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# Scaling Up Gender Mainstreaming in Rural Transport: Policies, Practices, Impacts and Monitoring Processes

Tanzania Case Study



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(IFRTD)

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Cover Photo: Women carrying mats to the market in Kagera region, Tanzania

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## Abstract

This report contains the results of a short desk top study to review the state of gender mainstreaming in two rural transport programmes in Tanzania. The report is part of a four-country case study titled “Scaling up Gender Mainstreaming in Rural Transport: Analysis of Policies, Practices, Impacts and Monitoring Processes”. Primary case studies are drawn from Uganda and Ghana while Tanzania and Kenya have provided supplementary desk based case studies.

This case study begins with a review of the general gender policy and legislative environment and then zeroes in on two programs, the Village Transport and Travel Programme (VTTP), a pilot programme implemented in 6 Districts between 1995 and 2004, and the ongoing Local Government Transport Programme (LGTP) which is under President’s Office Regional Administration and Local Government (PORALG).

The national policy and legislative environment for gender has evolved very progressively in the last few decades. The constitution provides the foundational pillars for the development of gender equality instruments. The Tanzania’s National Development Vision 2025 affirms the position of a gender equal society. Following from this, the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) is mandated to collect and analyse sex disaggregated data. In addition, the policy position on gender budgeting is indicated in budget guidelines issued in the year 2016. At the local government level, one of the objectives of the local government reform policy (1998) is to establish democratic and gender sensitive administrative set-up in local governments.

From a rural transport perspective, the baseline studies leading to the design of VTTP provided a pioneering approach to *understanding* the gender issues in rural transport not only for Tanzania, but other countries in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA). However, it is noted that despite the gender insights surrounding the VTTP, this was not reflected in the monitoring and evaluation activities and communication outputs of the programme. From available reports, it is not possible to see what specific gender impacts were achieved as a result of the interventions. Similarly, the LGTP has shown commitment to a wider range of gender mainstreaming objectives in rural transport. However, absence of monitoring and evaluation reports does not enable us to give an assessment of the gender equality performance of the programme.

The lessons from the case study is that despite strong policy intent on gender mainstreaming, in the absence of a robust and mandatory monitoring framework, proper assessment of gender performance cannot be undertaken and good practice cannot be developed.

## Key words

Gender and Rural Transport, Gender Mainstreaming, Gender and Time Poverty, Tanzania Gender Policies, VTTP, LGTP

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## **Acronyms, Units and Currencies**

TZS	Tanzania Shilling (1 USD =2,232.22TZS)
ADB	Asian Development Bank
AfDB	African Development Bank
AFCAP	Africa Community Access Partnership
ASCAP	Asia Community Access Partnership
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women
CSO	Civil Society Organisation
HDI	Human Development Index
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation
FHH	Female Headed Households
GDI	Gender Development Index
GFPs	Gender Focal Points
GII	Gender Inequality Index
ICT	Information Communication Technology
IFRTD	International Forum for Rural Transport and Development
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IMT	Intermediate Means of Transport
LGA	Local Government Area
LGCDG	Local Government Capital Development Grant
LGTP	Local Government Transport Programme
MDAs	Ministry Departments and Agencies
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MHH	Male Headed Households
MIRTP	Makete Integrated Rural Transport Programme
NBS	National Bureau of Statistics
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NMT	Non-Motorised Transport
NSGD	National Strategy for Gender and Development
NSP	National Strategic Plan
NSPF	National Social Protection Framework
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
PORALG	President's Office, Regional Administration and Local Government
ReCAP	Research for Community Access Partnership
SADC	Southern Africa Development Cooperation
SGBV	Sexual and Gender Based Violence
SIGI	Social Institutions and Gender Index
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
SUMATRA	Surface and Marine Transport Regulatory Authority
TANROADS	Tanzania Roads Agency
TARURA	Tanzania Rural and Urban Road Authority
TAZAMA	Tanzania-Zambia Oil Pipeline
TAZARA	Tanzania-Zambia Railway Authority
TOR	Terms of Reference
TRL	Tanzania Railway Limited
TSIP	Transport Sector Investment Programme
UK	United Kingdom (of Great Britain and Northern Ireland)
UKAid	United Kingdom Aid (Department for International Development, UK)

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UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
URT	United Republic of Tanzania
VTTP	Village Travel and Transport Programme
WEF	World Economic Forum
WGDP	Women and Gender Development Policy

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## **Executive Summary**

The Tanzania case study that is reported here is based on a review of gender mainstreaming in two programmes, the Village Travel and Transport Programme (VTTP) a pilot programme implemented in 6 Districts between 1995-2004 and the Local Government Transport Programme (LGTP) which is a comprehensive rural transport infrastructure improvement and maintenance programme under the President's Office Regional Administration and Local Government (PORALG). The overall objective of the case study is to contribute to knowledge that can lead to improved policies and practices for sustainably mainstreaming gender in rural transport. This knowledge will assist transport stakeholders and policy makers in the transport sector to understand success factors and challenges involved in the process of mainstreaming gender issues in the transport sector.

From a policy perspective, Tanzania's National Development Vision 2025 recognises the important role of leadership in the development of both men and women. The National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) is mandated to collect and analyse sex disaggregated national data. The Tanzania government policy position on gender budgeting is indicated in budget guidelines issued in the year 2016. The guideline requires all public entities to make budgetary allocations for implementation of priority cross-cutting interventions, including gender. At the local government level, one of the objectives of the local government reform policy (1998) is to establish democratic and gender sensitive administrative set-up in local governments.

