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The Implications of Gender-Based Violence on Livelihoods Security of Women Farmers in Patriarchal Cultures in Tanzania

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Abstract

Gender-based violence (GBV) is a historical phenomenon that violates the rights of women, and continues to persist globally. Approximately a third of women worldwide have experienced some form of physical and/or sexual violence. Tanzania, like other African countries, also exhibits a high prevalence of violence against women with about 40 and 17% of women aged 15-49 years reported to have experienced physical and sexual violence respectively from their male partners in their lifetime. Although the policy environment for addressing GBV in Tanzania is favourable, studies on the prevalence of GBV show that the problem still persists. There is need for further probe into the topic for more substantive information, especially in the patriarchal cultures in the country. This study uses secondary data to examine the nexus between GBV and livelihoods security, the policy environment for addressing GBV, the perceived implications of GBV on the livelihoods security of women farmers, and the strategies for addressing GBV against women farmers in the patriarchal cultures in Tanzania from an Afrocentric point of view. The forms of GBV against women farmers in the patriarchal cultures in Tanzania are identified as landlessness or gendered land rights and unequal access to financing, farm inputs, markets, training and technology. These forms of GBV have various implications on the women farmers, especially concerning their income levels, health, and nutrition. Strong legal frameworks, community sensitization, economic support, and women cooperatives are identified as some of the strategies for addressing GBV among the women farmers. This information provide new insights into the key factors accelerating domestic violence among rural women in Tanzania and promoting their welfare.

Keywords: Policy Environment; Gender-Based Violence; Livelihoods Security; Women Farmers; Patriarchal Societies; Tanzania.

1. Introduction

Violence against women has been regarded as a historical phenomenon which threatens the lives of women and violates women's human rights. It cuts across nations, cultures, religion, and class and continues to persist. Although the majority of countries in the world have made violence against women a criminal act with societies at large condemning it, it continues to be a critical global problem (WHO, 2017). While many countries consider violence against women as a criminal act, the practice remains a critical global problem. Women are responsible for approximately 50% of the agricultural farm labour in Sub-Saharan Africa. A burgeoning volume of literature shows that direct responsibility for household food provision entirely lies on women. In Tanzania, the largest proportion of adults comprises women and agriculture is their main employer (Idris, 2018). As in other parts of Africa, despite the central role they play in agriculture, women farmers in Tanzania are often underprivileged, lack access to land and credit facilities, and face many more injustices which culminate into gender-based violence (GBV).

Gender-based violence refers to any harmful act committed against a person using gender differences as the basis. Gender-based violence is also used to define the dimensions within which violence against women occurs (Nkya, 2020). Gender-based violence includes acts of force (physical or verbal) directed at an individual that causes bodily or mental harm and perpetuates subordination (Sanjel, 2013). The broadly recognized definition of GBV is now extended to contain violence that results from unequal power relations between men and women.

As in most parts of Africa, GBV against women tends to be driven by patriarchal cultures and societies. The gravity of violence against women and girls in Tanzania has also been qualitatively documented and points the extent to which it is rooted in patriarchal traditions and values. According to Hadi (2017), patriarchy refers to the manifestation of male dominance over women in society. Patriarchal societies are therefore where the social structure and practices wherein men dominate, exploit, and oppress women. Although several contemporary studies have assessed GBV against women in Tanzania, there is still a need for information on GBV and the livelihood security of women farmers in patriarchal societies in the country. The present paper, therefore, uses secondary data to examine the nexus between GBV and livelihoods security of women farmers in the patriarchal cultures in Tanzania.

Sections 2 present the theoretical underpinning of the paper while section 3 presents the context and methodology employed in the study. The policy environment for addressing GBV and the forms of GBV against women farmers in patriarchal cultures in Tanzania are presented in sections 4 and 5 respectively. The perceived implications of GBV on the livelihoods security of women farmers are captured in section 6 and the strategies for combating GBV against women farmers in the patriarchal cultures in Tanzania are discussed in section 7. Finally, the concluding remarks and recommendations are highlighted in section 8. Everything is discussed and presented from an Afrocentric point of view. The study provides new insights into the key factors accelerating domestic violence among rural women in Tanzania and promoting their well-being.

