Tandika 30% of the sample households were headed by youth (age 18 to 35), 54% by adults (age 36 to 65), and 14% by seniors (adults above age 65). In Kazimzumbwi, 34% are headed by youth, 57% by adults, and 5% by seniors. In Kisarawe, 60% of the households were headed by youth, 35% by adults, and 4% by seniors. Four out of ten households in Cholesamvula are headed by youth, 51% by adults, and 9% by those older than 65 years.

Goal 1 - End Poverty

Ending extreme poverty and reducing deprivation experienced by men, women, and children in all its forms is central to Agenda 2030. Achieving this requires improving and sustaining the livelihoods of the most marginalised communities, and restoring their dignity.

This section will look at source of income and livelihoods, regularity of income, and asset ownership to provide an alternative measure of the state of poverty in the communities. It will also focus on state intervention - in terms of social protection - and the equal right to economic resources.

Specific **targets** measured in relation to this goal are:

- 1.1 - By 2030, eradicate extreme poverty for all people everywhere, currently measured as people living on less than USD 1.25 a day;
- 1.3 - Implement nationally appropriate social protection systems and measures for all, including floors, and by 2030 achieve substantial coverage of the poor and the vulnerable; and
- 1.4 - By 2030, ensure that all men and women, in particular the poor and the vulnerable, have equal rights to economic resources, access to basic services, and ownership and control over land and other forms of property.

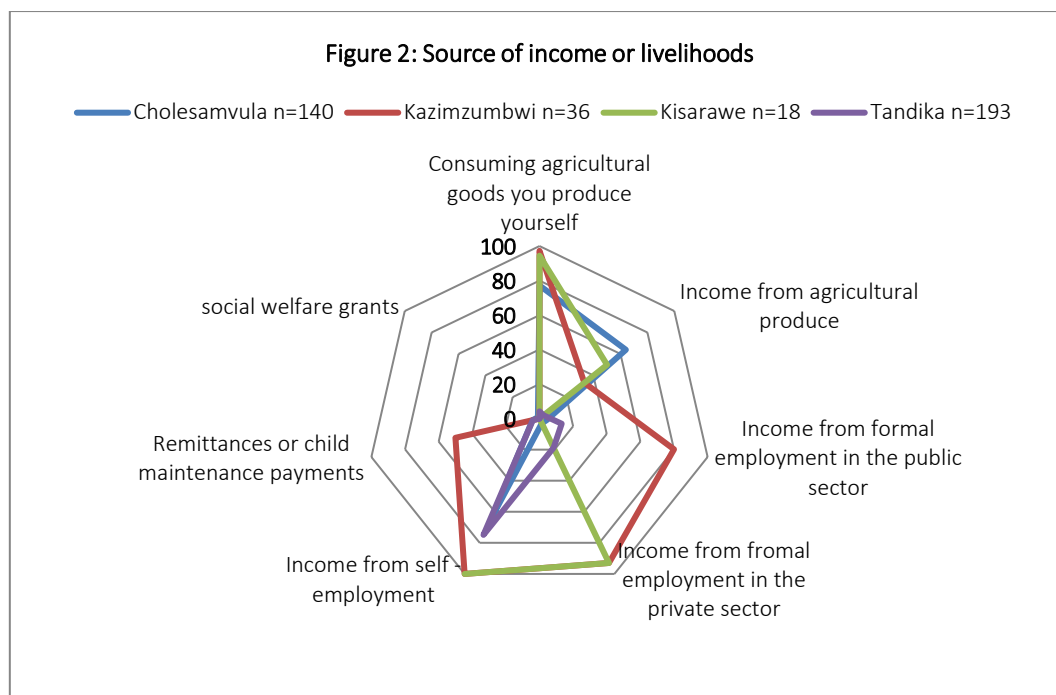
Proxy **indicators** used to measure this goal focused on:

- Sustained sources of livelihoods and regularity of income;
- Ownership of assets - limited to ownership of accommodation (dwelling) - and access to basic services (electricity, water, and sanitation); and
- Coverage and effectiveness of social protection systems, as well as poverty reduction programmes.

The following analysis is based on the data generated through Citizens Surveys and Citizens Hearings. Indicators for which valid data could not be generated are not reported on.

Source of income

To examine poverty levels, the study analysed data from 503 households. Most of the individuals who are self-employed run small-scale, unstable and unregistered businesses which are not sufficient for basic subsistence requirements.



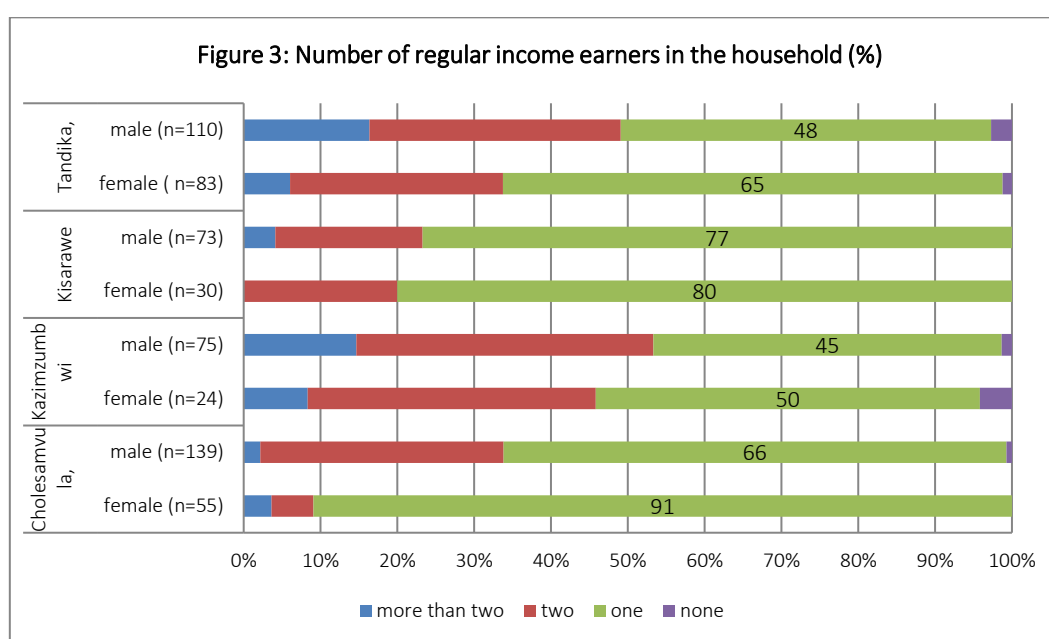
In terms of sources of income, in the urban community of Tandika the main source of income is self-employment in the informal sector (63%), followed by employment in formal private and public sectors. For the rural community of Cholesamvula, the main source of income is subsistence agriculture. This is followed by 35% of respondents who reported consuming agricultural outputs that they produce, 30% who generated income from selling agricultural produce, and 28% who were employed in the informal sector. In Kazimzumbwi, 28% of respondents reported that they depend on subsistence agriculture for their livelihoods, 22% in the informal sector, and 37% in formal employment.



During the Citizen's Hearings in Cholesamvula, participants presented an overview of the poverty situation by presenting its main causes and indicators. One of the main causes of poverty was lack of education (including vocational training) to many people in their society; as a result of they were neither employed nor self-employed. They felt that government efforts are not enough to tackle the problem.

In Kisarawe, the group identified a lack of education, inadequacy of employment opportunities, and low income as the primary sources of poverty in the community. There are, though, government efforts towards ending poverty including improving infrastructure, providing health insurance to the community, and the provision of soft loans to disadvantaged groups such as the youth, women, and people living with disabilities.

In each of the Citizen Hearings, groups started by identifying the main economic activities found in their communities - for example, in Cholesamvula village agriculture and industrial activities were mentioned. The majority of the population is not formally employed, particularly women and people with disabilities (PWDs). While no clear data emerged on how many women or men engaged in agriculture, it was certain that women are largely found in this sector even though they do not own farm land. The majority of youth is engaged in informal employment, such as motorcycle taxis, small businesses, and breaking stones for business purposes. The main challenges raised in respect of this Goal were the lack of education, vocational trainings, and skills; and farmers' inadequate access to the market. Through national development plans like MKUKUTA II and FYDP II, the government is oriented towards growth and enhancement of productivity, with greater alignment of the interventions toward wealth creation as a way out of poverty. Creation of self-employment through agriculture and strengthening vocational centres in particular has been prioritised. As revealed by this study, the target is yet to be achieved.

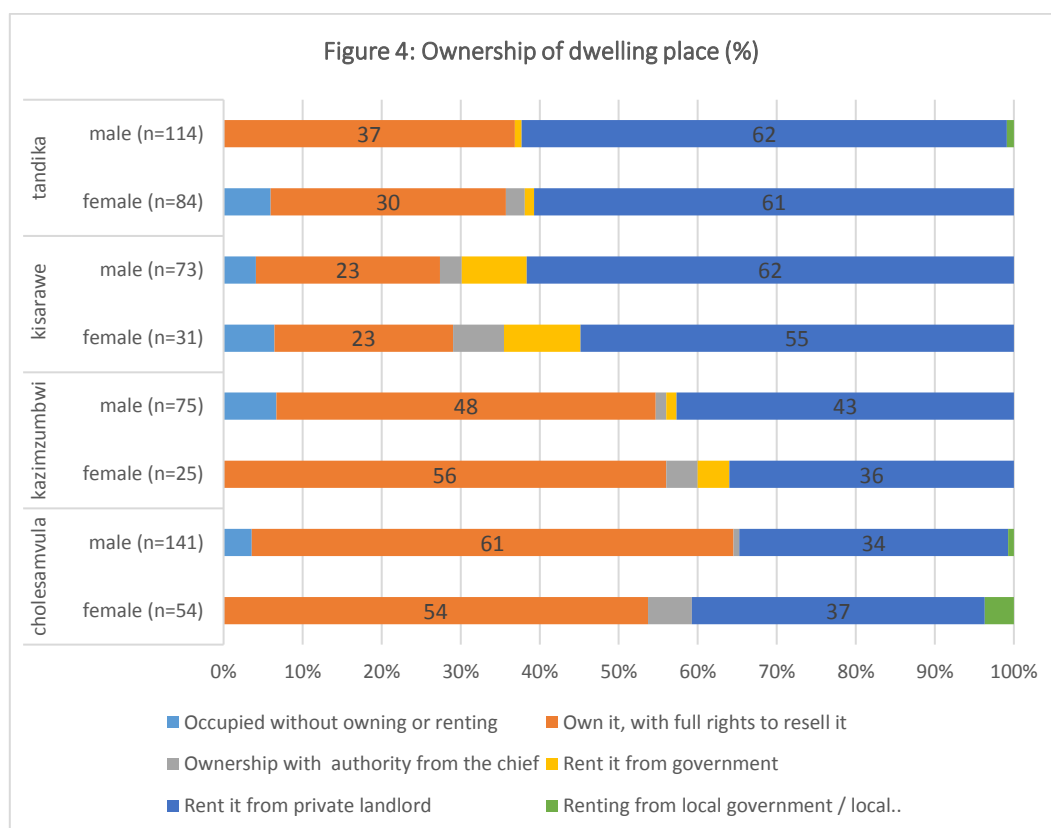


As illustrated in Figure 3, most female-headed households only have one regular income earner. Across the communities polled, a higher percentage of female-headed households report this: in Tandika, 65% of female- and 48% of male-headed households were single income; while in Cholesamvula, 90% of female and 65% of male heads of households reported only one income earner. Most people do not have regular sources of income as many are engaged in the informal sector in which earnings are not

predictable, for example through brick-making, boda-boda riding (motorbike taxis) and running small, basic commodity retail businesses.

Ownership of dwelling place (n = 594)

The data indicates that most of the rural households in Cholesamvula and Kazimzumbwi own their dwelling place, while in peri-urban Kisarawe and urban Tandika more than 50% of households live in leased properties which is indicative of a lack of asset ownership in urban settings. In all wards except Kazimzumbwi, more men own their dwellings than women do.



In rural Cholesamvula, 54% of female- and 61% male-headed households indicated that they own their dwelling with the right to sell it. In Kazimzumbwi, full ownership rights were indicated by 56% of female-headed households and 48% of male-headed households. Kisarawe, which represents a peri-urban community, had the lowest ownership rights at 22% for women and 23% for men, while in Tandika figures were at 30% and 37% respectively.

With regards to access to social protection, few individuals in the study area enjoys social protection as many are engaged in the informal sector and are therefore not covered by employment-related social protection systems. The existing social protection covers maternity, employment injury, old age pension, health insurance, funeral grants, education grants, and survivors' pension. Few households have access to electricity and water and sanitation, and many citizens have secured their land under the right of occupancy with men being the leading land owners.

In summary, the source of income and consumption in rural, peri-urban, and urban areas differ significantly. Subsistence agriculture and employment in the informal sector are the main sources of

income overall, with limited employment opportunities in the private and public sectors. When we look at regular or sustained sources of income for these households, female-headed households have fewer members earning an income. The proxy for asset ownership - the ownership of a dwelling place – show that households in rural areas and male-headed households performed better. Social assistance is non-existent in the three communities.

Goal 4 - Quality Education

Agenda 2030 calls for equitable access to and successful completion of education, starting from early childhood education (ECD), through primary, secondary, and to tertiary education. Transitioning from improved access to improved completion requires a schooling system that retains school-going children while ensuring significant improvements in educational outcomes (numeracy, literacy, and skills).



The focus **targets** for this report are:

- 4.1 - By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys complete free, equitable, and quality primary and secondary education leading to relevant and effective learning outcomes; and
- 4.a - Build and upgrade education facilities that are child-, disability-, and gender-sensitive; and provide safe, non-violent, inclusive, and effective learning environments for all.

The proxy **indicators** used to measure this goal are:

- Access and completion, by measuring whether school fees and the associated costs of schooling limit access to education. It also considers whether there are other factors that limit access and completion of schooling; and
- School facilities related to access and disability- and gender-sensitive elements.