This review focuses on the VTTP and LGT programmes. Tanzania started implementation of the VTTP as a pilot initiative in 1994. Although studies leading up to the formulation of VTTP were rich on data showing the transport burden borne by women, the issues were very vaguely articulated in the implementation plans and in the review reports. Recognising this weakness, the VTTP review report of 2002 made a reasonable attempt to point out pertinent gender issues in terms of access to resources, assets and transport services and differences in responsibilities between women and men. One of the weaknesses that have been observed in the Evaluation Report is the absence of quantitative data showing the actual outcomes of interventions in areas such as time savings for women, economic and social benefits, or an assessment of the impact of women in prioritising transport and non-transport interventions. Despite these weaknesses, the Review Report – and the VTTP in general, provided a pioneering perspective on gender and rural transport, though at a time when knowledge in the area was very limited. This did contribute to the integration of some gender issues in subsequent policies and programmes. In particular, it led to recognition of gender issues in the National Transport Policy (2003) as well as the subsequent follow up rollout phases of VTTP and The Local Government Transport Program-District Roads Management.

In the year 2007/8 the Local Government Transport Program (LGTP) with a rural road component was launched. It has been implemented in two phases; Phase 1: 2007-2012 and Phase 2: 2012-2017. The rural roads component of the programme has sought to replicate some of the approaches from the VTTP. In the first phase, it was stated that the programme will ensure that women's voices are heard fully in decision-making processes. On implementation targets it stated there would be a gradual introduction to give time to test and perfect the procedures including gender impact assessment in decision making systems. In addition, the LGTP Phase 1 adopted the then Millennium Development Goal (MDG) Goal 3: Promotion of Gender Equality and Empowerment of Women.

The LGTP has the following gender indicators:

- Participation by women in decision-making bodies related to local transport infrastructure;
- Participation by women in the labour force for road construction and maintenance;
- Studies successfully carried out on barriers to gender equality in the transport sector.

With regard to women's access to means of transport, the LGTP proposed that in each Local Government Area (LGA), a multi-stakeholder transport user group would be formed. The membership would include women's group leaders. The LGTP had provisions for indicators that would be embedded in contracts to oblige contractors to record employment created for women and men.

Phase 2 of the LGTP adopted the 2008 Transport Sector Investment Program (TSIP) gender strategies which include:

- To undertake studies on gender segregation in the sector and advise on actions to be taken;
- Enable vulnerable groups to participate effectively in the transport activities so as to improve their income;
- To increase the participation of women in management and operations of the transport sector through training and empowerment
- To promote IMTs as cost-effective local transport.

Other strategies include affirmative action and capacity building for women with respect to financial and procurement procedures, access to Local Government Capital Development Grant (LGCDG), and development of a criteria to improve the performance of the fund on gender equity.

The LGTP design has a strong focus on gender equality and empowerment. However, the statements on gender can come to fruition by having a funding and implementation mechanism that pays full attention to these issues. In addition, implementing a clear monitoring and performance procedure would help translate gender equality intentions from mere statements into actual results, and help identify challenges and mechanisms of improving gender performance. Unfortunately, it is not possible to conduct a full assessment of the performance of the LGTP, as evaluation of Phase 1 and 2 of the project have not taken place.

## **1 Introduction**

### **1.1 Country Overview**

Tanzania is bordered by Kenya and Uganda to the North, Zambia, Malawi and Mozambique to the South, Rwanda, Burundi and the Democratic Republic of Congo to the West, and the Indian Ocean coastline of 1,424 km to the East.

According to the Population Census derived Basic Demographic and Socio-Economic Profile Report (URT, 2014) women constitute 51.3 percent of the population of 44 million people. The urban-rural gender distribution of the population shows that women constitute 51.8% of the urban population and 52% of the rural population. The report shows that 33.5% of all households in Tanzania mainland are headed by women. Moreover, Female Headed Households (FHH) in the country have a higher average household size (7.3 people) compared with Male Headed Households (MHH) (3.5 people).

The majority of FHH are headed by widows (47%), followed by those headed by divorced or separated women (27%) (FAO, 2014). Furthermore, the FAO report observed that FHH are constrained by a larger share of dependent members with a dependency rate<sup>1</sup> of 1.6, compared to 1.3 for MHH. Such dependence puts additional pressure on productive members with FHHs.

Tanzania is one of the poorest countries in the world, ranking 159 out of 187 countries on the Human Development Index (HDI) with a value of 0.521 (UNDP, 2014a). Although the GDP growth rate has been increasing from 4.1% in 1998 (FAO, 2014) to 7.0 % in 2015 (World Bank, 2016), 28.2% of the population continues to fall below the basic needs poverty line and 9.7% below the food poverty line (URT, 2016).

As with many Sub-Sahara African (SSA) countries, poverty in Tanzania is disproportionately a rural phenomenon. The proportion of rural population living below the basic needs poverty line is about 40%, compared to 16% living in Dar es Salaam and 18% in other urban areas (FAO, 2014).

Statistics by UNDP (2014b) indicate that the Gender Development Index (GDI) for Tanzania stands at 0.938, which falls into group 3 of the GDI groups (Group 3 countries are those with medium equality in HDI achievements between women and men). Likewise, the country rank for Gender Inequality Index (GII) is 125 out 155 countries, with an index value of 0.547 (UNDP, 2014c). The National Strategic Plan (NSP, 2009) cited in FAO (2014) observed that, looking at the head-count ratio, FHHs are less affected by poverty compared to their male counterparts (poverty incidence is 40.2% for MHH against 38.3% for FHH). Nonetheless, the difference between the two categories shrinks when more weight is given to the depth of poverty (poverty gap being 12.5% for MHH against 11.6% for FHH), indicating that although the share is lower, poverty suffered by FHH is deeper.