2. Theoretical Underpinning

This section presents the study's theoretical frameworks reviewed in an attempt to link theories and the actual practice on the ground. In this review, numerous theories such as the sustainable livelihoods framework, institutional theory, the neo-classical theory of land reform, and the constraint-driven theory have been reviewed to guide the study. The theories are applied in this study in different ways and in their contexts (Haan & Haan, 2016). These theories are considered important to capture the issues of how access to and ownership of assets can be aligned well towards improved well-being for enterprise development among women. However, for this study, the Institutional theory, Neo-classical theory of land reform, and constraint-driven theories are used to guide the study.

The institutional theory has been included to better understand how access to and ownership of assets is influenced and complied with by the regulatory framework for sustainable development. In this regard, the institutional theory is regarded as an essential framework for this study of social sustainability. The theory asserts that authoritative guidelines for behaviour are created and adopted over time. According to Kraft and Furlong (2019), the institutional theory is a policy-making mechanism that emphasizes that formal and legal aspects of government directives should be followed or complied with. With regard to the context of the present study, this theory is ideal to the patriarchal cultures in Tanzania and is regulated, survives, and thrives under the rules, norms, and values of the country.

The Neoclassical Theory of Land Reform argues that although land reform has been used as both strategy and policy to achieve economic development (Zarin & Bujang, 1994), the tendency to exclude other factors like inequality, poverty, and unemployment in the economic growth, cannot achieve the best of the same.

Therefore, economic development needs to include both provision of production opportunities and improving human capacity to exploit the resources to reduce inequality, unemployment, and poverty.

Lastly, the present study employs the constraint-driven gaps theory which states that women's entrepreneurship is constrained by gender-based barriers that undermine enterprise development. Some barriers that hamper female enterprises' development include asset ownership, difficulties accessing financial resources, and information, limitation to mobility, and time limit to spend in running enterprises. These challenges seriously impede the development of female-owned enterprises (Bardasi *et al.*, 2011). The theory provides valuable insight into how asset ownership affects female enterprises' development. In a nutshell, the framework set out factors that hamper female enterprises' development in the context of Tanzania. According to Rutashobya (2001), information availability, social-culture norms, and access to financial resources affect enterprises' development landscape in Tanzania. She further contended that women are disadvantaged in the acquisition of high-return productive assets and are encouraged to undertake household-centered enterprises and inadequate technology because they are risk averse. In this scenario, women enterprises are more likely to cluster in the low-technology industrial sector. The highlighted theories are considered useful in examining the implications of GBV against women farmers in patriarchal societies in Tanzania for positive change as a result of gender equality in resource allocation.

3. Context and Methodology

This paper is a review of current and recent literature on GBV against women farmers in patriarchal cultures in Tanzania. A search was mounted on Google Scholar and the Web of Science to identify the relevant literature on the topic to determine the trends on the subject matter according to the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses guidelines (Moher *et al.*, 2009).

Although there have been an increased number of studies determining GBV prevalence in Tanzania, but how many of these target GBV against women farmers in patriarchal cultures? Moreover, the policy framework governing GBV has changed over the years, but have these changes brought any tangible results? The keywords used in the literature search were GBV, domestic violence, physical abuse, emotional violence, Tanzania, women aged 15-49 years, prevalence, magnitude, and estimates. The specified age of 15 years was used as a baseline as most studies used Demographic Health Surveys that focused on women aged

15 to 49 years of age. The eligibility and exclusion criteria for the literature search are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Eligibility and Exclusion Criteria for Literature Search

Eligibility criteria	Exclusion criteria
Studies reporting GBV	Studies reporting no GBV prevalence such as those on factors associated with GBV; GBV consequences;
Females aged 15–49 years	Study participants less than 15 years or older than 49 years.
Studies in Tanzania	Studies not conducted in Tanzania
Studies published in English	Studies not published in English
Only quantitative studies	Qualitative studies

4. The Policy Environment for Addressing Gender-Based Violence against Women in Tanzania

This section focuses on the extent to which the current legal and institutional frameworks address gender rights issues as far as women farmers in Tanzania. The oldest form of land tenure in Tanzania is the 1923 Right of Occupancy which allows the temporary right of ownership to land occupants in rural areas. After the ratification of the Land Acts, most land held under this tenure is now regulated under the Village Land Act which defines incidents known as the Customary Right of Occupancy that allows passage of land from one generation to another through inheritance as allocated by the Village Council. The National Land Policy of 1995 also advocates women’s equal rights to own land to empower them economically and reduce the level of poverty (URT, 1995). The policy also acknowledges that women’s access to land was unsecured under customary laws and it therefore provided women with the right to acquire land in their own right through purchase. Under customary land law, women generally have inferior land rights relative to men and their access to land is indirect and insecure (Fairley, 2013).