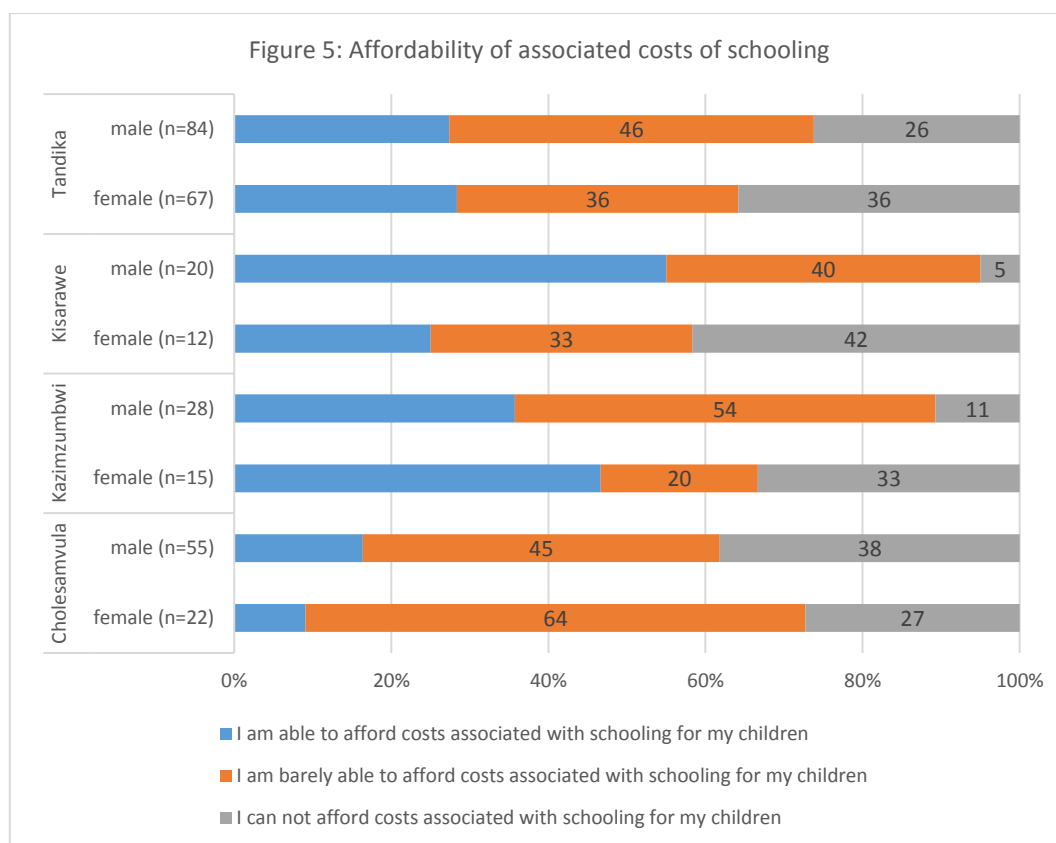
At national level, the main policy and programmes related to Goal 4 are the Education and Training Policy (ETP) and Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP 2016/17-2020/21). The ETP 2014 provides the direction for education and training from pre-primary to higher education. It formalises the transition to free and compulsory basic education of 11 years, including one year of mandatory pre-primary education, six years of primary, and four years of lower secondary schooling. Free O-Level education has proved to be very useful to the majority of Tanzanians, especially for those in rural areas who were previously denied this right due to their poor financial situation. The ESDP articulates the operational plans for all forms of education in the country.

The following analysis is based on the data generated through Citizens Survey and Citizens Hearings.

The Survey reveals that, in urban communities, more school-aged children from female-headed households do not attend school than those from male-headed households; and, conversely, in rural areas more children from male-headed households are out of school compared to those headed by women. In urban Tandika, 14% of female-headed households and 6% of their male counterparts reported this; and in peri-urban Kisarawe recorded 17% and 7% respectively. In the rural localities of Cholesamvula and Kazimzumbwi, 7% of female- and 8% of male-headed households for the former and 13% of female- and 15% of male-headed households for the latter. (See Table 2).

Table 2: School attendance and fees								
<i>Are there any members of your household who are under the age of 18 and are not in school (%)?</i>								
	Cholesamvula		Kazimzumbwi		Kisarawe		Tandika	
	female (n=46)	male (n=110)	female (n=24)	male (n=71)	female (n=29)	male (n=72)	female (n=68)	Male (n=98)
No	94	92	88	85	83	93	85	94
Yes	7	8	13	15	17	7	15	6
<i>Are you required to pay school fees for those members of your household still in school (%)?</i>								
	Cholesamvula		Kazimzumbwi		Kisarawe		Tandika	
	female (n=25)	male (n=56)	female (n=14)	male (n=70)	female (n=9)	male (n=23)	female (n=67)	male (n=90)
No	60	66	86	78	89	87	36	62
Yes	40	34	14	22	11	13	64	38

Households in Cholesamvula and Tandika reported the highest percentage of having to pay school fees, with more female-headed households doing so than men (40% in Cholesamvula and 64% in Tandika); while in Kazimzumbwi 14% of female heads of household and in Kisarawe 11% reported this.



In Tandika, 36% of female and 26% of male heads of households reported that they cannot afford the associated costs of schooling, while 36% of women and 46% of men indicated that they can barely afford these costs.

In Kisarawe, 33% female and 40% male heads of households reported that they can barely afford the associated costs of schooling. Forty-two percent (42%) of female and 5% of male headed households reported that they cannot afford associated cost of schooling

Sixty-four percent (64%) of female and 45% of male heads of households in Cholesamvula reported that they can barely afford the associated costs of schooling. A further 27% of female and 38% of males reported that they cannot afford these kinds of costs.

Table 3: Impact of the cost of schooling on attendance								
Survey question: Have school fees and associated costs of schooling prevented you or members of your household from going to school in the last 12 months?								
	Cholesamvula		Kazimzumbwi		Kisarawe		Tandika	
	female (n=21)	male (n=56)	female (n=15)	male (n=27)	female (n=13)	male (n=21)	female (n=69)	male (n=84)
No	67	59	53	67	54	86	56	70
Yes	33	41	47	33	46	14	44	30

The data from across the three communities shows that in Kazimzumbwi 47% of the female and 33% of male heads of households reported school fees and associated costs of schooling had prevented

them from sending their children to school in the 12 months preceding the survey. Tandika respondents reported similar figures, at 44% for women and 30% for men. In Kisarawe, a far greater number of women reported this than men did: 46% and 14% respectively.

Across various proxy indicators used to look at the community's performance, gender disaggregation reveals a pattern of household performance in education. School fees and associated cost of schooling strains the household budgets and a significant number of children are prevented from attending schooling. Female-headed households are most impacted.

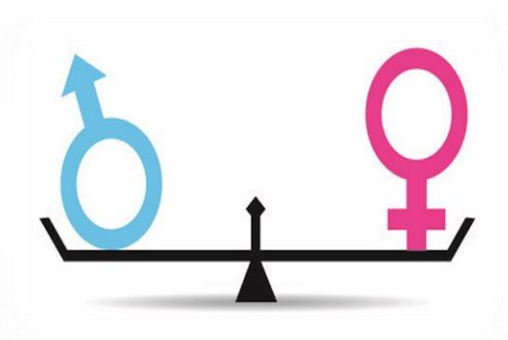
The Citizens Hearings generally corroborated the statistics, with participants identifying various factors for attrition, including school fee contributions and other cultural setbacks, particularly for girls. In Cholesamvula Village, participants lamented the various contributions (money) required in schools and the poor school infrastructure for persons living with disabilities. However, they also mentioned how male students are more likely to drop out of school due to poverty, engaging in drugs, starting small businesses, and migrating to cities in search of greener pastures. Similarly, in Kisarawe, participants identified the financial costs in the form of school fees and other contributions which are continually asked by schools.

In Kisarawe town there are both primary and secondary schools, but they are faced with several challenges, including shortages of teachers and teaching equipment, and poor infrastructure, especially for people living with disabilities. Many children do not attend pre-primary school in Kisarawe. During the discussion, citizens claimed teacher: student ratios at 1:170 in primary school, 1:100 in lower secondary, and 1:95 pupils in higher secondary school. Participants did not know if those teachers were qualified. In addition, very few schools have electricity, none of the schools have internet, and very few schools have computers for pedagogical purposes. None of the schools have infrastructure and materials for students with disabilities. Most schools have basic drinking water and basic sanitation facilities, such as hand washing facilities. A campaign launched in 2018 to improve the quality of education in Kisarawe - Tokomeza Zero Kisarawe (eliminating zero [failure] in Kisarawe) – through improving infrastructure like desks, building dormitory for girls, etc. by raising funds from community and development partners has yielded positive results. Failure rates has reduced from 455 in 2018 to 259 in 2019. Similar initiatives need to be adopted in other marginalised communities.

To conclude, in order for Tanzania to realise the goal of quality education for all, it will need to look into factors underlying school attrition rates and develop an appropriate strategy to address issues identified through citizen-generated data, such as example school fees and associated costs of schooling, child marriage and pregnancy, and facilities for children with disabilities. Such a strategy has to be informed by community-led solutions to take into account the local context and mobilise citizens towards the goal of quality education for all.

Goal 5 - Gender Equality

Agenda 2030 set a global norm for gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls. It underscores that women and girls must enjoy their full human rights and opportunities, including equal access to quality education, economic resources, and political participation; as well as equal opportunity for employment, leadership, and decision-making at all levels.



It should be noted that some of the targets under this Goal are crosscutting. These include safety and gender-based violence, participation in decision-making, asset ownership, employment and economic opportunities, as well as education.

For this report, the focus **targets** are:

- 5.4 - Recognise and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure, and social protection policies; and
- 5.a - Undertake reforms to give women equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property.

The **indicator** measured is the time spent by the head of household and boys and girls under of age of 18 on domestic work and care;

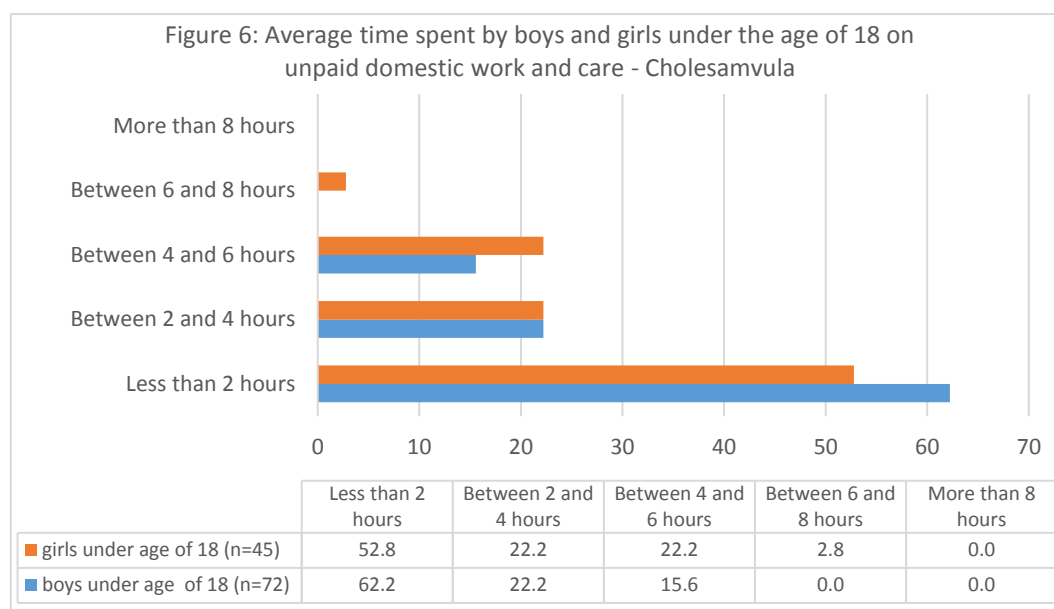
Data has been disaggregated by gender of the household head and, therefore, provides information on various aspects related to Goals, 4, 8, and 16.

Methodology Note

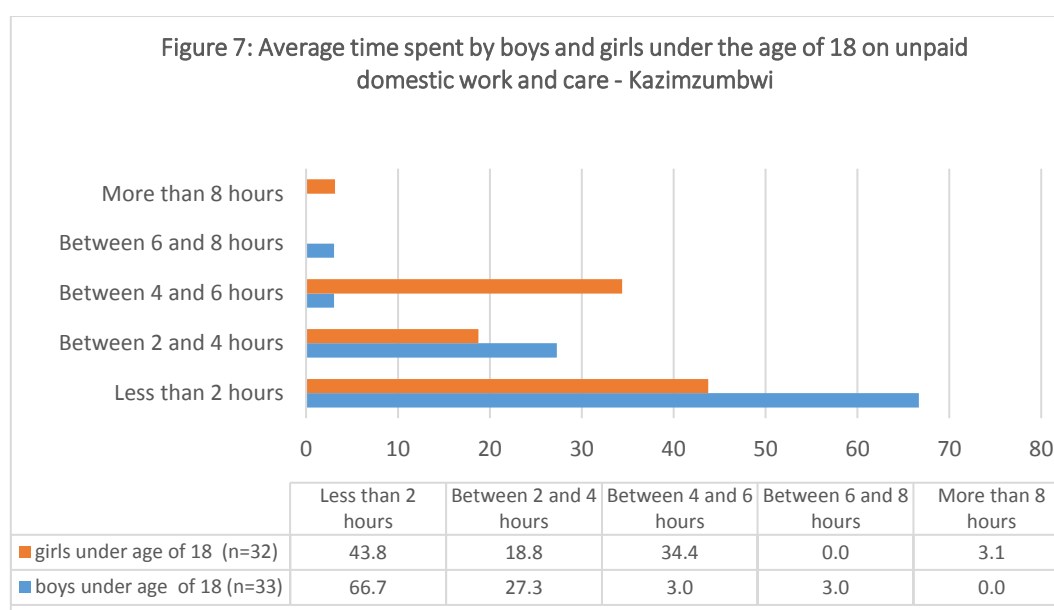
Unpaid domestic work and care are activities (listed below) undertaken to look after the welfare of the family and community without direct cash payment:

- Cook
- Grow or collect food for the family
- Fetch water
- Wash clothes
- Collect fuel like firewood
- Clean the house and yard
- Remove household rubbish
- Help children with homework
- Care for sick household members
- Care for sick people in the wider family or community
- Care for small children in the household
- Care for small children in the wider family or community
- Care for elderly people in the household
- Care for elderly people in the wider family or community
- Build or repair things around the house

Comparative gender analysis of unpaid domestic work among girls and boys under the age of 18 shows that most boys spend less than 2 hours on such tasks, whereas girls spend between 2 to 8 hours. The results are similar among urban and rural communities, with girls generally spending more time than boys on unpaid domestic work.

