2009 Domestic Violence Against Women in the Lake Zone, Tanzania:
Prevalence and Responses of Local Government Authorities

Jodie Ellenor, Kellie Gray, Masele Ramadhan, Koreshi Adamson
KIVULINI WOMEN'S RIGHTS ORGANIZATION
2009

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

ABOUT KIVULINI

What is Kivulini?

Kivulini Women's Rights Organization is a registered non-governmental organization based in Mwanza, Tanzania. The word Kivulini, translated from Kiswahili, means "in the shade". It implies a place of safety, under a tree or otherwise a shade, where people meet for discussions and offer support to one another.

What is our vision?

Kivulini would like to see communities free from domestic violence in which women's rights are respected and valued.

What do we do?

Kivulini is committed to empowering women by working with communities to create an environment of safety, equality and respect. We are mobilizing men and women to prevent domestic violence by raising awareness, facilitating dialogues and advocating change.

Acknowledgements

ISBN 9987 8955 1 5

Kivulini Women's Rights Organization
PO Box 11348, Mwanza, Tanzania
Email: kivulini@admin.org
Registered SO NO: 10151

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abbreviations:

CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women
CBO	Community Based Organization
CSO	Civil Society Organization
DEVAW	Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women

DV   domestic violence
MKUKUTA   The National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty
SV   sexual violence
WHO   World Health Organization
UN   United Nations
VAW   violence against women

Chapter 1

Introduction to Women's Rights in Tanzania

- International Agreements
- Progress in Tanzania
- Prevalence of Violence Against Women
- Domestic Violence in Tanzania
- Current Study

1.0 – INTRODUCTION

Violence against women (VAW), as defined by the United Nations (UN) is "any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life". (UN, 2003). In this definition, gender-based violence refers to, "violence that is directed at a woman because she is a woman, or affects women disproportionately."(IRIN, 2004) The UN definition encompasses all forms of violence which transpire during any period of the life cycle. (For a list of the various forms of VAW and their respective definitions, please refer to appendix 8.1).

> *"Violence against women is any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life"*

1.1– INTERNATIONAL AGREEMENTS

VAW is becoming increasingly recognized among the international community as an issue which deserves serious attention. In 1995, the UN 4th World Conference on Women identified VAW as 1 of 4 areas that required critical action.

There are a number of international documents which address VAW. The Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women (DEVAW) expanded on the concept of VAW by indicating that it occurs within the 3 domains of the family, the community and the State. The DEVAW also highlighted that everyone has a role and responsibility in eradicating VAW. The UN General Assembly, through the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) recognized the injustices women experience and emphasized women's rights to non-discrimination, education and opportunities, political participation, employment and health.
The CEDAW also declared that a special report should be conducted on VAW, its causes and its consequences. This institutional mechanism gave way for in-depth review and reporting by countries on the status of VAW.
The Beijing Platform for Action consolidated all of these gains by declaring that VAW has an impact on all aspects of development, equality and peace and is a violation of women's fundamental rights and freedoms (United Nations, 2005). The African Union Protocol on the Rights of Women also has a number of clauses on violence against women.

1.2– PROGRESS IN TANZANIA

Tanzania has made some positive responses to the issues of gender equality. The Tanzanian government has signed and ratified the CEDAW. By signing the CEDAW, the Tanzanian government is required to report the steps taken to protect women's rights. In addition, the government has heard the outcries of the public and civil society organizations (CSO) regarding the need to review, change and repeal some of the outdated and

unfavorable laws impeding the rights of women and girls. The progress which Tanzania has made to address VAW includes:

The creation of the National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (MKUKUTA). MUKUKUTA contains several goals, targets and strategies which specifically address women's issues. Namely, to improve the quality of life and increase the protection of rights for the poorest and most vulnerable groups and to eradicate domestic violence (DV) and sexual violence (SV). As a strategy of attaining these targets the document indicates, "Government and other key actors will scale up the fight against all forms of abuse, including... discrimination against women and children and other vulnerable groups" (Government of Tanzania, 2005. p. 52)

The establishment of the Ministry of Community Development, Gender and Children

The replacement of an inappropriate policy with the Women Development and Gender Policy (2000)

The dissemination of Kiswahili versions of CEDAW, the Beijing Platform for Action, the SADC Gender and Development Declaration

The development of monitoring indicators for CEDAW implementation

The affirmative action in Parliament supporting women comprising 30.0 – 33.3% of the local government

The Law Reform Commission was established in Tanzania in the early 1990 which had a mandate of reviewing laws associated with the Constitution and Bills of Rights. Twelve laws were presented to the National Assembly for review or change.   However, of these laws, only 4 have been passed by the National Assembly to date: The Sexual Offences (Special Provisions) Act of 1998; The Village Land Act No. 4 of 1999; The Village Act of 1999; The Marriage Act.

These responses are the first steps in ending Domestic Violence (DV). They serve to show that the state is concerned about the protection of its citizen's rights and that measures to defend these rights have been made. However, on its own, legislation is ineffective and perhaps even insignificant. In reality, there is a huge disparity between having the laws in place and ensuring that they reach the majority of the population in rural and urban areas.

1.3– PREVALENCE OF VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN

The prevalence of VAW internationally has been determined by few multi-country studies, many of which used non-standardized study design and tools. These studies found that between 15% and 52% of ever-partnered women had experienced Physical Violence (PV) from their partners (Heise 1994, WHD/FRH/WHO 1997, Kishor and Johnson, 2004). The WHO Multi-Country Study, which employed a standardized methodology across countries,

found that between 13% and 61% of ever-partnered women had experienced DV from their partner and between 15% and 71% of ever-partnered women had suffered from physical and/or SV from their partner during their lifetime (Garcia-Moreno et al, 2005).

DV is also prevalent throughout Tanzanian society, mostly because it is considered an acceptable practice. According to the WHO study, Tanzania has high rates of DV (Garcia-Moreno et al, 2005). The research revealed that approximately 41.3% of women from urban Tanzanian (Dar es Salaam) and 55.9% of women from rural Tanzania (Mbeya district) had experienced either physical or sexual violence from their partner,or both. The WHO study also demonstrated that women in Tanzania currently take very few actions to address the DV they face; approximately 1 out of every 3 women who had experienced DV told no one about their experience, and 60% of all women experiencing violence had never sought help from any formal service or authority. The majority of women remain in violent relationships because leaving would mean losing their homes income, other property and/or their children (Garcia-Moreno et al, 2005).

1.4- DOMESTIC VIOLENCE IN TANZANIA

Analysis of intimate partnerships in Tanzania, reveals not only high incidences of DV against women but that this violence emerges from the deeper cultural assumptions about women and their worth within relationships, families and communities. Consequently, the family, which has been regarded previously as the "ideal basic unit of society" where there is support, love, understanding and care, is becoming the most oppressive including serious violence, hostility, and conflict - sometimes tolerated over a long period of years.

The patriarchal system which prevails in Tanzania undoubtedly contributes to the marginalization of women in the home and in society. Patriarchy exposes women to discrimination through harmful traditions, practices and ideologies. Stereotypes also reinforce the conviction that men are the leaders of the family and have the right to control women. As a result, women in Tanzania conventionally hold subordinate positions within the family and unequal power relations commonly exist between husband and wife. Women are expected to show obedience and respect to their husbands and hold little decision making power.   The myth that women should be subordinate to men is one of the underlying causes of DV against women and has led many to view violence as a normal part of an intimate relationship (Tanzania Gender Networking Program & Macro International, 2007). Widespread gender inequality and women's low status means they are vulnerable to DV which, in turn, creates a vulnerability to a host of negative health and quality of life outcomes.

The people primarily responsible for representing the Tanzanian government at local community levels are local leaders known as street leaders. These are non-paid persons who are elected by community members. They are widely respected and trusted by community members. Street leaders are responsible for dealing with all issues which arise within their communities and for creating and maintaining peace within the streets. They are often the first support person contacted in

Chapter 2

Methodology

- o The measure

issues of DV.

1.5 CURRENT STUDY

Given the commitment that the Tanzanian government has made to upholding gender equality, and the recent policy and legal initiatives that have been made to benefit women, it becomes imperative to gain an understanding of the extent to which the local leaders and other government authorities are working to address DV within their communities. However, to date, there has been no known research which has examined the effectiveness or extent to which local government authorities in Tanzania address issues of DV,

As a result, Kivulini Women's Rights Organization conducted a study to examine the following:
- The existing framework within which local government authorities respond to DV
- The deficits in institutional capacity and gaps in knowledge and skills of local government leaders when responding to DV
- The help seeking behavior of women who have experienced DV
- Women's perception of the roles of local government leaders in the prevention of DV.

2.0 METHODOLOGY

2.1 – THE MEASURE

Two tools were developed to gather information in relation to the research objectives. One questionnaire was developed for use with street leaders, while the other was created for use with women. The questionnaires were adapted from the WHO Violence Against Women Instrument and the Demographic Health Survey DV Module (Garcia-Moreno et al, 2005; Kishor & Johnson, 2004) to suit the needs of this study. The questionnaires were originally written in English and were translated by a team into Kiswahili. The questionnaire was pre-tested to ensure its validity.
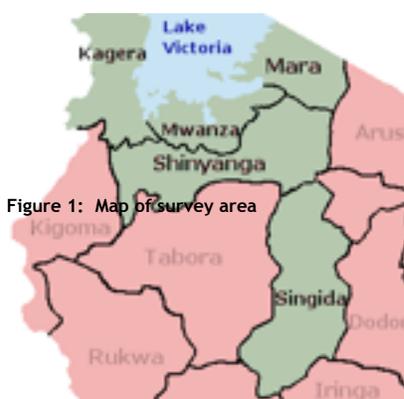
Figure 1: Map of survey area

2.2 – STUDY AREA AND STUDY POPULATION

The catchment area for this study included four of the Lake Victoria regions; namely, Mwanza, Mara, Kagera and Shinyanga, as well as the region of Singida (See figure 1 for a map of the survey area). Appendix 8.2 contains more information about the characteristics of these regions. Within the 5 regions surveyed, there are a total of 641 districts (510 being rural, 92 being mixed and 39 being urban[i]), and an estimated population of over 4,182,299 females (Government of Tanzania, 2002). It is also estimated that there are a total of 4,000 street leaders in these 5 regions. In order to obtain a sample representative of the population, multistage and cluster sampling was used. For the first phase, random sampling was used to select every 20th rural district, and every 21st urban district[ii]. As depicted in Figure 2, 27% of the surveyed population were from urban areas, which is proportionate to the number of urban regions in the survey area. In the second phase, systematic sampling was used to select 2 clusters (village or other)
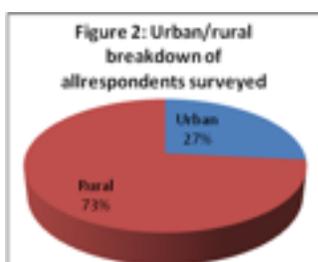
Figure 2: Urban/rural breakdown of all respondents surveyed

Survey Regions	Number of leaders	Percent (%)	Number of women	Percent (%)
MWANZA	34	23.6	118	20.8
SHINYANGA	26	18.1	119	21.0
MARA	24	16.7	98	17.3
SINGIDA	29	20.1	101	17.8
KAGERA	31	21.5	132	23.2

within the selected districts. Women and street leaders were then selected by street leaders within each cluster. Figure 3 indicates the distribution of all survey respondents across survey regions and table 1 displays the breakdown of leaders and women surveyed by region. Please refer to appendix 8.3 for information on the specific districts and streets/villages surveyed in this study.

