



ULANDSSEKRETARIATET – DTDA
DANISH TRADE UNION DEVELOPMENT AGENCY

LABOUR MARKET PROFILE

Tanzania & Zanzibar

2024/2025

This profile brings insights and useful information of the labour market's structure, status, and challenges in the country.



PREFACE

The Danish Trade Union Development Agency (DTDA) is the development organisation of the Danish trade union movement.

DTDA's work is in line with the International Labour Organization's global Decent Work Agenda (DWA), which is based on its four pillars: creating decent jobs, guaranteeing rights at work, extending social protection, and promoting social dialogue. The overall development objective is to eradicate poverty and support the development of just and democratic societies by promoting the DWA.

DTDA collaborates with trade union organisations in Africa, Asia, Eastern Europe, Latin America, and the Middle East. The programmes' immediate objective is to assist the partner organisations in becoming change agents in their own national and regional labour market context, capable of achieving tangible improvements in the national DWA conditions and the labour-related Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

The Labour Market Profile (LMP) provides a comprehensive overview of the structure, development, and challenges. It applies several central indicators addressing labour market aspects, including unionism, social dialogue, bi-/tri-partite mechanisms, policy development, legal reforms status' compliance with international standards, just transition, and 4IR.

National partner organisations provide annual narrative progress reports, including information on labour market developments, as part of programme implementation and monitoring. National statistical institutions and international databanks, such as ILOSTAT and NATLEX, World

Bank Open Data, the ITUC Survey of Violations of Trade Union Rights, the U.S. Department of State, and other internationally recognised labour-related global indexes, are used as sources of general (statistical) data and information.

Academia and media sources (e.g., national news) are used to research labour market issues.

The profile is regularly updated; the current version covers 2024 to 2025. Labour Market Profiles for more than 20 countries are available on DTDA's website: <https://www.ulandssekretariatet.dk/>.

DTDA prepared the Labour Market Profile in close collaboration with the Trade Unions Congress of Tanzania (TUCTA) and Zanzibar Trade Union Congress (ZATUC). If any comments arise to the profile, please contact Mr. Kasper Andersen (kan@dtda.dk) from DTDA.

The front-page photo illustrates a young worker who went through vocational training via DTDA's TVET-Tanzania programme, leading to a formal job at the El Sewedy company, which produces cables and generators. The photo was taken by Mr. Rasmus Holm.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Despite multiple global shocks in recent years, Tanzania's economic growth has been solid but meagrely assisted poverty reduction. A slight upturn in the industry sector supports a tailwind in labour productivity and income share advance. Still, policy responses are not trickling down in the service and agricultural sectors, suppressed by uncontrolled urbanisation and climate change ruptures. Tackling the troublesome projections of economic and labour losses due to climate change has pressured setting a just transition agenda.

Although Tanzania's national compliance with the legal framework to protect workers' rights is relatively better than that of neighbouring countries, the country remains stuck by the widespread informal economy, which deters the application of labour regulations in practice. The East African Community (EAC) free trade agreement with labour provisions is contested as a united bloc, including difficulties concerning equal opportunities and social and labour rights for migrant workers.

Dormant central tripartite institutions have started to revive, reflecting recent adjustments in the minimum wage system, and the application of Workers' Councils is progressing at the enterprise level. The application of collective bargaining agreements is concentrated in the public sector, while the private sector is haunted by informal micro and small enterprises. The trade union membership rate for formal workers fell by 9% from 2014 to 2021, mainly caused by a drop in the public sector. Still, the trade union density accounts for 21% of employees, among the highest rates in neighbouring countries.

A fast-growing working-age population faces a labour market that does not generate sufficient jobs in the formal economy. This dynamic complicates generating more finance via income taxes to support social service expenditures for the mounting age-dependency group. The country's low unemployment rate and a relatively low-slung not in education,

employment, or training (NEET) rate suggest few barriers in the labour market. However, these factors are blindsided by the nature of subsistence farming that sticks with 'disguised' unemployment and informal precarious work. The lacklustre diaspora engagement has kept personal remittance low, far below the foreign direct investments. Despite significant gender gaps among central employment indicators, the number of women in managerial positions has more than doubled during the last decade, partially linked to urbanisation.

Tanzania's workforce is slowly getting better educated but encounters a mismatch in the needs of the labour market due to underdeveloped coordination between education institutions in the aftermath of decentralisation reform. The technical and vocational education and training (TVET) sector has been under-prioritised, but investments were boosted at the beginning of the 2020s, along with a growing number of TVET students and networks of TVET training centres in the private sector. Nevertheless, Tanzanian firms offering formal training fell during the last decade, landing at the lowest levels among the neighbouring countries. The country also struggles to grasp the Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR); for instance, it is sidelined among the leading African countries concerning business process outsourcing (BPO) industries.

About a third of poor people were covered by social protection systems, primarily funded externally, while social security coverages remain limited, with leakage to the richest quintiles. Broadly, social protection coverage fell in recent years, landing in line with the Eastern Africa average at 11%. The country has achieved progress in healthcare, but government health expenditures have lost pace, with only around 15% of the population being covered by health insurance partly because most workers in the informal economy are unwilling or unable to pay premiums.

FACT SHEET

Significant improvements

- A remarkable increase in labour income share suggests Tanzania gains ground in labour instead of capital in the formal economy.
- The TVET system has improved over the last decade, with a growing network of TVET training centres, and recently grasped a record-high 15% of the allocation to TVET from the government budget allocation to the education sector.
- Improvements in several social protection schemes, including relatively high coverage of poor people, unemployment benefits for the unemployed, and a universal pension in Zanzibar.

Social dialogue

- Relatively low collective bargaining coverage rate of 10% for employees in 2023.
- Social dialogue within workers' councils is concentrated in the public sector, while underdevelopment in the private sector.
- Central tripartite institutions have been revived, but some structures do not function properly.

Main challenges

- Despite broad policy initiatives, a structural economic transformation is not generating sufficient decent jobs in the formal economy.
- A potentially alarming negative impact on Tanzania's economic and agricultural backbone due to climate change is pushing demands for a just transition agenda.
- A mounting economically dependent population, which is increasingly reliant on social services, is putting pressure on the tax system in the formal economy.
- The country has lost tempo compared with neighbouring countries in grasping the benefits trickle down for the 4IR.
- A persistently high child labour rate is linked not only with the weak progress in primary education but also to the fact that the legal framework,

policy agenda, and social mobilisation efforts do not effectively trickle down into Tanzania's labour market.

- Broader social protection coverage remains low and has even fallen by three percentage points in recent years.

Unionism

- Trade union density of 21% for employees in Mainland Tanzania and 12% in Zanzibar.
- Trade union density rate fell by 9% during the last decade.
- Violations of trade union rights rank 4 of 5+.

Based on Mainland Tanzania and Zanzibar trade unions movement view, the risks that are the most likely to pose the biggest threat to the country in the next two years are:

- Unemployment due to mismatch of skills.
- Government interference, political pressure and instability.
- Curbing the widespread informal economy and a lack of awareness and incentives to unionism.
- Changes in national and labour policies and laws.
- Emergence of environmental and health disasters.
- Weaken the economy and raising the cost of life.

Workforce

- The working-age population is 32 million.
- Unemployment rate of 2.8%.
- The proportion of informal employment in non-agriculture employment is 82%.
- The child labour rate is 25%.
- Labour share of national income is 55%.
- Men and women employees' share of total employment of 19% and 9.4%, respectively.
- The education, employment, or training (NEET) rate of 14%.

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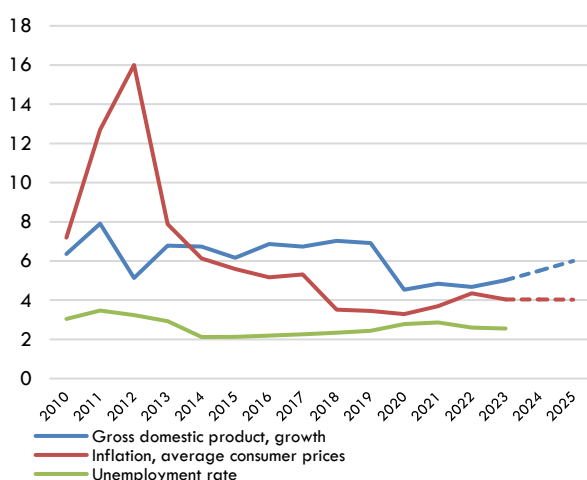
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ECONOMIC PERFORMANCE

Tanzania's economy entered the lower-middle-income countries in 2020, aided by political and social stability. Mainland Tanzania and Zanzibar archipelago, a semi-autonomous region, operate with long-term development visions and five-year development plans, aiming to transform it through socio-economic transformation and development to attain middle-income status.

The country has delivered high economic growth and resilience during the otherwise global turmoiled upstart of the 2020s, triggered by multiple shocks like the global Covid-19 pandemic, climate change impacts, and waves from the Russian war against Ukraine. Consumer price inflation started to rise, but it was harnessed, which was similar for the unemployment rate (see Table 1 and Appendix Table 4).

Figure 1: Gross domestic product, inflation, and unemployment growth trends in Tanzania, %, 2010-2025



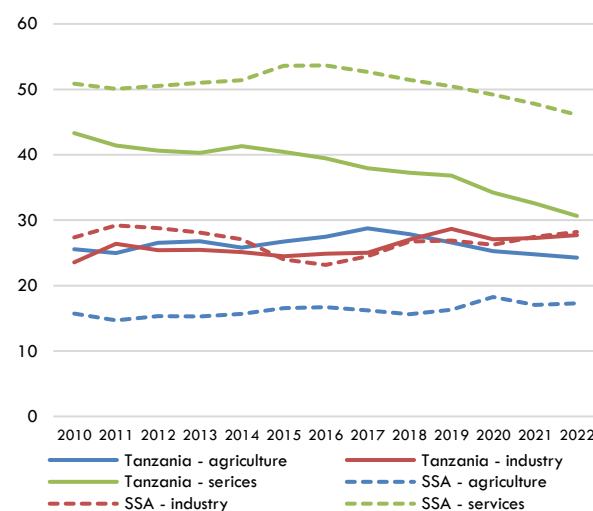
Source: International Monetary Fund, World Economic Outlook Database, April 2024; The World Bank, World Development Indicators.

The country's business regulations and labour market efficiency, detailed in Appendix Table 9 and Table 10, are at the low-medium level, mirroring in the widespread informal economy poses challenges in applying these regulations in practice.

Surplus labour from agriculture has moved into services rather than industry. Nonetheless, the service sector has demonstrated a downturn in its

value-added, supporting the fact of a weak job creation in the formal economy (see more in the Workforce section). The industry sector's value added has followed the regional average rate. The agricultural sector remains the backbone of the economy, contributing almost half of the GDP, providing 85% of export revenue and employing nearly 60% of the workforce. This latter sector's value-added also lost pace in recent years but floated above the regional average (see trends in Figure 2).

Figure 2: Aggregate sectoral economic changes, sum of value-added per sector in Tanzania and sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), % of GDP, 2010-2022



Note: Value added is the net output of a sector after adding up all outputs and subtracting intermediate inputs.

Source: The World Bank, World Development Indicators.

Tanzania is committed to narrowing the fiscal deficit through increased tax collection, including a progressive personal income tax system called Pay-As-You-Earn (PAYE) that withholds tax on employees' taxable incomes. In addition, the skills and development levy and workers' compensation fund tariff are other labour-related taxes. The country's tax-to-GDP ratio is relatively low and associated with weak domestic tax revenue mobilisation, suggesting a challenge to creating a sustainable welfare system. It not only concerns a mounting economically dependent population, which gains more weight on social service demands, but also struggles to achieve progress in formalising the employment structure to generate more tax revenue to finance the services.

A remarkable increase in labour income share, from 30% in 2011 to 54% of GDP in 2024, suggests Tanzania gains ground to labour instead of capital and significantly hovers above the Eastern Africa average at 41% of GDP.¹ An increasing labour share should indicate a fall in economic inequality, but that has instead been on the rise on the margin in Tanzania. Some of the main reasons are that the labour income share is linked with formal employee share that does not keep pace with the workforce development (see more in the Workforce section), as well as statistically excludes the self-employed, which accounts for 85% of the workforce in Tanzania. These factors bring concerns about the future's inequality, keeping workers' income growth in pace with labour productivity, and applying collective bargaining agreements.

Despite the solid economic growth, lower public spending on goods and services threatens the quality of social service delivery, mirrored in meagre poverty reduction during the 2010s: The latest data available show that Tanzania's poverty headcount ratio at national poverty line fell from 28% in 2011 to 26% of population in 2018.² The impact of climate change on food security and public health triggered by the global COVID-19 pandemic in recent years has most likely hindered poverty reduction.