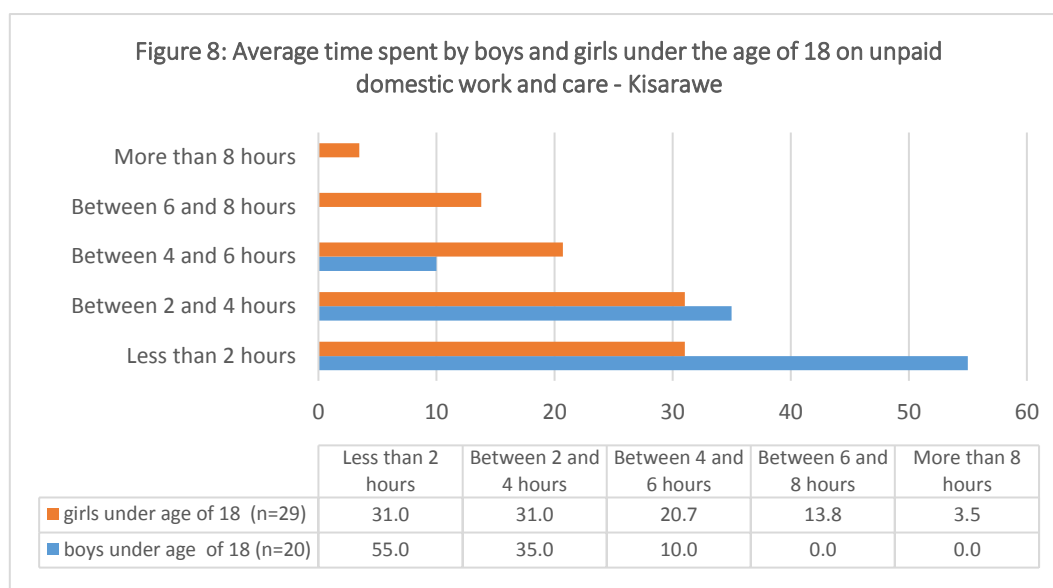


In Cholesamvula, a rural community, 22% of girls and 16% of boys spend between 4 and 6 hours on domestic care and work (DCW). None of the households indicated that any boys spend more than 6 hours on household chores, whilst 3% of girls do. A further 22% of respondents indicated that girls and boys under the age of 18 spend between 2 and 4 hours doing unpaid work; and 53% of respondents reported that girls spend less than 2 hours on DWC compared to 62% for boys.

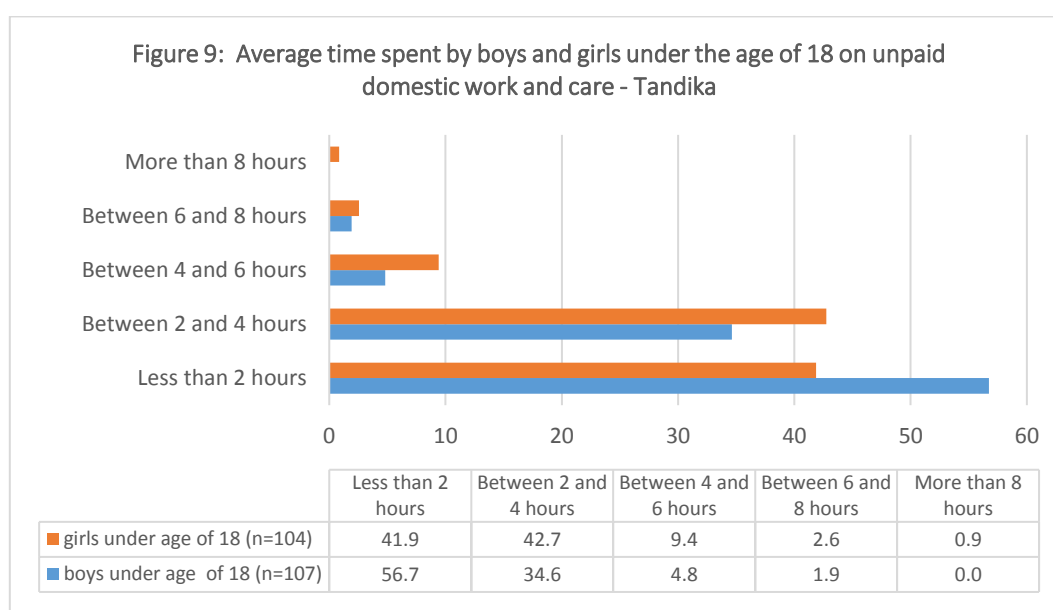


In rural Kazimzumbwi, 34% of respondents noted that girls under the age of 18 spend between 4 and 6 hours on DCW, while only 3% of boys do. Nineteen percent (19%) of respondents agree that girls spend

between 4 and 6 hours on DWC, while 27% of boys do the same. In the case of working for less than two hours, boys are more likely than girls to fall into this category. Forty-four percent (44%) of respondents agree that girls spend less than 2 hours on unpaid care work, while 67% of boys do the same.



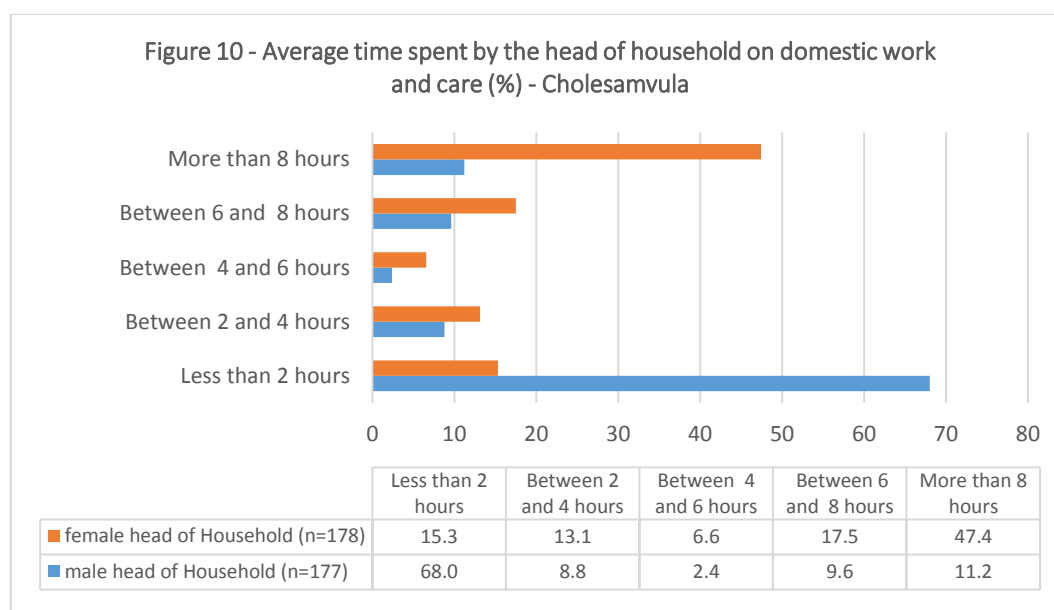
In Kisarawe, a peri-urban community in Kisarawe district, 14% of respondents agree that girls under the age 18 of spend between 6 and 8 hours on domestic care. Respondents reported there are no boys who would spend the same time or more performing such tasks. Twenty-one percent (21%) of respondents indicated that girls spend between 4 and 6 hours on DWC, while 10% of boys do the same. A clear pattern emerges, with 31% of respondents agreeing that girls spend between 2 and 4 hours, while 35% of boys do; and 31% reporting that girls spend less than 2 hours on DWC compared with 33% of boys.



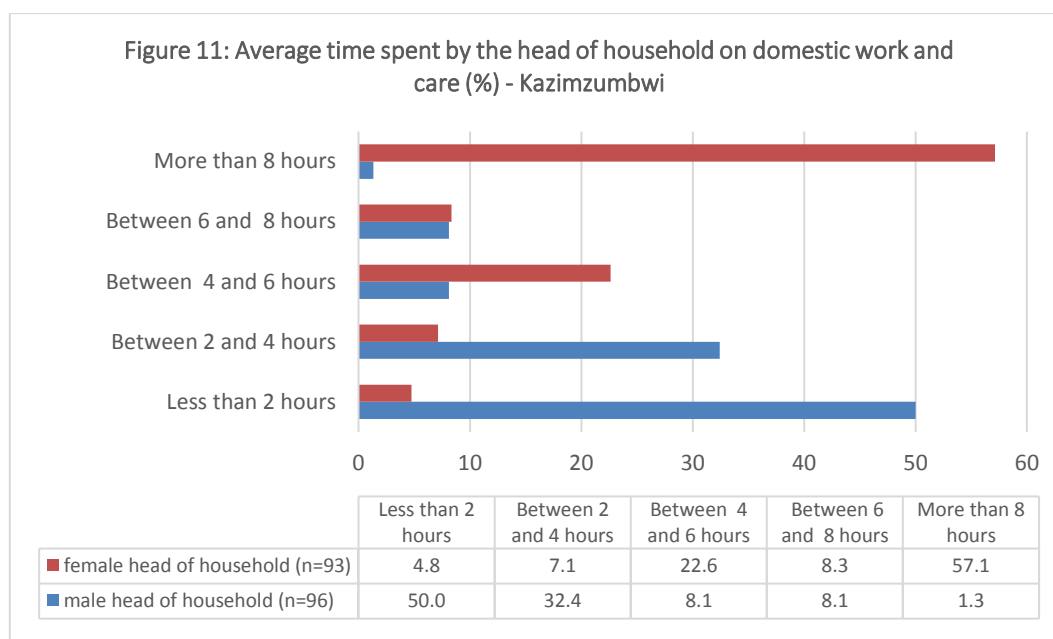
In Tandika, an urban community in Temeke district, 3% of respondents agree girls under the age of 18

spend between 6 and 8 hours on domestic care, with 2% of respondents saying the same for boys. Nine percent (9%) of respondents reported that girls spend between 4 and 6 hours on DWC, while 5% of boys do so. A clear pattern emerges of girls (43%) being more likely than boys (35%) to spend two or more hours doing DWC. Furthermore, 42% of respondents reported that girls under the age of 18 spend less than 2 hours in DWC, compared to 57% percent of boys.

Comparative gender analysis of unpaid domestic work among heads of households shows that female heads of households spend more time on domestic activities than their male counterparts. (See Figures 10, 11, 12, and 13).

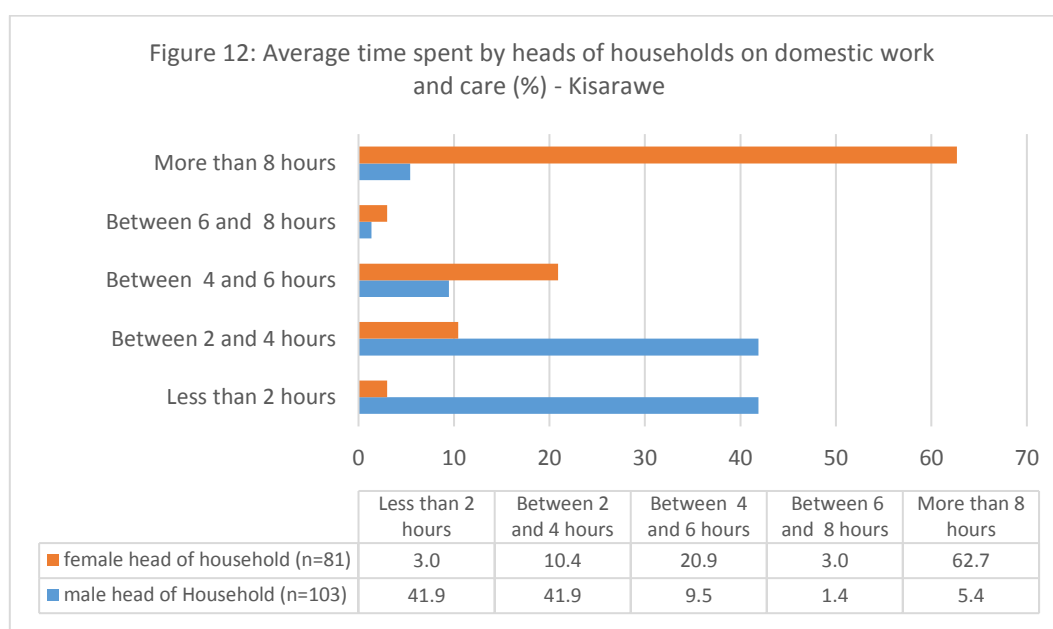


In rural Cholesamvula, 47% of respondents reported that female heads of household spend more than 8 hours on DWC, while only 11% reported that their male counterparts do the same. Eighteen percent (18%) indicated that female heads of households spend between 6 and 8 hours on DCW, while the comparative figure for male household heads is 10%. Furthermore, only 15% of respondents reported that female heads of household spend less than 2 hours in DWC, compared to 68% for men.