The 1977 Constitution of Tanzania stipulates equal rights for all citizens. Thus constitutionally, men and women have equal rights to security of life, right to ownership of property, and productive resources. The 1977 Constitution was amended by Act No. 5 of 1984 to incorporate the Bill of Rights and Duties which prohibits any form of discrimination based on sex. This is a foundation on which other laws are supposed to comply concerning gender issues in the country. Land Act No. 4 and Village Land Act No. 5 of 1999 of Tanzania recognize women to have the same rights and access to land as men (Carpano, 2010). As stipulated

under Section 20 of the Village Land Act, specifically states that customary laws have to align to the National Land Policy and the constitution. The act declares that customary law is void and inoperative when it denies women, children, or persons with disability lawful access to ownership, occupation, or use of land. However, customary norms still limit women from fully enjoying their right to own and inherit the land. Section 2 of the Land Act and Village Land Act recognizes gender balance in land ownership and dealings. They also provide for the rights of women to access, own and control land like men. Provide the right to participate in decision-making organs regarding land matters (Fairley, 2013).

However, given the current trend of efforts underway under the sixth phase government led by Her Excellency Samia Suluhu Hassan, the Tanzanian law has shown some progress in preventing GBV due to the government commitments. For example, the Sexual Offence Special Provisions Act of 1998 poses harsh penalties for GBV perpetrators. Several human rights that oblige state parties to take measures necessary to eliminate GBV have also been adopted in Tanzania. Among these are The Tanzania Legal and Human Rights Centre, Tanzania Media Women Association, and Tanzania Women Lawyers Association. There has also been a review and amendment of discriminatory legislation such as The Land Act No 4 and 5 of 1999 to address violence against women. The land laws now provide equal rights to land ownership for both men and women. Besides, the country has ratified and domesticated some of the gender-related international human rights instruments.

Tanzania also has several policies on GBV like the 2000 Women and Gender Development Policy; the 2005 National Strategy for Gender Development Policy; the 2004 National Economic Empowerment Policy; the 1997 National Cultural Policy; and the 2001-2015 National Plan of Action for Prevention and Eradication of GBV against Women. The National Plan of Action for Prevention and Eradication of GBV against Women was developed in 2000 as the blueprint for national efforts on GBV. Its goal was to 'have equality and equity between women and men to prevent and eradicate violence against women and children.' There is also the Tanzania National Strategy for Gender Development that describes several areas of concerns like decision-making and legal rights, education, economic empowerment and access to resources.

Tanzania has made strides toward eradicating GBV incidents and promoting gender equality. Despite the progress, constitutional provisions, and policies against GBV, Tanzania like many African countries continues to marginalize women

in agriculture, particularly in patriarchal societies. As a patriarchal country, Tanzania does not provide women with equal chances as their male counterparts in the agricultural sector like other sectors. Despite the comprehensive articulation of the gender problems in the country, most policies do not suggest viable strategies for intervention. The Cultural Policy, for instance, is quiet about bad cultural practices that discrimination against women. These and other challenges need to be overcome to facilitate eradication of GBV against women farmers in the patriarchal societies of Tanzania.

5. Forms of Gender-Based Violence against Women Farmers in the Patriarchal Cultures in Tanzania

Women farmers experience many constraints than their male counterparts in the patriarchal cultures in Tanzania. In subsections 5.1 to 5.5, we discuss some of the forms and determinants of GBV against women farmers in patriarchal cultures in Tanzania.

5.1 Landlessness and/or Gendered Land Rights

The gravest form of violence against women farmers in patriarchal societies is landlessness as dictated by cultural norms and traditions. Land being the central factor of production, unequal land rights customary norms disadvantage women and entrench gender inequality. Women farmers in Tanzania have limited access to property and inheritance rights. Women own only about 19% of titled land in Tanzania, and their average farm sizes (0.21-0.3 ha) is less than half that of men (0.61-0.7 ha) (Ellis, 2007). The Land Act, Constitution, and the Marriage Act all stipulate equal property rights for both men and women, but customary legal laws and practices tend to undermine these rights for women.