Just Transition

Tanzania's economic growth, largely driven by food production, is under immediate threat due to its heavy reliance on rain-fed agriculture. The country has been experiencing unprecedented rainfalls and rising temperatures, significantly increasing its vulnerability to the impacts of climate change. Furthermore, the looming threat of rising sea levels in Dar es Salaam adds to the urgency of the situation.

Around three out of five workers operate in the agricultural sector, many in subsistence agriculture. National food production is projected to decrease by 8-13% by 2050 due to increased heat stress, drying, erosion and flood damage, as well as post-harvest loss.³ At a broader view, projections suggest

that under current climate policies, Tanzania could face a GDP loss of 18% by 2050.⁴ These projections indicate that the climate impact could put a massive number of Tanzanian workers at risk and reshuffling the migration flow, which is already in progress in rapid urbanisation (see more in the Migration sub-section). This factor generates demands for other new jobs, altering the skill requirements, mainly in household activities and the incidence of precarious work. It will furthermore have major implications for the future technical and vocational education and training system as it needs to provide the existing and future workforce with the required skills to find jobs in the emerging "Green Economy" (see more in the Education section).

Mainland Tanzania's latest Five-Year National Climate Change Strategy (2021-2026) is interlinked with the broader national development agenda. Previous strategy versions have gaps in the implementation track record, including inadequate awareness and understanding of the risks posed by climate change and variability to policymakers, among others. A Just Transition agenda – no one is left behind in the transition to low-carbon and environmentally sustainable economies – has been sidelined for the strategy. Neither did Zanzibar's policymakers promote the Just Transition agenda. The ILO conducted a rapid situational analysis in 2023 to identify high-potential entry points for just transition policies and interventions in line with specific country-level needs, priorities and policy processes in Zanzibar.⁵ Additionally, in September 2023, the African trade union movement launched a declaration statement, setting up ten demands for the Just Transition agenda (see details in Appendix Table 5).

Export Processing Zones

In Tanzania's mainland, Export Processing Zones (EPZs) and Special Economic Zones (SEZs) have been promoted since the 2000s via investor-friendly laws and policies. These programmes stimulate multi-sectoral market investment based on various tax and other incentives. According to the Export Processing Zone Authority (EPZA), there are 11 SEZs

owned by private companies, 10 within government SEZs' Industrial Parks, and 5 SEZ Industrial Park via local government SEZ.⁶

In Mainland Tanzania, the number of EPZ/SEZ workers increased significantly from 38,000 in 2016 to almost 83,000 in 2022, representing 2.2% of employees, of which just 1.2% are expatriates. These zones' employment appears to have some dominance of women over men.⁷ The most frequently cited reasons for getting a job in EPZ/SEZs concern a better salary, working conditions, and social benefits. Based on data from EPZA, EPZs' real average wage growth (reduced inflation) fell by 1.8% from 2019 to 2022.

Studies found that Tanzania EPZ firms have been haunted by little potential in technology transfer, missing high-end tech firms.⁸ Others noted poor performance of EPZA linked to insufficient capital for providing infrastructures in and out of these EPZs, and SEZs bureaucracy and corruption among government officials implementing these projects.⁹

Since 2023, free economic zones (FEZs) in Zanzibar have officially been renamed special economic zones (SEZs). Similarly, the SEZs were established to attract foreign direct investment (FDI), explicitly targeting labour-intensive projects and increasing exports. Zanzibar Investment Promotion Authority (ZIPA) has registered five FEZs.¹⁰ Data on EPZ employees' scope and the protection of workers' rights are scarce.

LABOUR LEGISLATION

The United Republic of Tanzania comprises the Mainland Tanzanian and Zanzibar, a semi-autonomous region. Administratively, Mainland Tanzania has 26 provinces and five in Zanzibar, and their governments have separate labour laws. Both are covered by nine central labour-related laws (see Appendix Table 6).

Broadly, the Mainland's labour-related legal framework protects the workers' rights, including the right of workers to form and join independent trade unions, bargain collectively, and conduct legal

strikes. Legislation requires unions to submit financial records and a membership list to the registrar annually and to obtain government approval for association with international trade unions. Collective bargaining agreements need to be registered with the Labour Commission. Employers have the right to initiate a lockout, provided they comply with legal requirements and procedures. However, the legal framework has several observations (see more in the Observations on Labour Legislation sub-section).

Some specialities in Zanzibar's labour-related legal framework concern collective bargaining in the private sector, and public-sector employees have the right to bargain collectively through the Trade Union of Government and Health Employees. It is worth mentioning that managerial employees did not have the right to bargain collectively on salaries and other conditions of employment in Zanzibar.

Observations on Labour Legislation

Tanzania's 1977 constitution enshrined the right to freedom of association and the right to strike. Although other laws recognise the right to freedom of association, collective bargaining, and strike, these are strictly regulated. Legislation prohibits anti-union discrimination but does not provide adequate means of protection against it. Specific observations on unionism laws are listed in Appendix Table 7.

Generally, the government does not effectively enforce the law protecting the right to collective bargaining on the mainland or in Zanzibar. Reports found that in both areas, private-sector employers adopted anti-union policies or tactics, although discriminatory activities by an employer against union members were illegal.¹¹

The majority of Tanzania's workforce operates within the informal economy, functioning outside the bounds of labour and business regulations in practice. This is often a result of a lack of awareness or incentives, limited labour inspection coverage, and a lack of trust in the tax system.

Ratified ILO Conventions

International Labour Organization's (ILO) conventions enumerate international principles and rights at work. Tanzania has ratified 37 conventions. The latest endorsed conventions were the Maritime Labour Convention (MLC, 2006) in 2019 and the Seafarers' Identity Documents Convention (No. 185) in 2017. Appendix Table 8 shows that Tanzania approved eight of ten fundamental conventions, one of four Governance Conventions, and 28 Technical Conventions, of which 13 are Up-To-Date and actively promoted.

The Sustainable Development Goals indicator 8.8.2 measures compliance with fundamental labour rights. Based on ILO textual sources and national legislation, Tanzania's scoring has stayed stable in recent years and is among the best among the neighbouring countries (see more in Table 1). This trend suggests the country is moving in the right direction to reach this SDG goal.

Table 1: Level of national compliance with labour rights among Tanzania and neighbouring countries, 2022

Country	Value
Burundi	2.9
Congo (Dem. Rep.)	3.2
Kenya	4.0
Malawi	0.2
Mozambique	2.0
Rwanda	1.3
Tanzania	1.4
Uganda	1.3
Zambia	2.2
Sub-Saharan Africa	2.1

Note: The value ranges from 0 to 10, with 0 being the best possible score (indicating higher levels of compliance with freedom of association and collective bargaining (FACB) rights) and 10 the worst (indicating lower levels of compliance with FACB rights based on ILO textual sources and national legislation).

Sources: International Labour Organization, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM).

The independent ILO body, known as the Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations (CEACR), listed observations and direct requests for a series of conventions in recent years. For example, regarding the Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention (C098), CEACR requested the government to take the necessary measures to reform the Labour

Relations Act of 2005: i) to remove any ambiguity concerning the meaning of the term "majority" and to clarify that the most representative trade union, even when it does not represent more than 50% of the workers, has the exclusive right to bargain with the employer; and ii) to guarantee managerial employees their rights under the Convention, and to indicate the categories of employees excluded.

Trade Agreements

Tanzania is a member of the World Trade Organisation (WTO) and is linked to two regional trade agreements (RTAs) with labour provisions that influence the country's labour market.

Firstly, the East African Community (EAC) free trade agreement signed in 1999 contains a labour provision for employment and working conditions. The members agreed to establish a common market with free movement for the region's workers, goods, services, and capital. The EAC common market protocol ensures freedom of association and collective bargaining, giving EAC migrant workers the same rights as national citizens. Some of the EAC's main achievements include removing visas and work permit fees for East Africans and using ID and student cards as travel documents; in Tanzania, so far, 23% of the population have a National Identification Card.¹² However, this regional cooperation still struggles as a united bloc. Free labour movement within the EAC opens questions of achieving equal opportunities and social labour rights for migrant workers; for example, if workers can bring pensions across borders. The implementation of economic integration has slowed in the last few years, especially regarding lifting barriers to trade, the free labour movement, and EAC's Social Agenda. The East African Trade Union Confederation (EATUC) got observer status in the EAC in 2009, and along with employers' organisations, they participate in ministerial summits, sectoral summits, and other summits involving labour market issues. It is worth mentioning that the persistent pressure from EATUC convinced the EAC ministers of labour to take another big step towards a new joint labour and migration policy in October 2021.¹³

Secondly, the Southern African Development Community (SADC) agreement, ratified by Tanzania in 2007, extends to the Protocol of Employment and Labour and the Charter of Fundamental Social Rights. Overall, Tanzania has a low labour intensity of exports to SADC, and the promotion of the abovementioned regional initiatives has not been highly prioritised in practice.

African economies initiated an ambitious regional integration programme in the form of the African Continental Free Trade Area (AfCFTA), which Tanzania ratified in 2021. The EATUC is pushing to include labour clauses in this agreement and has conducted various studies mapping labour rights violations and highlighting the benefits of allowing the free movement of labour and labour rights. In addition, the Tunis declaration from September 2022 by trade unions from 39 African countries stresses the inclusion of labour provisions in the AfCFTA agreement to ensure compliance with international labour standards and the decent work agenda.¹⁴

Studies argue that the measures of labour conditions (i.e., mean real monthly earnings, mean weekly work hours per employee, fatal occupational injury rate, and the number of the ILO's Fundamental Conventions ratified) find no evidence for possible impact effects of regional trade agreements labour clauses overall.¹⁵

The EAC finalised the Economic Partnership Agreement (EPA) negotiations with the European Union (EU) in October 2014. However, Tanzania has not yet signed the EPA; only Kenya and Rwanda have. Export markets vary considerably between EAC members, and Tanzania's exports to the EU are relatively low.

Tanzania has signed several bilateral investment agreements, such as with the United Kingdom. The country has no bilateral agreement with the United States but is eligible for the African Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA).

Policies and practices during the Magufuli administration created a deteriorating environment

for business and investment, which deterred foreign investors and harmed companies operating in Tanzania. On the positive side, President Samia has improved Tanzania's economic environment and highlighted restoring domestic and international confidence in Tanzania's business climate.

SOCIAL PARTNERS

Social partners are central to promoting the realisation of core labour rights and social justice for workers by protecting freedom of association and collective bargaining. These organisations are usually represented as the government, trade unions, and employers' organisations.

Government

Prime Minister's Office – Labour, Youth, Employment and Persons with Disabilities (PMO-LYED) can be traced back to when the country gained independence in 1961 and was reshuffled several times. The latest change was the Ministry of Labour and Employment (2010 to 2015) entered as PMO-LYED (2015 to date). The ministry is divided into sixteen directorates/units.¹⁶ Likewise, the Ministry of Labour, Empowerment, Elders, Women and Children, under the Revolutionary Government of Zanzibar, plays a pivotal role in the socio-economic development of Zanzibar in the areas of labour, empowerment, and social welfare. In addition, the Ministry of Health, Community Development, Gender, Elderly and Children is linked with the labour market's development, encompassing Zanzibar.

Trade Unions

Trade unions' history in Tanzania traces back to the 1920s. As divided laws, the Trade Union Congress of Tanzania (TUCTA) covers Mainland Tanzania, while the Zanzibar Trade Union Congress (ZATUC) is for Zanzibar.

According to official labour force survey data, around 710,000 workers were registered as trade union members from paid employees in

2020/2021, concentrated in Mainland Tanzania (97%), and the rest (3%) are in Zanzibar.

The trade union membership rate for paid employees fell by 9% from 2014 to 2021; relatively, Zanzibar was more negatively affected than Mainland Tanzania, -31% vs -8.1%, respectively. This downturn was mainly an impact of the global Covid-19 pandemic, hitting the public and tourism sectors hard. This trend further reflects a downturn in the trade union density rate for paid employees that dropped by six percentage points from 2014 to 2021. Still, it accounts for 21% of employees, among the highest in neighbouring countries. It is worth mentioning that employee representation is relatively low. Instead, the self-employed group dominates the workforce, bringing the trade union density of total employment down to 3.4%.

Another factor is that the aggregated trade union density rate for paid employees is concentrated in the public sector, representing 67%. This segment fell by nine percentage points from 2014 to 2021, an impact of the liberalisation processes that gradually reduced the public sector's leading role in economic production and shifts in the employment structure. The public sector payroll for "ghost workers" was cleaned up, pushing many workers dismissed without terminal benefits because of their illegal existence in employment, and the application of casualisation of employment contracts was on the rise. In contrast, the private sector has much smaller proportions of trade union members since they are dominated by micro or small enterprises marred by the widespread informal economy, not to mention the rigid business regulations. On the positive side, the trade union density for paid employees in the private sector increased by two percentage points during the mentioned period, reaching 12% in 2021. Very few are organised workers in the agricultural sector and household activities (see more details in Appendix Table 11).