Surveys were distributed orally to selected respondents. Quantitative data was entered into a database and analyzed for relevant correlations and statistical significance using SPSS. Qualitative data from FGDs was translated into English and given to the research coordinator for analysis. The data was be broken down by codes and themes and results were deduced.

2.3 – CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

Figure 4: Tribes of leaders surveyed
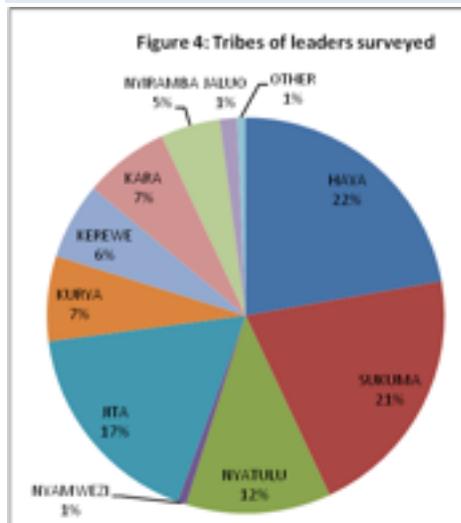
Tribes:
Figures 4 and 5 display the breakdown of tribes for the leaders and women surveyed. Interestingly, the leaders surveyed came from only 11 different tribes, while the women surveyed represented a total of 19 tribes. Among both survey populations, Sukuma, Haya and Nyatulu tribes had the highest representation.

Education Level:
Figures 6 and 7 display the education level of the respondents surveyed. Among the women surveyed, 10% had not received any level of education. A large majority (75–78%) of both leader and female respondents had only received a primary level of education.

Other Characteristics of Street Leaders Surveyed:

➤ AGE: 14% of the street leaders surveyed are 30 years of age or younger, 74% of the leaders are between 31–59 years of age, and 12% are 60 years of age or older.

➤ NUMBER OF YEARS IN COMMUNITY: 19% of the street leaders surveyed have lived in their respective communities for 10 years or less, 21% of the street leaders have lived in their community for between 11–30 years, while 60% street leaders have been living in their community for more than 30 years.

➤ YEARS ELECTED: 6% of the leaders were elected over 20 years ago, 22% of the street leaders were elected during the 1990's and 72% of the leaders surveyed were elected in the past 8 years.

➤ MARITAL STATUS: 96% of the leaders surveyed have been/are married, and 95% of leaders are currently living with their wife/partner.

➤ NUMBER OF WIVES: 80% of the leaders who have been/are married have one wife, while 18.2% have 2 wives, and 1% of the leaders surveyed have 3 – 12 wives.

➤ BRIDE PRICE: 92% of the marriages of the street

Figure 3: Respondents surveyed by region

Figure 6: Education level of leaders surveyed

Figure 7: Education level of women surveyed
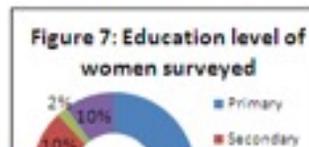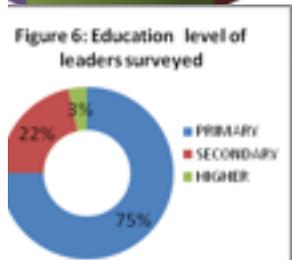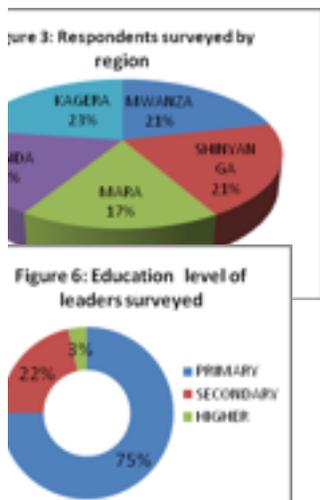
leaders involved bride price.

Other Characteristics of Women Surveyed:

- AGE: 37% of the women surveyed were 30 years of age or younger, 59% were between 31–59 years of age and 5% were 60 years of age or older.
- NUMBER OF YEARS IN COMMUNITY: 38% of the women surveyed have been living in their community for 10 years or less, 27% have lived there between 11–30 years, 5 % have been living in their community for more than 30 years, and 31% have been living in their respective communities all their lives.
- MARITAL STATUS: 80% of the women surveyed are married, 5.5% are widowed, 2.5% are divorced, 6.5% are separated and 5.5% have never been married.
- NUMBER OF CHILDREN: 21% of women surveyed did not have children, 27% of women surveyed had one child, 25% had 2 children, 12% had 3 children and 15% had 4 or more children, up to a total of 12 children.
- NUMBER OF MARRIAGES: 90% of women surveyed had been married once, 9.5% had been married twice, and the remaining 0.5% had been married more than 2 times.
- BRIDE PRICE: 74.4% of the marriages involved bride price.
- FORM OF INCOME: 45% of women surveyed obtained income from farming, 44% obtained income from small business, 7% obtained income from their husbands, 3% of women surveyed were professionals, and the remaining women obtained income from being a teacher, seamstress, domestic worker or other means.

2.4 – LIMITATIONS

It is likely that the rates of DV are higher than that represented in this study. Although care was taken to ensure that confidentiality and safety were promoted throughout the survey, it is possible that respondents may have chosen not to disclose experiences of abuse. For example, some women responded that they did not experience DV by their partner and yet indicated people in the community that they turned to for help about these issues. It is also possible that some respondents did not realize that a particular treatment is actually properly classified as abuse. The data is subject to the reporter biases of social desirability and the respondents' ability to recall accurate information.

Chapter 3

Part 1: Prevalence of Domestic Violence and Attitudes Regarding Women's Rights

- Prevalence of intimate partner violence

- Opinions regarding the rights and freedoms of women

3.1 – PREVALENCE OF INTIMATE PARTNER VIOLENCE
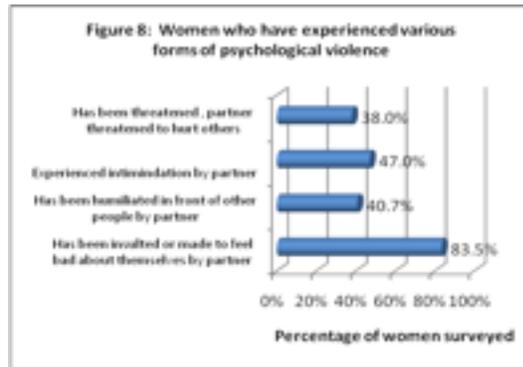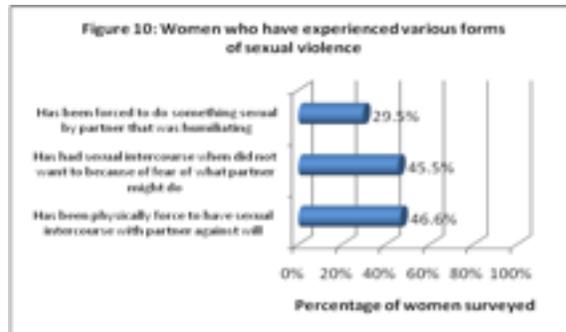
In order to gain an understanding of the magnitude of intimate partner violence faced by the women in the survey areas, the prevalence of emotional (psychological), physical and sexual violence was ascertained (See Appendix 8.1 for definitions of each type of violence). Figure 8, 9 and 10 contain the response rates for each type of violence. Of the women surveyed, a total of 85% had experienced some form of psychological violence. The most common form of emotional violence experienced by women (84.5%) was being insulted by their partner. There was also a high number of women (38%) whose husbands threatened to hurt either them or others. This is concerning given that these threats could have actually translated into behaviour. Of the women surveyed, 56.2% had also experienced some form of physical violence. The most common form of physical abuse experienced by women is being slapped or having a dangerous object thrown at them (53% of respondents). The rates of sexual violence among the women surveyed was 47.8%. A total of 46.6% of women indicated that they had been forced to have sex with their partner against their will.

Figure 8: Women who have experienced various forms of psychological violence

- Has been threatened , partner threatened to hurt others — 38.0%
- Experienced intimidation by partner — 47.0%
- Has been humiliated in front of other people by partner — 40.7%
- Has been insulted or made to feel bad about themselves by partner — 83.5%

Percentage of women surveyed

Figure 10: Women who have experienced various forms of sexual violence

- Has been forced to do something sexual by partner that was humiliating — 29.5%
- Has had sexual intercourse when did not want to because of fear of what partner might do — 45.5%
- Has been physically force to have sexual intercourse with partner against will — 46.6%

Percentage of women surveyed

When looking at the rates of violence based on the surveyed area, it was found that 57.0% of women in urban districts and 65.8% of women in rural districts had experienced some form of sexual or physical abuse. Analysis revealed that women from rural districts were significantly more likely to experience abuse then those from urban districts (p=.015).