The widespread inability of Tanzanian women to own land in patriarchal cultures has serious implications for their livelihood securities. Some of the main causes are deep-rooted in the traditional land tenure systems which grant women access to land while control remains with men. Although formal legislation may guarantee equal opportunities for accessing land by men and women, this is not the case in most cases due to the prevailing gender inequalities. Women also face major obstacles in land ownership and control due to customary laws that do not allow joint ownership by married couples and the non-synchronization of marriage and inheritance laws with the Land law. Besides, most women farmers can gain access to land through marriage whereas, upon divorce, women can be similarly dispossessed of land (Leavens et al., 2019).

Several studies have revealed that women farmers have less access to land and land titles (Table 2). Where women have access to land, still they may do so without appropriate documentation like title deeds and rights of occupancy (Sikira & Kahaigili, 2017). The patriarchal culture in Kilombero district has recently also been shown to allow men with more control over land (41.0%) than women (18.8%) (Lyimo *et al.*, 2021). Insecure rights to land rights are, therefore, a gender-based barrier or a form of GBV against women farmers for agricultural productivity and livelihood security.

Table 2: Gendered Access to Financial Services by women Farmers in Patriarchal Cultures in Tanzania

Place of study	No. of women participants (n)	Percentage owning land	Reference
Kisawawe, Mkuranga	43	55	(Kongela, 2020)
Kilombero	48	22	(Lyimo et al., 2021)
Babati, Kiteto, Kongwa	203	1.7	(Fischer et al., 2017)
Iringa	32	27	(Sikira & Kahaigili, 2017)
Njombe	34	43.75	(Sikira & Kahaigili, 2017)
Kilosa	146	7.5	(Macha & Mdoe, 2002)
Mgeta	146	2.1	(Macha & Mdoe, 2002)
Selous	146	17.1	(Macha & Mdoe, 2002)
Mbozi	45	32.31	(Shimwela, 2018)

Secure land tenure can provide collateral for credit access to improve agricultural technologies and productivity as discussed in subsection 5.2 and 5.3 respectively. In this regard, secure land rights not only entail the right to own property but also the right to lease and use the property. Therefore, limited access to land constrains the full participation of women farmers in agriculture. Where land is co-owned with their male partners, men are still the major decision-makers regarding what crops to produce, how much to sell, and how much to spend as established in Chamwino and Kilosa districts in Dodoma and Morogoro regions respectively (Mnimbo *et al.*, 2019). Similar results have also been reported by Mnimbo (2018) while studying the crop value chains in the patriarchal societies of Chamwino and Kilosa districts. These results imply that men dominate women in farm ownership and there is a need to assist women in land ownership, since land can serve as collateral for accessing credit. Similar results were obtained in Babati, Kiteto, and

Kongwa districts where women rarely owned or controlled land in all male-headed households (Fischer *et al.*, 2017). The findings concur with those of Sikira and Kashaigili (2017) who pointed out that lack of control of land hinders agricultural productivity for women farmers. Lack of documented land ownership can also affect access to financial services due to lack of collateral as discussed in subsection 5.2.

5.2 Access to Finance and Financial Services

Lack of access to financial services is one of the forms of GBV against women farmers in patriarchal cultures in Tanzania because this can limit their access to improved agricultural technologies (Nakano & Magezi, 2020; Ngailo *et al.*, 2016). Various studies show that only a few women have access to land (subsection 5.1) and encounter serious constraints in obtaining credit facilities than their male counterparts due to lack of collateral (Balana *et al.*, 2022; Lyimo *et al.*, 2021; Onwunali, 2018) (Table 3). This challenge has limited women from expanding their farming activities mostly because they do not have adequate working capital to expand their agricultural activities like their male counterparts. This in turn leaves women marginalized and unable to contribute to their local economy.