In Mainland Tanzania, 13 trade unions are registered. They are affiliated with TUCTA, which recorded 1.2 million members in 2023, almost double the abovementioned labour force survey

data.¹⁷ Around 30% are women, and 2.8% are organised workers from the informal economy. Tanzania Teachers Union (TTU) is the largest union. As indicated, mainland Tanzania's trade union movement has not prioritised affiliating organised workers from the informal economy (see also Appendix Table 13).

In Zanzibar, ZATUC became gradually recognised with increased influence in decision-making on the labour market, conducting negotiations and signing collective agreements. A more extensive merger process of trade unions in the public sector reduced the number of affiliates from eleven to eight in 2020. According to ZATUC's register, the trade union membership rate fell by 12% from 2019 to 2020 and has been struggling to rebound since then, including due to the impact of the Covid-19 pandemic affecting the hospitality, transport, and service industries sectors. In 2023, close to 17,200 workers were registered as members to trade unions, of which 38% were women. A national union committee was set up with an informal economy desk that functions to affiliate organised workers from the informal economy. This latter group has been on the rise, peaking at 17% of ZATUC's total membership rate in 2023. The Zanzibar Teachers' Union (ZATU) has the largest share of ZATUC's total membership rate at 27% (see more details in Appendix Table 14).

Employers' Organisations

Employers – those working on their account or with one or a few partners holding "self-employment jobs" – represent 1.7% of the total employment in Tanzania, lower than the sub-Saharan Africa average of 2.3%. This group is experiencing a declining trend from its peak of 2.7% in 2014, linked to the deteriorated policies and practices during the Magufuli administration that created a deteriorating environment for business and investment.¹⁸

The Global Competitiveness Index provides a view on various aspects, including labour market efficiency, based on surveys among Tanzanian employers in the country. This latter efficiency has

landed at the medium level, ranking the country as 86 out of 141 countries (1 is the best) (see more in Appendix Table 9). Based on the Global Risks Report 2024, identified by the Tanzanian Executive Opinion Survey, the five risks that are the most likely to pose the biggest threat to the country in the next two years are unemployment, chronic diseases and health conditions, failure of climate-change adaptation, inequality (wealth, income), and cybercrime and cyber insecurity.¹⁹

In Mainland Tanzania, the Association of Tanzania Employers (ATE) was formed in 1960 and is the central institution promoting organised employers' interests. The organisation affiliates employers in all sectors, excluding the civil service. ATE's direct members grew from 1,300 in 2015 to 1,500 at the beginning of the 2020s and indirect members grew from 8,000, drawn from private business firms, companies, and some parastatal organisations.²⁰

Most members (70%) are based in Dar es Salaam, and the rest (30%) are in other parts of the mainland. The members are classified into ten divisions: agriculture, oil and gas, banking and financing, mining and construction, commerce and trade, transportation and communication, hospitality and tourism, industries and manufacturing, social services, and private security.

The Employers' Association of Zanzibar (ZANEMA) was established in 1998 to advance employers' interests and influence on policy and good practices related to industrial relations, employment, and the business environment. Data on the organisation's affiliated members was scarce. ZANEMA has working relations with ATE and trade unions.²¹

SOCIAL DIALOGUE

Tanzania has ratified several international conventions providing that all workers and employers shall have the right to freedom of collective bargaining, including those in the informal economy. The national legal framework for social dialogue provides minimum requirements that widen the spectrum for employers and employees to negotiate the terms and conditions of

employment and agree on work standards. By law, collective agreement means a written agreement concluded by a registered trade union and an employer or registered employers' association on any labour matter. The regulations in Tanzania prescribe a general duty to bargain in good faith rather than specific obligations.²²

Reports found that Tanzania's government did not effectively enforce legislation protecting the right to collective bargaining, not to mention private-sector employers adopting anti-union policies or tactics, although discriminatory activities by an employer against union members were illegal in Mainland Tanzania and Zanzibar.²³

In Mainland Tanzania, laws set that public corporations or private firms employing more than ten workers shall establish a Workers Council (WC). These councils should discuss different labour-related agendas, such as salary increases, financial regulations, the pension formula, and human resources policies. Agreements reached via workers' councils turn into collective bargaining agreements (CBAs). Except for limited exceptions, such as workers in "national service" and prison guards, public-service employees can engage in collective bargaining through the Tanzania Union of Government and Health Employees (TUGHE). TUGHE supports negotiations with the government through WCs, which are conducted regularly and cover most government workplaces. Not all public sector employees have the right to bargain via TUGHE depending on the public institutions collectively; for example, local government employees are organised under the Tanzania Local Government Workers Union (TALGWU). The private sector is dominated by informal micro and small enterprises sidelined by the WCs' institutions. Those in middle or large private enterprises often lack awareness or incentives for applications of WC activities.

Coverage of CBAs were on the rise during the 2010s, peaking with 604,000 workers in 2019, with a coverage of 18% of employees. This rate fell at the beginning of the 2020s, grasping about 400,000 workers in 2023 with a coverage of

approximately 10% of employees.²⁴ Collective agreements frequently replicate statutory standards on working time, and some devote special attention to epidemic-related prevention, where collective agreements include an HIV/AIDS programme. It is worth mentioning that a rise of breakout trade unions, of which most of them are pro-employers, reduces the strength of collective bargaining power and causes divisions among workers.

In Zanzibar, legislation provides for collective bargaining in the private sector. Public-sector employees had the right to bargain collectively through the TUGHE. However, members of the police force, prison service, and high-level public officials were barred from joining a trade union and collective bargaining. There were 15 CBAs concluded and reviewed in 2023, covering almost 3,000 workers apart from their dependents.²⁵

Central tripartite institutions

Numerous bi- and tripartite consultation bodies are set up in Mainland Tanzania and Zanzibar to promote social dialogue among social partners (see also Appendix Table 12).

In Mainland Tanzania, central tripartite institutions have been dormant but some recently revived. The status of the leading institutions is presented below:

Labour, Economic and Social Council

By law, the institution Labour, Economic and Social Council (LESCO) advises the Prime Minister's Office – Labour, Youth, Employment and Persons with Disabilities on the national labour market policy and additionally any proposed labour law before it is submitted to cabinet. It furthermore collects and compiles information and statistics relating to the administration of labour laws. LESCO operates with an independent chairperson and sixteen members representing the government, employers, and workers, and four members selected because of their expertise.

Wage Boards

Wage Boards are investigative, advisory and dispute-resolving tripartite bodies appointed by the Minister of Labour. The number of members in the main decision-making body of the institution is eight. The Wage Board does not make legally binding decisions, as it plays an advisory and facilitative role. However, it is an offence to refuse to answer any question asked by the board or share the board with any information, book, document or object without lawful grounds for that refusal (see more in the Working Conditions section).

In Zanzibar, the leading institutions' status is summarised below:

Labour Advisory Board

The tripartite Labour Advisory Board (LAB) provides advice on labour-related issues, such as proposed legislation, ILO conventions, industrial relations, and working conditions. It must meet four times yearly.

Wages Advisory Board

The tripartite Wages Advisory Board (WAB) recommends minimum wages and working conditions. The board has not succeeded in introducing regular minimum wage adjustments, but there is a good status of trade unions' promotion for establishing a national wage policy to bridge the gap between the Minimum Wage and the ideal living wage through the existence of the WAB (see more in the Working Conditions section)

Labour dispute resolution system

Tanzania's labour dispute resolution system has developed, shifting from traditional court-based methods to a more Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) focused approach. This shift has made ADR integral to the country's legal system, operating alongside conventional avenues.

In Mainland Tanzania, the central actors for dispute resolution are the Labour Commission for Mediation and Arbitration (LCMA) and the High Court Labour Division, which is responsible for hearing and determining employment disputes.

The LCMA is an independent department of the Prime Minister’s Office – Labour, Youth, Employment and Persons with Disabilities, with offices in all regions. This institution mediates or arbitrates, embracing any dispute within the framework of labour laws, including antiunion discrimination. Studies found that LCMA needs more offices and mediators, often lack of skills and professionalism and heavy workload in some areas. It also noted some challenges from its stakeholders like the parties, advocates, and trade unions.²⁶ Some progress is detected; for instance, Tanzania Invest Centre (TIC) and the CMA have signed a collaborative agreement in May 2024 to address workplace disputes between investors and their employees.

The Labour Institutions Act of 2004 established the Labour Court in Mainland Tanzania as a division of the High Court. A judge and two assessors from trade unions and employers’ organisations presided over the court, implementing procedures for settling its referred labour disputes. The Labour Court has been haunted by a lack of resources, leading to a massive case backlog. Labour inspectors are often hindered in ensuring labour law compliance about sanctioning an employer through the courts. It usually related to cumbersome processes depending on the seldom-used delegation of prosecutorial authority from the Director of Public Prosecutions.²⁷

The labour dispute resolution system’s coverage is limited to the formal economy, dismissing workers from the extensive informal economy. This limitation underscores the need for a more inclusive system that caters to all workers, regardless of their employment status.

In Zanzibar, the Zanzibar Industrial Court is a division of the High Court of Zanzibar, settling formal labour disputes. Like its Mainland counterpart, the Zanzibar Industrial Court is presided over by a judge and two assessors from employers’ organisations and trade unions.²⁸ The court and its Dispute Handling Unit is the only venue where labour disputes can be heard. Labour inspectors have some responsibility for settling

labour disputes. They may act as representatives for the labour commissioner by request should the need arise in the regions. The industrial court functions slowly and irregularly due to a lack of resources, especially on the island of Pemba. Reports noted that administrative authorities’ power to unilaterally dissolve, suspend or deregister trade union organisations is an issue in Zanzibar.²⁹ In addition, the number of cases in the Industrial Court in Zanzibar has been falling at the beginning of the 2020s (see more in Table 2).

Table 2: Number of cases in the Industrial Court in Zanzibar, 2020-2023

	2020	2021	2022	2023
Number of cases	1,018	857	615	663

Source: Danish Trade Union Development Agency, SRO-Eastern Africa data-collection.

TRADE UNION RIGHTS VIOLATIONS

Tanzania is ranking 4 out of 5+ (5 is worst) on the Global Rights Index in 2024, characterised by “systematic violations of rights”: the government and/or companies are engaged in serious efforts to crush the voice of workers, putting fundamental rights under threat.³⁰ No cases of systematic violations of rights were registered in recent years.³¹

Provisions related to forced labour are present in the legal framework, prohibiting forced labour, including the Employment and Labour Relations Act, which criminalises procuring, demanding or imposing forced labour.³² Tanzanians who voluntarily migrate in search of employment opportunities are frequently vulnerable to exploitative conditions (see more in the Migration sub-section).³³ Crises heighten the risk of all forms of modern slavery, and climate crisis has accelerated these circumstances. About 171,000 people were living in modern slavery in Tanzania, which is 0.3% of the population and ranking as number 42 out of 50 African countries on the Global Slavery Index (1 is the worst score) in 2023. This index measures modern slavery, i.e., slavery-like practices (such as debt, bondage, forced marriage

and sale or exploitation of children), human trafficking and forced labour.

WORKING CONDITIONS

Tanzania implements a sectoral minimum wage system that varies depending on the industry in which a worker is employed. The Labour Wage Order outlines the minimum wage for thirteen sectors: agriculture, health, telecommunication, domestic service, private security, energy, transport, construction, mining, private schools, commerce, industry and trade, and marine and fishery.

The latest sectoral minimum wages were set in 2023 with significant hikes in absolute terms, about a 36% increase on average. The highest and lowest monthly minimum wages with these multiple rates range from Financial Institutions with TZS592,000 (US\$244) and other domestic workers with TZS40,000 (US\$17). In Zanzibar, the only minimum wage covers the public sector with TZS300,000 (US\$124) and has not been adjusted since 2013 (see more in Appendix Table 15).

Several factors that contribute to the minimum wage in Tanzania are worth outlining. Firstly, it took ten years in Mainland Tanzania to adjust the minimum wage scales from 2013, suggesting that the mentioned wage boards have been dormant. Secondly, these adjusted minimum wages did not increase in real terms (deducted inflation in consumer prices), and several sectoral minimum wages even got struck; for instance, the Trade, Industries and Commercial Services and the Fishing and Marine Services (revisit Appendix Table 15). Thirdly, although employers in Tanzania are legally obligated to pay their workers at least the mandated minimum wage for their respective sector and location, the labour market landscape is characterized by a high level of self-employed working in the informal economy, sidelining the application of these minimum wages in practice. Fourthly, since average real wages are not increasing at the pace of labour productivity, it supports that the country is experiencing a deteriorated economic inequality, which is mirrored in a drop of the Gini index.