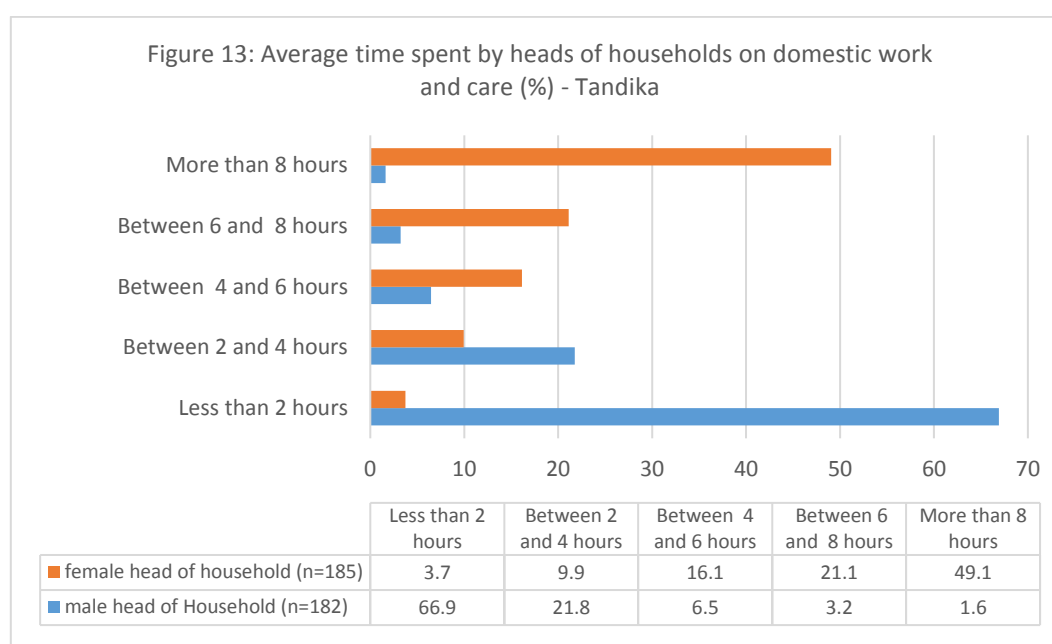
In rural Kazimzumbwi, 57% of respondents reported that female heads of household spend more than 8 hours on DWC, while only 1% said that their male counterparts do the same. 23% reported that female heads of households spend between 4 and 6 hours on DCW, with the comparative figure for male household heads at 8%. 7% reported that female heads of households spend between 2 and 4 hours on DCW, with the comparative figure for male household heads at 32%

Only 5% of respondents reported that female heads of household spend less than 2 hours on DWC compared to 50% of men.



In Kisarawe, a peri-urban community, 63% of respondents reported that female heads of household spend more than 8 hours on DWC, with 5% indicating that their male counterparts do the same. Twenty-one percent (21%) reported that women spend between 4 and 6 hours on domestic care and

work, with the comparative figures for male heads at 10%. Forty-two percent (42%) of male household heads spend between 2 and 4 hours and less than 2 hours on DWC; while figures for women were 10% and 3% respectively.



In Tandika, an urban community in Temeke, 49% of respondents reported that female household heads spend more than 8 hours on DWC, compared to 2% of their male counterparts. Two out of ten households (21%) reported that female household heads spend between 6 and 8 hours on domestic care and work, while only 3% of men do the same. Sixteen percent (16%) reported that female heads of households spend between 4 and 6 hours on DCW, with 7% for their male counterparts; and 89% respondents reported that male heads of household spend less than four hours on domestic care and work, while only 14% reported that their female counterparts do.

Households in rural areas – except in Cholesamvula - spend more time on DCW than urban communities. More than 70% reported that male household heads spend less than four hours on DWC, while 60% respondents indicated that female household heads spend more than 6 hours on domestic work and care.

Target 5.a.1 focuses on reforms to give women equal rights to economic resources, access to ownership of economic resources, as well as access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property.

According to the Tanzania demographic and health survey, 34% of women report that they own land, either alone or jointly. Joint ownership of these assets is more common among women than sole ownership; only 9% of women own a house or land on their own. Men aged 15-49 are slightly more likely to own a house (41%) or land (37%), either alone or jointly, than women (38% and 34%,

respectively). Unlike women, men are more likely to be sole than joint owners of either asset: 33% of men own a house alone, and 30% own land alone.¹⁸

This data is reinforced by the findings of the Citizens Hearings, where the majority of women indicated that they do not have full ownership of property, particularly land. Women's and men's ownership of a house and land, either alone or jointly, is more common in rural areas than in urban areas. For instance, 47% of rural women own a house, compared to 23% of urban women; and 44% of rural women own land, compared to 16% of urban women.¹⁹ The majority of agricultural land though still is owned by men, with women primarily accessing this through informal lease agreements.

Nationally, 64% of women who work in the agricultural sector are not paid.²⁰ While this issue was not raised in the Citizens Hearings, it clearly illustrates gender disparity in Tanzania. Women in the focus group shared that gender inequality in property ownership (land) is primarily influenced by patriarchal cultural practices, and that they are fighting to improve their financial situations by engaging in entrepreneurship activities, which is supported by loans from local government.

Among the challenges faced by women in the community, the focus group raised safety, walking long distances to fetch water and to schools, and insufficient health services (especially to pregnant women). The group also identified cultural practices and a lack of awareness among community members as main causes of gender inequality in society.

Tanzania has policies and programmes that aim to achieve gender equality and empower women, including the Women's Development Fund (WDF) and Tanzania Women's Bank that provide them with soft loans. Since the majority of women in rural areas are engaged in agriculture and small businesses, and do not have enough capital to reach their potential objectives, these programmes respond directly to their needs.

To conclude, the realisation of gender equality in Tanzania would require a national programme on unpaid domestic work and care, ownership of productive assets, and identifying discriminatory laws and cultural practices and building social movement to address them.

¹⁸ National Bureau of Statistics. (2015) *2015-16 Demographic and Health Survey and Malaria Indicator Survey* <https://www.dhsprogram.com/pubs/pdf/SR233/SR233.pdf> accessed February 2020.

¹⁹ Ibid.

²⁰ Ibid.

Goal 8 – Inclusive economic growth and decent work

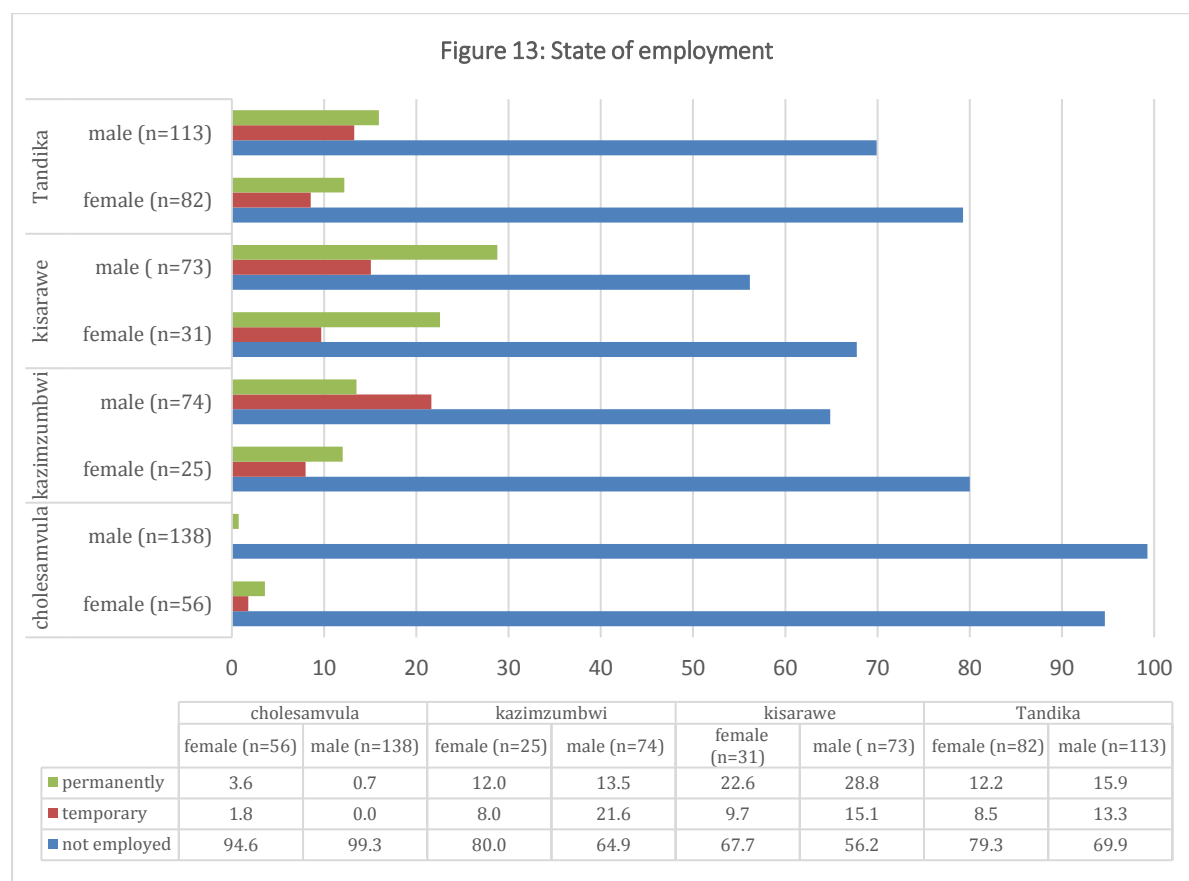
The realisation of Agenda 2030 requires that economies are transformed into catalysts for inclusive growth: that decent employment is ensured, local economies are revived, and economic opportunities are increased for all. This study focussed on aspects of this goal relevant to excluded and marginalised communities, including creating decent work, reducing unemployment, and development-oriented policies that support productive activities and entrepreneurship.

This study focusses on the following targets:

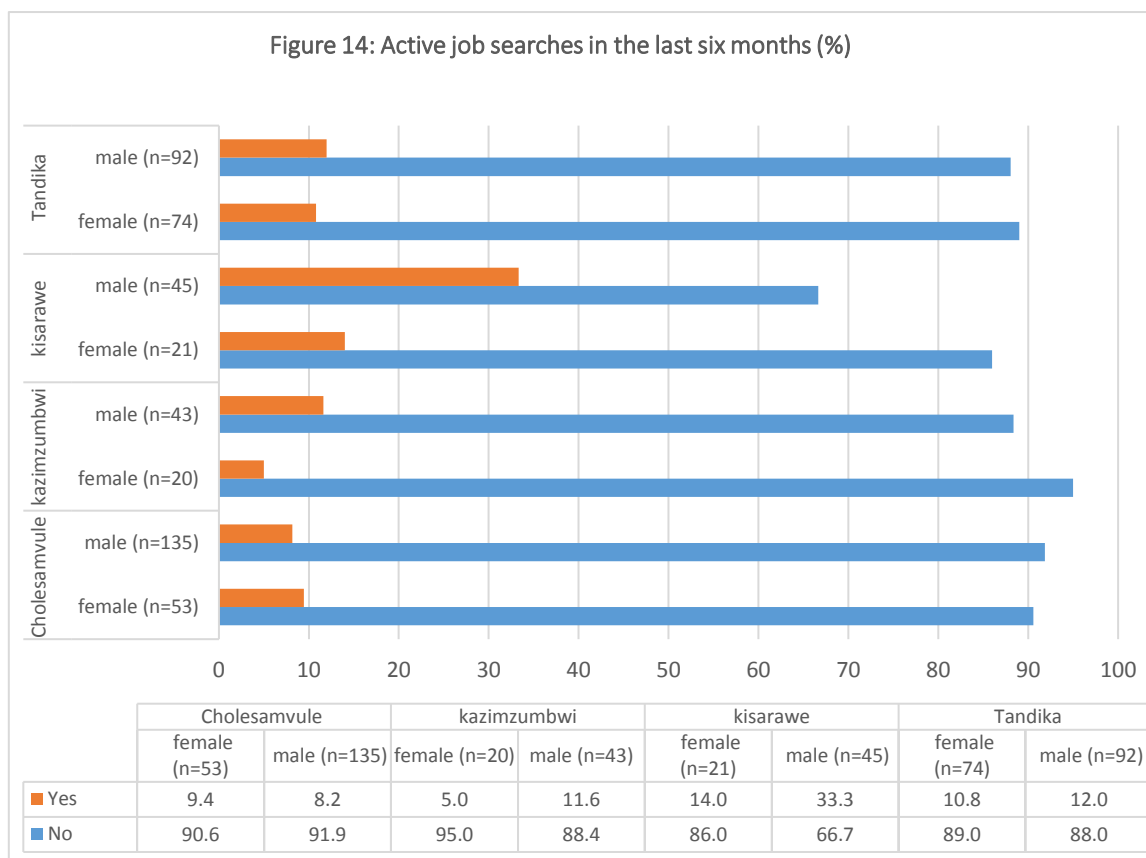
- 8.3 - Promote development-oriented policies that support productive activities, decent job creation, entrepreneurship, creativity, and innovation;
- 8.5 - By 2030, achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all women and men, including for young people and persons with disabilities, and equal pay for work of equal value; and
- 8.6 - By 2030, substantially reduce the proportion of youth not in employment, education, or training.

The proxy **indicators** used to measure include those related to employment and decent work; and public services that create employment and promote entrepreneurship.

