Rising Trend of Divorce in Tanzanian and Indian Homes: Gender Dimensions

Mamta Trichal*

Abstract

Divorce cases are rapidly increasing in both Tanzania and India where, in these largely traditional communities, such occurrences portend a negative omen. Indeed, in many conservative African and Indian societies, for centuries women have had to put up with unhappy marriages. In some areas of these societies, however, the situation is still worse because the social stigma is so strong that it does not matter how difficult the relationship may be for the pair. Because of socialization and social conditioning, women are expected to offer everything up on the altar of patriarchy. This article seeks to determine whether women's empowerment influence divorce decisions. To find out how women's employment and educational attainment influenced their decision to file for divorce, the study looked into high divorce rating areas in both societies. The study analysed secondary data, recent census reports, population surveys, and original publications from the two countries under review. It found a strong association between women's independence and divorce decisions. Its analysis of divorce rate and educational status of females shows a growing upward trend. In 1988 the literacy rate of female was only 48.09% and 31.7%, whereas in 2018 it is rated 78.01% and 66.17% in Tanzania and India, respectively. Moreover, a comprehensive analysis of women's demographic characteristics and patterns of divorce in high divorce areas revealed an important link between women's empowerment and the decision to divorce. Implicitly, education had a significant impact on women's decision-making power. In addition, their self-independence that increased with education altered their fundamental perspectives on relationships.

Keywords: *divorce, unhappy marriages, decision-making and women empowerment.* <u>https://dx.doi.org/10.56279/NJIY8787/TJDS.v22i1.9</u>

Introduction

The independence of women refers to the autonomy and control over their lives, including economic, social, political, and educational aspects. As various scholars (see, for example, Dagnew, 2020; Carr, 2020; Amato, 2013; Tilson, 2000) have explicated, women's independence encompasses their control over their lives, including economic, social, political, and educational aspects. Whereas education and workforce participation influence economic independence, social independence allows women to make personal choices about marriage, childbirth, and lifestyle. Nevertheless, the relationship between women's independence and divorce remains complex since a myriad of forces influences it, including economic

^{*}Department of Sociology and Anthropology, University of Dar es Salaam: Mamta_trichal@yahoo.com, https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8236-5948

[©] Institute of Development Studies, University of Dar es Salaam, 2024

factors, legal reforms, societal shifts, and personal autonomy. Over the years, the historical context has evolved, with feminist movements advocating for bolstering women's rights. This article attempts to explain the relationship between divorce decisions and women's empowerment. Globally, a majority of countries continue experiencing a rapid rise in educational attainment, with educated women more likely to participate in the workforce (Byaro, 2023; Kabir, 2017; Lahoti et al., 2015). Depending on how fulfilling a marriage is, women linked to divorce may have different career and educational paths. If they are educated and self-sufficient, women in unhappy marriages have the freedom to make other decisions, including opting out, with their reduced reliance on men likely stemming from their participation in the workforce.

The position of women has had various difficulties across nations, with some communities working towards abolishing gender discrimination by empowering women through jobs and education. In this regard, studies have shown that women's ability of making decisions favourably correlates with their socioeconomic status, education level, and gainful employment. Arguably, educated women make better informed decisions than their uneducated counterparts, with educated working women often having some advantages over their unemployed counterparts (Namdeo, 2017; Khare, 2021), which is a manifestation of how education and employment can make a significant difference in women's lives. This article attempts to understand how divorce decisions and women's altered status-because of education and employment—relate to one another. In this regard, two communities—one from Africa (Tanzania), and the other from Asia (India)—were selected for the study. The two communities have cultural and linguistic diversities, and often contestable traditional values when it comes to gender and marriage. Moreover, the rise in divorce rates in both communities is a source of grave concerns in the societies of the two countries. Statistics show that the percentage of divorces in Tanzania rose from 1.1% in 2008-09 to 2.1% in 2014-15 (Khatibu & Mawoya, 2023). In other words, two people for every 100 people in the country have divorced. Similarly, north-east India experiences higher divorce rates, with Mizoram having the highest rate at 4.08%, and Nagaland the second highest rate at 0.88%, partly because that as people increasingly become more conscious of their rights, the more likely their problematical marriages are likely to end in divorce, hence the noted spike (National Family Health Survey, 2019). Today, many view divorce as a method to end unhappy marriages and have a more tranquil existence, rather than as a social taboo.