Based on the latest Integrated Labour Force Survey 2020/21, the largest monthly incomes for persons in paid employment in the United Republic of Tanzania are observed for public sector workers and the lowest for agriculture sector workers. Other estimations suggest that the aggregated median monthly income among self-employed and agricultural workers was at least half lower than the paid employees; the latter was even 16% inferior to the minimum wage rate. It is worth mentioning that there is a median gender income gap of 30%, favouring men (see more in Appendix Table 16).

Employment contracts in the formal economy are commonly used at all levels, and the most common types are fixed-term contracts and permanent contracts.³⁴

In Mainland Tanzania, the Ministry of Labour, Youth and Employment Development (MoLEYD) is responsible for labour inspection. In Zanzibar, general responsibility for labour inspection rests with the Ministry of Labour, Youth, Women and Children Development. Overall, there are registered 87 labour inspectors, equalling about one per 43,000 employees in 2022.³⁵ These employees represent just about 14% of the total employment. Bringing the total employment into the equation, the coverage of one inspector grips 305,000 Tanzanian workers. Thus, the number of inspectors was insufficient to provide effective workplace inspection. The ILO is concerned if the relation exceeds one inspector per 20,000 workers in transition economies and one inspector per 40,000 workers in less developed countries.³⁶ Although it is somewhat underestimated in the current relatively low employees group, it hints that Tanzania could benefit hiring at least 93 labour inspectors among employees to reach the threshold.

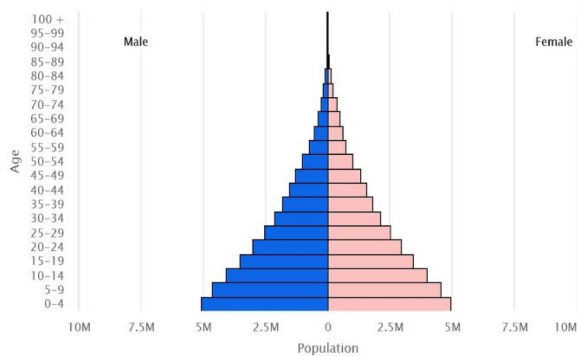
WORKFORCE

The United Republic of Tanzania has the fourth-largest population in sub-Saharan Africa, with a population of about 67 million people in 2024, of which about 1.9 million reside in Zanzibar. The country's demographic landscape demonstrates a continuously relatively high population growth

trend, placing it one of the youngest populations in the world and projected to reach 80 million Tanzanians in 2030. This stance is linked to a slow fertility rate transition.

Figure 3 below visualises Tanzania's demographic pyramid, echoing the increasing age dependency on the Working-Age Population ratio. For example, Tanzania is witnessing significant growth in its older population (60+), which covers about 4.7% of the total population today. Still, it is projected to account for 17% by 2050.³⁷ Generally, this growing dependency rate pressures generating tax income via formal job creation to finance the mounting welfare demands.

Figure 3: Population pyramid based on the Age-Sex structure of the population in Tanzania, 2024



Source: Central Intelligence Agency, *The World Factbook*, Tanzania, July 2024.

Based on the Labour Force Surveys, the main trends of the United Republic of Tanzania's workforce trends are summarised below, and other facts are available in Appendix Table 17:

- The working-age population grew by 21% from 2014 to 2020, reaching 32 million in 2021.
- A high workforce participation rate of 83%, with large group of own-account farming.
- Although employment has slightly shifted toward the service and manufacturing sectors, the agriculture sector remains the largest employer.
- Formal wage employment in Tanzania has only marginally increased, reaching 14% in 2020/2021.

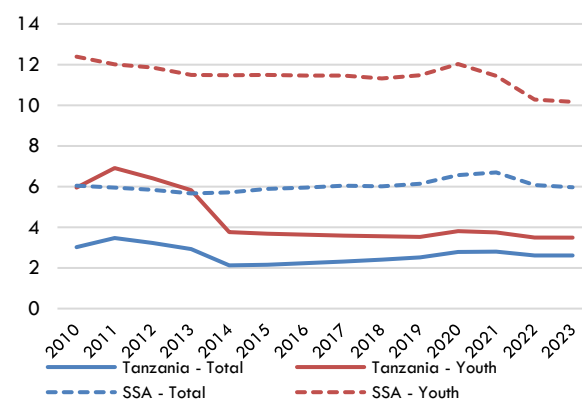
- The proportion of highly skilled occupations in the workforce has declined.
- Employment in the private and public sectors fell on the margin, while household activities rose sharply.
- The incidence of precarious work (i.e., meagre pay, very low intensity working hours, or low job security) increased, affecting at least four out of ten (43%) paid employment.
- Vulnerable workers (i.e., those at a higher degree of economic risk and vulnerability) stood stable and high at 83%.

Tanzania's job creation heavily relies on developing its micro and small enterprises, emerging as the backbone of growth, innovation, and employment opportunities. Most private enterprises, around 97%, are household micro-enterprises (1-4 employees), most likely informal; even 66% of these are own account (one person) activities.³⁸ This stance challenges the application of unionism and collective bargaining institutions in the private sector, generally often due to a lack of awareness or incentives to comply with labour and business regulations.

Unemployment

Tanzania's low unemployment rate remained stable during the last decade, with no noteworthy hike due to the global Covid-19 pandemic in 2020 and stood significantly below the regional average (Figure 4).

Figure 4: Unemployment rate in Tanzania and sub-Saharan Africa average, Total and Youth, %, 2010-2023



Source: International Labour Organization, modelled ILO estimate.

Unemployment is predominantly an urban phenomenon, affecting the youth and those with higher education levels. The unemployment rate underestimates that many individuals are engaged in casual or informal activities, working few hours per week as a survival strategy. Moreover, the intermittent nature of subsistence farming, occupied only during planting and harvesting, contributes to what is known as ‘disguised’ unemployment. In addition, unemployment is statistically a part of the employed group, excluding people outside the workforce. Approximately 17% of the working-age population in Tanzania is estimated to be ‘economically inactive’, a term that masks a potential for unemployment. It is worth addressing these aspects to get a more accurate picture of the real unemployment rate.

The National Social Security Fund (NSSF) promotes an insurance unemployment benefit scheme, and the country has remarkably high coverage: 11% of the unemployed received unemployment benefits in 2021, which has been on the rise (see more in the Social Protection section).

Migration

Migration is a critical factor in population dynamics influencing Tanzania’s labour market. Generally, the country is a significant player at the regional level and has signed central international and regional migration conventions and protocols. Initially, the country was recognised as a migrant-friendly country and a hospitable society for migrants and refugees. However, many irregular migrants have entered Tanzania’s borders since the end of the 2000s, transiting through the “Southern Route” to South Africa and Zambia. This situation has pushed the country’s legal and policy framework on migration more restrictive.

Seeking employment opportunities is a common reason people migrate from one place to another. Based on the latest data from the Labour Force Survey 2020/21, about 21% of the total population aged 15+ had migrated from other areas to their current places of residence. Dar es Salaam has the highest proportion of persons who

have migrated from different regions, reflecting a robust rural-urban flow, which is the typical migration pattern in Tanzania.

The adverse impacts of climate change are challenging many small-scale agricultural workers living in vulnerable areas. A glimpse of its scope is displayed by a large segment of internally displaced people (IDPs) associated with disasters – floods, storms, and earthquakes – that reached 291,000 persons since 2008, mainly accelerating in recent years. No internal displacements by conflict were registered.³⁹ Although the government took steps to resettle the displaced, including via a Resettlement Policy Framework, many lack secure land tenure, children out of school, weak access to health services, lack of livelihood opportunities and discrimination remain obstacles to lasting solutions.

In Mainland Tanzania, about one out of three (34%) people live in urban areas. In comparison, half the population (49%) lives in urban areas in Zanzibar.⁴⁰ The country’s urban population is expected to reach 50% of the population by 2030. Even the Dar es Salaam metropolitan area is projected to grow from six million people today to 13 million by 2035, crossing the “megacity” threshold of 10 million people sometime before 2030.⁴¹ The fast urbanisation growth is putting pressure on infrastructure development to harness ‘unjust’ cities.

The East African Community (EAC) promotes measures for the free movement of persons and labour from the member states. The adoption and implementation of the EAC’s Common Market Protocol dealing with migration has faced some reluctance from member countries. In Tanzania, foreign migrant workers often encounter difficulties seeking legitimate employment, and discrimination against migrant workers frequently occurs. The Non-Citizens (Employment Regulation) Act 2015 introduced stricter rules for hiring foreign workers. However, it was reformed in 2021, softening the regulations, including opening for extending the period of expatriate employees from three to a maximum tenor of eight years. One of the persistent hurdles is visualised by the thousands of Kenyan teachers who live and work in Tanzania, where they

teach. Many have found a family and wish to stay in Tanzania. But if they remain, they are typically cut off from the pensions to which they are entitled through their Kenyan savings.⁴²

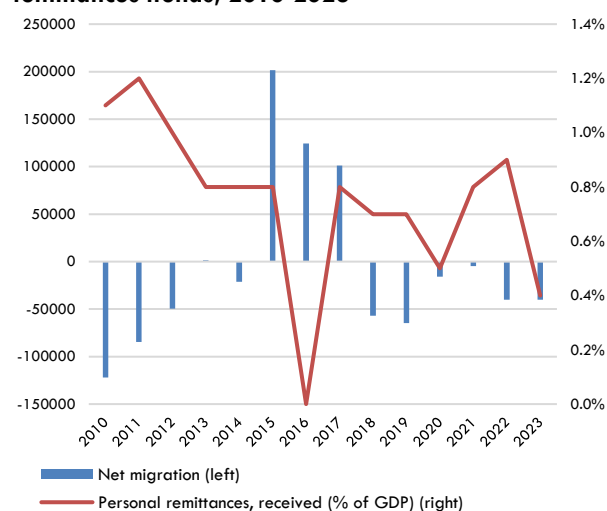
The trade union movement has been involved in migration issues in Tanzania. For instance, migrant construction workers from Türkiye working on a Tanzanian railway construction site operated by a Türkiye-based construction company went on strike in August 2023 after not being paid for seven months. However, the workers were unsure about their rights in Tanzania and had no contact with government authorities. They informed them about their rights in collaboration with the Trade Union Congress of Tanzania (TUCTA) and the Tanzania Mines and Construction Workers' Union (TAMICO). They got in touch with relevant government authorities. An agreement was reached with the representatives of the company, and the workers ended their strike, going back to work three days later.⁴³

Central drivers of emigration link with access to employment and education opportunities. Tanzania's top destinations are Uganda, South Africa, the United Kingdom, and Zimbabwe. Semi and unskilled migrant workers started moving towards the Middle East. These low-skilled migrant workers are vulnerable to abuse, receive inadequate wages, experience poor working conditions and are occasionally discriminated against. Studies found that the migration process was flawed, and most workers migrated without the proper documents or following due process by misinforming immigration authorities about the purpose of their travels. Besides, many of these migrants are disconnected between the expectations and the reality of working abroad.⁴⁴

More people left than entered Tanzania, except for a high influx in the middle of the 2010s, linked with an upsurge of refugees. The net migration flow has become more balanced in recent years because of the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic. Still, just around 0.6% of its total population emigrated, connecting with its historical lacklustre diaspora engagement.⁴⁵ This factor is mirrored in personal

remittances inflow, which have been stagnant for the last decade, landed far below the foreign direct investments and compared with the closets neighbouring countries like Kenya and Uganda (see also Figure 5). Thus, although Tanzania has taken several steps to engage the diaspora and remittances as tools for national development, it has so far not achieved significant improvements.

Figure 5: Tanzania's net migration and personal remittances trends, 2010-2023



Note: Net migration is the total number of immigrants minus the annual number of emigrants, including both citizens and noncitizens.
Source: Migrant Data Portal, Migration statistics; The World Bank, World Development Indicators.

As mentioned, Tanzania has always received a relatively high refugee population and has been at the forefront of regional peacebuilding efforts. However, its image has changed in recent years, with more restrictive policies being applied to deter refugee arrivals and encourage many to repatriate. In 2018, Tanzania withdrew from the Comprehensive Refugee Response Framework. The government has prohibited or restricted refugees living in camps from working and generating income, making life there harder. Many refugees have returned to their original country voluntarily, and many were even intimidated and pressured to return.⁴⁶ Per May 2024, the country hosted almost 238,000 refugees and asylum-seekers, 0.4% of the total population, mainly from Burundi and DR Congo. Most of the refugees in Tanzania live in two camps located in the Northwestern region.⁴⁷

Informal Economy

Tanzania's labour market landscape is resiliently dominated by the widespread informal economy, represented by unregistered small-scale traders, farmers, small manufacturers, craftsmen, individual professionals and many small-scale businesses. These groups are sidelining the application of business and labour regulations like income tax, employment contracts, minimum wages, and social protection insurance schemes; or, stated differently, informal workers face vulnerable working conditions.