Table 3: Lack of Collateral for Accessing Formal Financial Services among Women Farmers in Patriarchal Cultures in Tanzania

Place of study	Cultivated crop	No. of female participants	Yes (%)	References
Iringa	Rice, maize, beans, soybean, tomatoes, onions, sunflowers	160	95.7	(Onwunali, 2018)
Kilombero	Rice	389	20.6	(Lyimo <i>et al.</i> , 2021)
Not mentioned	Not mentioned	142	45.4	(Balana <i>et al.</i> , 2022)
Kilomebro	Rice	128	32.64	(Achandi <i>et al.</i> , 2019)
Mvomero	Beans, millet, peas, potatoes, coffee, groundnuts, coffee	102	61.4	(Madafu, 2015)
Kyela	Rice	51	79	(Thabiti, 2014)
Mvomero	Cassava, rice, maize, sugarcane and bananas	102	91.4	(Isaga, 2018)
Singida and Chamwino	Not mentioned	100	35	(Mmasa, 2017)

Traditionally, male farmers tend to focus on the production of cash crops while women focus on food crops, primarily for domestic consumption (Fischer *et al.*, 2017). Women rarely engage in cash crop farming because of financial constraints, poor women farmers cannot afford to purchase even subsidized inputs such as fertilizers, and pesticides. Lack of access to financial facilities is closely linked to gendered land rights or landlessness as already discussed in subsection 5.1. Land tenure security promotes accessibility to credit facilities as collateral. Therefore, women farmers often have difficulties in obtaining credit facilities because they lack collateral. Not only does insecure land tenures limit women farmers' access to credit facilities, but also bars them from joining farmers' associations or welfare groups with secure land titles, women can invest and adopt improved farming technologies.

Financial institutions often do not recognize women's capacity to repay loans, so women often resort to informal creditors that charge hefty interests (Mmasa, 2017), and/or offer very small loans which may be inconsequential with regard to boosting productivity. The informal avenues for obtaining financial services by women have also been reported for Singinda and Chamwino districts (Mmasa, 2017). In a recent study that examined the gender differences in credit constraints among smallholder farmers in Tanzania, 69% of all women participants compared to only 45% of their male counterparts were financially constrained due to fear of default (2022). Male farmers have recently also been established to be 0.355 times more likely to get credit than their female counterparts (Lazaro & Alexis, 2021). The patriarchal culture in Kilombero district has recently also been shown to allow male farmers more control over credit (35%) than their female counterparts (16.1%) (Lyimo *et al.*, 2021).

5.3 Access to Farm Inputs

Generally, women have less access to improved seeds, equipment, and fertilizers, resulting in lower agricultural productivity in many parts of Africa. Consequently, increasing access to farm inputs is a critical priority for narrowing the gender gap in agriculture (Lyimo *et al.*, 2021). In Mdoe and Mlay's (2021) report on agricultural commercialization and the political economy of rice value chains in Tanzania, female farmers were generally reported to use fewer fertilizers, and purchased seeds and pesticides compared to their male counterparts. The patriarchal culture in Kilombero district has recently also been shown that male farmers have more control over farm inputs (35%) than their female counterparts (16.1%) (Lyimo *et al.*, 2021).

Several discrete barriers like high prices or inability to obtain finances may prevent women farmers from using farm inputs like fertilizers. This is because access to inputs is directly associated with access to financial services, and therefore, farm productivity. Inputs are often used to expand outputs but can be hampered by credit accessibility constraints (Mapunda et al., 2018) which is already discussed in subsection 5.2. Although improved seeds can boost farmers' yields, female farmers may not afford to purchase them to improve productivity. While analysing the access and control over quality seed resources among rice farmers in Kilombero district in Morogoro, Lymo *et al.* (2021) established that men farmers had more access to inputs (22%) than women farmers (17.9%). Besides, women farmers rarely belonged to cooperatives whose membership is often a requirement for the acquisition of subsidized inputs.

5.4 Marketing and Market Access

Market access by African women farmers generally remains limited locally and internationally (Njobe & Kaaria, 2015). The situation is similar in Tanzania where agricultural commercialization tends to exclude women and a majority of women farmers lack equal access to markets like their male counterparts due to various reasons. A recent study in the country showed that women often can't afford the transportation costs to markets due to financial constraints. According to Katungi *et al.* (2019), there is growing masculinization of bean commercialization and the exclusion of women in Southern parts of Tanzania due to indirect negative effects of gender and patriarchal culture. The study further showed that male decision-maker often lower the marketed surplus that is controlled by women (Katungi *et al.*, 2019).