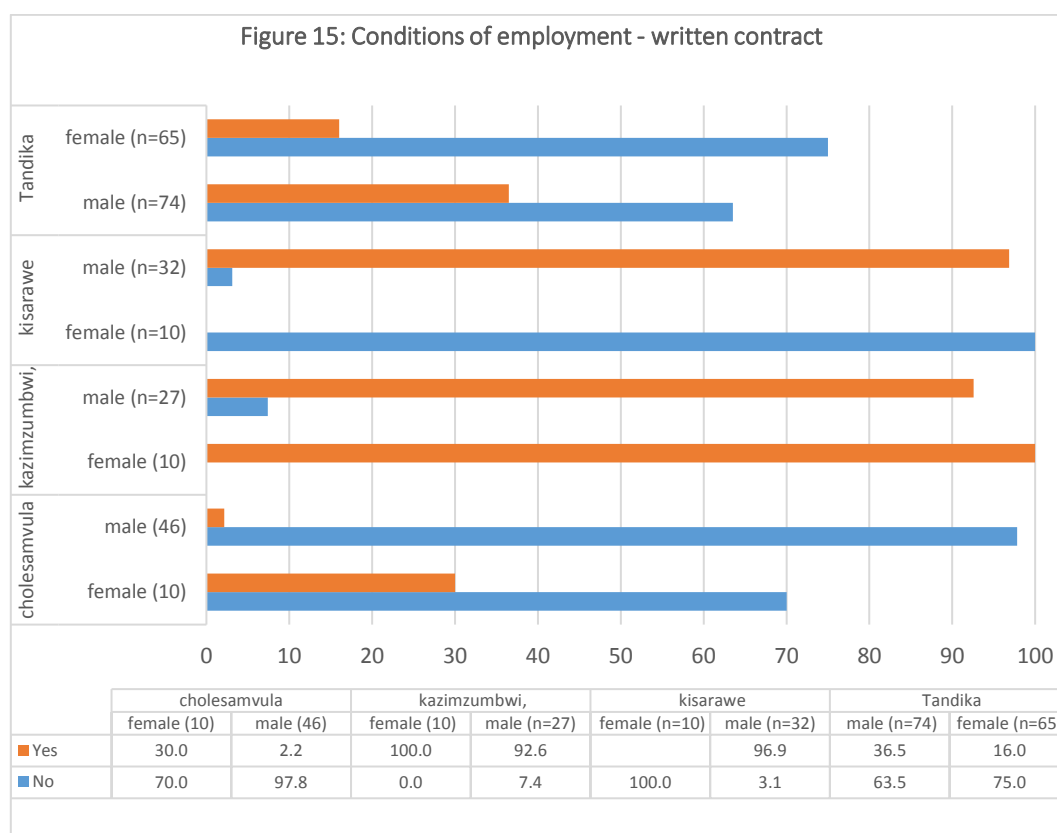
Figure 13 reflects the employment type by ward. In Cholesamvula, 95% of female heads household and 99% of their male counterparts reported they are not employed, while in Kazimzumbwi unemployment rates are 80% for women and 65% for men. In Kisarawe, 68% of female heads of household and 56% of their male counterparts reported unemployment, and in Tandika the rates were 79% and 70% for women and men respectively.



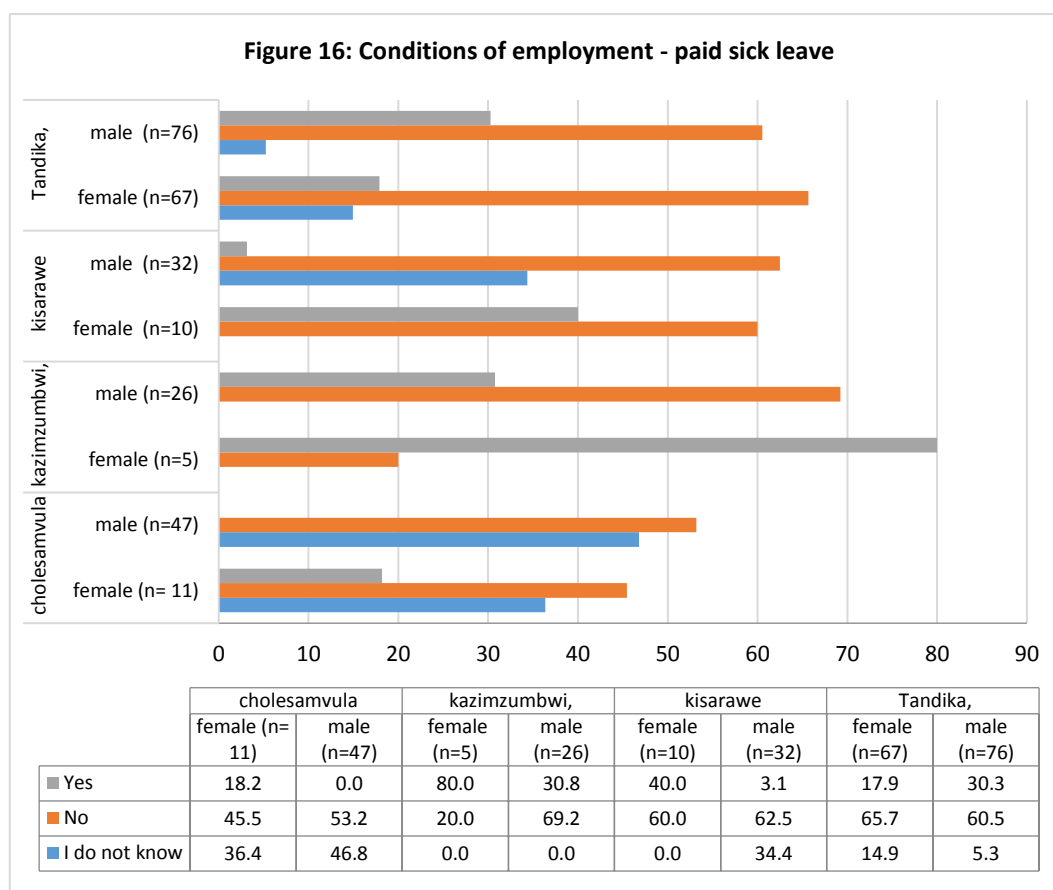
Some of the unemployed have been actively looking for work during the six months prior to the survey. This represents 9% of women and 8% of men in Cholesamvula, 5% of female heads of households of 8% of their male counterparts in Kazimzumbwi, 14% of women and 33% of men in Kisarawe, and 11% of female heads of household and 12% of their male counterparts in Tandika. (See Figure 14).

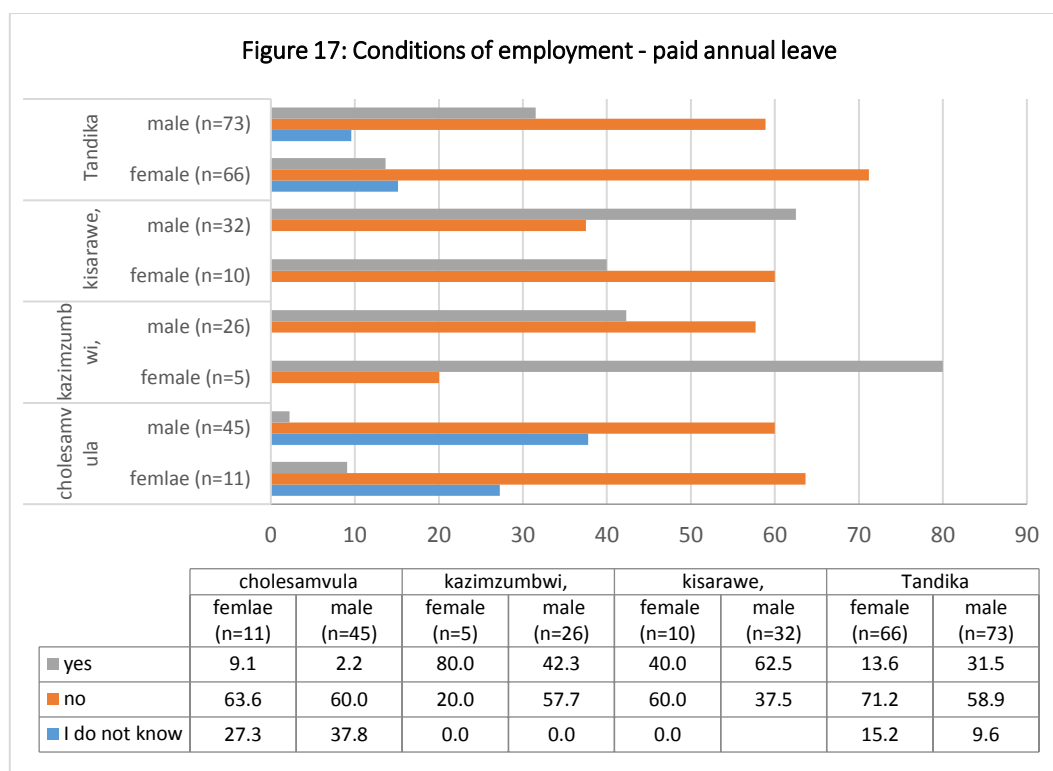


When asked whether they have a written contract for their job, 97% of the respondents in Kisarawe and 93% in Kazimzumbwi indicated that they are not, while 30% in Tandika and 7% Cholesamvula reported the same. (See Figure 15 below).

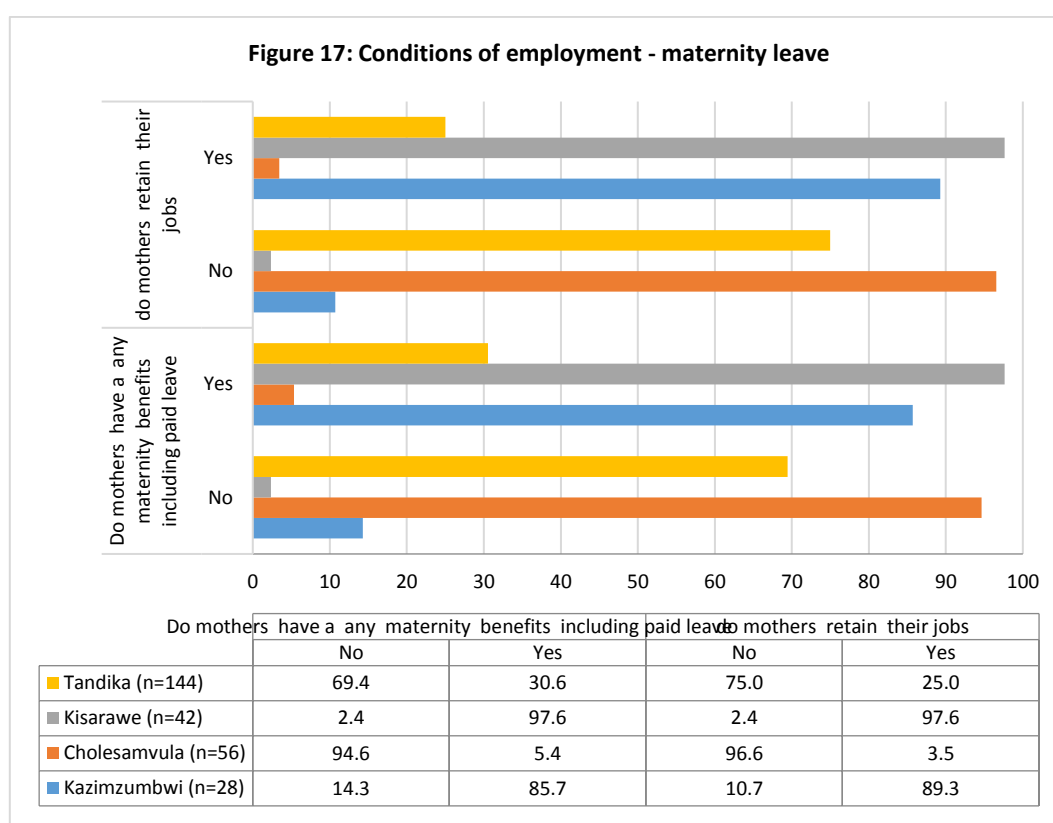


Part of decent work is the ability of an employer to offer sick leave in case the employee cannot work due to illness. The figure below shows that 38% of workers in Kazimzumbwi, 57% in Kisarawe, and 24% in Tandika reported they have access to sick leave; while 57% of workers in Kisarawe, 48% in Kazimzumbwi, and 23% in Tandika had access to paid annual leave.





From a gender perspective, the conditions for decent employment have to take into consideration the right to maternity leave. 97 % of respondents in Kisarawe and 85 % in Kazimzumbwi have reported that women have access to maternity leave and still retain their jobs. The comparative figures for Tandika and Cholesamvula are 30% and 5% respectively.



The Citizen's Hearings corroborated the data relating to Goal 8, with participants indicating that there are few working opportunities and not all of them are decent work. Youth are engaged in informal employment such as riding motorcycle, small businesses such as breaking stones for construction, and agricultural activities. They also mentioned unequal working opportunities between men and women as a challenge in Kisarawe. There is no clear data on how many women or men are found in each specific category, but women are largely found in agricultural activities. The majority of the population is unemployed, particularly women and people with disabilities.

For those who are employed, the Employment and Labour Relations Act of 2004 - which regulates the employer and employee relationships and provides for core labour rights, basic employment standards, frameworks for collective bargaining and for the prevention and settlement of disputes and other related matters – provides some protection. This Act helps workers to group together when they face any challenges in the workplace, particularly unfair dismissal and discrimination – both of which have been a huge issue. The Act also addresses the challenge of child labour by prohibiting any one to engage a child (under fourteen years) in the labour market and declaring that an offence. In spite of the law, there are still instances of children being engaged in mining, quarrying, and domestic work. All of these provisions - once enforced - will contribute towards the attainment of some of the targets of Goal 8 of the SDGs.

There are high levels of unemployment across the four communities included in the study. Subsistence agriculture and the informal sector is the mainstay for the majority members of these communities. The drive towards decent work is even more challenging in the face of such high levels of unemployment. Tanzania has legal frameworks, including the 2008 National Employment Policy, which could contribute to decent work. However, unless the challenge of high unemployment is resolved, the impact of these legal frameworks is likely to be limited.