The prevalence rates of intimate partner violence found in this study are higher than the rates obtained by the WHO study (Garcia-Moreno et al, 2005). In urban Tanzania (Dar es Salaam), the WHO study found that 41.3% of women had experienced either physical or sexual violence or both from their partner; this study found that rate to be 57.0%. The rates of intimate partner violence in rural areas also differed between studies. The WHO study obtained a rate of 55.9% of rural women experiencing either physical and/or sexual violence from their partner while this study found that 65.5% of rural women experienced physical and/or sexual violence (Garcia-Moreno et al, 2005).

Although the reasons between the variability between studies is inconclusive, it is possible that the rates of intimate partner violence are dependent on location in Tanzania, given that each study was conducted on opposite

...to have experienced various forms of physical violence

- ...gun, knife or ...by partner — 29.5%
- ...a purpose by — 27.1%
- ...beaten up by — 41.8%
- ...a dangerous — 20.8%
- ...air pulled by — 46.8%
- ...erous objects ...ther — 53.0%

Percentage of women surveyed
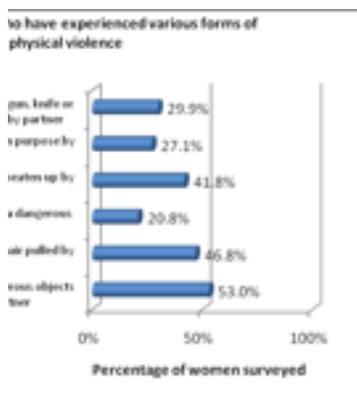
Fast Facts – Rates of Intimate Partner Violence

ends of the country. The WHO study was conducted primarily in Dar es Salaam and Mbeya district, while this study focused on the Lake Zone regions on the other side of the country. Other factors which may have contributed to the differences include the year the study was conducted, the manner in which the information was gathered, and the level of comfort women had with the surveyor. The differences between study outcomes cannot be attributed to study tools, as the same questions for determining rates of violence were used in both studies.

The high rates of intimate partner violence, including physical and sexual violence suggest that violence against women continues to be an acceptable part of Tanzanian culture. Even among violent behaviours which are considered to be more severe, such as 'threatening or using a weapon against women or others', or 'being kicked/dragged or beaten' have unacceptably high rates of occurrence.

– OPINIONS ON WOMEN'S RIGHTS

The following section explores the opinions of both women and street leaders on questions pertaining to the rights and freedoms of women. Each graph explores a different set of issues; namely, women's rights, situations in which a wife can be beaten, and the view of women who conduct business.

Figure 11 depicts women and leaders' responses to statements regarding the rights of women. Examination of the graph reveals that in all statements, more leaders than women were in accord with the concept of women's rights. More women (36.4%) than street leaders (16.2%) felt that a wife is obligated to have sex with her husband regardless of her mood. In addition, 56.3% of women felt that it was important for a man to show his wife who was the boss and 60.7% of women felt that a good wife obeys her husband regardless of her opinion, versus 33.8% and 33.1% of street leaders respectively. Another pertinent result is that only 27.1% of women felt that they had the right to choose their own friends regardless of their spouses' opinion. It appears that both women and leaders have more awareness of

Figure 11: Percentage of women and leaders who agree with the statements on women's rights issue
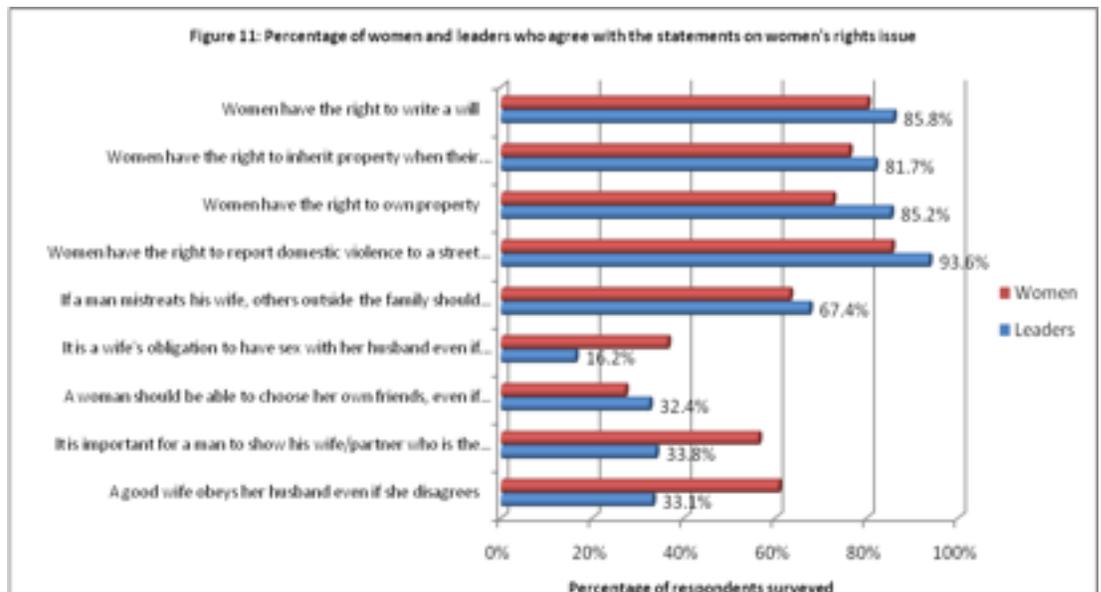
women's legal rights; between 72.5–80.1% of women and 81.7–85.8% of street leaders indicated that women had the right to inherit and own property and write a will.

Figure 12 indicates the percentage of leaders and women surveyed who agreed with the statements about when a man has a right to beat his wife. With the exception of the following statements: She asks whether he has other girls friends, and she suspects that he is unfaithful, more women than the leaders indicated that women deserved to be beaten. **Overall, 20–54% of the women and 12–38% of street leaders surveyed noted that husbands have the right to beat their wives under certain circumstances**. The events in which the most women and street leaders felt that women deserved to be beaten included: when a wife disobeyed her husband, when the husband had determined that his wife has been unfaithful and when a woman leaves her house without informing her husband.

Figure 13 displays the views of both women and street leader respondents about women who conduct businesses. As the graph indicates, more leaders than women surveyed have a negative view of women who conduct business. Between 49%–54% of street leaders affirmed the negative behaviour and attitudes of women who conduct business, while only 29%–36% of women surveyed had negative opinions of women who conduct

Figure 12: Opinion of women and leaders on when a husband has the right to beat his wife

Figure 13: Opinion of women and leaders on characteristics of women who conduct business
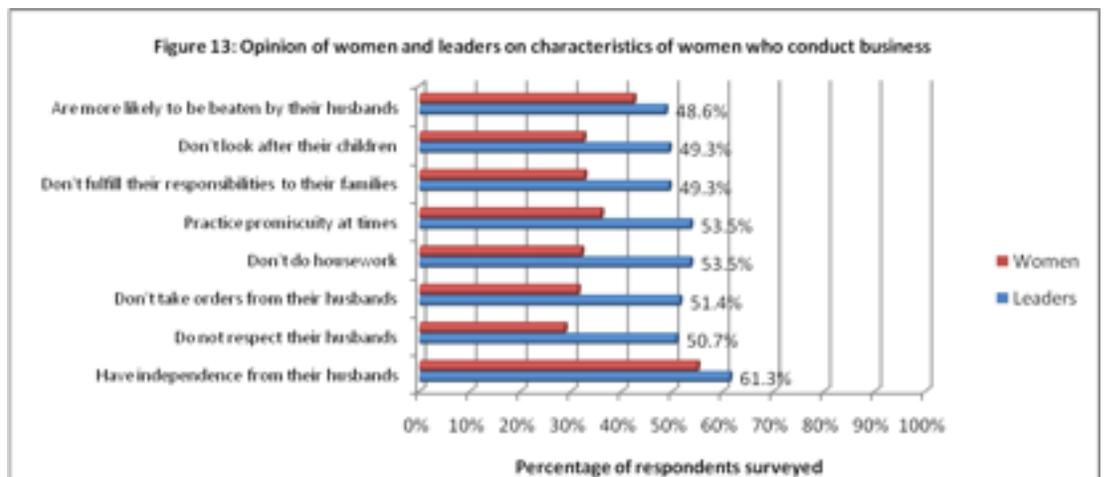
business. Another result that is of particular concern is that **42.4% of women and 48.6% of leaders felt that women who conduct businesses are at risk of experiencing DV**.

Discussion

When interpreting the opinions of both the leaders and the women surveyed, the question of what is culturally appropriate in this context cannot be ignored.   As discussed in section 1.4, patriarchal and cultural views impact what is deemed acceptable behaviour in Tanzania. The results of this survey suggest that physical abuse is an acceptable part of the culture and lifestyle in the Lake Zone and Singida regions. The view that women deserve to be beaten seems to be a typical and embedded part of the thinking among both the women and the street leaders surveyed. The data also suggests that women conducting business have a negative image among leaders, and even other women in the community. However, there is a fine line between what is culturally appropriate and the fundamental and universal rights of women. Although the opinions of both the women and leaders surveyed can be seen through a cultural lens and therefore rationalized; the core belief that a woman deserves to be beaten is fundamentally flawed from a rights-based perspective.

The negative opinions of women who conduct business holds significance given that 44% of the women surveyed obtain their income by running small business.   It also appears that conducting a business places women at risk for experiencing DV. The overwhelmingly negative view held by street leader respondents about women who conduct business in comparison to women's opinions suggests that there is a need to shift the thinking among community leaders as well as the community itself about women conducting businesses.

Chapter 4

Results: The help seekin[g] behaviour of women who have experienced domes[tic] violence

- ○ *Access to support from community resources*

- ○ *Support from street leade[rs]*

---

i   For the purposes of this survey, mixed districts will be classified as urban distric[t] individuals living in the rural areas of mixed districts have easy access to the urban cent[er] culture.

ii   Obtaining approximately 20% of the women respondents from urban areas provi[de] proportionate to the populations, given that approximately 15% of women live in urban a[reas]

Figure 14: Type of support accessed by women who experience domestic violence

This section explores the common supports accessed from the community by women who have experienced any form of DV. It also presents women's ratings of the effectiveness of these supports.