According to the 2015 Southern Africa Development Cooperation's (SADC) Gender Protocol Barometer, women parliamentarians constitute 34% of all parliamentarians (Strachan, 2015). This percentage is well above SADC's and 1995 Beijing Platform for Action's target of 30%. In terms of women representation in the public sector, the 2003 Public Service Regulations state that where a man and a woman are equally competent, [employment] preference should be given to a woman (URT, 2012). The 2014 SADC Gender Protocol Barometer observed that 29% of all public service

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<sup>1</sup> This indicator measures the ratio of the number of people of non-working age (aged 0-14 and over 65) to the number of those of working age.

employees in Tanzania are women though it was also noted that at the higher echelons of civil service, only 18% of all permanent secretaries are women (Strachan, 2015).

## **1.2 Overview of the Transport Sector**

The major transport modes in Tanzania are roads, railways, air, waterways and pipelines. Non-Motorised Transport (NMT) are the main form of transport service in rural areas where more than 75 percent of Tanzanians live. NMTs include bicycles, ox-carts, and walking. Motorised services like pick-up trucks and buses also exist but in low frequency in most rural areas. Motorcycles are growing rapidly as a significant mode of rural transport although their penetration is not high in many of the low population density rural areas. In urban areas transport services consist of both motorised and non-motorised vehicles. However, the performance of these means of transport is affected by poor transport infrastructure and weak operational interfaces which causes inefficiencies as manifested by traffic jams in most urban areas.

The status of transport infrastructure in Tanzania is as follows: The road network comprises 86,472 km of which 12,786 km are categorised as trunk roads, 21,105 km as regional roads and the remaining 52,581 km as district, urban and feeder roads (ADB, 2013).

With regards to railways, the system covers a total track length of 3,676 km. Out of these, 2,706 km are operated by the Tanzania Railway Limited (TRL) while Tanzania-Zambia Railway Authority (TAZARA) operate the balance of 970 km. The country has a total of 125 airports and airstrips, of which 62 are owned and managed by the government. The sea waterways have three main ports along the Indian Ocean, namely Dar es Salaam, Tanga and Lindi whilst the major inland waterway ports are located at Lake Victoria, Lake Nyasa, and Lake Tanganyika. The major pipe line transportation in the country includes:

- The Tanzania–Zambia Oil pipeline (TAZAMA) with a length of 1,710 km which transports crude oil from Dar es Salaam to the Ndola refinery in Zambia;
- The Songo-Songo pipeline which pipes natural gas from Songo-Songo island to Dar es Salaam over a distance of 232 km;
- The Manzi bay pipe line with a length of 28 km which transports gas from the off-shore Mnazi Bay to a power plant in Mtwara.

### *1.2.1 Institutional set up of the transport sector*

The Tanzania Rural and Urban Roads Authority (TARURA), established in July 2017, is now beginning to execute its mandate of overseeing all road related infrastructure in the rural and urban councils, which was previously the responsibility of the President’s Office Regional Administration and Local Government (PORALG).

Other institutions responsible for the transport sector in Tanzania include:

- Ministry of Infrastructure Development;
- Ministry of Finance;
- Road Fund Board;
- Regional Roads Boards;
- Local Government Authorities;
- Tanzania Roads Agency (TANROADS);
- Surface and Maritime Transport Regulatory Authority (SUMATRA);
- Training Bodies and Academic Institutions;
- Private Sector Institutions;
- Communities; and Transport Infrastructure Users.

TARURA is responsible for construction and management of district, urban and feeder roads that were under the regional administration and local government authorities. TARURA places emphasis on boosting agricultural productivity, improving access to social services and connecting rural areas to markets.

Supervision of the construction and maintenance of major roads is the responsibility of the Tanzania Roads Agency (TANROADS). Also in 2001, the government passed the Surface and Maritime Transport Regulatory Authority (SUMATRA) Act (2001) to oversee the economics and safety aspects regarding the surface and marine transport systems.

The railway transport operations are governed by the Railway Act (2002) which separates the functions of running the railway business from ownership of the infrastructure assets and its regulations. Following this separation, the railway services have been concessioned to the private sector while economic and safety regulation aspects are vested with SUMATRA. The air transport operations are regulated under the Tanzania Civil Aviation Act (1977) revised in 2003. The Act gives mandate to Tanzania Airport Authority (TAA) to run and manage airports, and to protect consumers and the environment.

### **1.3 Prevailing Gender Norms and the Situation of Women and Girls in the Country**

The institutional mechanisms for gender equality and women's empowerment in various sectors including the transport sector are: Ministry responsible for Gender as the National Focal Point for gender equality and Gender Focal Points (GFPs) in government MDAs. In addition, policies and working structures within non-governmental organisations (NGO) and development partners are part of the mechanisms that drive gender equality. At the Parliament level, there is a Parliamentary Committee with a portfolio on Social Welfare and Community Development issues as well as a Parliamentary Women's Caucus. Furthermore, the implementation of gender related activities in the country is guided by National Policy on Gender (2000) and the National Strategy for Gender Development (2005).

In reference to the National Policy on Gender (2000), it is stated that, although in general terms Tanzania society has not fully utilised opportunities and rights to bring rapid development, the situation is worse for women and girls because of various norms and conflicting laws which contribute to their discrimination. Evidence indicates that in spite of progressive legal frameworks for implementation of gender equality outcomes in Tanzania, several implementation gaps do exist (URT 2012). These gaps continue to impede the achievement of women and girls empowering policy outcomes in the country. URT (2012) suggests that though, for instance, the Tanzania Constitution has been amended for the purpose of removing discrimination based on sex, the definition of discrimination is still not in accordance with the definition of discrimination in article 1 of CEDAW which prohibits direct and indirect discrimination.