Goal 10 - Reduce Inequality

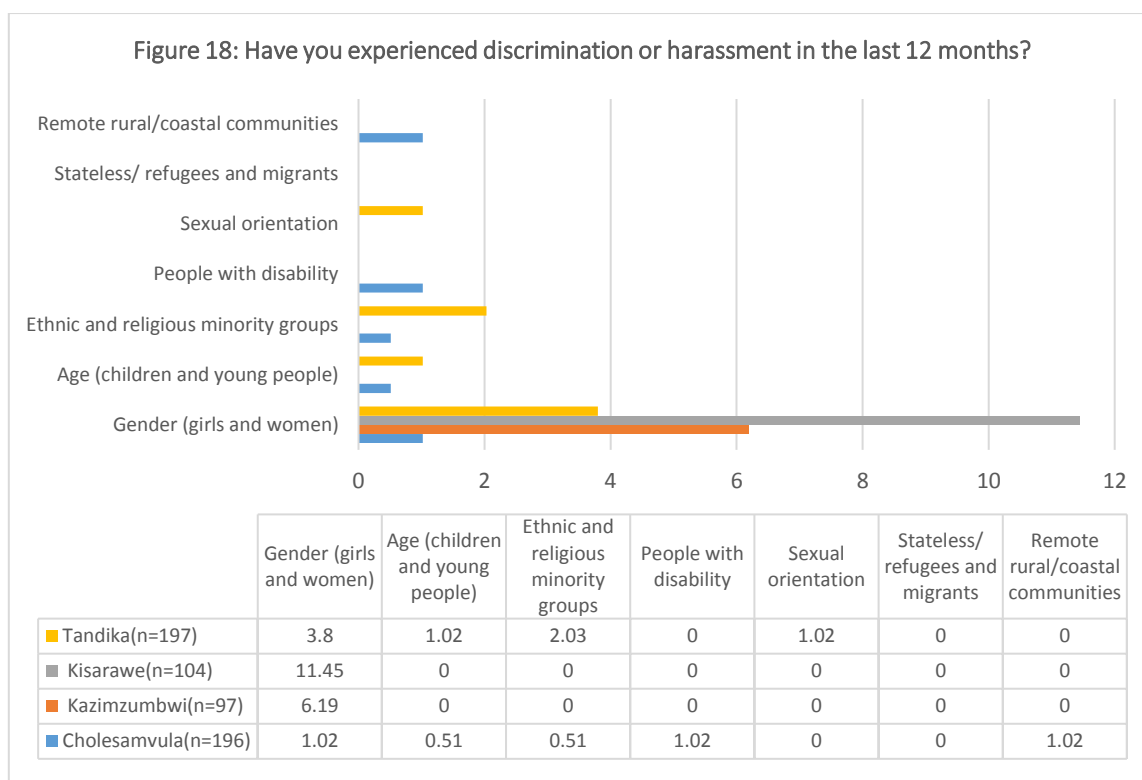
Agenda 2030 recognises the need to combat inequality within and between countries. It commits to reducing income inequality, social exclusion, and all forms of discrimination towards women, children, youth, the aged, disabled, indigenous peoples, and other vulnerable groups. The plan encourages member countries to promote equal societies, and end discrimination and marginalisation of minorities and vulnerable groups.

In this report, we specifically focus on **target 10.3**: *ensure equal opportunity and reduce inequalities of outcome, including by eliminating discriminatory laws, policies and practices and promoting appropriate legislation, policies and action in this regard.*



To measure the extent of discriminatory practices, the survey polled community members on their experiences and what the bases of such discrimination are.

Despite media covering countless cases of discrimination and violence cases, the majority of respondents reported not having experienced any form of discrimination or violence during the 12 months preceding the survey: 95% in Cholesamvula, 93% Kazimzumbwi, 88% in Kisarawe, and 92% Tandika. This could be an indication of the culture of silence in communities that hide or protect cases of discrimination. Gender is the main basis of discrimination, as illustrated in Figure 18 which reflects that 4% of respondents in Tandika, 11% in Kisarawe, and 6% Kazimzumbwi reported experienced this.



In Tandika, the second highest basis of discrimination – after gender - is that of ethnicity and religion (2%), while in Cholesamvula this was disability (1%).

While data from this study does not reveal such, according to the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), one in three women worldwide will experience physical or sexual abuse in their lifetime.²¹ Tanzania is one of the countries with significant gender-based violence (GBV), and has been identified a strategic priority of UNFPA Tanzania, with Tandika one of the priority regions targeted by the United States' President Emergency Plan Fund for AIDS Relief (PEPFAR) given the high prevalence of HIV/AIDS due to early pregnancy and GBV. The African cultural settings remain a barrier towards drawing evidence in understanding the magnitude of harassment and discrimination, and consequently hinder planning for effective redressing measures.

²¹ UNFPA. Gender-based violence: the scale of the problem. Accessed in February 2020 from <https://www.unfpa.org/gender-based-violence>

Goal 16 - Peace, Justice and Strong Institutions



SDG 16 calls for promoting peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, providing access to justice for all, and building effective, accountable, and inclusive institutions at all levels.

For this report, the focus is on community safety, reducing corruption, effective service delivery, and participatory decision-making. The **targets** are therefore:

- 16.1 - commitment to reduce all forms of violence and creating a safe environment for communities;
- 16.5 - commitment to reducing corruption - particularly the proportion of people who have had to pay a bribe to a public official to access services - how it has become a social malaise, and its disruptive impact on service delivery;
- 16.6 - effective, accountable institutions, i.e. measure satisfaction of citizens with government services received; and
- 16.7 - responsive, participatory governance.

The proxy **indicators** considered include:

- perceptions of community safety, with a specific focus on women and girls;
- perception of the pervasiveness of corruption;
- satisfaction with service delivery;
- participation in decision-making; and
- perception of representation at local government level.

This section of the Citizens Survey sought to measure perception of safety within the community, levels of satisfaction with service delivery, and levels of participation in government programmes.

Community safety

Across the four communities, respondents in rural areas had a better sense of safety compared to those in peri-urban and urban areas. All community members felt safer during the day than during the night.

Rural Cholesamvula recorded the highest perception of safety, with almost all respondents feeling equally safe, and women feeling safer than men. All female heads of households reported that they feel safe during both the day and night, while 93% of male heads of household indicated feel safe during the night. Ninety-six percent (96%) of women and 97% of male heads of household agree that women and girls are safe in their community during the day, while 92% of female heads of household and 72% of their male counterparts felt that women and girls are safe at night.

Rural Kazimzumbwi too recorded relatively high perceptions of safety, with 92% of female heads of households and 97% male heads of household feel safe at night; and 91% of women and 87% of men feeling women and girls are safe.

Table 4: Perception of community safety (%)								
	Cholesamvula		Kazimzumbwi		Kisarawe		Tandika	
Head of Household	female (n=47)	male (n=131)	female (n=25)	male (n=71)	female (n=28)	male (n=69)	female (n=83)	male (n=114)
<i>Do you feel safe walking around the area you live during the day?</i>	100	98.5	100	100	100	97	96.3	94
<i>Do you feel safe walking around the area you live during the night?</i>	100	93	92	97	93.5	97	45	63
<i>Do you think it safe women and girls in your household to walk around during the day?</i>	97	96	100	100	100	97	93	90
<i>Do you think it is safe for women and girls in your household to walk around during the night?</i>	92	72	91	87	68	81	22	28

In peri-urban Kisarawe, 97% of female heads of households and 94% of their male counterparts feel safe during night, while 87% of women and 68% of men felt that women and girls are safe in their community.

In urban Tandika, 96% female heads of household reported that they feel safe during the day and 94% of their male counterparts shared the sentiment, while 45% of women and 63% of men feel safe during the night. While 93% of female heads of household and 90% of their male counterparts agree that women and girls are safe during the day, this reduced significantly for night-time safety: 22% of women and 28% of male heads think that women and girls are safe at night.

The Citizens Hearings presented issues regarding community safety - with an emphasis on women - , gender-based violence, discrimination, decision-making processes, and corruption exists in different institutions, including courts of law. Most people feel safe walking in their areas, with only a few villagers feeling unsafe. Majority of children aged 1-14 years have experienced physical punishment by caregivers in the past month. While the percentage of young women and men aged 18-24 years who have been subjected to sexual violence by age 18 was not measured, it was observed that sexual violence is rarely reported: the majority of victims remain silent.

Among the SDGs which the government has currently been trying to strongly support is gender equality and women empowerment, which the country has implemented policies and programmes for. The National Plan of Action to End Violence against Women and Children in Tanzania (NPA-VAWC 2017/18-2021/22) seeks to eradicate violence against women and children - a daily reality for large number of women and children in the country. The Tanzanian government has recognised that addressing GBV is essential to achieving other development outcomes for women, their families, communities and the

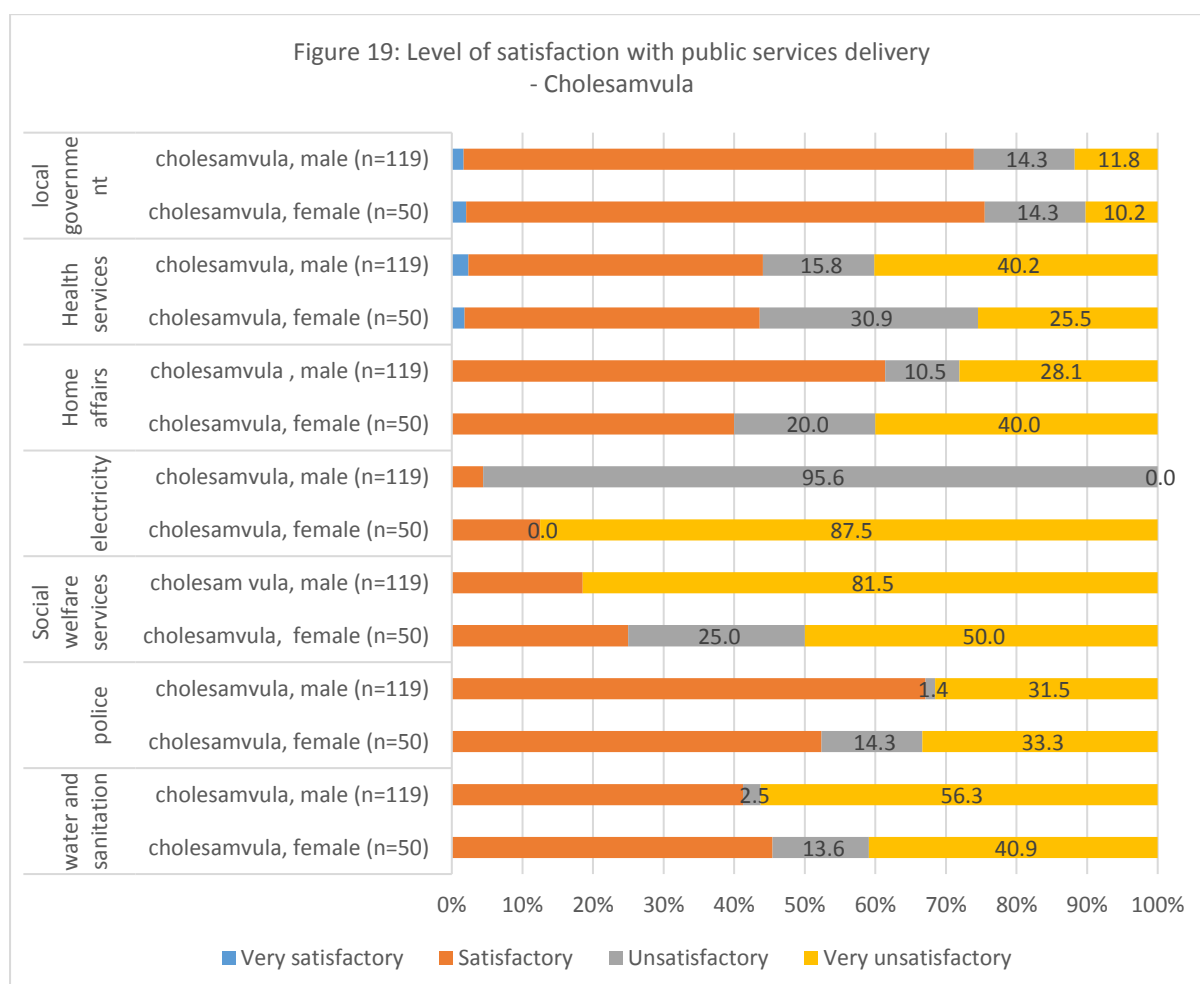
nation. The plan emphasises the actions needed for both preventing and responding to violence, and recognises that investing in violence prevention initiatives has a positive impact on inclusive growth.

To that end, the Police Gender Desk has been established to spearhead and fast-track GBV cases and to assist government in responding appropriately. Gender desks have been established in the country's police stations to help communities report all GBV cases.

Public services delivery (n = 416)

The study also sought to assess the level of satisfaction with service delivery among community members.