A total of 78.8% of women surveyed indicated that women's groups exist within their respective communities, and 45.6% of women confirmed the existence of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) or community based organizations (CBOs) which address women's rights. Interestingly, 18.2% of women indicated that the community's response to the women's groups in their community was negative, while 21.8% of women felt that the community responded negatively to NGOs and CBOs. Despite the widespread existence of women's groups and NGOs/CBOs within the community, women are not very likely to seek support from these social services. Only 2.4% of women surveyed indicated that they sought support for issues of DV from NGOs or CBOs, and fewer women (1%) noted that they sought support from women's groups (See figure 14).
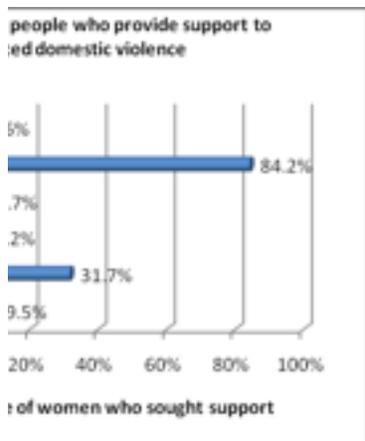
Figure 14 depicts the type of people in the community that women speak to about their experiences of violence. As shown, parents are the most common type of support[iii] accessed (70.1% of women stated this), while a substantial portion of respondents indicated that they accessed other family members for support (husband's family, brother, sister, aunt, uncle). Many women respondents stated that they sought support from government representatives, with 23.2% of women indicating that they would access street leaders for support, 14.5% indicated they would access a 10-cell leader and 12.4% stating they would access support from their ward executive officer. Very few women (1.9% – 5.9%) reported that they would turn to the police, health professions, counselors, or the social welfare office for support.

Figure 15 indicates the responses of the people that women spoke to about their husbands' abusive behaviour. The majority of women (84.2%) indicated that the support they sought

out has provided them with useful assistance. The second most common response (31.7%) was that their partner's behaviour was normalized by the people that women spoke to about the abuse. Only 4.6% of women indicated that they would take the issue to the street leader. There were a small portion of women who felt that the support they accessed either did not listen to them, had a negative response toward them, or had no response at all (between 6.2%–9.5% of responses).

Discussion:

Family and friends were shown to play a large role in supporting and comforting women who have experienced DV. Outside of this, government authorities were the second type of support commonly accessed by women, though fewer women appear to access this service. Community groups and NGOs/CBOs seem to be grossly underused by women in the community despite the fact that the majority of women were aware of the existence of these supports. The opinion held by many women is that the community held a negative view of women's groups and CBOs/NGOs may have impacted women's willingness to seek access these supports.

Although the women felt that the majority of people they spoke to about their experiences of DV were supportive in nature, the results also indicate that some of the people they turned to were actually unconstructive by not listening, or providing a negative response. The fact that approximately 32% of support accessed would normalize the husband's abusive behaviour also suggests that DV has a level of acceptability within the survey communities[iv].

4.2 – SUPPORT FROM STREET LEADERS

In this section, the manner through which support from street leaders is accessed by women is examined. Responses from street leaders and women are included.
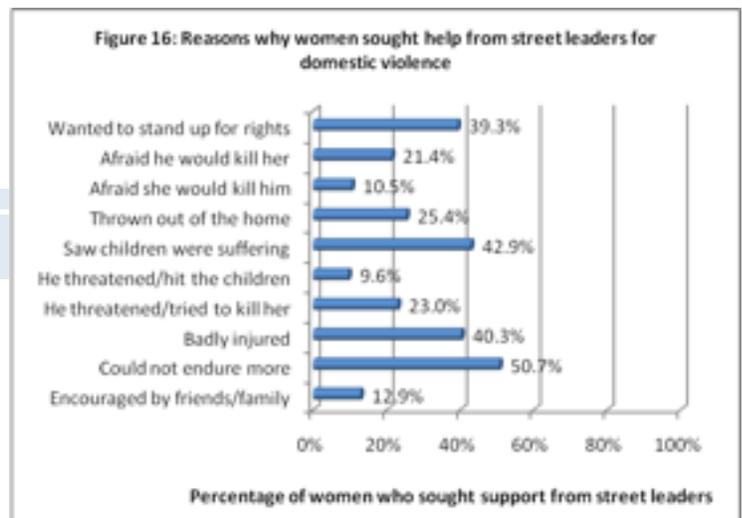
Figure 16 depicts the reasons indicated the women surveyed as to why they sought help from their street leaders[v]. The most common reason for seeking help was that women were pushed to their breaking point and could not endure more violence (50.7% of respondents). Other common

Figure 16: Reasons why women sought help from street leaders for domestic violence

Wanted to stand up for rights — 39.3%
Afraid he would kill her — 21.4%
Afraid she would kill him — 10.5%
Thrown out of the home — 25.4%
Saw children were suffering — 42.9%
He threatened/hit the children — 9.6%
He threatened/tried to kill her — 23.0%
Badly injured — 40.3%
Could not endure more — 50.7%
Encouraged by friends/family — 12.9%

Percentage of women who sought support from street leaders

responses included seeing that their children were suffering (42.9%), being badly injured (40.3%), and wanting to stand up for their rights (39.3%).
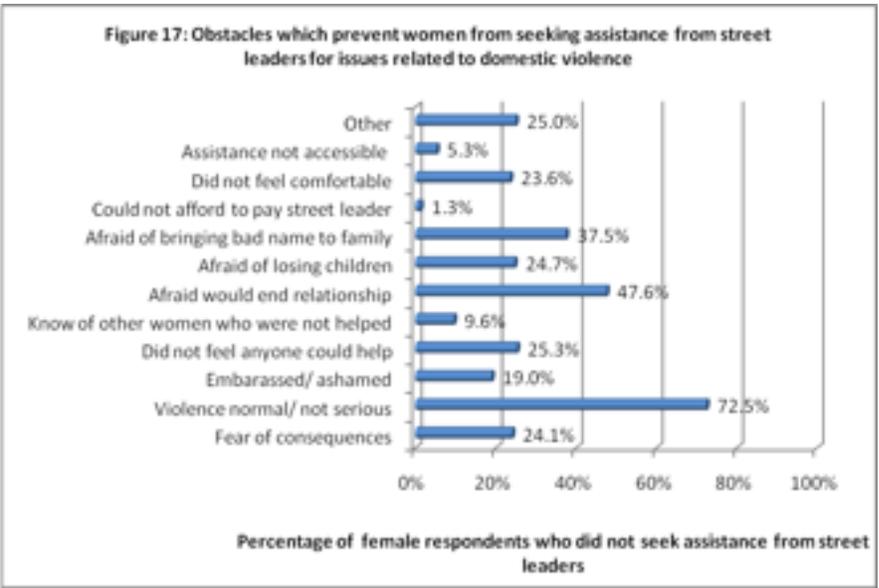
Figure 17 illustrates the obstacles identified by the women respondents that prevent them from seeking assistance from street leaders for issues related to DV. The primary reason stated for not seeking assistance was that women felt that the violence was normal, or not serious enough to warrant attention (72.5%). The other major reason that women chose not to access street leader support was fear that such an action would end their relationship with their spouse (47.6%). Other main barriers to accessing services from street leaders included fear of bringing a negative reputation to the family (37.5%), not feeling that anyone could help (25.3%), fear of losing the children (24.7%), not feeling comfortable discussing the issue with a street leader (23.6%) and fear of the consequences of seeking such support (24.1%). Only 1.3% of women indicated that not being able to pay the street leader as a reason for not accessing their services.

Figure 17: Obstacles which prevent women from seeking assistance from street leaders for issues related to domestic violence

Other 25.0%
Assistance not accessible 5.3%
Did not feel comfortable 23.6%
Could not afford to pay street leader 1.3%
Afraid of bringing bad name to family 37.5%
Afraid of losing children 24.7%
Afraid would end relationship 47.6%
Know of other women who were not helped 9.6%
Did not feel anyone could help 25.3%
Embarrassed/ ashamed 19.0%
Violence normal/ not serious 72.5%
Fear of consequences 24.1%

Percentage of female respondents who did not seek assistance from street leaders

Figure 18 displays the number of women that seek support from a street leader for DV. A total of 23.2% of women surveyed indicated that they were likely to speak to street leaders about issues of abuse (figure 16), and
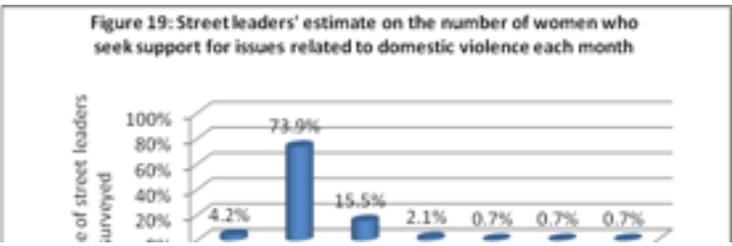
Figure 18: Percentage of women who sought assistance from street leaders for domestic violence by region

Percentage of the 490 female respondents

Mwanza 30.7%
Mara 10.5%
Singida 23.4%
Shinyanga 22.5%
Kagera 19.5%

Region

Figure 19: Street leaders' estimate on the number of women who seek support for issues related to domestic violence each month

Percentage of street leaders surveyed

4.2% 73.9% 15.5% 2.1% 0.7% 0.7% 0.7%

approximately the same percentage of women (21%) indicated that they have actually sought assistance from street leaders for issues of DV. Furthermore, 58.8% of respondents indicated that they sought assistance from street leaders once, 21.8% of women indicated they sought assistance from street leaders twice, and the remainder of respondents have sought assistance 3–10 times. A total of 81.4% of women surveyed felt that women in their community tend to seek assistance from the street leader for issues related to DV. In addition, 71.4% of women surveyed felt that women in their community seek assistance from street leaders for legal issues such as inheritance and property ownership.