The main influences that drive informality in employment in the country are family needs additional income, weak coverage of social insurance schemes, business or activity does not require much capital, cannot find other work, and business or activity provides good income opportunities.⁴⁸

Mainland Tanzania and Zanzibar are not operating with a specific tripartite National Informal Economic Forum that could function as a special advocacy platform. On the other hand, national policies are in place to address issues that affect workers in the informal economy, such as enterprise formalisation and access to credits.

A worrisome trend is reflected in the proportion of informal employment on the rise: It increased by ten percentage points during the last decade for non-agricultural employment, grasping 82% in 2021. Besides, most workers in the agricultural sector are working in informality. This stance visualises that the economy does not create sufficient new jobs in the formal economy as hoped, reducing the income tax's scope, and supports the fact of a meagre poverty reduction track record.

The TUCTA does not operate with a coherent policy approach at the federation level for unity and designation of people in the informal economy as workers to expand the trade union constituency. It is echoed that trade unions' membership base has been shrinking, and trade unions' affiliation with organised workers from the informal economy has been somewhat dormant. However, several TUCTA

affiliated unions have gained more attention in organising workers from the informal economy, as well as new and independent unions for informal workers are emerging. For example, some cooperative unions have been established in the fishery industry to secure soft loans from financial institutions, improving their businesses and profits.

Likewise, ZATUC does not operate with a specific policy to support informal workers but as previously mentioned some activities that capacitate affiliates to organise informal workers are in progress.

Child Labour

Around 35% of the United Republic of Tanzania's population is children aged 5-17, equalling 20.1 million children.⁴⁹ As outlined in the Population Pyramid above, this segment's growth keeps growing (revisit Figure 3).

The country has endorsed most international treaties and conventions on children and child labour. Mainland Tanzania and Zanzibar operate with their own child labour laws and institutional arrangements to implement and coordinate at different levels, including with participation from trade unions. Although both areas have established legal frameworks related to child labour, legal hurdles persist, such as the lack of penalties for the use of children in illicit activities, the lack of minimum age protections for children engaged in domestic work, and the insufficient number of labour inspectors, leading to child labour is rarely caught by the authorities monitoring and control systems. Reports found that the country made moderate advancement in efforts to eliminate the worst forms of child labour.⁵⁰

In Tanzania, many children are subjected to the worst forms of child labour, including forced labour in mining, quarrying, and domestic work. Most children in child labour perform dangerous tasks in agriculture in rural areas. These economic activities are concentrated overwhelmingly in low-skill jobs in the informal economy, offering little prospect for advancement or escaping poverty.

The root of child labour is linked with poverty, informality, and cultural heritage. According to the 2020/21 Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), around 25% of all children are engaged in child labour, equal to five million children. It suggests that the child labour rate has fallen by four percentage points since 2014. The disappointing low drop in the child labour rate is linked with the weak progress in primary education (see more in the Education section), not to mention it signals that the legal framework, policy agenda, and social mobilisation efforts do not effectively trickle down into Tanzania's labour market.

Tanzania's child labour rate is in line with the sub-Saharan Africa average, at 26% in 2020.⁵¹ Child labour is dominant in Mainland Tanzania (25%) while Zanzibar is down to 7.4%.⁵² An impact of the Covid-19 pandemic caused many people in Tanzania to lose their jobs and close schools, suggesting that many families could resort to sending their children to work. It could further lead the country to miss the global goal to end all forms of child labour by 2025.

Gender

Tanzania has demonstrated political will to promote gender equality and is committed to central, regional, and international gender-related conventions and protocols. Gender equality is enshrined in Tanzania's constitution and integrated into national plans, not to mention the country gained its first female president in 2021.

Generally, the country's laws and regulations around the life cycle of a working woman score 81 out of 100 (100 is best) in 2024, relatively higher than the regional average across sub-Saharan Africa at 74 on average. They still encounter a lower ranking on the indicator measuring laws affecting parenthood, assets, entrepreneurship, and pension (see more details in Appendix Table 18).⁵³ Despite the advanced legal framework on protecting women, widespread informality and cultural heritage often halt its implementation in practice, especially in rural areas.

Women and adolescent girls are particularly vulnerable to poverty, exacerbated by gender-based violence and beliefs around gender roles, norms, and female empowerment. Apart from the legal hurdles, women's unpaid childcare and domestic work limit their contribution to and benefit from productive activities, constraining their mobility and limiting access to market resources and information while participating in the economy.

The global Gender Inequality Index (GII) reflects the scope of gender disparities, ranking Tanzania 131 out of 162 countries (1 is best) in 2022. This relatively low ranking is supported by the country's women having a relatively high adolescent birth rate, significant gender gaps in at least some secondary education and the workforce participation rate.

Table 3 below shows a minor gender gap in the employment share. However, Tanzanian women have a higher unemployment rate, and a lower employee share linked to the 'domestic burden' (i.e., unpaid care work). This stance makes women more likely than men to work part-time or informal employment in low-productivity sectors. It furthermore sticks with Tanzanian women's average monthly income that was around two-thirds that of men, interlinking with the just mentioned disproportionate responsibilities, discriminatory practices prevalent in the labour market, and individual preferences.⁵⁴

Table 3: Key indicators for employed gender gaps in the United Republic of Tanzania, 2020/2021

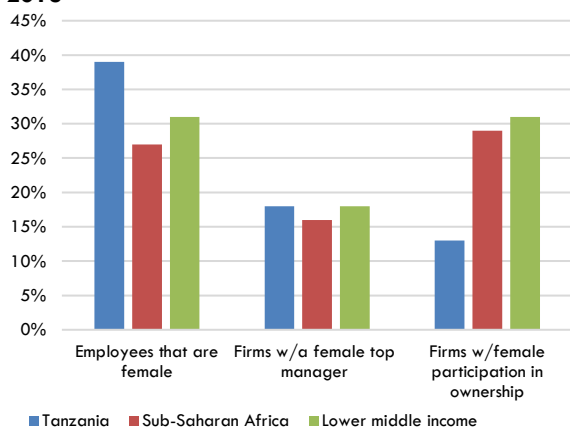
	Men	Women
Participation rate	86%	80%
Employment share	51%	49%
Unemployment rate	1.9%	3.7%
Employees rate	19%	9.4%
Employers rate	2.2%	1.1%
Non-agricultural informal employment rate	77%	88%

Source: Tanzania Intergrated Labour Force Survey 2020/2021; International Labour Organization, ILOSTAT.

Tanzania's proportion of women in managerial positions has more than doubled during the last decade, reaching 28% in 2020, which is part of the progress of urbanisation. It is still significantly lower

than the average in Eastern Africa of 41%. The surge in women's leadership roles not only strengthens the commitment to gender equality but also instils a sense of empowerment and confidence among other women to participate actively in decision-making organs across the country. Other data from Tanzania's latest Enterprise Survey 2023 reported that just 13% of firms had women participation in ownership, significantly lower than the sub-Saharan African average. In contrast, Tanzanian females have a higher employee rate than the regional average (Figure 6).

Figure 6: Status of women participation in employment, top management, and ownership, %, 2018



Source: The World Bank, Enterprise Surveys, Tanzania 2023: Country Profile.

Youth

Youth is the labour market's future backbone. The youth (aged 15-24 years) accounted for a substantial portion of the working-age population, reaching 10 million or 32% of the total working-age population in 2020/21.⁵⁵ This group represents a significant 'youth bulge', a term used to describe the increase in the youthful population, fuelling about 700,000 new young Tanzanians enter the job market each year. It is worth mentioning that Zanzibar youth formal employees represent a remarkably higher rate than Mainland Tanzania, 31% vs. 17%, respectively.

Tanzania's youth unemployment rate has been low at 3.9%, concentrated in urban areas and only half the Eastern Africa average. It suggests the labour market is creating jobs. However, few complete the

full school-to-work transition to find a stable or satisfactory quality job in the formal economy. Instead, most end in the informal economy. This situation leads to a dual factor: many youngsters lack awareness or incentives to complete school, and others are better educated, but the labour market does not offer sufficient decent jobs. Micro and small enterprises operating in informality dominate the labour landscape in urban zones, finding it difficult to grow and provide new jobs due to cumbersome business regulations and weak structural economic development. The relatively low labour productivity echoes these factors. In addition, unemployment is not an option for youngsters facing limited access to unemployment benefit insurance schemes, not to mention data show that one out of ten has an incidence of discouraged youth job seekers.⁵⁶

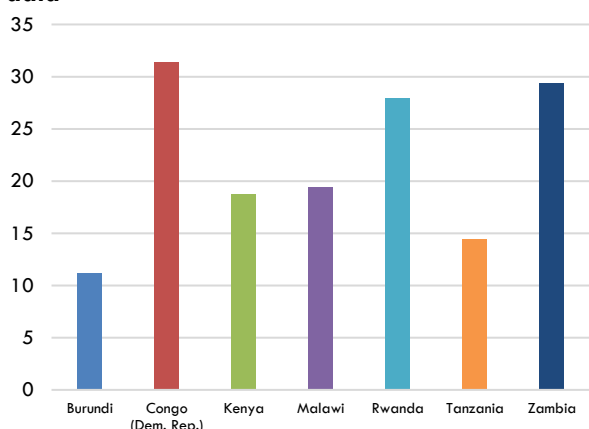
During the last decade, the government promoted numerous initiatives to tackle youth engagement and empowerment. Indications suggest that advantages are meagre; for instance, the country's latest ranking on the Global Youth Development Index fell to 166 out of 183 countries (1 is best) in 2023, a significantly lower position than most neighbouring countries. The country's best scoring was regarding political and civic participation rank (32 of 183 countries), but it has not trickled down into an upsurge in trade union density.

Youth attitudes towards work are often cited as central challenges for the labour market in Tanzania, considering that employment services are unpopular and ineffective. The weaknesses of the education system concern a lack of practical techniques. Instead, most youths rely on informal networks – mainly family and friends – to search for jobs. The better-educated minority and those from wealthier families can afford to wait for more secure waged employment.

The not in education, employment, or training (NEET rate) indicator provides a better indication of the extent of barriers fronting young people in the labour market than the unemployment rate. Tanzania's NEET rate was 14% in 2020, which is in line with 2014 and one of the lowest among the

neighbouring countries (Figure 7). The country's NEET rate is significantly higher for women than men, 19% vs 9.1%, respectively. Young people from lower-income families are usually more present in the NEET rate. The economic downturn in 2020 caused by the Covid-19 pandemic will most likely create an upsurge in the NEET rate.

Figure 7: Proportion of youth (aged 15-24 years) not in education, employment or training in Tanzania and neighbouring countries, %, latest data



Source: International Labour Organization, *Key Indicators of the Labour Market*.

Along with the need for more services to link youth job seekers with employers, a pivotal encounter facing Tanzanian youth is the poor quality of available vocational and technical training programmes. The result is a wide gap between the needs of the labour market and the skill set of young job seekers (see more in the Vocational Training sub-section).⁵⁷

EDUCATION

The United Republic of Tanzania has ratified most international treaties protecting education rights. The current Tanzanian constitution recognises the right to education and has adopted several laws and policies to implement the right to education, including to abolish school fees for primary education in 2011. The education system has gone through a decentralization, but the power to legitimize the formation of quality and equitable educational programmes is still centred at the national level. Additionally, the legal framework

still brings hurdles to improving the education sector; for example, indirect costs remain, such as for textbooks, uniforms, and school lunches; the prevalence of child marriage and pregnancy prevents many girls from attending school; corporal punishment is lawful in Mainland Tanzania; there is no reference to quality education in the law.

A recent improvement is the national 2023 Education and Training Policy, which places greater attention on developing skills relevant to the changing job market, such as critical thinking, problem-solving, communication, and digital literacy. Changes in curriculum design, assessment methods, teacher professional development, and technology integration into teaching and learning processes have been detected as central factors.

Government expenditure on education has deteriorated during the last five years, landing under 4% of GDP, thus below the international Education 2030 Framework for Action's benchmark for government financing of education within 4% to 6% of GDP. Government expenditure on education share of government expenditure is in line with the sub-Saharan Africa average, at 14%.⁵⁸

As previously mentioned, 700,000 graduates struggle to transition into jobs in Tanzania yearly, and less than 10% find a job in the formal economy.⁵⁹ This trend highlights the mismatch or low level of coordination between formal education and the labour market's needs. This situation leads most youths to continue searching for employment, be self-employed, often need more proper entrepreneurship competencies, or generally operate in the informal economy. It further causes restlessness, frustration, and social insecurity among many young graduates and the public in general.