In both countries, frequent occurrences of divorces inevitably have detrimental effects on families. Indeed, studies—such as by Kutler et. al. (2018), Dechter (1992), and Fokema and Lifebroer (2004)—have noted that although women's income has a favourable effect on family welfare, it also has a detrimental effect on marital stability; and constitutes one of the causes of divorce. Moreover, as Vignoli et. al. (2018) note, literacy is essential for achieving personal development and empowerment. In this connection, education helps people accomplish their objectives, and gives them the confidence they need to engage properly and

meaningfully in society (Brandson, 1990; Tyki, 2001). This study posits that the theories that suggest a positive correlation between women's employment and divorce is premised on how women's entry into the workforce tends to cause stress amongst some couples since they are traditionally the ones who provide homecare.

In Africa, women are more likely to be negatively affected by divorce because they risk social exclusion and losing their homes and possessions (Dimitri, 2020; Clark, 2015). Despite many differences, both Tanzania and India share some similarities attributable to traditionally-rooted cultures and the value attached to the family above economic profits. These common traits are derivable from some meta-culture, for example, the Patri lineage or indivisible extended family organisations that are evident in the history of family systems of both sets of communities. Also, traditional marriages rules bear some similarities. In this regard, Abraham (1987) posits that, for Africans, marriage is usually not just the joining of a man and a woman: it is basically a community affair of joining two families. Similarly, in some Indian traditional cultures, a marriage is a union of two extended families (Lactionova, 2010; Vignoli, 2018).

Moreover, in traditional African communities, daughters undergo a conditioning that 'good wives' do not act contrary to their respective husbands' wishes; conversely, it is the obligation of men to take care of their wives, something they learn early. As Ogunngbemi (1993: 3) explicates, to "... the African men, failure to cater for the needs of their women (children) is morally unjust." Similarly, in Indian culture, parents of girls ought to teach them from childhood that after marriage one will be a guest when visiting a natal family (Sharma et al., 2013; Pandey, 1969). In fact, some Indian establishments are still of the view that one's daughters are only temporary: they are always meant to be of their husbands, and that the parents' main duties are only to arrange their marriages. After the ritual of Kanya dan, the father of a bride gives his daughter to a bridegroom while sermonising her that she should serve her husband and his family. Moreover, Hindu scriptures do not recognise a woman's right to leave her husband under any circumstances; but allow a married man to leave his wife or marry another on the ground of infidelity and childlessness. Consequently, many Hindu and African women end up staying in marriage despite being unhappy because of the enforced faith in traditional marriage systems.

Apparently, the traditions of both communities embrace the idea of bride and bridegroom price, which has a direct bearing on divorce. Bride price is an African tradition of giving cash and gifts to a bride's family before marriage (Sharma et al., 2013; Pandey, 1969). Traditionally, it signals commitment to take care of one's wife, and is a symbolic act of upholding culture rather than a purchase. But in many instances it may constitute an obstacle to divorce, and compromises the ability of the wife to leave her husband. It may also lead to a greater acceptance of violence within the home. In many circumstances, a woman's parents may be required to return the bride price, and hence circumstantially trap the wife in a marriage when her parents are unwilling to forego, or are incapable of repaying, the bride price. In fact, for some families the material benefits can coerce families into sanctioning

unhealthy marriages under the pretext of cultural expectations and community expectations (Thiara & Gill, 2010).

On the other hand, the dowry system in Indian marriages rates the bridegroom price based his education, income, and wealth (Lows & Nunn, 2017; Ashraf et al., 2016). This custom in Indian society frequently plays a role in the divorce rate and incidents of violence against women. In India, many regular families have been impacted by the dowry industry's avarice. Life in the groom's household usually turns dismal after marriage when the wife's parents are unable to meet the dowry demands of the husband's family. The woman will endure harsh treatment, and in certain cases, she might not survive the ordeal (Sharma, 1997; Dalmia & Lowerence, 2005: Malik, 2022). The National Crime Record Bureau (NCRB) statistics show that as many as 13,534 dowry cases were registered in 2022, a 25% rise from the 2020 cases.

In the past, paying bride price was more common than paying dowry, with only 3% of nations practising dowry payment, compared to 66% in the case of bride price, according to Murdock's Ethnographic Atlas (1967). In the Near East, Europe, East Asia, South Asia, and certain regions of the Americas, dowry was more customary than bride price. In South Asia, dowry payment remains more common; whereas it has mostly vanished in Western Europe. However, bride cost persists in Africa, parts of North and South America, and South and East Asia. In South India, a bride's parents gives her a bride price to pay for the dowry, which her relatives can claim only after her death. In many African societies, a woman's bride price may be applied to her brother's marriage, often seen as a debt owed to the sister (Becker, 1991; Rao, 1993; Goody, 1973). To put it succinctly, a woman in African and Indian societies is generally viewed through the lens of her family; and is expected to embrace marriage as the culmination of her existence, and to bear children.