According to responses obtained from the street leaders, on a weekly basis 37.1% of street leaders surveyed support up to 10 women per week for issues related to women's rights. (Appendix 8.4 contains more detailed information about the number of women seeking support from street leaders). Figure 19 describes the estimated number of women each month who seek assistance from street leaders for issues related to DV. Of the leaders surveyed, the majority (73.9%) indicated that they provided assistance to up to 10 women monthly.

Figure 20: Percentage of leaders who provide support to women for the following issues:

Issue	Percentage
Property dispute	48.2%
Inheritance	35.5%
Legal dispute	31.9%
Dispute regarding children	41.8%
Lack of child maintenance	63.8%
Marital dispute	81.6%
Sexual abuse by other	23.4%
Sexual abuse by husband	31.9%
Physical abuse by other	29.1%
Physical abuse by husband	79.4%

Percentage of street leaders surveyed

Figure 21: Top 2 issues for which women seek assistance from street leaders

Issue	Percentage
Dispute regarding children	5.1%
Legal dispute	5.8%
Lack of child maintenance	27.5%
Marital dispute	46.4%
Sexual abuse by other	.7%
Sexual abuse by husband	9.4%
Physical abuse by other	4.3%
Physical abuse by husband	55.1%

% of votes by street leaders

Figure 20 depicts the types of issues for which women seek support from street leaders, as identified by the street leader respondents, while Figure 21 displays street leaders' opinions of the top 2 issues that women seek help for. Street leaders indicated that physical abuse by their

...come of support provided by street leaders

	Percentage
Other	5.1%
...n to court	8.9%
...ive action	2.5%
Legal rights obtained	2.5%
Husband provides for children	1.3%
Abuse has stopped	12.7%
Abuse has been reduced	22.8%
Have been reconciled	10.1%
Can stand up for rights	2.5%
Know rights	3.8%
Did not help	27.8%

Percentage of women who sought support from street leaders
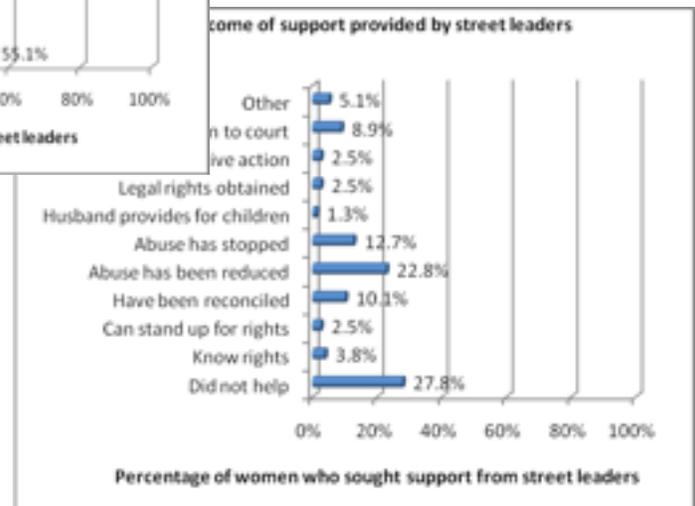
husbands (55.1%) and marital disputes (46.4%) were the most common issues for which women seek support.   Other issues about which women commonly seek support from street leaders are the lack of child maintenance, and sexual abuse by their partners.

Figure 22 displays the outcomes of the support provided by street leaders to women who have experienced DV, as indicated by the female respondents. A total of 22.8% of women felt that the abuse had decreased a result of the support, and in 12.7% of the cases, women reported that the abuse stopped. Another common outcome is that the street leader supported the women to address the issue in a legal court of law (8.9% of responses). A very concerning result is that 27.8% of the respondents felt that the support provided by the street leaders did not help.

Discussion

These results suggest that the services of the street leaders are not maximized to their full potential.   There are still a considerable number of women (approximately 80%) who experienced some degree of DV and did not access street leader support. Despite the fact that a low percentage of women who experience DV access street leader services, the overall number of women who seek support from street leaders on a regular basis is quite large.

There are several factors which were identified to contribute to the low numbers of women who seek help from street leaders. Fear of negative consequences of accessing support from street leaders was a major factor in discouraging women to seek help for issues related to DV. The comfort level of women approaching street leaders with issues of DV was also another notable barrier to service. The lack of perceived positive outcome of seeking support from street leaders may be another contributing factor to the low numbers of women who seek support from street leaders; a large number of women felt that the services offered by street leaders did not lead to any change. Also, given that two of the major reasons that women seek help from street leaders include not being able to endure more violence and being badly beaten, it seems that the DV faced by women needs to be of a severe nature in order for help to be sought from street leaders. It is therefore probable that women may be enduring DV for a long period of time before attempting to rectify the situation.

Fast Facts – Number of women s
assistance from street leaders
domestic violence

Using the upper number of women from fig
as an estimate, each of the 142 street lead
respond to issues of DV an average of 12 ti
month. That would mean that the 142 stre

Chapter 5

Results: The existing framework within which local government authorities respond to domestic violence

- o *Fee for service*
- o *Number of women seeking help*
- o *Issues for which women seek support*
- o *Type of assistance provided*
- o *Actions taken by street leaders to prevent domestic violence*

within each region who
vice

30%   39%

SINGIDA   KAGERA

n

5.1 – FEE FOR SERVICE

This section explores whether street leaders charge a fee to women who receive assistance from them. Results indicate that 38% of the street leaders surveyed charge women a fee. Figure 23 illustrates the breakdown by region of leaders who charge a fee. There was variability
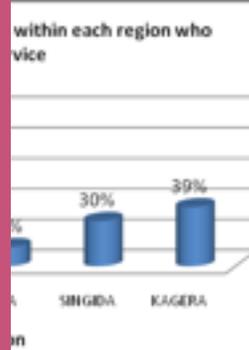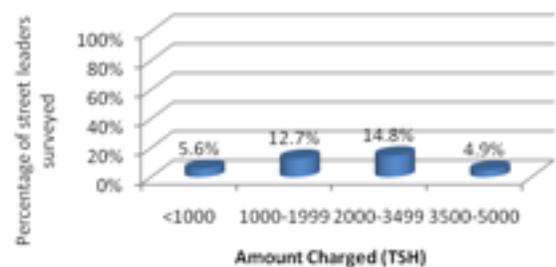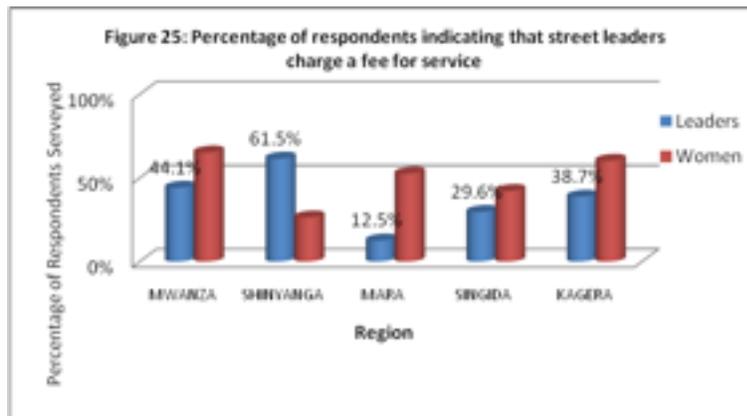

Figure 24: Amount charged by street leaders for their services

between the regions, with Shinyanga having the largest number of leaders who charged a fee (61.5%) and Mara have the lowest number of leaders who charged a fee (12.5%). It was found that street leader from rural areas were significantly more likely to charge women a fee for their services (43.2%) than street leaders from urban regions (19.4%; p=0.06). In figure 24, the amount charged by the leaders is displayed in comparison to all street leaders surveyed. Of the leaders surveyed, 28% charged anywhere between 1,000–3,499 Tanzanian shillings for their service[vi].

There is disparity between the number of street leaders who say they charge for service, and the percentage of women surveyed who stated they are charged by street leaders to access service. While only 38% of street leaders surveyed indicated that they charged a fee for service, a total of 49.8% of women surveyed noted that their respective street leader charged a fee. Figure 25 shows the comparison by region of the number of women who had stated that their street leader charged a fee, versus the street leaders from that region that indicated that they charged a fee.
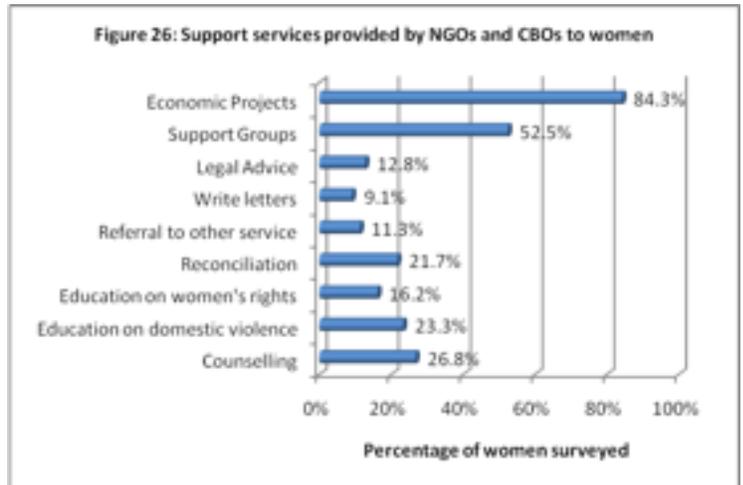

Figure 25: Percentage of respondents indicating that street leaders charge a fee for service

Discussion

It is evident that there are no standardized practices across government leaders regarding whether fees should charged for their service, or how much that fee should be. Instead, it is up to each individual leader to determine how much money their services are worth. There are a considerable number of street leaders who charge a fee for service and the fees vary in price, and are quite expensive when compared to the standard of living. The lack of standardized practice across street leaders for charging fees creates opportunities for street leaders to be biased in who they charge fees to and how much they charge. It also creates opportunity for street leaders to exploit the weaknesses and vulnerabilities of those seeking assistance by using it as a means to make profit.