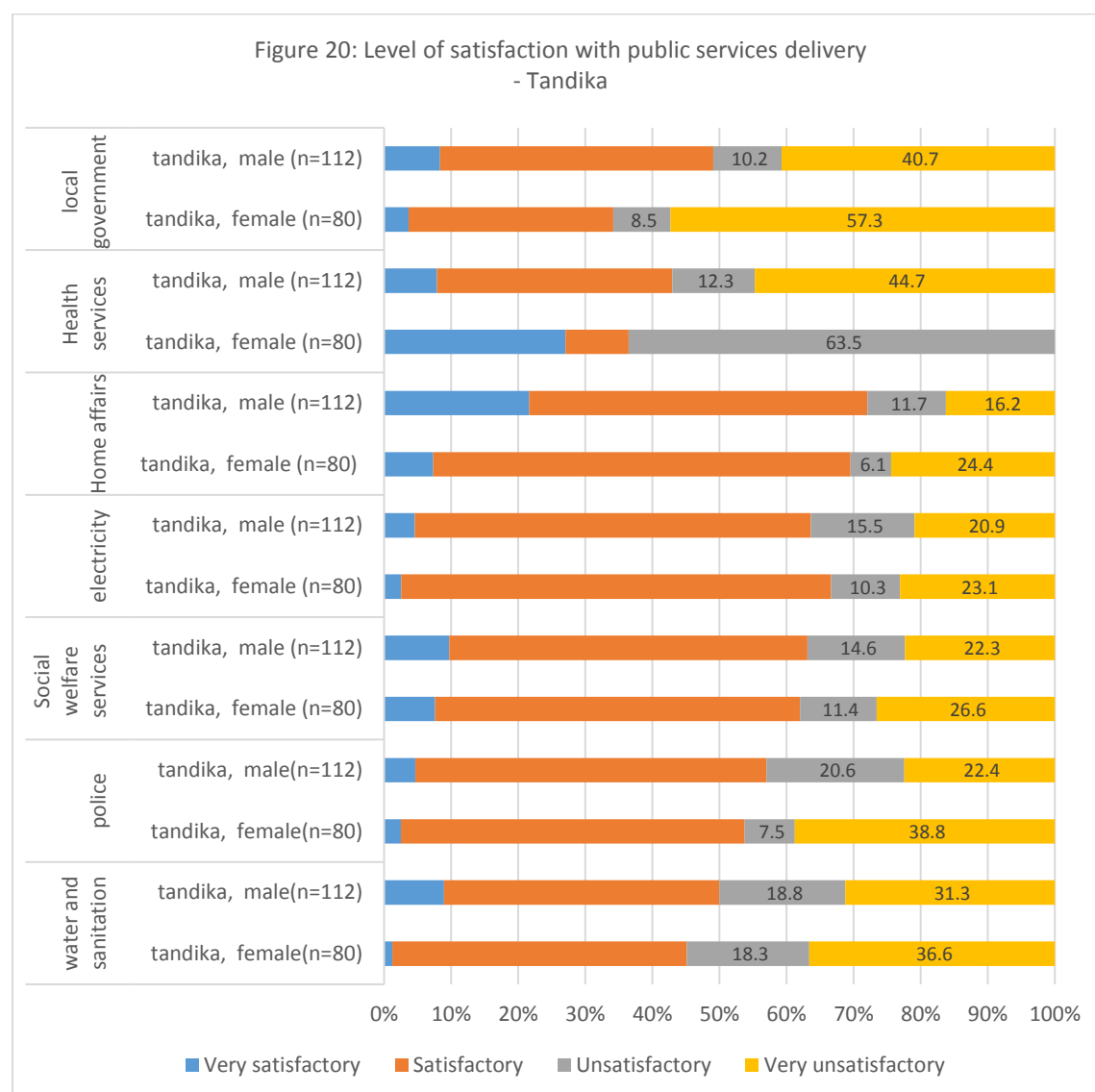
As illustrated in Figure 19 below, 65% of female-headed households in rural Cholesamvula reported dissatisfaction with health care provision, while 55% of their male counterparts expressed dissatisfaction. The other sector where a high level of dissatisfaction was expressed is water and sanitation: 51% of female-headed households and 49% of those headed by men were dissatisfied.



Both male and female heads of households reported receiving unsatisfactory (including very unsatisfactory) municipal services, social welfare, and water and sanitation and electricity, with 87% of women and 95% of men expressing dissatisfaction with electricity provision. For social welfare services, 75% of female-headed households and 81% of those headed by men expressed dissatisfaction; and

53% of female heads households and 59% of their male counterparts reporting dissatisfaction with water and sanitation.

Respondents felt that their socio-economic status affects their experience of service delivery, with 57% of female heads of household and 51% of their male counterparts expressing this sentiment. (See Figure 20).



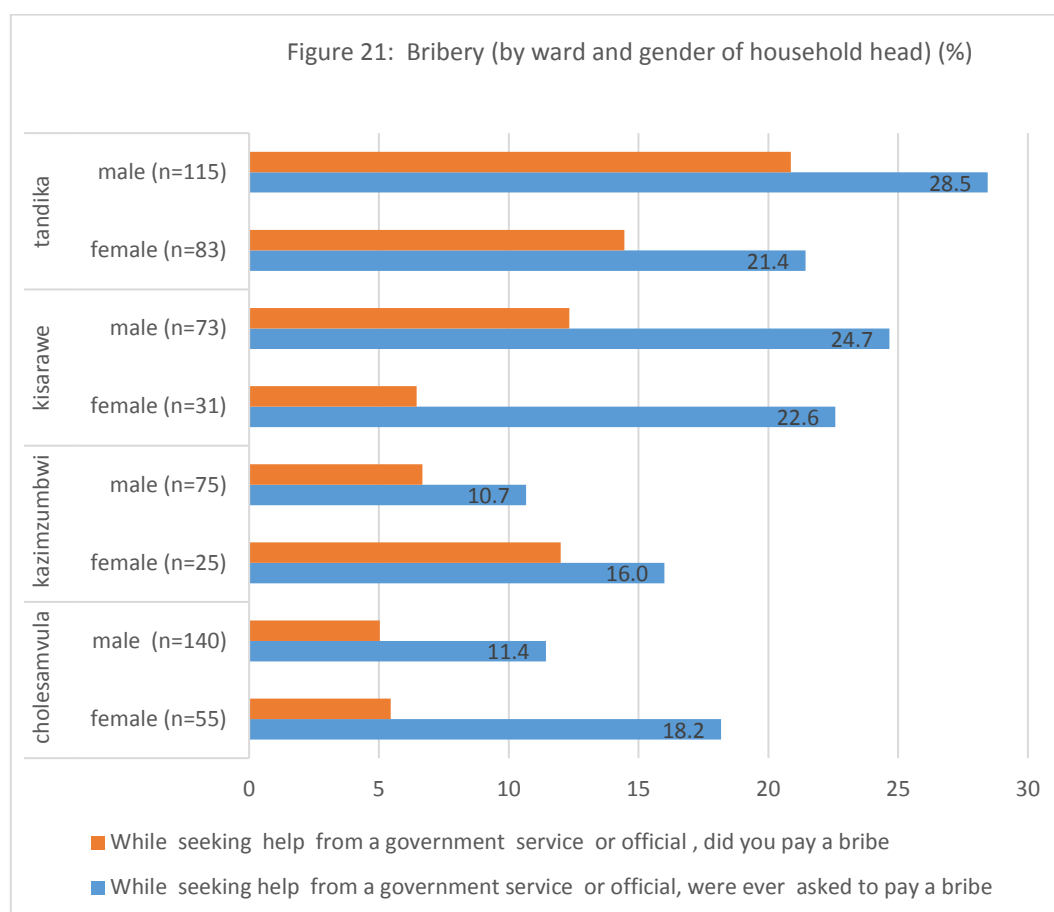
In urban Tandika, both male (52%) and female (66%) heads of households reported receiving unsatisfactory (including very unsatisfactory) services from local government services, health, and water and sanitation. For health services dissatisfaction rates were 63% among women and 57% among; and that for water and sanitation was 55% among female heads of households and 50% for their male counterparts.

While participants at the Tandika Citizens Hearings indicated that the services available are quite relevant and responsive to their needs, they noted that some services such as water do not reach all beneficiaries. A woman related, “the government drilled as part of water systems efforts and left for

more than a year without proceeding with the process, so we have to fetch water from a neighbouring village.”

Corruption cases (n = 593)

Respondents in the urban communities of Tandika and Kisarawe reported both higher levels of bribery by public officials to access services and to actually paying said bribes, while communities in rural areas, reported slightly lower levels of corruption.



In Tandika, 28% of male heads of households and 21% of their female counterparts reported being asked to pay a bribe to access services, with 21% of men and 15% of women actually paying.

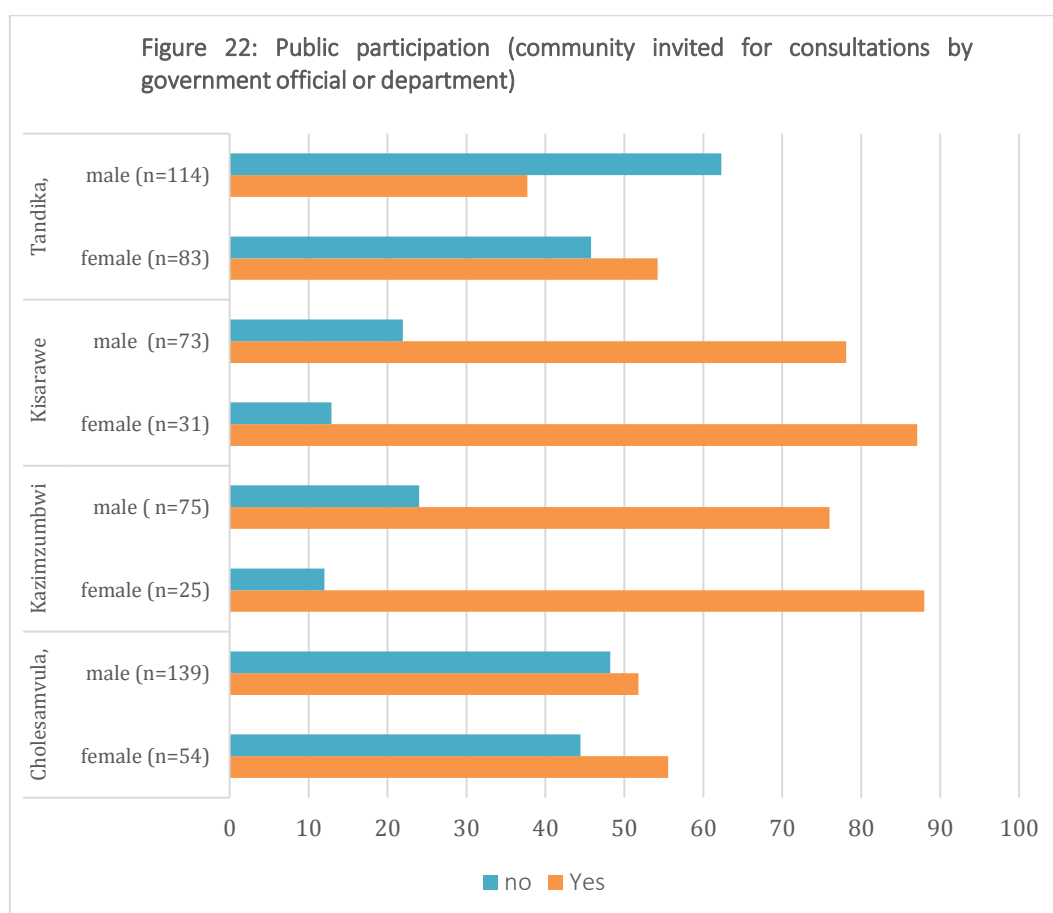
On the other end of spectrum, in the rural district of Kisarawe, Cholesamvula respondents recorded lower levels of yielding to corruption: of the 18% of female heads of household and 11% male ones from whom bribes had been solicited, 6% of women and 5% of men actually paid.

Recognising that corruption has been one of Tanzania’s major bottlenecks since independence, the National Anti-corruption Strategy and Action Plan Phase Three (2017-2022) was developed as a strategic tool to mainstream and prioritise measures and reforms to fight corruption nationally. With effective implementation of this strategy and plan, the needs of the people - especially the marginalised groups - can be achieved while simultaneously fighting corruption, which hinders the implementation of local development projects such as building hospitals and schools and providing water.

Participation and decision-making

While respondents across all the four communities reported disparate levels of citizen participation in local government decision-making, women are generally more active than men (see Figure 22). In urban Kazimzumbwi and Kisarawe, 88% and 87% of female heads of household respectively reported having been invited by for public consultations, whereas 56% of women and 52% of men had been in rural Cholesamvula.

The urban community of Tandika has the lowest participation rates, with 38% of male-headed households and 54% of their female counterparts reporting that local government officials had invited them for consultation during the 12 months preceding the survey.



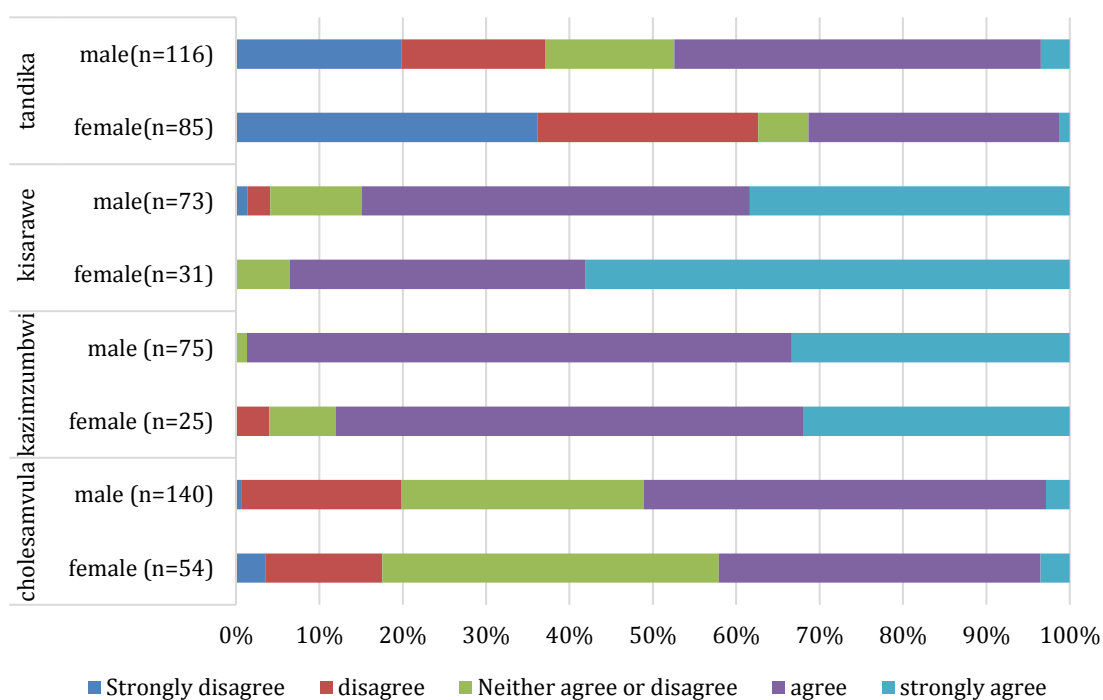
Citizen's Hearings revealed that community members participate in development processes through community meetings, at which they are able to raise issues and concerns with local leaders. However, despite having this opportunity every three months, respondents claim that their agenda points are not fully considered. On the other hand, the local leaders claim that when they take their constituents' concerns to higher levels - such as at district level - they are not fully considered.