Gender differences in the educational system and labour force are largely due to social attitudes towards women. Women often prioritise family interests over personal ones, leading to limited opportunities in the formal sector. However, education has opened opportunities for women in career advancement, with higher education enabling them to attain leadership positions and high-ranking jobs. This economic freedom has increased resistance against male-dominated structures, making it more comfortable to discuss divorce than in previous periods.

Poortman (2005) identifies two key components of the relationship between the rise in divorce rates and the growth in women's employment. First, more women are working, which has led to a rise in divorce rates; second, women who divorce are more likely to enter the workforce and begin working because of their higher levels of education. In other words, women's position starts to change drastically as they become more economically independent (Leopold, 2018; Diederik, 2018).

Methods

This study analysed divorce rates considering factors such as female literacy and employment status using secondary data. In the case of Tanzania, the data were obtained from the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) Report (2014, 2016); the

Registration Insolvency and Trusteeship Agency Report (RITA) (2021); Tanzanian Demographic and Health Survey (TDHS) of 2015–2016, and other periodic labour force surveys. For the Indian community, the data came from current census reports (NFHS) (2015–2016); the International Centre for Research on Women (ICRW) report (2000 & 2002); Periodic Labor Force Survey (PLFS) (2020–2021); and the All India Survey of Higher Education report (AISHE) (2019 & 2020).

Scenario of Divorces in India and Tanzania

With divorce rates of 1.1% and 2.1% in India (NFHS, 2019), and Tanzania (NBS, 2014), respectively, these two countries account for some of the lowest divorce rates. Have these low divorce rates got to do with marriages being so 'ideal', or the bonds between families and married couples being so strong in both of these countries? According to data from the NCW in India, 1-in-3 women had experienced some kind of physical or sexual violence in 2021 (Tjaden, 2000). Between January and May 2021, the NCW received over 2300 reports of domestic violence. Also, the number of complaints about having the right to live in dignity increased by 26% over the previous year (NCW, 2021). On the other hand, in Tanzania, lifetime physical or sexual intimate partner violence stands at 46.2% (MoHCDGEC, NBS & ICF, 2016). Some research suggests that abused women are more likely to get divorced than their peers not subjected to such maltreatment (Bowlus, 2006; Einio, 2023). It is clear from the foregoing that understanding the reason for the ostensibly low divorce rate despite such circumstances is, therefore, crucial. One explanation that immediately springs to mind is that the legal divorce algorithms in the communities may be opaque because of ambiguous marriage registration legislation. All in all, therefore, though both communities have some of the lowest divorce rates worldwide, there are still many unhappy marriages in both communities.

Research examining the relationship between women's income and employment and their history of violence also indicates that their education and other socioeconomic resources are the most significant and reliable indicators of relationship dissolution (Purewal, 2018; Anderson et al., 2003; Rhatigan al., Axsom, 2006). This is the subject of the following section.

Divorce Rate and Educational Status of Women

Women's socioeconomic position was quite low in traditional societies (Vasishta, 1976). The major causes of inequality were the lack of education and employment opportunities, as well as early marriages. Education empowers women to take their rightful societal roles by allowing them to express themselves and solve problems. With access to education, professional opportunities, and financial independence, women can voice their concerns in the family and community. Education also provides women with self-assurance about their rights, including the right to divorce, and helps them understand their obligations and rights. Such education, argues Brown (2016), significantly influences divorce decisions. Also, a study on the impact of education on decision making ability (Pushpa, 2017) found a significant difference between decision-making ability of educated women and uneducated women. For a long time, women were disadvantaged in their ability to engage in making decisions in various spheres as they were generally tied to their traditional role in domestic

spheres (Lausi, 2023; Thompson, 2020; Christine, 2020). Education and economic empowerment of women are increasingly redressing this situation.

One of the indicators of improved education is rising literacy rate. In India, women literacy rose from to 63% in 2015 from 26% in 1981; and the divorce rate rose to 3% from 0.36% in the respective period. Similarly for Tanzania, female literacy increased from 60.75% in 2008 to 73.05% in 2015; and the divorce rate from 1.1% to 2.1%, respectively. In other words, the statistics from Tanzania likewise demonstrate a strong correlation between the divorce rate and female literacy. Indeed, the increasing of women's literacy is coupled with rising divorce rates among Indian and Tanzanian populations, as Tables 1a and 1b, and Figures 1a and 1b, further illustrate.