Discrimination against women is exacerbated by the existence of a multiplicity of legal systems operating in parallel and therefore resulting in a conflict of laws which often affect the protection of women's and girls' property negatively. For instance although the Constitution, the Law of Marriage Act (1971), Land Act (No. 4 and 5, 1999), Unit Titles Act, (2008), Mortgage Finance Special Provisions Act, (2008) and the Local Customary Law Declaration Order, (1963) and many legal and policy instruments grant same right to property ownership to both men and women, still the Law of Marriage Act requires the court to take full consideration of the customs of a community to which the party belongs when granting an order for division of matrimonial property. Bearing in mind that most of the customs are patriarchal and discriminatory, there is always a tendency to violate women's and girls' rights in dividing matrimonial property. The URT (2012) concludes that this kind

of situation leads to the majority of women and girls, especially those in rural areas, not to benefit from implementation of Gender Equality Conventions such as CEDAW and many others.

## **2 The Case Study**

### **2.1 Objectives**

The overall objective of this case study is to contribute to knowledge that can lead to improved policies and practices for sustainably mainstreaming gender in rural transport.

Specific research objectives:

- a. Map the national gender policy landscape.
- b. Assess the quality of gender mainstreaming in [rural] transport processes and institutions.
- c. Undertake a gender appraisal of the case study rural transport programmes along the project cycle.
- d. Identify opportunities for scaling up good gender mainstreaming practices in the context of rural transport.

### **2.2 Significance of the Research**

The significance of this study is that, it will bring into light how gender issues have been integrated into various policies, laws, and practices in the sector. This knowledge will assist stakeholders and policy makers in the transport and other relevant sectors to understand success factors and challenges involved in the process of mainstreaming gender issues in the transport sector. Such understanding will contribute to improving the gender dimensions of policies, laws, and practices.

### **2.3 Methodology and Scope**

This country case study covers gender and rural transport policies in Tanzania. The approach used to gather relevant data for this study is a document review of published and grey literature on gender and rural transport in Tanzania. These include national policy documents and project documents related to VTTP and the LGTP.

### **2.4 Limitations of the study**

The study relied exclusively on secondary data, particularly policy documents found on Ministry websites, internet depositories, and VTTP documents. The limitation of this approach is that some of these policy and project documents were hard to find and some may be too old to reflect the current situation with regard to gender dimensions in the transport sector.

## **3 National Gender Policy and Institutional Environment**

A gender responsive national policy environment can contribute to closing gaps in many elements of gender inequality. Gender indices are important instruments in helping establish normative standards that allow comparison over time and across different countries. Table 1 provides a view of gender indicators for Tanzania, drawing from both international and national sources. Despite the Tanzania constitution prohibiting gender based discrimination, legislation, policies and practice lag behind in supporting this aspiration. For example, the country performance on OECD's Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) shows a high level of inequality. SIGI is a 160-country measure of discrimination against women in social institutions, covering several dimensions of inequality. Similarly, Tanzania ranks 53 out of 144 countries on the Global Gender Gap Index that seeks to measure the relative gaps between women and men across four key areas: health, education, economy and politics (WEF, 2016). Of relevance to this study, the data shows that rural women spend 16 hours working, as compared to hours spent by men.

Table 1: Key Gender Equality Indicators for Tanzania

Key indicator	Source	Year	Score	Rank	Total Ranked
Social Institutions and Gender Index	OECD <sup>2</sup>	2014	0.25004	High	100
Global Gender Gap Index	WEF <sup>3</sup>	2016	0.717	53	144
Gender Inequality Index	UNDP <sup>4</sup>	2014	0.547	125	188
NATIONAL STATISTICS					
Key indicator	Source <sup>5</sup>	Year	F	M	National
Demographic					
Population [millions]	NBS	2012	22.38	21.24	43.63
Population [%]			51.3	48.7	
Headship of households [%]			33.5	66.5	
Education					
Proportion with no formal schooling [%]	NBS	2012	57.5	42.5	23.5
Total primary school enrolment [millions]		2010	4,192,789	4,248,764	8,441,553
Literacy rates of persons aged 10 and above [%]		2012	38.9	39.5	78.4
Adult literacy rates [15 and above - %]		2012	38.5	39.5	77.9
Health					
Maternal mortality rate [per 100,000 live births]		2016			556
Infant mortality rate [per 1,000 live births]		2016			43
Under-five mortality rates [per 1000 live births]		2016			67
HIV and AIDS prevalence among 15-49-year olds [%]	THMIS <sup>7</sup>	2012	6.2	3.8	5.1
Women who make at least 4 antenatal care visits [%]					
Births which occur in a health facility [%]	MOFEA	2007			53
Births which occur in a health facility in rural areas [%]	MOFEA	2007			39
Births delivered by a trained health professional [%]	MOFEA	2004/5			46
Total fertility rate [children per woman]	TDMIS	2016			5.2
Total fertility rate rural areas [children per woman]	TDMIS	2016			6.0
Level of teenage pregnancy [%]	TDMIS	2016			27
Employment and Land Ownership					
Proportion of labour force [%]			F	M	
Labour force participation [%]	MOFEA	2010	88.5	90.5	89.6
Unemployment rates [%]	MOFEA	2010	12.6	10.7	11.7
Time-related underemployment rates [%]	MOFEA	2010	6.5	7.3	11.7

<sup>2</sup>OECD Development Center, (On-line): Social Institutions and Gender Index: Tanzania Country Profile. <http://www.genderindex.org/country/tanzania>

<sup>3</sup>World Economic Forum, (2016): The Global Gender Gap Report 2016.