The distance to markets coupled with the household responsibilities of women tends to fuel the exclusion of women from agricultural commercialization. Katungi *et al.* (2019) studied beans commercialization in the southern highlands of Tanzania and reported that women residing further away from cooperatives in distant remote villages took control of a smaller share of the marketed beans. This was associated with the difficulties in transporting the bulk produce to the long-distance markets. Gender norms in patriarchal cultures negatively influence women's participation in produce marketing which is one of the profitable parts of the agricultural value chains (Mnimbo, 2018). Women also tend to have better access to local markets as opposed to export markets. For women who participate in export markets like those in Uganda and Kenya, several are exposed to acts of violence like stigmatization and harassment (Tchouawou *et al.*, 2016).

In Chamwino District, the number of women farmers involved in food crop commercialization was more than the males, while the men tended to spend more time in post-harvesting processes which involve cash (Mnimbo, 2018). In Dodoma and Morogoro, gender was established more challenges farmers' market choices in households headed by females than those headed by males (Kangile *et al.*, 2021). The empirical data from the study also showed that men dominate the coffee supply chain and are largely involved in coffee trading while women were more involved in coffee production rather than marketing and had lower control over the proceeds coming from coffee (Kangile *et al.*, 2021). There seem to be a lot of gendered politics when it comes to the commercialization of cash crops in Tanzania. Sulle and Dancer (2020) also established that politico-economic changes in the sector increased gender discrepancies in the sector.

5.5 Access to Training and Technology

Extension services allow farmers to access training and technology. Farmers are usually offered training in skills to increase productivity, improve adaptability to cope with climate change crises, and enable the broadening of livelihoods to mitigate risks. Nevertheless, women tend to have less access to production sustaining services like extension and training. Their access to training programs, for example, is often hindered by household responsibilities and limited capacity to apply new knowledge due to monetary and cultural constraints. Besides, most extension officers are often males as established for women rice farmers in Kihama and Kilombero (Achandi *et al.*, 2018). Isaya *et al.* (2018) reported similar results in Hai and Kilosa districts of Kilimanjaro and Morogoro regions of Tanzania respectively. Similarly, 94.4% of the women farmers interviewed by Mmasa (2017) in Singida and Thanmwinio districts had no contact with extension agents Other factors hindering women's access to extension services and technology are their lack of time and mobility for extension events. Their participation in extension programs would make their work more fruitful, helping to enhance agricultural production. The unavailability of extension program provision for women also limits their access to inputs including improved seeds, pesticides, and fertilizers (Mapunda *et al.*, 2018).

While studying the main factors for use of agricultural services by female farmers in the Babati district, McCormack (2018) established that the need and preferences for extension services differ among women and men and there are multiple factors that affect their inclination and capacity to use extension services, most of which are deep-rooted in societal gender norms.

Table 4: Percentage of Women Farmers Accessing Extension Services and Improved Agricultural Technologies in Different Parts of Tanzania

<i>Area of Study</i>	<i>Technology/service</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>% Accessing technologies/services</i>	<i>Reference</i>
<i>Hai and Kilosa</i>	Extension services	300	4	(Isaya <i>et al.</i> , 2018)
<i>Kahama</i>	Improved seeds	69	15.6	Kangile <i>et al.</i> , 2018)
<i>Kilombero</i>	Improved seeds	131	50	(Achandi <i>et al.</i> , 2018)
	Improved seeds	153	22.2	(Kangile <i>et al.</i> , 2018)
	Fertilizers and pesticides	1076	14.2	(Isinika <i>et al.</i> , 2020)
	Extension services	81	50	(Achandi <i>et al.</i> , 2019)
	Improved seeds	1076	16.7	(Isinika <i>et al.</i> , 2020)
	Organic Fertilizers	1076	1.6	(Isinika <i>et al.</i> , 2020)
	Inorganic Fertilizers	1076	8.2	(Isinika <i>et al.</i> , 2020)
	Pesticides	1076	59	(Isinika <i>et al.</i> , 2020)
<i>Kyela</i>	Improved seeds	126	21	(Kangile <i>et al.</i> , 2018)
	Improved technologies	60	36.5	(Ngailo <i>et al.</i> , 2016)
	Improved rice variety	60	11.65	(Ngailo <i>et al.</i> , 2016)
	Weed control strategies	60	43.6	(Ngailo <i>et al.</i> , 2016)
	Improved rice variety	60	13	(Ngailo <i>et al.</i> , 2016)
	Improved seeds	36	12	(Kulyakwave <i>et al.</i> , 2019)
<i>Mbarali</i>	Weed control strategies	60	41	(Ngailo <i>et al.</i> , 2016)
	Improved seeds	60	41.25	(Ngailo <i>et al.</i> , 2016)
	Improved seeds	36	12	(Kulyakwave <i>et al.</i> , 2019)