Education is linked to the level of skills of the workforce, productivity, and earnings. Tanzania's education system has demonstrated some improvements, as reflected in the average level of education of the workforce, which has increased: About 59% of the population in Tanzania has primary education, and it has not improved since 2014. Persons with secondary education grew

slightly, grasping 19%. University education also grew on the margin but remained for only 1.9% of the population.⁶⁰

A weak school infrastructure, overcrowded schools, and internal regional enrolment disparities are still challenging the education system's capacity to fully achieve its policy goals.

Vocational Training

Mainland Tanzania and Zanzibar operate with distinct technical and vocational education and training (TVET) systems.

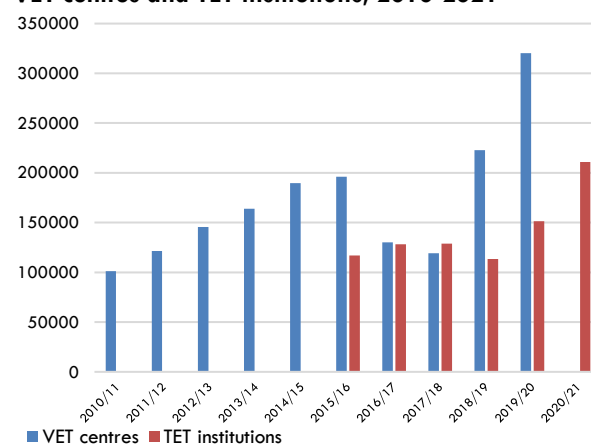
In Mainland Tanzania, the provision of TVET is endorsed in national policies, programmes, and strategies, including the National Skills Development Strategy (NSDS) and the renewed Technical and Vocational Training Programme 2021-2026. The TVET system, which is part of formal education, is supported by a wide range of public and private institutions, including Technical Education and Training (TET) and Vocational Education and Training (VET). Non-formal training is also provided by a network of Folk Development Colleges (FDC) located mostly in rural or semi-rural areas. The ongoing development of a national qualifications framework (NQF) aims to improve the interconnection between general education and TVET subsystems. It further enhances the link between TVET education and labour market demands, showing the potential of the TVET system to meet the needs of the labour market.

The governance of TVET and skills development is shared among several ministries and regulatory agencies. The National Council for Technical and Vocational Education and Training (NACTVET) must accredit all public and private TVET providers and provide quality assurance. The government envisaged a National Skills Development Council (NSDC) platform as part of the NSDS but has yet to come to a consensus on the mandates and its composition, as well as its relationship with existing TVET central actors. In addition, there is not yet an apex-level coordination mechanism for TVET policies and stewardship.

Tanzania has established institutional mechanisms for social dialogue between social partners at the TVET level. However, some of these mechanisms are not fully operational, and trade unions and employers' organisations have played a limited role in TVET policy setting, governance, and management.⁶¹ On the positive side, since 2021, the social partners joined hands to lobby for the inclusion of their representation in the governance of the TVET system, contributing to its modernisation and creation of decent employment for youth. The creation of Sector Skills Councils (SSCs), as envisioned by NSDS, could address these issues. Several SSCs are aiming to connect with the productive sector. While the current situation may seem challenging, the emergence of several decentralised mechanisms of industry links at the provider level is a hopeful sign of progress in the TVET sector.

TVET has been underprioritized by students, with the gross enrolment ratio for vocational training standing at only 2.5% of persons aged 15+ in 2020/2021. This ratio shows a decrease of 0.4 percentage points from 2014, indicating the need for increased prioritization of TVET.⁶² On the positive side, the TVET system has shown some improvements in recent years, with a growing network of TVET training centres, especially in the private sector. Also, a fast-growing number of affiliated students, reaching a total enrolment of 531,000 from TET/VET (Figure 8).

Figure 8: Registered number of students enrolled from VET centres and TET institutions, 2010-2021



Source: Tanzania National Council for Technical and Vocational Education and Training.

Reports have identified areas where the quality of TVET institutions could be enhanced to better equip graduates for the labour market. Many graduates currently enter the workforce with a low-level skills certificate, and there are limited avenues for them to further their formal education or training. Challenges such as disparities in employment across sectors and institutions, weak connections between TVET providers and industry, and limited access to professional training for TVET graduates exist.⁶³ Like many other countries in sub-Saharan Africa, Tanzania's TVET system faces challenges concerning the qualifications and competencies of TVET trainers; for instance, there is a lack of skilled trainers with industry experience, and the number of TVET staff with skills certificates is quite low.

TVET development is financed via the national budget that provides training, a Skills Development Levy (SDL) paid by employers, and income generated by training providers and development partners. Although the TVET sector has been under-prioritised on the national budget, it started to boost, grasping a record-high 15% of the allocation to TVET from the government budget allocation to the education sector in 2021.⁶⁴ SDL has been the primary source of funding for VET. The Tanzania Revenue Authority collects this levy at 4.5% of the payroll of formal firms with four or more employees. It is worrisome to note that Tanzanian firms offering formal training fell by ten percentage points during the last decade, reaching 20% of firms in 2023, which is one of the lowest levels among the neighbouring countries.⁶⁵ Technical education and training instead depends on income generated by training providers, including tuition fees and funds raised from communities and private institutions, as well as activities such as consultancy, production, maintenance or international student exchange programmes.

In Zanzibar, vocational training is conducted outside the regular education system to empower the trainee to secure employment, self-employment, or return to the regular education system. ZATUC is not involved in TVET. The governance of TVET and skills development is shared among several ministries and regulatory agencies. Their TVET system

comprises four areas: technical education, VET programme, VET and skills development programmes, and work-based learning based on enterprise training and informal apprenticeship.

Updated data on TVET enrolment in Zanzibar are scarce; in 2013, around 67 public and private institutions provided TVET, and 324 students enrolled in VET technical secondary schools, about 0.4% of total secondary education enrolment.⁶⁶ In 2019, Zanzibar launched the first Recognition of Prior Learning (RPL) programme, which initially developed pilot competency standards for RPL in three occupations.

Fourth Industrial Revolution

The Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR) introduces disruptions in the labour market: job losses due to digitisation are becoming more urgent, just as upskilling and retooling are putting pressure on the TVET system. The past decade has seen an increase in local digital labour platforms across various sectors in Tanzania. These platforms bring employment opportunities and offer the possibility of transitioning workers—whose roles may vanish due to automation or just transition—into new jobs.

Generally, the country has experienced a growing application for information and communication technology (ICT) aspects. The latest 2022 census shows that 85% of households have ownership of a mobile phone, staying in line with the regional average, but only 3.7% have ownership of computers (desktops/laptops).⁶⁷

The country could become a leading contender in online trade in Eastern Africa, especially on mobile finance and digital payment fronts. However, it lacks a national e-commerce strategy streamed into the national and sectoral development plans.⁶⁸ Tanzania has even experienced a decline in the volume of e-commerce transactions. The exit of international digital platforms such as Jumia – the largest e-commerce platform in Africa – and the introduction of taxes on electronic transactions have contributed to such a decline.⁶⁹ The country is not among the leading African countries concerning

business process outsourcing (BPO) industries. Lack of other employment opportunities is still likely to emerge as a primary motivator for many Tanzanian young workers and supplement earnings.

Reports found that despite the growing popularity of industry platforms across big cities in Tanzania, the stability raised concerns. Most platform workers operate as independent contractors. It does not offer the same stability and job security level as traditional employment in the formal economy. Instead, they are being sidelined for social security schemes, income instability, and challenged fair working conditions, making these platform workers vulnerable. The registered platforms for ride-hailing industry, food delivery, and artisan services for home and office repair service score low, indicating a solid imperative for regulatory reform and enforcement in Tanzania.⁷⁰

Struggling to survive in a competitive job market of digital automation can carry extra stress for workers in Tanzania. For instance, the effects of “casualisation” and “externalisation” could emerge with an increasing number of part-time and contractual workers, also known as temporary or fixed-term employees. These factors could lead to employment vulnerability, making unionisation more difficult. Unionism for platform workers has been challenged by their vulnerable power to negotiate effectively via platform business models. On the positive side, ride-hailing driver unions are active in Tanzania. They went on a two-day strike in late 2022, protesting high commission fees and raising concerns that the government had backtracked on previous regulations. It is worth mentioning that Uber’s ride-hailing platform suspended operations in 2022 after the government published a fare guide increasing rates, but it resumed operations in January 2023.

SOCIAL PROTECTION

The United Republic of Tanzania is not up to date on ILO security conventions and recommendations. Mainland Tanzania and Zanzibar operate with distinct social protection systems, including laws, regulations, policies and programmes; for instance,

the Mainland Tanzania’s draft National Social Protection Policy, which entered the scene in 2022, and the Zanzibar Social Protection Policy of 2014 with an implementation plan launched for the period from 2017 to 2022, which remains operational.

Social protection is well-established in the political agenda and scaling up significantly during the last decade. Mainland Tanzania went through reforms of the social protection measures, initiating the central Productive Social Safety Nets (PSSN) programme (2012), which has now entered its second phase; contributory social insurance scheme opened to informal workers (2014); setting up the Workers’ Compensation Fund (2015) to provide mandatory protection against injury, disability, and death for formal sector employees; merging of compulsory social insurance schemes under the National Social Security Fund (NSSF) and the Public Service Social Security Fund (PSSSF) (2018); National Informal Sector Scheme (NISS) (2021).⁷¹ The Zanzibar Development Vision 2050 sets a strategic direction to the social protection sector and promotes the Compulsory Pension Scheme, the Voluntary Pension Scheme, and the Universal Pension scheme.

TUCTA and ZATUC have significantly contributed to the legal and policy framework on social protection and advocated for the recognition of tripartism. For example, TUCTA has advocated for the ratification of internal social protection conventions, representing workers in social protection scheme boards. TUCTA further promoted for the merger of the public social security schemes and the harmonisation of the formulas used to calculate retirement benefits for both public and private retirees. There is a trend towards greater autonomy for social security institutions in Tanzania, leading to tripartite boards; for instance, the Board of Trustees of NSSF consists of a chairperson, the Principal Secretary to the ministry responsible for social security, and three members each representing the Association of Tanzania Employers, the Tanzania Federation of Trade Unions, and the government.

The rapidly growing population brings mounting pressure on the social protection services demand for improved essential services and the provision of public infrastructure. In Mainland Tanzania, the government allocated 8.7% of the total government budget to social protection and welfare (SP&W) in 2020/21. Social insurance has covered the bulk of the SP&W total budget, but PSSN is on a fast rise with funding from donor contributions. In contrast, the budget allocation for labour, youth and employment programmes decreased by a third.⁷² In Zanzibar, the budget allocated to the SP&W sector was 9.3% of the total government budget.⁷³ Although there is no settled international benchmark for social protection, ILO suggests that low-and middle-income countries should spend at least 3.3% of GDP on providing a universal package of social protection benefits that cover children, maternity, disability, old age, as well as administrative costs. It hints that Mainland Tanzania needs a hike of the current investment by an additional 1.8 percentage points of GDP.

Broader social protection coverage remains low: just 11% of the population was covered by at least one social protection benefit in 2021, which fell by three percentage points from 2019 (see more in Appendix Table 19).

The system for non-contributory social protection programmes that provide cash or in-kind benefits to vulnerable groups is mainly linked with the flagship PSSN social assistance programme. By 2021, about 35% of poor persons were covered by social protection systems. The programme continues to be primarily externally funded. Resource constraints, poor alignment with national priorities, and scepticism towards cash transfers are constraints to the government in taking over the financing of the PSSN.⁷⁴ On the other hand, coverage of social security – e.g., persons with severe disabilities collecting disability social protection benefits, vulnerable persons covered by social assistance, mothers with newborns receiving maternity benefits – remains very limited, with leakage to the richest quintiles.