<sup>4</sup>UNDP, (On-line): Human Development Reports, <http://hdr.undp.org/en/composite/GII>. Accessed 23.12.2016

<sup>5</sup> National Bureau of Statistics (2014): Basic Demographic and Socio-Economic Profile, Statistical Tables- Tanzania Main Land

<sup>6</sup>URT, (2016): Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey and Malaria Indicator Survey 2015-2016

<sup>7</sup>URT, (2013): Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey and Malaria Indicator Survey 2011-2012

Proportion employed in the agricultural sector [%]			79.7	70.6	75.3
<b>Time Use</b>			<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>	
Average time spent on work in rural areas [hrs/day]	URT	No date	16	8	

**Source:** Various sources

### 3.1 Constitutional Provisions on Gender Equality and Women's Rights

The provisions on gender equality and women's rights are stipulated in the objectives of the constitution (1977) and as revised in 2004. In Article 9(g), it states

*"..... the objective of the constitution is to facilitate the building of the United Republic as a nation of equal and free individuals enjoying freedom, justice, fraternity and concord, ... such that, the state authority and all its agencies are obliged to direct their policies and programmes towards ensuring among other things, that the Government and all its agencies accord equal opportunities to all citizens, men and women alike without regard to their colour, tribe, religion or station in life..."*

The constitution further prescribes conditions under which women are given opportunity to participate in political leadership (Article 66 (b&e)).

### 3.2 Gender Dimensions of the Overarching National Policy Framework

This section describes gender dimensions as enshrined in the Tanzania National Development Vision 2025. The vision recognises the important role of leadership in the development of both men and women. It further envisions a free and equitable society where popular participation for both men and women is guaranteed. The vision articulates the need to satisfy the basic needs of all people - men, women, and children, and to create a nation where one is respected irrespective of sex. More so, one of its targets is to ensure realisation of gender equality and the empowerment of women in all socio-economic and political relations and cultures. The vision points out the need to ensure that markets permit participation of the men, women, and the entire citizenry in economic endeavours.

One of the key instruments to implement the Vision 2025 is the second 5-year National Development Plan of 2016. The plan recognises the fact that women are still marginalised in the country. Following this recognition, the plan acknowledges the need to put in place interventions that ensure women's potential to contribute to the plan implementation is enhanced. The plan indicates that the results matrix for monitoring and evaluation will be disaggregated by gender to ensure tracking of gender concerns throughout the plan implementation.

### 3.3 Institutional Mechanisms for Mainstreaming Gender Equality

There are several institutional mechanisms for mainstreaming gender equality and women's empowerment. In this section focus is given to the National Gender Policy, National Strategy for Gender Development, Ministry responsible for Gender, and Gender Focal Point mechanisms in sector ministries and local governments.

Tanzania Women and Gender Development Policy (WGDP) was launched in the year 1992 and revised in 2000. The main objective of the policy was to create a conducive environment for women and men to implement their responsibilities in society, with consideration of the different gender needs. Some of these achievements of the policy include; increased understanding of women's

rights at various decision making and planning levels, establishment of Civil Society Organisations (CSO) focusing on empowering women to participate fully in various development initiatives, increased recognition of women's contribution in the country's development and increased opportunities for women to take part in politics, leadership, administration and own economic development. Despite these achievements, it is noted that challenges to resolving the gender disparities still prevail supported by traditional values and often backed up by conflicting laws (URT 2012).

The National Strategy for Gender Development (NSGD) was put in place since the second half of 2000s. The aim of the Strategy was to consolidate and speed up implementation of the WGDP of 2000. It was set with the objective of guiding and involving all stakeholders to bring about gender equality in a more harmonised manner for enhanced development. Since the NSGD was set to facilitate the realisation of the WGDP, its achievements and challenges are more or less the same with those of the WGDP. They are centred on increased understanding of women's rights, increased involvement of CSOs on women's empowerment, and increased women's involvement in politics, leadership and administration. Other challenges include inadequate financial resources and capacities for coordination, monitoring, evaluation, advocacy and follow-up of implementation of policies, strategies, plans and programmes.

The Ministry responsible for Gender and Children was established in 1990 to be at the forefront of national machinery for gender development. Among other things, the Ministry managed to develop a National Women and Gender Development Policy (2000). It subsequently managed to facilitate the establishment of gender focal points in ministries, independent government departments, regional and local authorities. The Ministry in collaboration with other Ministries and Government departments has contributed to enabling Tanzania to record remarkable achievements in gender development, particularly in areas of education, health and water, economic empowerment and participation in decision-making. Notwithstanding these achievements, Tanzania is still faced with a number of challenges in redressing gender gaps, notably:

- Empowerment through affirmative and advocacy actions;
- Ensuring that macro and micro policies and legal frameworks are gender sensitive;
- Strengthening institutional mechanisms for gender development;
- Facilitating sustainable partnerships and collaboration;
- Ensuring that adequate resources are available to address gender inequalities,
- Inadequate capacities for coordination, monitoring and evaluation in the implementation of policies, strategies, plans and programmes.

The Focal Points introduced by the Ministry responsible for Gender Development are stationed in ministries and independent government departments and in some cases, regional and local authorities. Their role is to perform the duties of mainstreaming gender in the plans and programmes of their institutions. However, a report by URT (2012) indicates that these GFPs are weak most of them are not strategically positioned to influence gender mainstreaming across all departments in the ministries' structure. The report provides some examples of misaligned location of the GFPs, with instances of them being placed under policy and planning departments, while in other cases they can be found in human resource departments.

### **3.4 Gender Responsiveness of the National Policy Framework**

#### *3.4.1 Gender equality in the national statistics system*

The National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) is responsible for collection and documentation of key national data including census and labour force survey. A closer look at two reports (URT 2013 and

NBS, 2015) reveals reasonable sex disaggregation in data presented, reflecting gender sensitivity in the national statistics system. Furthermore, one of the policy imperatives of the National Strategy for Gender Development is that all data should be gender disaggregated. The Strategy Document led to the development of guidelines meant to enforce compliance in the inclusion of gender/sex disaggregated data by actors at all levels. However, despite this, it should be noted that not all sector Ministries and Government Agencies disaggregate data based on sex. A study by MEASURE Evaluation (2016) revealed that, while there is greater focus on increasing the availability of sex-disaggregated health data, there is no information of such data in Tanzania's routine health information system. This trend is common to most other sector ministries including the transport sector.