Thus, current measures regarding extension services to target women farmers fail to comprehensively address gender norms. Among the rice farmers in Kilombero district, 29% more men than women were found to have more access to agricultural training and extension (Lyimo *et al.*, 2021). These studies demonstrate that women are often disadvantaged in accessing extension services, agricultural training and modern technology. Studies report different use and access to improved agricultural technologies between male and female farmers, with female farmers often having lesser access to and use of improved technologies. Examples of places where women farmers have shown smaller margins concerning access to improved farming technologies are provided in Table 3. The patriarchal culture in Kilombero district has recently also been shown that male farmers have more

control over extension services and technology (35%) than their female counterparts (16.1%) (Lyimo *et al.*, 2021).

6. The Implications of Gender-Based Violence on the Livelihoods Security of Women Farmers in Patriarchal Cultures in Tanzania

Gender-based violence can present various implications on the livelihood security of women farmers in particular cultures in Africa. Livelihoods security is the capacity of a household to improve and maintain its income, assets and social welfare from year to year. It indicates the livelihood system's ability to maintain and enhance its assets and events which has implication on the livelihood security of women farmers, especially from the income point of view. Several studies have implicated that women farmers generally tend to earn less than their male counterparts in the agricultural sector (Table 5).

Table 5: Average annual income obtained by male and female farmers in different parts of Tanzania

Area of Study	Crop	Earnings by males (USD)	Earnings by females (USD)	Difference (USD)	Reference
Kilombera	Rice	15013	14923	90	(Jeckoniah <i>et al.</i> , 2020)
Mbarali, Kyela	Rice	3720	3504	216	(Kulyakwave <i>et al.</i> , 2019)
Kilomebro	Rice	5266	4739	527	(Achandi <i>et al.</i> , 2019)
Mbarali	Rice	5879	1520	4359	(Mwang'onda <i>et al.</i> , 2016)
Kilombero	Rice	6344	2951	3392	(Isinika <i>et al.</i> , 2020)

In Kilombero, significant differences were also established in the wages earned by females by their male counterparts, translating into more livelihood outcomes for the male farmers (Jeckoniah *et al.*, 2020). In Babati, Kiteto, and Kongwa, disparities in income generation from crops were substantial between genders. In over 72% of all households, men received the 72.3% and 85.7% of all income generated from maize and sorghum despite both men and women jointly managed the farms (Fischer *et al.*, 2017). These differences were largely because men made most money-related decisions as well as decisions concerning the use of the generated income.

Significant income differences between women and men can also be influenced by differences in farm sizes and asset ownership (Kangile *et al.*, 2021). This is because of the relationship between farm size and access to a credit because men

tend to own big pieces of land. Similar results that wage employments created by large-scale agricultural investments are gendered with men securing most of the permanent employment leaving women with casual, insecure, and poorly-paid wages have also been reported in Zambia (Matenga & Hichaambwa, 2017). Other studies have also confirmed the existence of differences in the productivity of men- and women-managed farms. According to Slavchevska (2015), women's farms bring less income because they are less productive owing to insecure land tenures and poor access to credit facilities as already discussed in subsections 5.1 and 5.2 respectively. This is because farmers with good land tenure systems can easily access credit facilities to increase farm production. Thus, insecure land rights may discourage women from investing in their farms to increase productivity and economic value (Leavens *et al.*, 2019).

Globally, women spend a lot of hours doing farm work compared to their male counterparts. This translates into higher energy expenditure from agricultural work that in turn affect their nutritional status and health as estimated by a previous study (Kinabo *et al.*, 2003). Despite spending long hours working in agricultural fields, women farmers are often still food insecure and unable to meet their nutritional needs. In Kilombero valley, Mdoe *et al.* (2020) demonstrated that the percentage of food insecure and poor households among rice producers was significantly higher among households headed by females(47.6%) than in those headed by males (27.8%). Komatsu *et al.* (2019) also reported similar results using data from the Tanzania National Panel Study conducted from 2008-2010.