The fees charged by street leaders also raise the question of the accessibility of street leaders' service to the women in the community; it seems that access to finances is essential in receiving many street leader services.   Although only 1.3% of women in this survey indicated that they could not afford to pay the street leader for service, it is likely that the fee plays a larger barrier than reported. For example, given that 7% of women surveyed were dependent on their husbands for income, it would be highly unlikely that these women would be able to obtain the money for their husbands to seek support from street leaders about abuse they are incurring from their husbands. The issue becomes even more concerning when taking into account the fact that street leaders from rural areas are

more likely to charge a fee than those in urban areas given that the rural areas are generally more impoverished than the urban regions. The fee for service may act to sustain the vicious cycle of abuse, so that women are not only oppressed by the men they are living with, but also forced into a support system which exploits their economic vulnerability.

It is interesting to note the disparity between women and street leaders regarding whether a fee is charged. Factors which may contribute to this difference include sample distribution, the fact that women and street leaders surveyed were not necessarily from corresponding streets, or honesty of street leaders. It is also possible that there are misconceptions among women in the community regarding whether a fee is actually charged. This could also be explained by fees being charged by street leaders who have more women coming to them for assistance.

Figure 26: Support services provided by NGOs and CBOs to women

Service	Percentage
Economic Projects	84.3%
Support Groups	52.5%
Legal Advice	12.8%
Write letters	9.1%
Referral to other service	11.3%
Reconciliation	21.7%
Education on women's rights	16.2%
Education on domestic violence	23.3%
Counselling	26.8%

Percentage of women surveyed

5.2 – TYPE OF ASSISTANCE PROVIDED

This section explores the specific type of support provided to women by NGOs, CBOs and street leaders.

Figure 27: Type of assistance provided by street leaders to women who have experienced domestic violence

Leaders
Women

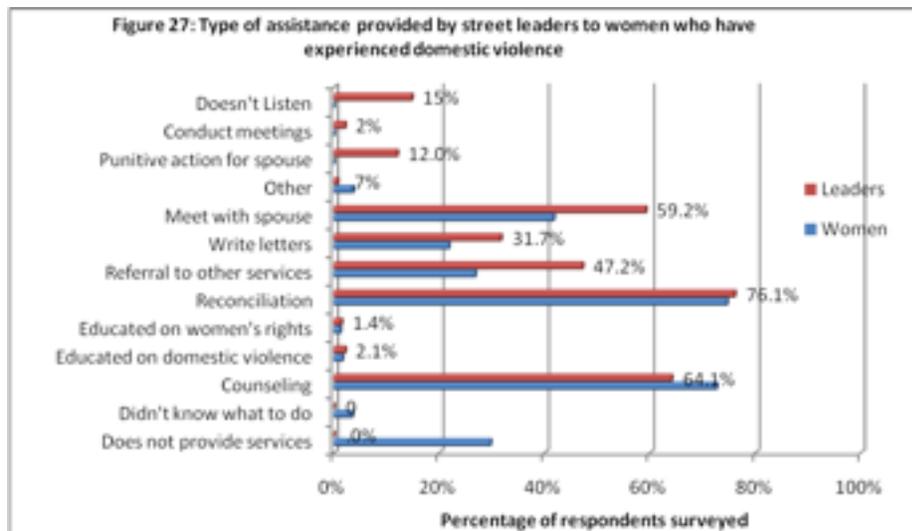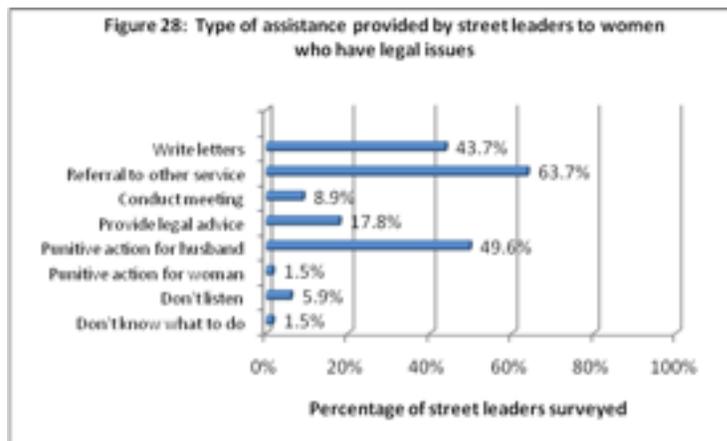|	Leaders / Women
Doesn't Listen	15%
Conduct meetings	2%
Punitive action for spouse	12.0%
Other	7%
Meet with spouse	59.2%
Write letters	31.7%
Referral to other services	47.2%
Reconciliation	76.1%
Educated on women's rights	1.4%
Educated on domestic violence	2.1%
Counseling	64.1%
Didn't know what to do	0
Does not provide services	0%

Percentage of respondents surveyed

Figure 26 depicts the services provided by NGOs and CBOs. Economic projects was the service most commonly identified to be provided by NGOs and CBOs (84.3% of women

Figure 28: Type of assistance provided by street leaders to women who have legal issues

surveyed). Other forms of support that women indicated as being provided by CBOs and NGOs included support groups (52.5%), counseling 26.8%) and education on DV (23.3%). Figure 27 compares women's and street leaders' opinions on the type of assistance provided by street leaders to women experiencing DV. Street leaders indicated that the most frequent forms of assistance they provide to women who have experienced domestic abuse include attempting to facilitate reconciliation (76.1% of street leaders), providing counseling (64.1% of street leaders), conducting meetings with spouses (59.2% of street leaders), and referring the women to other services (47.2% of street leaders). Of the women surveyed, 29.7% felt street leaders would not provide them with service. This is comparable to the 15% of street leaders responded that they don't listen to women who seek help for DV. In addition, 3.5% of women surveyed felt that the street leaders didn't know how to effectively respond to issues of DV[vii].

Figure 28 portrays street leaders' responses to women who present with legal issues. Only 17.8% of street leaders indicated that they actually provide legal advice, while a large majority of street leaders (63.7%) refer the women to another service. Other common responses include writing letters (43.7%) and punitive action for the husband (49.7%). Of the women surveyed, only 2.5% indicated that street leaders provided them with legal advice.
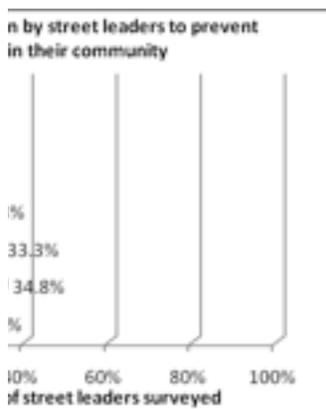
Figure 29 displays the actions taken by street leaders within each region to prevent issues of DV. (See appendix 8.5 for a breakdown by region). Approximately 35% of the leaders educate the community as a means of preventing DV. The most common methods used by street leaders to prevent DV in the community are educating the community (34.8% of all street leaders), conducting meetings (33.5% total) and counseling (25.4% total). A large portion of street leaders (24.6% total) also indicated that they did not take any action to prevent DV in their communities.

There are interesting differences between regions regarding their means of preventing DV. For example, Kagera is less likely to take any action than any other region (F= 2.137; p=0.079). Perhaps this trend would be significant if additional research was collected). On the other hand, street leaders in Kagera are significantly more likely to engage in counseling (F=2.631; p<0.05) or reprimanding the husband (F=3.617; p<0.05) in order to prevent DV. This significant difference could be due to the fact that Kagera received significantly more training than any other region (F=9.243; p<0.001). Training received in Kagera was also significantly more likely to focus on women's rights (F=3.579; p=0.013).

It is important to note that the most common support mechanism provided by NGOs and CBOs are economic projects, given that 42% of women and 49% of leaders said that women who conduct businesses are more likely to experience DV. As such, it is possible that the good intentions of groups and organizations to support women may actually be increasing their risk of experiencing DV.

It is concerning that approximately 15% of street leaders indicated that they don't listen to women who seek assistance for DV, and 29.7% of women noted that street leaders don't provide them with service. In addition, these results suggest that many of the street leaders do not know how to address legal issues; only 17% of street leaders provide women with legal counsel. It also appears that street leaders are more open to support women who present with legal issues in comparison to DV. A much smaller percentage of street leaders don't listen to women who present with legal issues (only 5.9%) in comparison to 14.8% of street leaders who indicated that they don't listen to women who present issues of DV.

Chapter 6

Results: Deficits in institutional capacity and gaps in knowledge and skills of local government leaders in responding to domestic violence

- *Training*
- *Obstacles to effectively assisting women*

accessed is defined as....

gure #) and 354 people responded to this question.

purchase a meal in an urban area, and roughly 700 Tsh could purchase a

vii   Note: The options of responding 'does not listen', 'conduct meetings' and 'punitive action for spouse' were provided only in the street leader survey.

Figure 30: Street leaders surveyed who recevied training on addressing women's rights

This section examines the training provided to street leaders and identifies gaps in knowledge on addressing DV. Only a small portion of the street leaders surveyed (27.5%) actually received formal training on how to effectively address women's rights. Figure 30 displays the percentage of leaders in each region who received training on women's rights issues. Kagera was the region where the most street leaders have attended training (61.3%) and Mara and Shingyanga were the two regions that had the fewest leaders who have received training (4.2% and 7.7% respectively). These differences are statistically significant ($F=9.243$; $p<0.001$) and correspond to differences in chosen responses to reported domestic violence. For example, Kagera is most likely to engage in counseling and reprimanding the husband while Mara and Shingyanga are most likely to do nothing or to refer the woman to another service.

Figure 31: Agencies that provide training by region
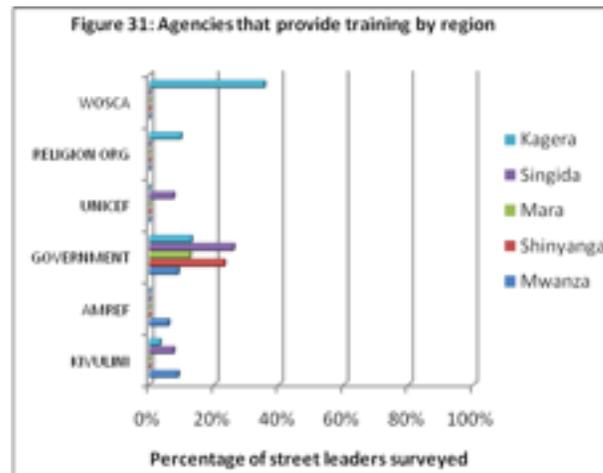
Of the street leaders who received training, a large majority (69.4%) were trained for between 1-5 days. (See appendix 8.6 for a breakdown of the number of training days per region) Figure 31 displays information about which agencies the provided the training for each region. There is variability between regions on which agency conducted the training; WOSCA had a large focus in Kagera, UNCIEF providing training in Singida and AMREF provided training in Mwanza. Kivulini was identified to have provided training in Kagera, Singda and Mwanza, while street leaders from all areas identified that the government had provided them with training. Despite the government providing the most amount of training in comparison to other agencies, only 16.2% of all street leaders surveyed actually received government training.