#### *3.4.2 Gender and the National Performance Monitoring Framework.*

The immediate available national performance monitoring and evaluation framework for Tanzania is the National Growth Strategy and Poverty Reduction Monitoring Master Plan also known in Kiswahili acronym as MKUKUTA. A review of the second phase of MKUKUTA Monitoring Master Plan (URT, 2011) indicates that - at least at face value - gender equality is being monitored in each of the three MKUKUTA clusters namely;

- Cluster 1: Growth and reduction of income poverty;
- Cluster 2: Improved quality of life and social well-being; and,
- Cluster 3: Governance and accountability.

In each goal, there is at least one target reflecting a monitoring indicator for gender equality.

#### *3.4.3 Gender equality in fiscal policy*

The most recent government policy position on gender budgeting is indicated in budget guidelines issued in 2016, which urged all public entities to make budgetary allocations for implementation of priorities for cross cutting interventions, including gender issues, and construction of user friendly infrastructure for physically challenged people. Following these guidelines, in the fiscal year 2016-17 the central government itself committed to continue supporting economic empowerment initiatives through (among others) the Youth Development Fund and Women Development Fund. Policy Forum (2016) is of the opinion that the intention by the government to allocate TZS 50 million for every village in order to support employment and economic empowerment at community level is a good initiative. Indeed, it presents an opportunity for both women and men to access opportunities in ways they could not before.

#### *3.4.4 Gender equality in decentralisation*

The government of Tanzania has made a remarkable effort to promote gender equality in its decentralisation structure. It has stipulated specifications for women's position at each level of local government administration. One of the objectives of the local government reform policy (1998) is to establish a democratic and gender sensitive, administrative set-up in local governments. To achieve this, it has been decided that at village level for instance, out of 25 members of the Village Council, women must account for 25 percent. At ward level, despite the fact that women have equal opportunity to contest for any leadership position, still they are given a chance for a special seat as a Councillor. At the District Council, the constitution requires that women constitute 33.3 percent of all local council members.

#### *3.4.5 Gender equality in employment*

A study by Fox (2016) reveals that data on employment and time use shows women have benefited from a decade of economic transformation in Tanzania. They have gained access to new employment opportunities in higher-productivity sectors such as manufacturing, trade and hotel and

food services. The expansion of public services made possible by a decade of growth has increased the education of women in the labour force, as well as bringing about longer life expectancy. However, most women are still employed in agriculture where yields per hectare are still lower on land worked by women as compared to land worked by men who have the possibility of using capital equipment and other inputs.

#### *3.4.6 Social protection policies and strategies*

Tanzania has a weak social protection programme, although some progress is being made in that respect. In 2013, the government embarked on the implementation of a nation-wide conditional cash transfer programme that targets extremely poor households. In the years that followed this move (2014 and 2015), there were initiatives to finalise a National Social Protection Framework (NSPF) with the possibility of introducing an old age pension. However, the NSPF did not get enacted and therefore the fate of the NSPF and the old age pension are still uncertain. Currently, it is therefore difficult to assess the gender dimension of the social protection strategies.

#### *3.4.7 Literacy and Gender*

In mainland Tanzania, 64% of the population aged 15 and above is able to read and write Kiswahili, 1% percent is proficient in English only, and 9% can read and write in both languages. The literacy rate in rural areas is below the national average. While the literacy rate in urban areas is 89% (94% men and 86% women), only 68% of the rural population (77% men and 61% women) are able to read and write either in Kiswahili or in English. FAO (2014) observed that illiteracy is widespread especially among rural women, 39% of whom are illiterate in comparison to 14% of their urban counterparts.

## **4 Gender Equality in the Context of Rural Transport**

### **4.1 Rural Women's Time Use Patterns**

URT (2012) revealed that women in rural areas spend between 16 to 18 hours daily working compared to men who work between 8 to 10 hours per day. FAO (2014) findings reveal that, as boys grow from childhood to youth, the time they spend on domestic activities increases gradually reaching its peak at 2 hours a day. Afterwards it decreases by 15 minutes implying that working age men spend less time on domestic activities than male youth and children. In contrast, the time that women spend on domestic activities tends to increase constantly from childhood to adulthood, reaching its peak at 217 minutes for adult women of working age, and decreases slightly for elderly women. This means that as they progress in age, men engage less in domestic activities whilst the productive and reproductive burden of economically active women increases into adulthood.

### **4.2 Women's Participation in the Transport Sector**

Information on how women participate in or benefit from the transport sector, as compared with men, is scant. The sector has lagged behind in developing an integrated approach of collecting data on gender dimensions of transport. Anecdotal evidence indicates that apart from ownership of transport enterprises being skewed against women, very few are found in employment as drivers, managers or conductors in private and public transport businesses. Fox, (2016) observes that although women in the country have benefited from the economic transformation that took place in the past decade, this has not brought them into the transport or construction sectors. The National Construction Industry Policy of 2003 also confirms that the industry, including transport infrastructure construction, is dominated by men, with minimum participation of women particularly in roads construction.

Thus, from anecdotal evidence and the authors' experience and observations, there are significant barriers to women's entry in the transport sector which is traditionally predominated by men, and maintains traditions and practices that are biased against women. These include high costs of entry, a culture of aggression, and often, existence of cartels and other unorthodox means of operating transport businesses. Other factors include women's under-representation in science and technology-based subjects, sexual and gender based violence in the transport sector, poor access to information, and a high domestic work burden.

## **5 Gender Responsiveness of the Transport Sector**

### **5.1 Gender Responsiveness of Transport Sector Legislation, Regulations and Policy**

Analysis of the transport sector policies and legislation documents shows limited incorporation of gender considerations. The following documents were reviewed;

1. Road traffic Act 1973;
2. Standard Specification for Road Works 2000;
3. The Surface and Marine Transport Authority Act 2001;
4. The National Transport Policy 2003;
5. The Construction Industry Policy of 2003;
6. The Road and Fuels Tolls Act 2006;
7. Road regulation act 2007.