Furthermore, during the citizen hearings it also emerged that a large number of citizens do not have enough knowledge not only about the Sustainable Development Goals, but also about national, regional and district plans which integrate the SDGs. Organisers found that a presentation on the SDGs was needed before the focus group discussion, as most participants had no knowledge of the framework. It

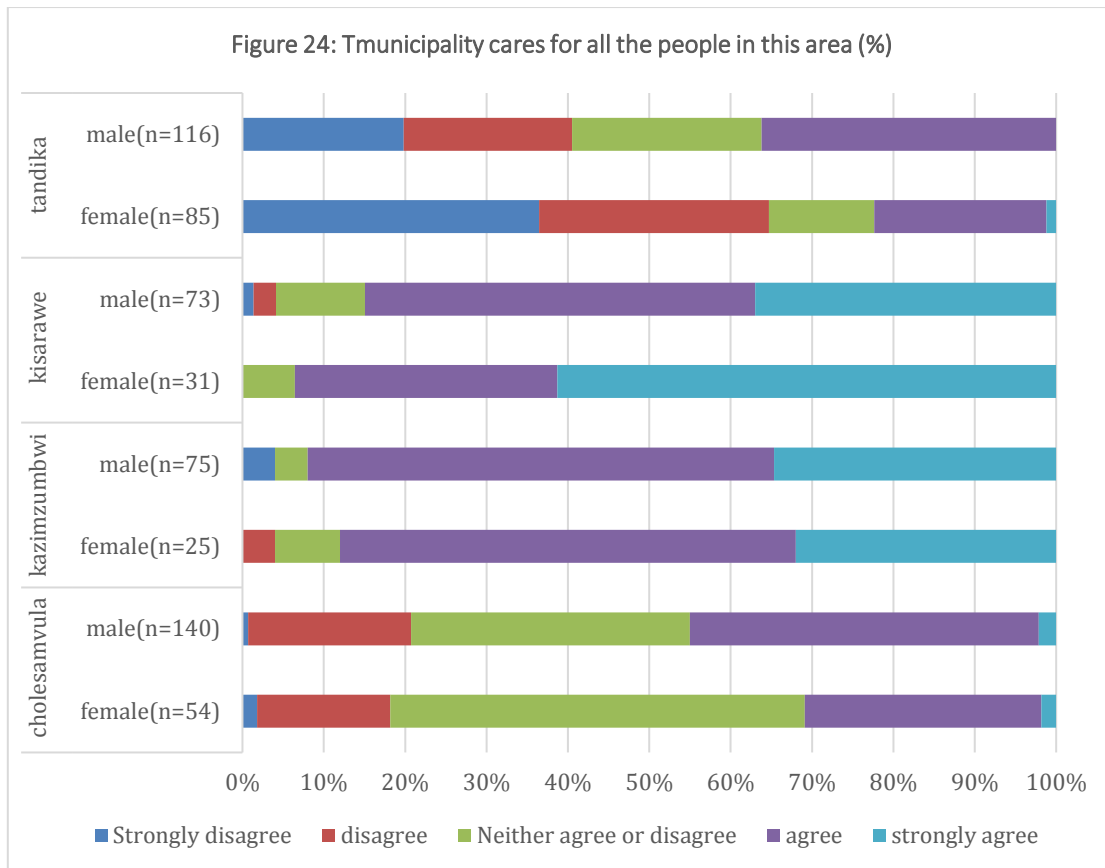
also essential to state that the CR project's selected goals were essential and in line with people's everyday welfare.

In relation to effective and accountable institutions, the survey sought to assess local government responsiveness by measuring communities' their perception on whether the local government listens to, cares for, and represents them.

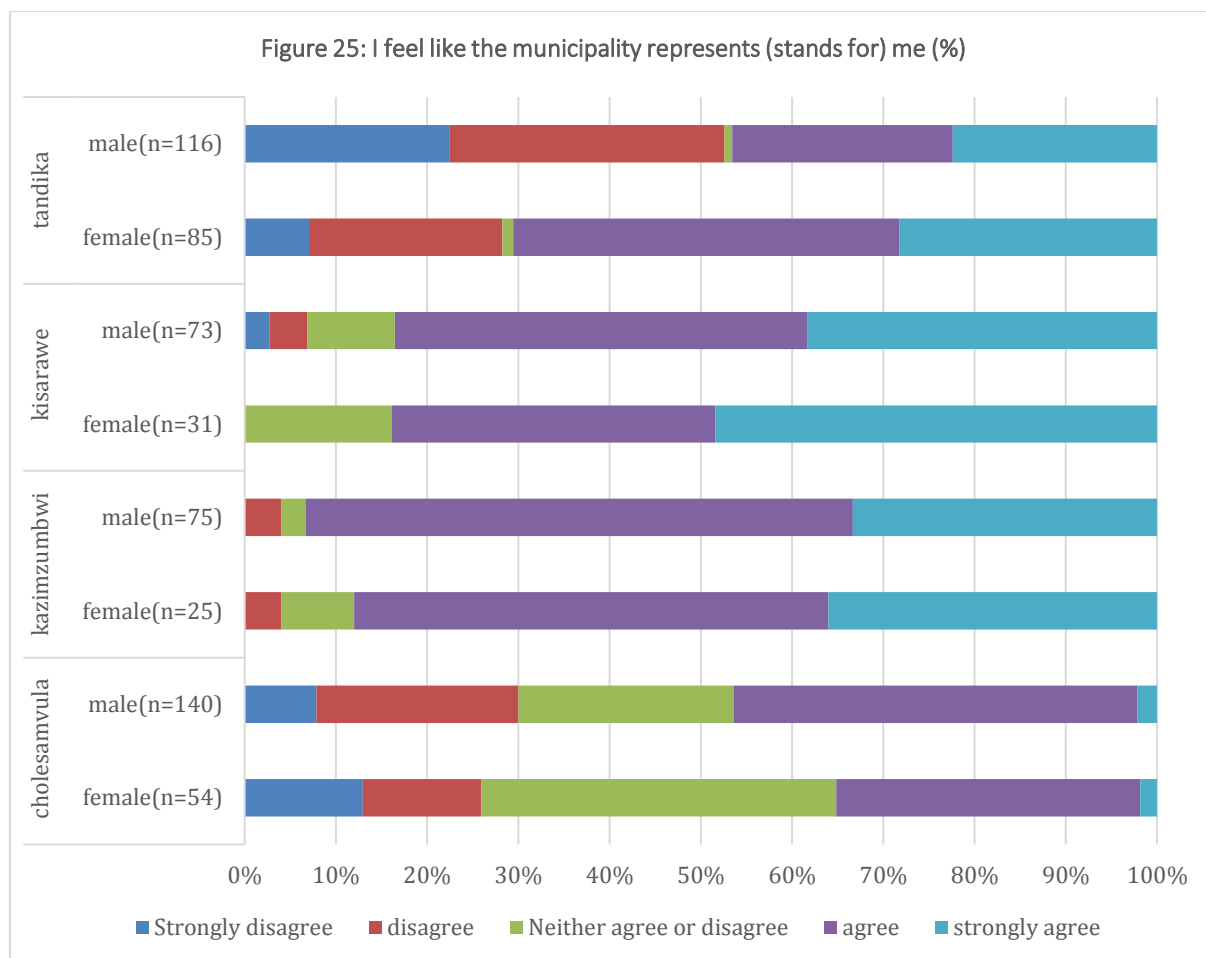
Figure 23: The municipality listens to people in the area (%)



Less than 50% of respondents in Tandika and Cholesamvula agreed that the municipality or local government listens to them, while more than 70% of respondents in Kisarawe and Kazimzumbwi agreed that their local government does listen to citizens (see Figure 23).



Similarly, less than 50% of respondents in Tandika and Cholesamvua reported that their respective municipality cares for the community, while more 70% of respondents in Kisarawe and Kazimzumbwi agreed that their local government structures do indeed care. (See Figure 24).



When polled on whether their relevant local government structure represents the community, again less than 50% of respondents in Cholesamvula agreed or strong agreed that their municipality cares for them, while in Tandika 45% of male heads of household and 70% of their female counterparts felt the same way. In Kisarawe and Kazimzumbwi, more than 70% of respondents felt that the municipality represents them.

Generally, services are not sufficiently resourced - this is corroborated by citizens' assertions made during workshops and data collection processes of the project. Citizens claimed that the resources do not match their needs. The quality of service is still low - basic services such as water, electricity, health and education are all insufficient, as illustrated by the inadequate number of teachers, desks, and other educational facilities; and the lack of medicines, doctors, health facilities.

CONCLUSION

The data was collected from four localities: Tandika in the Temeke district; and Cholesamvula, Kazimzumbwi, and Kisararwe in Kisararwe district. Tandika is an urban area with stable power supply but congested and poor infrastructure such as roads, sewage systems etc. Cholesamvula is rural population with unstable internet connectivity, no power supply and poor latrine conditions. Kisarawe is a semi urban population with reach of power and connectivity in some areas but poor latrine conditions.

The main source of income in the four communities are either employment in the informal sector or subsistence agriculture, and targeted support to subsistence agriculture and the informal sector with the aim of increasing productivity would reduce the level of poverty in the communities. There is a need to promote citizens' asset ownership (dwelling place) in urban and peri-urban areas. The availability and accessibility of support programmes at the community level requires attention; especially programmes aimed at increasing the participation of youth and women in the economy.

The four main causes that limit children's access to education are school fees and associated cost of schooling, distance to schools, child marriage, and learning difficulties (disability). It is not enough for national education programmes to abolish school fees in poor communities. Any cost associated with schooling must be abolished, and government should provide the required materials (uniform, books, etc.) to support no-fee schools. In addition, interventions aimed at reducing the incidence of child marriage and pregnancies are needed to ensure that girls stay at school under all circumstances.

A clear pattern of unpaid domestic work and services emerged – where girls and female heads of household spend more time on unpaid domestic work and care. This affects girls' performance in schools and women's' career paths. A society-wide awareness campaign can help increase sensitivity about the need for males to share household responsibilities.

There is a high level of unemployment among poor households. For those who are employed, almost 40% of cases do not fulfil conditions prescribed for decent work, e.g. access to annual leave, sick leave, and maternity leave. Over and above labour policies that promote fair labour practice, it should be mandatory for companies to adopt a labour code that attends to these shortcomings, and for these to be enforced by labour inspectors.

It is clear from the data that local government as the arm of government that is responsible for service delivery is weak. Low satisfaction with service delivery, lack of safety among women and children, dissatisfaction with health services and water and sanitation, and high levels of corruption are evidence of this. The effectiveness of the local government system must be improved, both with regards to participation and service delivery.

These policy recommendations address the need for programmatic intervention in response to the vulnerabilities of poor, disenfranchised, and marginalised communities. These households mostly depend on the informal sector or subsistence agriculture, with little asset ownership, and with little citizen voice and agency. The gender of the head of household largely determines the socio-economic

strata of the household, as evidenced by the relatively poor performance of female-headed households across all indicators measured in this study.

Citizen's voice and agency

Participants recommended that more training workshops on SDGs and its link with national plans be held. It was clear that most citizens are not aware of the SDGs - this lack of knowledge hinders effective and meaningful participation in SDGs implementation. They also called for a strong relationship between civil society organisations, government, and citizens to aid their involvement in the implementation of SDGs in the country.

Community recommendations are often not fully considered and taken on board by policymakers, contributing to uninformed policies and programmes that exacerbate rather than tackle problems. A fully participatory community approach that carries community agendas from local to national level will ensure that the concerns of marginalised and vulnerable groups inform policies and programmes promoting the SDGs.

Leave no-one behind

In operationalising the 'leaving no-one behind' dictum, the state must:

- Ensure the availability, accessibility, and/or affordability of public services for marginalised communities;
- Ensure that public services are relevant and responsive to the needs of communities, and that beneficiaries are appropriately targeted so that services can reach those who need them the most;
- Ensure that local governments adopt participatory practice, not just policy, to improve the effectiveness of programmes at community level; and
- Mainstream gender and youth in the implementation of the SDGs.



Mainstreaming and implementation

- International and regional commitments must be adhered to, including the 2030 Agenda on Sustainable Development. One of the objectives of Tanzania's Five-Year Development Plan II (2016/17-2020/21) is the integration of international and regional agendas into the country's plans. Since Tanzania adopted the 2030 Agenda, the government must respect its commitments and implement the Goals according to the agreed framework. Civil society organizations have a vital role in this respect by acting as watchdogs.
- While Tanzania has developed well-framed policies and programmes, these are not fully implemented. Government must ensure that SDG-related policies and programmes are fast-tracked, and civil society organisations must further advocate for and raise awareness of their effective implementation.
- The government should have an efficient and effective data collection mechanism, from local level to national level, to contribute to informed policies and strategies, and eventually assist in realising

the Sustainable Development Goals. There are though significant data gaps that need to be filled in order for the progress of SDGs to be tracked in Tanzania. This challenge include three aspects: data availability, data coherence, and getting current data – all of which impact on the country's reporting on implementation of Agenda 2030. Filling these data gaps requires multi-stakeholder approaches and partnerships between government, the private sector, academia, and philanthropic and civil society organisations.

- Civil society organisations play a vital in data collection by conducting activities and research at grassroots level, in areas where the government often cannot even reach. A partnership around data collection would improve the inclusion of marginalised groups - women, youth, and people with disabilities – when developing, implementing, and tracking policies and programmes.

-END-