Figure 32 displays the knowledge that street leaders acquired from the trainings. Notably, the training provided street leaders with information on women's rights, DV, and their roles and responsibilities as street leaders.

Figure 32: Information acquired from training by street leaders

Figure 33 displays the topics which street leaders feel, require more information about in order to better serve women. Legal issues (75.9%) and women's rights (70.4%) were the 2 most common areas in which knowledge gaps were indicated by street leaders.

Discussion

Street leaders were able to acquire knowledge on a wide variety of topics through training. This supports the notion that training is a modality that can be used to effectively educate leaders about addressing women's rights. What is perplexing about these results is that only 28% of leaders actually received formal training by any institution about women's rights and only 16% of all leaders surveyed received training from the government. In addition, the training was specific to each region, with different agencies and institutions placing different emphasis and using different techniques in each region. This created inconsistency between regions on the level and type of training attended by the street leaders.

The inconsistent training raises the question as to the quality of support that the leaders are able to provide to women, especially when taking into consideration some of the misinformed views which leaders hold about women's rights (see section 3.1). Lack of training implies that street leaders may not posess the skills required to effectively address women's rights and may explain why 27.8% of women indicated that the support provided by their street leaders did not improve the situation (See figure 22). However, Kagera (who received the most training) had more advanced general attitudes about women's rights and chosen response to women's rights violations, overall those who were trained were not statistically more likely to choose any particular response to domestic violence. This unfortunately indicates that most training is not making a difference. The differences in Kagera are not created by training per se, and could be reflective of either tribal attitudes or inconsistent training between regions – Kagera could have received more effective training than the other regions, either in terms of actually creating long lasting change in behavior or just in general awareness of appropriate responses to domestic violence. There were no questions regarding how the training was conducted, so we do not know if Kagera received a different type of training than that in the other regions. The efficacy of training should be studied in more detail to understand the difference in Kagera and what (if any) training produces the desired effect of long lasting behavioral change.

Two notable exceptions to the lack of differences between those who were trained and those who were not are that generally, those who were trained are significantly more likely to respond in some way to complaints about domestic violence (F=3.547; p=0.009), this response being significantly less likely to include punishing the woman who complains (F=5.435; p=0.021). This alone is justification for further training since it is increasing the likelihood of a woman having a safe space in her community – a fundamental and universal human right.

In addition, although legal disputes were not ranked highly among the top 2 issues for which women seek assistance, the issue is addressed by 32% of street leaders (See figure 20). This suggests that legal rights be a priority training area given that only 10% of street leaders who attended training were taught about legal issues, while 70% of street leaders noted that they require more training in this area.
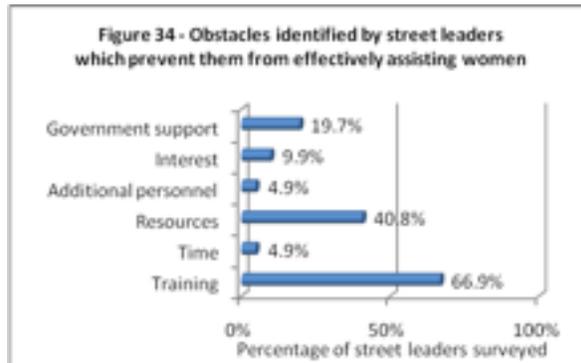
This section explores obstacles which prevent street leaders from effectively assisting women who experience DV. As shown in figure 34, lack of training was the obstacle most commonly identified by leaders (66.9%), particularly in Mara. Given the negative attitudes in the Mara region and lack of response to domestic violence, Mara should be given priority in future training initiatives. Lack of resources and insufficient levels of government support were other barriers indicated (40.8% and 19.7% respectively). In fact, only 13.8% of street leaders surveyed were satisfied with the current of support provided by the government to assist them in preventing and addressing DV. Of the leaders surveyed, 97.2% indicated that they would attend training in the future should they be offered. See appendix 8.7 for information on the obstacles identified by street leaders by region.

Figure 34 - Obstacles identified by street leaders which prevent them from effectively assisting women

Obstacle	Percentage
Government support	19.7%
Interest	9.9%
Additional personnel	4.9%
Resources	40.8%
Time	4.9%
Training	66.9%

Discussion:

It is evident that a large majority of street leaders are interested in acquiring and developing the skills that are required to support women. Again, it was demonstrated that training is an essential component which should be provided to street leaders. Lack of time, lack of interest and lack of additional staffing support seem to play little role in preventing street leaders from providing effective services. The results also suggest that the government could play an integral role in facilitating and encouraging street leaders to support women. Despite the identified need for the government to support street leaders, only a small portion of street leaders actually indicated that they were satisfied with the current level of support received by the government.

Chapter 7

The way forward

- o Recommendations

- **THE TANZANIAN GOVERNMENT:**
  - The government should continue to ramp up the support that they provide to street leaders.
  - The government of Tanzania should implement rules and regulations regarding fees for services so that service in all areas is both accessible and affordable to all.
  - The government of Tanzania should consider paying street leaders for services so that they take a more serious and supportive role in assisting women in the community, without having women paying for such services.
  - The role of street leaders in supporting women who experience DV should be clarified so that street leaders across all regions have a clear understanding of the obligations and duties as government representatives.
  - Mandatory training that is specific for street leaders should be standardized across regions on a variety of issues including women's rights, counseling skills, legal issues and DV.
  - Prior to encouraging more women to seek street leader support, mechanisms should be implemented to increase the capacity of street leaders to accommodate a larger numbers of women seeking assistance.

- **TRAINING:**
  - Both leaders and women require education regarding the rights and freedoms of women.
  - Future work should aim to increase the effectiveness of the assistance provided by street leaders.
  - The two areas which should be given priority for training include legal issues and women's rights.
  - The fact that women from rural areas are more likely than women from urban areas to experience intimate partner violence suggests that rural areas should be a priority area for training and interventions.

- **NGOs & CBOs:**
  - NGOs and CBOs should conduct situational analyses and educate the community about women's rights prior to implementing economic empowerment projects in order to ensure that the community is conducive and supportive towards such projects.
  - The view held by society of women's groups needs to be changed within the community, so that existing social supports can be used to their full potential

- **EDUCATING THE COMMUNITY:**
  - Women should be encouraged to address issues of DV before it reaches high levels of severity.

- ○ Additional information should be gathered around why women do not feel at ease to approach street leaders so that work can be done to ensure that street leader service is more accessible to women.
- ○ Efforts need to be made to normalize help-seeking behaviors of women in the community.
- ○ Community members need to be educated about DV so that women who experience abuse can access a sensitized network of support.

- **FUTURE RESEARCH:**
  - ○ Conduct a study to determine which training techniques are most effective for preventing domestic violence, then arm local CBOs with training in these techniques.
  - ○ Compare attitudes of men about domestic violence and women's rights to those of women and street leaders indicated in this study. This will allow Kivulini to adequately target specific training for men.
  - ○ Conduct a study to understand why women do not feel comfortable about approaching street leaders regarding domestic violence.

In order to alter the deep-seated beliefs regarding DV, the focus needs to shift to the community as a whole, and in particular in the leaders of the community. Tanzania has ratified many international agreements, indicating their pledge to promote the rights of women. However, the dedication to these agreements has yet to be seen at the grassroots level, among the people that experience the DV, and among those who truly have the ability to change it. The structure through which positive change can be made has already been put in place – street leaders, and NGOs and CBOs which exist within each community. The street leaders have an influential position in the society and are elemental in initiating this change. As representatives of the government, it should be their duty and obligation to embody the values of the Tanzanian government at large, and hold true to the commitments made by the government. The government of Tanzanian needs to begin to take action to initiate change by mandating the local leaders to make addressing DV not merely a commitment, but a priority which is translated into action and change.

Chapter 8

References & Appendices

- ○ *References*

- ○ *Description of main variables*

- ○ *Background information on catchment area*

REFERENCES

Ellsberg, M. C., Heise, L. (2005). Researching Violence Against Women: A practical guide for researchers and
activists. World Health Organization and Program for Appropriate Technology in Health: Geneva, Switzerland.

Garcia-Moreno, C., Jansen, H., Ellsberg, M., Heise, L., Watts, C. (2005) WHO Multi-Country Study on Women's
Health and Domestic Violence against Women. World Health Organization: Geneva Switzerland.

Government of Tanzania (2002). Population and Housing Census Report. Available January 25th, 2008 online
at http://www.tanzania.go.tz/census/

Heise L, Pitanguy H, Germain A. (1994) Violence against Women: The hidden health burden
. World Bank Discussion Papers 255.

IRIN (September, 2004) News, Our Bodies, Their Battleground. Available online January, 2008 at
http://www.irinnews.org/webspecials/GBV/default.asp

Kivulini Women's Rights Organization (2007). Program Strategy and Description, January 2008-December
2012: Building Momentum for Prevention of Violence Against Women and Girls in the Lake Victoria Regions and in Singida, Tanzania.

Kivulini Women's Rights Organization (In press). Child and Adolescent Trafficking in Lake Zone and Singida,
Tanzania.

Kishor, S., Johnson, K. (2004). Profiling Domestic Violence: A Multi-Country Study. Calverton, Maryland: ORC
Marco.

National Institute for Cancer. Available online at
http://clinicaltrials.nci.nih.gov/Templates/db_alpha.aspx?CdrID=440116

Tanzania Gender Networking Program, Macro International (2007). Women's health in Tanzania. Key findings
from the 2004-05 Tanzania demographic and health survey and the 2003-04 Tanzania HIV / AIDS
indicator survey. In Dar es Salaam, Tanzania, Tanzania Gender Networking Program.