Of the above listed policy documents, only three were found to have taken on board gender considerations. These are; the National Transport Policy 2003, The Construction Industry Policy 2003, and the Road Regulation Act of 2007. The National Transport Policy for instance recognises that women are most responsible for looking after the family's domestic needs, for providing care and raising children. Transport interventions such as improved access to water, health and fuel sources are recognised in the policy as important responses from the sector that can support the burden borne by women.

The Construction Industry Policy document on the other hand responds to gender by recognising that although some efforts have been made to involve women in construction activities like road works, the industry is still hugely dominated by men. The policy indicates that one of the apparent reasons for minimal women's participation in this industry is lack of training and technical skills. Consequently, the policy calls for increased participation of women and youth in the industry through implementation of affirmative or corrective action.

Finally, the Road Regulation Act of 2007 is concerned with the gender balance in the overall management of the road regulations. In this regard, the Act stipulates that in appointing members of the National Road Classification Committee, the Minister shall have regard to gender balance.

### **5.2 Gender budgeting in the transport sector**

At the moment, there is no explicit gender budgeting in the transport sector. However as noted above, the budget guidelines for the fiscal year 2016/17 require all government agencies to integrate gender considerations in their budgets. However, this still remains a challenge in the transport sector.

## **6 Gender Mainstreaming in The Case Study Projects**

### **6.1 Makete Integrated Rural Transport Project**

Since the mid-80's, Tanzania has been implementing rural transport programmes to improve the accessibility of goods and services by women and men. According to Lema et al (2006), most of the rural transport projects in Tanzania have been designed to try and upscale some of the lessons that were derived from a pilot project known as the Makete Integrated Rural Transport Project (MIRTP), which was implemented in the country between 1985 and 1996. The baseline studies leading to the design of MIRTP used an innovative approach that aimed at getting a better understanding of the travel patterns of rural households and their level of access to basic economic and social services. Importantly, various MIRTP baseline studies provided important insights with regard to the transport burden carried by the rural women of Makete District. According to Malmberg-Calvo (1994) the key findings from the baseline studies can be summarised as follows:

- 95% of all village travel and transportation was undertaken by foot and headloading, and only 5% was by motorised transport;
- 80% of all trips were done within the village, and related to subsistence tasks such as trips to the grinding mill and transportation of water and firewood;
- Only 20% of travel were external trips such places as markets, farms and health centres;
- 85% of all transportation was undertaken by women, and 15% by men and children;
- On average a household of 5 occupants spent 7 hours every day on transport related activities.

According to Lema et al (2006), despite the baseline studies yielding a wealth of new information on the social dimensions of transport, this knowledge was only used partially in the design of the MIRTP project interventions. In particular, though the data demonstrated the considerable burden borne by women in transport, gender integration was not taken as criteria for the design of project interventions. This was explained as being on account of institutional, human and financial constraints in addressing gender issues. This explanation still persists today.

### **6.2 The Pilot Village Travel and Transport Program Review**

Tanzania started implementation of the Village Travel and Transport Programme (VTTP) in 1994. As indicated above, the MIRTP baseline studies pioneered the recognition of the disproportionately heavy transport burden borne by women. The VTTP aimed at scaling up some of the lessons from MIRTP, particularly the empowerment of communities to improve transport infrastructure under their mandates. The monitoring and evaluation framework for VTTP included indicators for impacts of the transport interventions on the transport burden of women in terms of time and effort.

In terms of gender sensitive indicators, the VTTP project document included two quantitative indicators, number of people benefiting from Intermediate Means of Transport (IMT), and the number of people benefiting from non-transport interventions, disaggregated by gender.

The VTTP project document required a capacity building programme to impart communities with skills on project identification, design, planning, implementation, management and monitoring as well as training sessions on gender issues in rural transport. However, at the time, there was not much knowledge on issues of gender sensitivity such as women friendly working environments, and gender based violence in construction sites.

In promotion of IMTs, VTTP had a policy that the interventions should focus on enabling households to access IMTs, enabling women to reallocate some of their transportation responsibilities to male members of the household.

Gender considerations were given prominent considerations when it came to non-transport interventions. The VTTP policy was such that since women were found to be responsible for the bulk of transport of water, firewood and grain for grinding, they should be the ones who decide on the priority of non-transport interventions. However, when it came to implementation, the programme had no clear way to guide the pilot districts with criteria for resource allocation for implementing the prioritised gender strategies for both NMT and non-transport interventions.

### *6.2.1 VTTP Evaluation Final Review Report 2002*

The VTTP review report of 2002 made a reasonable attempt to address itself to pertinent gender issues in terms of access to resources, assets and transport services and differences in responsibilities between women and men. The ToRs for the Review Report stated that the review team would consider among others, application of participatory procedures and flexibility of methods and gender sensitivity. The ToRs also required a gender balanced evaluation team. The Review Report observed participation of women and men on prioritising investments in community access roads. It stated that:

*“The participation in VTTP activities involves both men and women equally. In all the groups, the proportion of women is not less than 50%. The Village Development Committees are gender balanced, with members from within and outside the village government” (p. 44).*

In prioritising investments in footpaths and bridges, the VTTP Review Report observed that women are more active participants in road construction. It states:

*“Women seem to be more enthusiastic than men in participation in road construction. However, there is an unwritten understanding between men and women on the type of jobs women should concentrate on, and which ones are beyond their physical construct” (p. 47).*

One of the weaknesses that have been observed in the Review Report is the absence of quantitative data showing the actual outcomes of interventions in areas such as time savings for women, economic and social benefits, or an assessment of the impact of women in prioritising transport and non-transport interventions. Despite these weaknesses, the Review Report – and the VTTP in general - provided a pioneering perspective on gender and rural transport at a time when knowledge in the area was very limited. This did contribute to the integration of some gender issues in subsequent policies and programmes. In particular, it led to recognition of gender issues in the National Transport Policy (2003) as well as the subsequent follow up rollout phases of VTTP and the Local Government Transport Program District Roads Management.