In Mainland Tanzania, older people cannot rely upon state pension support; only covers people working in the formal economy. The share of persons above retirement age receiving a pension has been on the rise in recent years, increasing from 3.2% in 2016 to 6.0% in 2021, which is just half of the Eastern Africa average.⁷⁵ In contrast, Zanzibar became the first territory in Eastern Africa to implement a tax-financed social pension scheme in 2016. This Universal Pension Scheme provides all residents over 70 with a monthly pension of TZS50,000 (US\$20). Nevertheless, the modest benefit level cannot lift older people out of poverty. Employers' liability schemes contain minimal provisions for benefits and services, but the country launched the Workers Compensation Fund in 2015, linking employers subject to the workers' compensation fund tariff. The tariff is payable monthly and is calculated as a percentage of cash sums paid to employees at 0.5%. Employed Tanzanians covered in the event of work injury grasped 3.4% in 2021, which is significantly lower than the Eastern African average of 8.5%.⁷⁶

In Mainland Tanzania, the Unemployment Benefit scheme is paid to an insured person below 55 years old who has ceased to be employed. Data show that the unemployed receiving unemployment benefits rose from 8.6% in 2019 to 11% in 2021, which is remarkably higher than the Eastern Africa average of 0.7%.⁷⁷

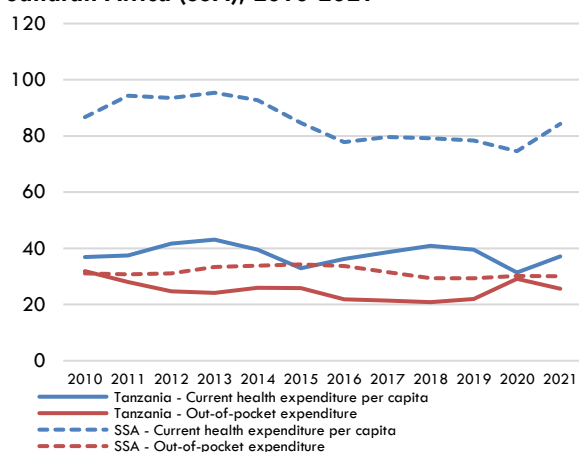
In Mainland Tanzania, women in formal employment are entitled to 84 days of paid maternity leave. As indicated in the Gender sub-section, working women encounter a lower ranking on the laws affecting parenthood, as well as coverage by itself reached just 1.4% of mothers with newborns receiving maternity benefits in 2021, significantly below the Eastern Africa average of 7.8%.⁷⁸ Fathers in Tanzania are entitled to three days of paid paternity leave, to be taken within the first seven days following the birth of the child; data on its coverage are scarce.

Subsidy programmes for several goods and services are central to Tanzania's social protection system, including electricity, agriculture inputs,

water, and food at schools and transportation to and from school. Several programmes' efficiencies have been considered challenged by their financial sustainability, not to mention poverty reduction is stalled, signalling subsidies with leakages that sideline the poorest people.⁷⁹

The country has achieved progress in healthcare during the last decades, marked by reductions in maternal and child mortality rates and increasing life expectancy. The country's health out-of-pocket expenditure slowly fell, and health expenditure per capita stood stable but located significantly lower than the regional average. It is worth mentioning that a rupture was detected for both indicators in 2020 due to the impact of the global Covid-19 pandemic (Figure 9).

Figure 9: Current health expenditure per capita (current US\$) and out-of-pocket expenditure (% of current health expenditure) trends in Tanzania and sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), 2010-2021



Source: The World Bank, World Development Indicators

Government health expenditure lost pace during the last decade and even dropped below the World Health Organization's minimum threshold of 4% of GDP at the beginning of the 2020s.

The National Health Insurance Fund (NHIF) is a mandatory scheme, primarily for formal employees, with a contribution of 6% shared equally between the employee and the employer. The Community Health Insurance Fund (CHIF) is a voluntary scheme for the informal economy mostly in rural areas, but it has struggled with low affiliation rates although the presence of exemptions and waiver mechanisms for the poor. Generally, health insurance coverage has remained around 7.0% of the population (4.2 million) have health insurance from NHIF or CHIF. In addition, there are 1.2% persons with health insurance from other health insurers.⁸⁰

In 2022, the government proposed mandatory health insurance to cover the large informal economy and raise additional revenue for health. The Bill for establishing mandatory Universal Health Insurance (UHI) and the Tanzania Insurance Regulatory Agency (TIRA) was withdrawn from the parliament twice. There were reservations from private sector employers in the health sector through the Association of Private Health Facilities in Tanzania (APHTA). As a retaliation, some private sector health care providers ceased to provide services to NHIF patients. It led the minister for health to form a committed lead by TIRA to address APHTA concerns. Negotiations remain ongoing.

APPENDIX: ADDITIONAL DATA

Table 4: Tanzania's key economic data, projections, 2019-2025

Values	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2025
GDP (current, US\$)	58.8bn	63.4bn	68.0bn	74.1bn	79.4bn	79.6bn	86.1bn
GDP per capita (PPP, US\$)	2,726	2,767	2,817	2,863	2,920	2,992	3,079
Total investment (% of GDP)	34.3%	38.5%	40.8%	40.9%	38.4%	38.4%	38.9%
Gross national savings (% of GDP)	32.1%	36.4%	37.1%	33.6%	33.1%	34.3%	35.4%
General government expenditure (% of GDP)	17.3%	17.4%	18.4%	19.1%	19.1%	19.2%	19.3%
Government gross debt (% of GDP)	40.4%	41.3%	43.4%	44.9%	46.3%	46.1%	44.4%

Source: International Monetary Fund, World Economic Outlook Database, April 2024.

Table 5: The main demands of the African trade unions in the declaration statement calling for the Just Transition agenda, 2023

Main demands in the declaration statement calling for the Just Transition agenda
1. Decent work and quality jobs: Trade unions insist on the creation of quality jobs as part of climate change policies. They demand that these jobs uphold labour rights and prioritise decent working conditions for all. This includes investments in skills development and training for workers to adapt to emerging green industries.
2. Social protection: Workers adversely affected by climate change must benefit from social protection measures, including income support, access to health care, education, and training to facilitate their professional reorientation. Trade unions are committed to protecting the most vulnerable workers and communities from the potential impacts of climate policies.
3 Worker Participation: Workers must be involved in the development and implementation of climate-related policies and projects, as they have valuable insights into the realities of their industries and communities.
4. Community Engagement: Local communities and stakeholders must be involved in decision-making on climate initiatives. Priority should be given to investment in sustainable infrastructure, green technologies and community resilience.
5 Gender equity: Trade unions demand that gender considerations be integrated into climate policies, recognising that women are often the most affected by the effects of climate change. They call for the empowerment of women through training, leadership and gender-sensitive policies.
6. Investment in green jobs: Trade unions call for substantial investment in green technologies, renewable energy and sustainable agriculture. They believe this investment will boost economic growth, create jobs and help preserve the environment.
7. Labour rights and just transition plans: Trade unions demand that labour rights be enforced and upheld in the context of climate policies, including the right to organise and the right to collective bargaining. Comprehensive just transition plans must be developed to outline pathways for affected workers and communities through the transition period.
8. Reskilling and Upskilling: Trade unions call for reskilling and upskilling programmes to equip workers with the skills needed for the transition to green industries by adapting to the needs of the labour market.
9. Support for impacted industries: The industries most vulnerable to the impacts of climate change policies should be given targeted support and resources to help them transform their operations while safeguarding jobs.
10. Transparency and accountability: Trade unions call for transparency in the allocation of resources and the distribution of benefits resulting from climate initiatives. They also call for accountability mechanisms to be put in place to hold stakeholders accountable for meeting their just transition commitments.

Source: ITUC-Africa, Africa Climate Summit: African trade unions call for a just transition.

Table 6: Central employment and labour legal framework in mainland Tanzania and Zanzibar

Mainland
1. The Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania, 1977 (amended in 2005).
2. Public Holidays Ordinance, 1966.
3. Part V of Labour Institutions Act, No.7 of 2004 (through Regulation of Wages and terms of Employment Order, 2013 aka The Wage Order).
4. Employment and Labour Relations Act, No. 6 of 2004.
5. Wages Order 2010
6. National Social Security Fund Act, 1997 (last amended in 2015).
7. Occupational Health and Safety Act, 2003.
8. Law of the Child Employment Act, 2009.
9. Penal Code, 1945.
Zanzibar
1. Zanzibar Constitution, 1984.
2. Employment Act No. 11 of 2005.
3. Zanzibar Social Security Fund Act, 2005.
4. Occupational Safety and Health Act No. 08 of 2005.
5. Workmen's Compensation Act 1986, amended in 2005.
6. The Children's Act, 2011.
7. Penal Act (No. 6) of 2018.
8. Trade Unions Act, 2001.
9. Labour Relations Act No. 1 of 2005.

Source: WageIndicator.org, Decent Work Check 2023: Tanzania and Zanzibar, 2023.

Table 7: Central legal reservations concerning the rights to organise, collective bargaining, and strikes in Tanzania

Right to organize
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Trade unions in the private sector must have at least 20 members to register, while public sector unions need 30 members. In Zanzibar there is a minimum membership requirement of 50 people before registration can go ahead. • The ELRA does not stipulate a reasonable period for the processing of applications for registration of trade unions. • Unions must register within six months of being established. Those that fail to do so are subject to (unspecified) sanctions. • Five organisations are needed to form a federation. Trade union affiliation to other organisations can be annulled if it was obtained without government approval or if the union is considered to be an organisation whose remit is broader than just employer-worker relations. • The government prescribes the terms of office of trade unionists. Failure to comply with government requirements is subject to fines and/or imprisonment. In any given trade union, only one union leader may be employed full-time to carry out trade union functions; all others must work full-time in the enterprise or industrial sector in which they have been elected. • The Registrar can suspend a union if public security or public order are endangered. In Zanzibar, the High Court can interfere in trade union affairs by appointing the Registrar to act as a trade union liquidator. • In Zanzibar, the Registrar has considerable powers to restrict registration, for example, if s/he does not agree with the union's provisions. • In Zanzibar, unions are prohibited from using their funds, directly or indirectly, to pay any fines or penalties incurred by a trade union official in the discharge of his or her duties on behalf of the organisation (s 42, Labour Relations Act). They are also required to obtain the Registrar's approval before contributing to institutions (s 41(2)(i) LRA).
Right to collective bargaining
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A system of compulsory arbitration sets the conditions and terms of employment of public service employees. • According to the 2002 Public Service (Negotiating Machinery) Bill, workers in public services do not have the right to collective bargaining. In addition, the government sets wages for employees of the government and state-owned organisations. Prison staff do not have the right to collective bargaining. • In Zanzibar, the rules determining majority unions and the collective bargaining rights of minority unions are unclear (section 57(2) of the Labour Relations Act of 2005). • In Zanzibar, managerial employees do not have the right to bargain collectively with respect to salaries and other conditions of employment.
Right to strike
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There is a compulsory 30-day mediation period before lawful strike action may be taken. • Strike action is permissible as a measure of last resort in the case of conflicts of interest, whilst rights-based disputes are referred to the labour court. Secondary strike action is allowed provided that the primary action is lawful, there is a relationship between the primary and secondary employer and the secondary action is proportional; a 14-day notice period is required for secondary action. • The law does not protect those taking part in legal strikes from retribution. • Section 26(2) of the Public Service (Negotiating Machinery) Act (No. 19 of 2003) requires certain conditions to be satisfied for civil servants to take part in a strike. • Strikes are forbidden if the government considers they endanger the life and health of the population, and the law has now broadened the category to cover almost 50% of all services, including firefighting, civil aviation, telecommunications, health services and associated laboratory services and electricity. • Particularly, sections of Zanzibar's Labour Relations Act require a trade union to give the mediation authority at least 30 days to resolve the dispute, and subsequently give 14 days' notice of the purpose, nature, place and date of a strike, before commencing industrial action. Compulsory

Source: International Trade Union Confederation, *Survey of Violations of Trade Union Rights, Tanzania: Legal*, June 2024.

Table 8: Ratified ILO Conventions in Tanzania

Subject and/or right	Convention	Ratification date
Fundamental Conventions		
Freedom of association and collective bargaining	C087 - Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise, 1948	2000
	C098 - Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949	1962
Elimination of all forms of forced labour	C029 - Forced Labour Convention, 1930	1962
	C105 - Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957	1962
Effective abolition of child labour	C138 - Minimum Age Convention, 1973	1998
	C182 - Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999	2001
Elimination of discrimination in employment	C100 - Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951	2002
	C111 - Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958	2002
Occupational safety and health	C155 - Occupational Safety and Health Convention, 1981	Not ratified
	C187 - Promotional Framework for Occupational Safety and Health Convention, 2006	Not ratified
Governance Conventions		
Labour inspection	C081 - Labour Inspection Convention, 1947	Not ratified
	C129 - Labour Inspection (Agriculture) Convention, 1969	Not ratified
Employment policy	C122 - Employment Policy Convention, 1964	Not ratified
Tripartism	C144 - Tripartite Consultation (International Labour Standards) Convention, 1976	1983
Technical Conventions (Up-to-date)		
Wages	C094 - Labour Clauses (Public Contracts) Convention, 1949	1962
	C095 - Protection of Wages Convention, 1949	1962
	C131 - Minimum Wage Fixing Convention, 1970	1983
Industrial relations	C135 - Workers' Representatives Convention, 1971	1983
	C154 - Collective Bargaining Convention, 1981	1998
Vocational guidance and training	C140 - Paid Educational Leave Convention	1983
	C142 - Human Resources Development Convention	1983
Occupational Safety and Health	C148 - Working Environment (Air Pollution, Noise and Vibration), 1977	1983
	C170 - Chemicals Convention, 1990	1999
Specific categories of workers	C149 - Nursing Personnel Convention, 1977	1983
Dockworkers	C152 - Occupational Safety and Health (Dock Work) Convention, 1979	1983
Seafarers	C185 - Seafarers' Identity Documents Convention, 2003	2017
	MLC, 2006 - Maritime Labour Convention, 2006	2019

Note: Fundamental Conventions are the eight most important ILO conventions that cover four fundamental principles and rights at work. Equivalent to basic human rights at work. Governance Conventions represent four instruments that are designated as important to building national institutions and capacities that serve to promote employment. In addition, there are 83 conventions, which ILO considers "up-to-date" and actively promotes.