United Nations. (December, 2003). General Assembly Resolution 48/104.

United Nations. 1995a. Report of the Fourth World Conference on Women, Beijing 4–15 September 1995.
      New York: United Nations.

The United Republic of Tanzania (June, 2005). National Strategy for Grown and Reduction of Poverty. Vice
      Presidents Office.

Watts, C., Heise, L., Ellsberg, M., Jansen, H., Morison, L., Garcia-Moreno, C. (2007). WHO Multi-Country Study
      on Women's Health and Domestic Violence: Study Protocol.

World Health Organization (2001) Ethical and Safety Recommendations for Research on Domestic Violence
      Against Women. Geneva, Switzerland

WHO/FRH/WHD (1997) Violence Against Women.

APPENDICES

8.1 – DESCRIPTION OF MAIN VARIABLES

The definition of abuse and DV varies between studies and organizations. Thus, it is important to establish clearly defined criteria for determining what acts are considered as violence. Due to the fact that the WHO tools will form the basis for the tools used in this study, and in order to be consistent with previous studies, the definitions used by the WHO will be used for this research (Watts et al, 2007. p 16–17). They are as follows:

Domestic violence against women
Any act or omission by a family member (most often a current or former husband or partner), regardless of the physical location where the act takes place, which negatively affects the well-being, physical or psychological integrity, freedom or right to full development of a woman.

Intimate-partner violence
Any act or omission by a current or former intimate partner which negatively affects the well-being, physical or psychological integrity, freedom or right to full development of a woman.

Physical violence
PV is the intentional use of physical force with the potential for causing death, injury or harm. PV includes, but is not limited to: scratching, pushing, shoving, throwing, grabbing, biting, choking, shaking, poking, hair pulling, slapping, punching, hitting, burning, the use of restraints or one's body size or strength against another person, and the use or threat to use a weapon (gun, knife or object).

Forced sex
Forced sex will be taken to be where one person has used force, coercion or psychological intimidation to force another to engage in a sex act against her or his will, whether or not the act is completed.

Sex act
Sex act is defined as contact between the penis and vulva, or the penis and the anus, involving penetration, however slight; contact between the mouth and the penis, vulva or anus; or penetration of the anal or genital opening of another person by a hand, finger or other object.

Psychological abuse
Psychological abuse is any act or omission that damages the self-esteem, identity or development of the individual. It includes but is not limited to humiliation, threatening loss of custody of the children, forced isolation from family or friends, threatening to harm the individual or someone they care about, repeated yelling or degradation, inducing fear through intimidating words or gestures, controlling behaviour, and the destruction of possessions.

Social Supports
A network of family, friends, neighbors, and community members that is available in times of need to give psychological, physical, and financial help (National Institute for Cancer).

8.2 – BACKGROUND INFORMATION ON CATCHMENT AREA

The regions in this study are characterized by poor roads, inadequate or non-existing electrical power and unreliable water supply. The primary source of income for the regions in the Lake Zone is fishing, subsistence agriculture and petty livestock activities. The majority of these income generation activities are conducted by men, creating a gender division in labour, which results in power imbalances and few women having ownership of resources. High rates of child and adolescent trafficking are also present in these areas, where it is estimated that an average of 1 out of every 100 children are trafficked each year from predominately rural areas to urban centers (Kivulini, In press). The Singida region is drought prone and is one of the poorest regions in Tanzania.

Mwanza is the second largest city and most populated region in the country. According to the 2002 census, Mwanza Region has a population of approximately 3 million (2,942,148). Singida is another region neighbouring Mwanza, situated in the centre of the country and has a population of 1.1 million. The average household size within these 5 regions ranges from 6.3 people in the Shinyanyga region to 5.0 people in the Singida region.   The population density of the regions ranges from 150 people per square kilometer in the Mwanza region to 22 people per square kilometer in the Singida region (Government of Tanzania, 2002).

Female respondents surveyed by district

	Number of women	Percent (%)
GEITA	63	11.1
UKEREWE	55	9.7
MUSOMA	57	10.0
TARIME	62	10.9
SHINYANGA URBAN	101	17.8
MULEBA	71	12.5
BUKOBA	61	10.7
SINGIDA	98	17.3
Total	568	100.0

Female respondents by street/village

	Number of women	Percent (%)
IBADAKULI	43	7.6
TARIME	46	8.1
BIILABO	37	6.5
TINDE	58	10.2
KASAMWA	30	5.3
BAKOBA	24	4.2
ETARO	18	3.2
NYANKANGA	19	3.3
ILANGALA	19	3.3
NSHAMBA	34	6.0
KIGERA	20	3.5
BUKANDA	16	2.8
MUGHANGA	41	7.2
MARUKU	24	4.2
MITUNDURUNI	4	.7
BINAGI	16	2.8
MAGHOJOA	53	9.3
KALANGALALA	2	.4
KAGU	25	4.4
MRUTUNGURU	20	3.5
KANYANGEREKO	19	3.3
Total	568	100.0

Street leader respondents surveyed by district

	Number of leaders	Percent (%)
GEITA	5	3.5
UKEREWE	29	20.1
SHINYANGA RURAL	26	18.1
TARIME	9	6.3
MUSOMA	15	10.4
SINGIDA URBAN	21	14.6
SINGIDA RURAL	8	5.6
BUKOBA	15	10.4
MULEBA	16	11.1
Total	144	100.0

Street leader respondents by street/village

	Number of leaders	Percent (%)
KASAMWA	2	1.4
MURUTUNGURU	7	4.9
KAGU	2	1.4
KALANGALALA	1	.7
USANDA	12	8.3
ILANGALA	13	9.0
BUKANDA	9	6.3
BINAGI	3	2.1
NYAKANGA	8	5.6
KIGERA	7	4.9
TURWA	6	4.2
TINDE	9	6.3
IBADAKULI	1	.7
SAMUYE	4	2.8
MUGHANGA	10	6.9
MITUNDURUNI	11	7.6
MAGHOJOA	8	5.6
BAKOBA	3	2.1
MARUKU	8	5.6
KANYENGEREKO	4	2.8
NSHAMBA	10	6.9
BIILABO	6	4.2
Total	144	100.0

8.4 – NUMBER OF WOMEN SEEKING SUPPORT FROM STREET LEADERS FOR ISSUES RELATED TO WOMEN'S RIGHTS IN ONE WEEK

Region		No one	<10	21-30	Don't Know, Don't Remember
MWANZA	Count	23	9	0	0
	% within region	71.90%	28.10%	0.00%	0.00%
SHINYANGA	Count	17	9	0	0
	% within region	65.40%	34.60%	0.00%	0.00%
MARA	Count	14	8	1	1
	% within region	58.30%	33.30%	4.20%	4.20%
SINGIDA	Count	14	13	0	0
	% within region	51.90%	48.10%	0.00%	0.00%
KAGERA	Count	18	13	0	0
	% within region	58.10%	41.90%	0.00%	0.00%
	% of Total	12.90%	9.30%	0.00%	0.00%
Total	Count	86	52	1	1
	% of Total	61.40%	37.10%	0.70%	0.70%

8.5 – ACTIONS TAKEN BY STREET LEADERS BY REGION TO PREVENT DOMESTIC VIOLENCE
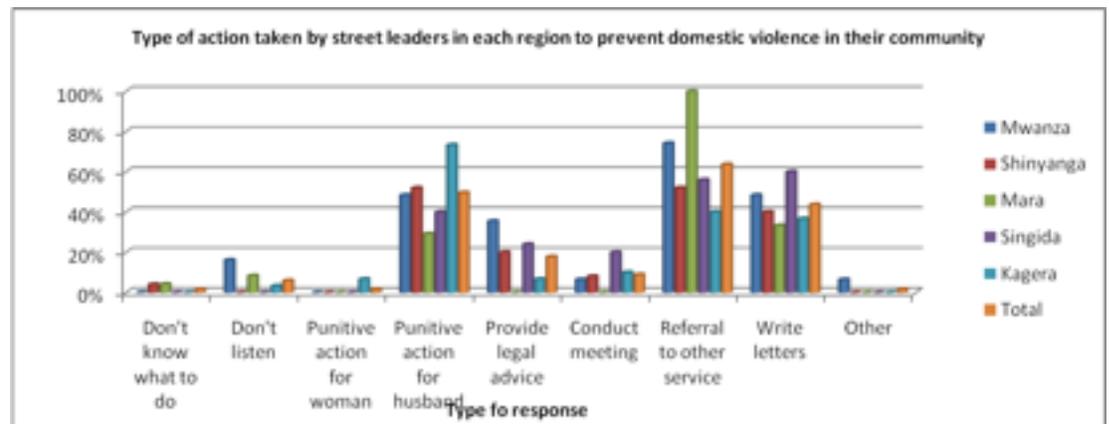
8.6 – NUMBER OF DAYS STREET LEADERS RECEIVED TRAINING

Region	1–5 days	5–10 days	11+ days

MWANZA	Count	8	0	1
	% within REGION	16.3%	0	2.0%
SHINYANGA	Count	5	0	1
	% within REGION	10.2%	0.0%	2.0%
MARA	Count	2	1	1
	% within REGION	4.1%	2.0%	2.0%
SINGIDA	Count	4	3	4
	% within REGION	8.2%	6.1%	8.2%
KAGERA	Count	15	2	2
	% within REGION	30.6%	4.1%	4.1%
Total	Count	34	6	9
	% of Total	69.4%	12.2%	18.4%

**Note, only 49 street leaders responded to this question

Obstacle	Training	Time	Resources	Additional personnel	Interest	Government support
MWANZA	79.40%	11.80%	50.00%	14.70%	14.70%	47.10%
SHINYANGA	53.80%	0.00%	38.50%	3.80%	3.80%	11.50%
MARA	87.50%	0.00%	16.70%	0.00%	4.20%	16.70%
SINGIDA	55.60%	0.00%	44.40%	0.00%	14.80%	3.70%
KAGERA	58.10%	9.70%	48.40%	3.20%	9.70%	12.90%