### **6.3 Local Government Transport Program**

In the year 2007/8 the Local Government Transport Program (LGTP) with a rural road component was launched. It has been implemented in two phases; Phase 1: 2007-2012 and Phase 2: 2012-2017. The rural roads component of the programme has sought to replicate some of the approaches from the VTTP. The Programme covers several gender issues. The first phase of the programme had a policy statement on women’s decision-making powers. It stated that the Programme will ensure that women’s voices are heard fully in decision-making processes. On implementation targets it stated

there would be a gradual introduction to give time to test and perfect the procedures, including gender impact assessment in decision making systems. In addition, the LGTP Phase 1 adopted the then Millennium Development Goal (MDG) Goal 3: Promotion of Gender Equality and Empowerment of Women. It stated:

*“...studies have shown that local transport infrastructure is of greater importance to women than national transport infrastructure. Thus, improving the local transport infrastructure has the potential to have a significant impact on the lives of women” (p.5).*

The LGTP has the following gender indicators:

- Participation by women in decision-making bodies related to local transport infrastructure;
- Participation by women in the labour force for road construction and maintenance;
- Studies successfully carried out on barriers to gender equality in the transport sector.

In regard to women’s access to means of transport, Phase 1 of the LGTP proposed that in each Local Government Area (LGA), a multi-stakeholder transport user group would be formed. This would be a representative body comprising of key users and beneficiaries of the local transport system. The membership would include women’s group leaders. The LGTP has provisions for indicators that would be embedded in contracts to oblige contractors to record employment created for women and men.

Phase 2 of the LGTP adopted the 2008 Transport Sector Investment Program (TSIP) gender strategies to achieve the following:

- To undertake studies on gender segregation in the sector and advise on actions to be taken;
- Enable vulnerable groups to participate effectively in the transport activities so as to improve their income;
- To increase the participation of women in management and operations of the transport sector through training and empowerment;
- To promote IMTs as cost-effective local transport.

Other strategies include affirmative action and capacity building for women with respect to financial and procurement procedures, access to Local Government Capital Development Grant (LGCDG), and development of a criteria to improve the performance of the fund on gender equity.

The LGTP design has a strong focus on gender equality and empowerment. However, the statements on gender can come to fruition by having a funding and implementation mechanism that pays full attention to these issues. In addition, implementing a clear monitoring and performance framework would help translate gender equality intentions from mere statements into actual results, and help identify challenges and mechanisms of improving gender performance.

Unfortunately, it is not possible to conduct a full assessment of the performance of the LGTP as evaluation of Phases 1 and 2 of the project have not taken place.

## **7 Conclusions and Recommendations**

Throughout the report, it can be noted that from the 1990’s Tanzania has made considerable efforts to mainstream gender issues in its development planning in general, but also specifically within rural transport programmes. The VTTP review shows a pioneering approach to understanding the gender issues in rural transport and providing a platform from which to build on these issues progressively.

However, it is noted that despite the gender insights that went into the design of VTTP, this was not reflected in monitoring and evaluation activities and communication outputs of the programme. From available reports, it is not possible to see what specific gender impacts were achieved as a result of the interventions. This reflects the fact that knowledge on gender and transport was at a very early stage of development and therefore design of monitoring indicators for rural transport was new territory.

Similarly, the LGTP has shown commitment to a wider range of gender mainstreaming objectives in rural transport. However, absence of monitoring and evaluation reports does not enable us to give an assessment of the success of the programme. Additionally, a review of other transport sector related documents, such as the Tanzania Transport Sector Review (AfDB, 2013), provides no reference to gender issues in all the transport sub-sectors reviewed. However, it is noted that out of the 7 transport sector policy and regulatory documents reviewed (see Section 5.1), 3 of them, namely, the National Transport Policy (2003), The Construction Industry Policy (2003), and the Road Regulation Act of (2007), recognise pertinent gender issues.

### **7.1 Recommendations**

There is scope to go beyond policy statements and strategies for gender mainstreaming in the rural transport sector, and to develop practical tools that help implementation of rural transport improvement programmes, supported by a strong monitoring framework. The research team puts forward the following recommendations;

- Despite the existence of a Gender Focal Point in the ministries responsible for transport, their inputs to programme formulation, implementation mechanisms, monitoring and evaluation seems to be inadequate. With the Gender Focal Points performing a centralised function, there are huge capacity gaps that impede the achievement of the gender mainstreaming policy intents in rural areas of the country.
- Robust gender monitoring indicators: A monitoring plan with robust indicators should be at the core of a rural project implementation, management and reporting plan. The use of such a monitoring framework should be anchored at the project level and relevant capacities need to be built.
- Enforcement clause: To make gender mainstreaming a reality, the project formulation and implementation plans should have inbuilt clauses that enforce gender mainstreaming, i.e. some penalties should be included for non-compliance of gender mainstreaming so that the management will have to mitigate risk through putting in place gender mainstreaming strategies that are effective and sustainable.
- There should be a strategy of dispersing the function of gender focal points so that, apart from the ones who provide centralised strategic oversight, there are decentralised gender integration support systems in the provinces or District Councils. These would be responsible for supporting implementation and monitoring at the front-line of the projects.
- ReCAP is supporting a number of projects in Tanzania and we believe it will continue to do so in future. It would be very helpful to ensure that all the projects including capacity building activities, integrate and consolidate gender issues, and provide mechanisms for strengthening the tools for planning, monitoring and evaluation these projects.

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