7. Strategies for Combating Gender-Based Violence against Women Farmers in Patriarchal Cultures in Tanzania

The United Nations Sustainable Development Goals for gender equality acknowledge that achieving gender parity requires nations to address GBV and legislative changes that support women's empowerment and access to economic resources (UNDP, 2016). Target 1(B) of the Sustainable Development Goal No. 1 urges countries to create gender-sensitive policy frameworks at the national, regional and international levels to support poverty eradication. The strategies for combating GBV among women farmers in patriarchal cultures in Tanzania are one of the key aspects of the present paper as discussed in Sections 7.1 to 7.4.

7.1 Strong Legal Frameworks for Livelihoods Security

The existing gender imbalances and GBV against women farmers in the patriarchal cultures in Tanzania are mainly related to the gendered land ownership rights by women. Legally, women may own and have the same land rights as men, and

there exist strong legislations for to protect women landowners. Despite these legal provisions, customary land tenure norms continue to influence discriminatory practices in rural areas.

While Tanzania's laws recognize customary land ownership, the law also nullifies customary laws that discriminate against women in terms of access, ownership, and use of land. Generally, however, discriminatory customary laws persist in many patriarchal cultures in Tanzania. Building strong legal frameworks for GBV against women farmers may empower women and reduce GBV incidences. The government can implement policies to transform legislations that deprive women access to and control over land. The formalization of customary land ownership and control through certificate issuance has improved land tenure security for women farmers in patriarchal cultures in Tanzania. However, the impact is still inadequate in terms of geographical coverage across the country. The process is often associated with high costs of surveying and producing land use plans which are prohibitive for women farmers with few resources. Nevertheless, women's participation in agricultural commercialization has improved due to land certification scheme which enables them to use the certificates as collaterals to access credit from formal financial institutions.

7.2 Community Sensitization and Awareness

The best strategy for dealing with GBV is by having multiple interventions towards community sensitization on gender equality in the agricultural sector. Education on GBV should be integrated into the schools and throughout the community to craft sustainable interventions. Although some non-governmental organizations have attempted to sensitize the patriarchal communities on gender equality to promote women's equal rights, success has been limited in this regard and more efforts are required by the relevant government ministries.

7.3 Economic Support for Livelihoods Security

Diverse agricultural technologies and economic support are promoted to increase yields and incomes, save time, improve food and nutritional security, and even empower women. Yet a gender gap in technology adoption remains for many agricultural technologies, even for those that are promoted for women (Theis et al., 2018). Like other parts of Africa, Tanzania's social world presents as masculine and feminine which are major denominators that manifest through different forms. The metaphysical qualities of gender equality seeking to meet the standards of human rights, and sustainable livelihood security faced controversy that has been found embedded in the viewpoints.

7.4 Women Cooperatives

Cooperatives, groups or organizations of women are key for providing essential services to women farmers and agri-entrepreneurs, for instance, on market information, and market linkages (Rubin & Sutz, 2021). Concerning marginalization, participation that is undertaken in groups is often more visible. According to Aku *et al.* (2018), there tend to be more men are in the vegetable growers group compared to women in the Babati district in northern Tanzania. Similar results have also been reported by Fischer *et al.* (2017) for Babati, Kiteto, and Kongwa districts. Undertaking activities in groups is often more empowering than when done individually. Group membership was also found to be positively associated with women's empowerment in agriculture in Kilombero district (Achandi *et al.*, 2018). If pursued earnestly, women cooperatives can fuel women's empowerment in agriculture and reduce the GBV aspects that currently exist concerning women farmers in patriarchal cultures in Tanzania.

8. Concluding Remarks and Recommendations

The present study critically assesses the implications of GBV against women farmers in the patriarchal cultures in Tanzania. The reviewed literature suggests that although strides have been made to eradicate GBV against women farmers in the country, there are still may injustices that culminate into GBV against the women farmers. Strategies that examine and change transform the rigid gender norms are recommended to address power imbalances and benefit agricultural productivity among women farmers in the country. The existing legal framework on GBV is weak in several ways apart from lacking a specific and comprehensive law on GBV. Despite constitutional decrees of gender equality, women smallholder farmers perform different agricultural tasks, have different preferences, and are unequally rewarded for their contributions. More interventions are still recommended to eradicate GBV among women farmers in the patriarchal cultures to improve their contribution and benefits in agricultural production systems and value chains.

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