Source: International Labour Organization, NORMLEX, Country Profiles: Tanzania, June 2024.

Table 9: Labour market efficiency in Tanzania, 2019

Indicator	Rank
Total	86
Redundancy costs (weeks of salary) **	25
Hiring and firing practices *	68
Cooperation in labour-employer relations *	77
Flexibility of wage determination *	104
Active labour market policies *	69
Workers' rights *	70
Ease of hiring foreign labour *	130
Internal labour mobility *	88
Reliance on professional management *	60
Pay and productivity *	87
Ratio of wage and salaried female workers to male workers **	99
Labour tax rate **	73

* Survey data. ** Ranked by per cent.

Note: Rank from 1 to 141 (1 is highest).

Source: The Global Competitiveness Report, 2019, 8th pillar: Labour market efficiency.

Table 10: Ease of Doing Business in Tanzania, 2020

Topics	Ranking
Overall	141
Starting a Business	162
Dealing with Construction Permits	149
Getting Electricity	85
Registering Property	146
Getting Credit	67
Protecting Minority Investors	105
Paying Taxes	165
Trading Across Borders	182
Enforcing Contracts	71
Resolving Insolvency	116

Note: Doing Business 2020 indicators are ranking from 1 (top) to 190 (bottom) among other countries. The rankings tell much about the business environment, but do not measure all aspects of the business surroundings that matter to firms and investors that affect the competitiveness of the economy. Still, a high ranking does mean that the government has created a regulatory environment conducive to operating a business.

Source: World Bank & IFC, Ease of Doing Business 2020 in Tanzania.

Table 11: Trade Union Density for Paid Employees Aged 15+ by Sector in United Republic of Tanzania (URT), growth, and gender rate, 2021

Sector	Membership rate			Growth, URT, percentage point 2014-2021	Gender rate	
	URT	TZM *	ZNZ **		Men	Women
Public	67%	71%	28%	-9.4%	65%	70%
Private	12%	13%	2.3%	1.8%	12%	13%
Agriculture	0.6%	0.6%	0.0%	-0.7%	0.8%	0.0%
Household activities	3.1%	3.1%	0.0%	0.0%	6.4%	0.1%
Total	21%	21%	12%	-6.4%	20%	22%
Number	710,364	690,333	20,031	-8.9% ***	464,549	245,815

* Mainland Tanzania. ** Zanzibar. *** Per centage.

Source: ILFS 2014 and 2020/21.

Table 12: Central tri- and bipartite institutions in Mainland Tanzania and Zanzibar

Mainland
Labour, Economic and Social Council.
Wage Boards.
Workman Compensation Body.
Work Permit Board.
Vocational Training Board.
Tanzania Commission for AIDS.
National Social Security Board (NSSF).
National Health Insurance Fund Board (NHIF).
Public Pension Fund.
Regulatory Board for Social Security.
Joint Assistance Strategy.
Negotiation machinery at the Joint Staff Council (central) and at the Master Joint Staff Council.
Teacher Education Quality Task Force, EFA Committee.
Education Sector Advisory Council.
Education Sector Master Workers Council.
Board of the Vocational Education & Training Authority (VETA).
The Ministerial Advisory Board.
Zanzibar
Labour Advisory Board.
Wages Advisory Board.
National OSH Committee.
Conflict Resolution Committee.
Zanzibar Social Security Board.
Zanzibar Disabled Board.
Zanzibar Business Council (bipartite).
MKUZA on Irrigation/Poverty Board.
National Committee on HIV/AIDS.
Committee on Education Policy.
Aids Business Coalition Zanzibar (ABCZ).
Education Coordinating Board.
National Tripartite for Dispute Handling Unit.

Table 13: Mainland Tanzania's status of trade unions and number of CBAs, 2020

Trade Unions	Members	Women's share	Trade unions' share	No. of CBAs	Workers covered by CBAs
TUCTA	845,417	62%	100%	444	603,772
CHODAWU - Conservation, Hotel Domestic and Allied Workers Union	63,633	71%	8%	43	6.214
COTWU (T) - Communication Transport Workers Union of Tanzania	11,004	72%	1%	28	3019
TTU - Tanzania Teachers Union (Chama cha Waalimu Tanzania)	419,028	58%	50%	3	413.000
DOWUTA - Dock Workers Union of Tanzania	5,544	7%	1%	5	6.101
RAAWU - Researchers, Academician and Allied Workers Union	10,832	47%	1%	4	2.413
TALGWU - Tanzania Local Government Workers Union	72,288	64%	9%	2	24.364
TAMICO - Tanzania Mines, Energy and Construction Workers Union	20,826 *	82%	2%	18	37.022
TEWUTA - Telecommunication Workers Union of Tanzania	2,360 *	81%	0%	7	23.900
TPAWU - Tanzania Plantation and Agricultural Workers Union	68,133 *	75%	8%	186	44.161
TRAWU - Tanzania Railways Workers Union	7,987	73%	1%	6	4390
TUGHE - Trade Union of Government and Health Workers	61,279	68%	7%	11	9357
TUICO - Tanzania Union of Industrial and Commercial Workers	98,299 *	55%	12%	127	29.315
TASU – Tanzania Seafarer Union	4,204 *	98%	0.5%	4	516
Independent unions *	14,106	-	100%	-	-
TFCAWU - Tanzania Fishing Crew and Allied Workers' Union	2,400	-	17%	-	-
TUJ - Tanzania Union of Journalists	150	-	1%	-	-
TAFIMU	573	-	4%	-	-
IGWUTA	676	-	5%	-	-
TASIWU - Tanzania Social Services Industry Workers Union **	2,851	-	20%	-	-
TUPSE - Tanzania Union of Private Security Employees **	1,102	-	8%	-	-
MPETU	303	-	2%	-	-
FIBUCA	4,508	-	32%	-	-
PRIPPAWUTA	361	-	3%	-	-
NUMET	1,182	-	8%	-	-

* The trade union's share of organised workers from the informal economy: TAMICO of 1.9%, TEWUTA of 9.0%, TPAWU of 0.2%, TUICO of 28%, and TASU of 1.4%. ** TASIWU and TUPSE are underway to join TUCTA.

Note: TUCTA reported a total membership rate of 1.2 million members in 2023, but an updated list of affiliated trade unions membership rates was not available.

Source: TUCTA; DTDA data-collection tool, 2019/2020.

Table 14: Zanzibar's status of trade unions and number of CBAs and their coverage, 2023

Trade unions	Members	Women share	Informal workers	No. of CBAs	Workers covered by CBAs
COTWU-ZNZ - Zanzibar Communication and Transport Workers' Union	1,768	754	2,109	4	580
ZASU - Zanzibar Seafarers Union	2,016	24	-	-	-
TUICO-Z - Zanzibar Union of Industrial and commercial Workers	1,412	721	658	2	76
ZUPHE - Zanzibar Union for Public and Health employees	2,372	1,244	-	-	-
CHODAWU-Z - Zanzibar Conservation, Hotel, Domestic and Allied Workers' Union	1,378	331	69	4	238
ZATU - Zanzibar Teachers' Union	4,703	2,452	-	-	-
ZAFICOWU - Zanzibar Financial and Commercial Workers Union	964	248	112	3	2,100
ZAPSWU - Zanzibar Public sector Workers Union	2,557	1,004	-	2	73
Total	17,170	6,778	2,948	15	3,067

Source: ZATUC; Danish Trade Union Development Agency's Sub-Regional Office data-collection.

Table 15: Minimum Wages, Mainland & Zanzibar, Per Month, TZS & US\$, Nominal & Real growth, 2023-current

Minimum wage scales	TZS	US\$	Nominal growth, 2013-2023	Real growth, 2013-2023
Mainland				
Health Services	195,000	80	50%	-2%
Trade, Industries and Commercial Services	150,000	62	30%	-22%
Trade, Industries and Commercial Services - Financial Institutions	592,000	244	48%	-4%
Agricultural Services	140,000	58	40%	-12%
Fishing and Marine Services	238,000	98	19%	-33%
Communication Services - Telecommunication Services	500,000	206	25%	-27%
Communication Services - Broadcasting and Mass Media, Postal and Courier Services	225,000	93	50%	-2%
Energy Services - Small companies	225,000	93	50%	-2%
Energy Services - International Companies	592,000	244	48%	-4%
Domestic and Hospital Services - Potential and Tourists hotel	300,000	124	20%	-32%
Domestic and Hospital Services - Other domestic workers	40,000	17	0%	-52%
Private school services - Nursery, Primary and Secondary schools	207,000	85	48%	-5%
Transport services - Aviation Services	390,000	161	30%	-22%
Transport services - Inland Transport	300,000	124	50%	-2%
Construction services - Contractor Class I	420,000	173	29%	-23%
Construction services - Contractors Class V-VII	320,000	132	28%	-24%
Private security services - Small companies	148,000	61	48%	-4%
Private security services - International or potential security Companies	222,000	92	48%	0%
Mining - Brokers licenses	250,000	103	25%	-27%
Mining - Mining and prospecting licenses	500,000	206	25%	-27%
Other sectors not mentioned above	150,000	62	50%	-2%
Zanzibar				
Public Sector	300,000	124	0%	-52%

Note: Mainland Tanzania's represented minimum wages is not fully comprehensive but concentrated at the highest and lowest scales.

Source: WageIndicator.org, Minimum Wage – Tanzania, July 2024.

Table 16: Tanzania's Median Monthly Incomes (TZS) of Persons Aged 15+ by Types of Employment, Sex and Area, 2020/21

		Male	Women	Total
URT	Paid Employees	300,000	280,000	300,000
	Self-Employment	169,500	120,000	150,000
	Agriculture	100,000	64,000	83,500
	Total	250,000	176,000	230,000
TZM	Paid Employees	300,000	273,230	300,000
	Self-Employment	168,000	120,000	150,000
	Agriculture	100,000	64,000	82,500
	Total	245,500	179,170	230,000
ZNZ	Paid Employees	300,000	317,000	300,000
	Self-Employment	246,000	74,000	145,000
	Agriculture	130,000	67,000	104,000
	Total	340,000	135,000	240,000

Source: National Bureau of Statistics and the Office of the Chief Government Statistician – Zanzibar, ILFS 2020/21.

Table 17: United Republic of Tanzania's key workforce data, 2021

Indicator	Value
Working Age Population	32 million
Employed	75%
Unemployed	7.7%
Inactive	17%
Employed share	
Urban	27%
Rural	73%
Public	2.8%
Private	26% *
Employed by aggregated sector share	
Agriculture	65%
Industry	8.2%
Service	27%

* Excluding agriculture and household activities.

Source: Tanzania 2021 Labour Force Survey.

Table 18: Tanzania - Scores for Women, Business and the Law, 2024

Mobility	Workplace	Pay	Marriage	Parenthood	Entrepreneurship	Assets	Pension	Index score
100	100	100	80	60	75	60	75	81

Note: Overall scores are calculated by taking the average of each indicator, with 100 representing the highest possible score.

Source: The World Bank, Tanzania: Women, Business and the Law 2024.

Table 19: Proportion of population covered by social protection systems and health in Tanzania and sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), %, latest year *

Indicator	Tanzania	SSA ***
Population covered by at least one social protection benefit	11% *	11%
Persons above retirement age receiving a pension	6.0% *	11%
Persons with severe disabilities collecting disability social protection benefits	0.6% **	2.6%
Unemployed receiving unemployment benefits	11% *	0.7%
Mothers with newborns receiving maternity benefits	1.4% *	7.8%
Employed covered in the event of work injury	3.8% *	8.5%
Children/households receiving child/family cash benefits	-	6.6%
Poor persons covered by social protection systems	35% *	-
Vulnerable persons covered by social assistance	9.3% *	6.7%
SDG 3.8.1: Universal health coverage, % of population	43% *	-

* Data from 2021. ** Data from 2019. *** Data from 2020.

Source: International Labour Organisation, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM); World Health Organization, Coverage of essential health services (SDG 3.8.1) (%).

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