Table 1a: Divorce rate and female literacy in India

Year	Divorce Rate	Female Literacy
1-1981	0.36	26.00
2-1991	0.50	31.01
3-2001	0.90	48.75
4-2006	1.50	51.36
5-2011	2.00	59.85
6-2015	3.00	63.00
7-2018		66.17

Source: UNESCO Report, 2022

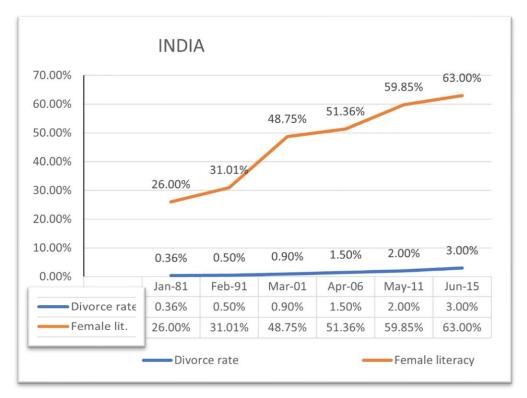


Figure 1a: Divorce Rate and Female Literacy in India Table 1b: - Divorce Rate and Female Literacy in Tanzania

Year	Divorce Rate	Female lit.
1998-89	NA	48.09
2008-09	1.1	60.75
2011-12	1.3	73.09
2012-13	1.8	73.35
2014-15	2.1	73.09

Source: NBS, 2014/2015; UNESCO Report, 2015

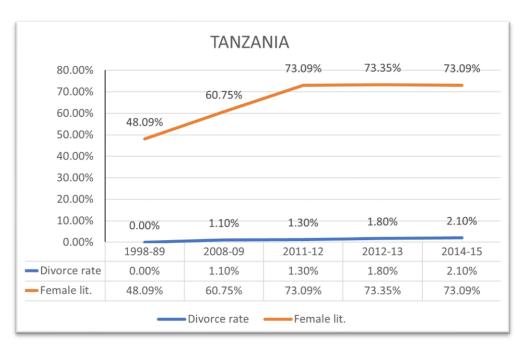


Figure 1b: Divorce Rate and Female Literacy in Tanzania

Although the rate of divorce is increasing globally, the NBS data of 2014-15 for Tanzania shows that the rate of divorce in the country has doubled within a period of six years. This is primarily because of rising education and traditional values being in a state of flux amidst societal push to give women assertiveness and equitable rights.

Tanzania has made significant strides in the educational sector over the past two decades, with a nearly universal primary education gross enrolment rate of 96.9% and a net enrolment of 84%, with more than 70% of primary school leavers transiting to secondary education (NBS, 2014). Higher education has also expanded rapidly from less than 20 higher education institutions in 2005 to more than 50 in 2016, with enrolment increasing from 40,000 in 2005 to over 200,000 in 2015 (ESDP, 2016). This growth has led to changes in Tanzanians' views on gender roles and attitudes. Education and wealth are key determinants of discriminatory social norms and attitudes towards women and men (Mok, 2016). Hence, educated women are more likely to petition for divorce due to their aspirations for equality in marriage and personal fulfilment (Sayer, 2011; Mok, 2016). They often identify poor interactions, adultery, disagreements over money, and the lack of emotional support as the primary reasons for divorce (Perreault, 2017). Men may also feel intimidated or challenged by their partner's success and independence, making it harder for them to manage their marriages with educated spouses. It may sometimes be difficult for men to manage their marriages with educated spouses because they feel frightened or challenged by their partners' success and independence. This might lead to

arguments and power disputes. The need of understanding and adjusting to the shifting gender roles and expectations in modern relationships is brought home by this interaction (Lausi, 2023; Diederik, 2018).

The rising number of female students enrolling in higher education can attest to the enhanced empowerment through education. For example, the University of Dar es Salaam Facts & Figures of 2014/15 reveals that in the 2014/15 academic year, 38% of the first-year registered students were females, rising to 47% in the 2019/2020 academic (Table 2); indicating a significant change in the educational status of females in Tanzania. The University of Dar es Salaam is the oldest of such institutions in Tanzania, hence ideal for exemplification purposes. Consequently, an increased number of educated women—from the tertiary level and above—has also proportionally boosted their representation in decision-making organs like in the parliament and top public administration organs (Brown, 2016), which also influence policies and legislations affecting women.

Table 2: Status of Higher Education of Females in Tanzania in 2014/15 & 2019/2020

Year Registered	Female Students
2014/15	38%
2019/20	47%

Source: UDSM Fact & Figures, 2014/2015-2019/2020

The percentage of women enrolled in higher education in India was 44.29% in the 2011/12 academic year, which climbed to 45.91% in the 2015/16 year, indicating an increase in the number of women enrolled in higher education, as Table 3 illustrates.

Table 3: Status of Higher Education of Females in India

Year Registere	d Female Students
1950-51	10.00
1970-71	20.02
1990-91	32.50
2005-06	40.50
2011-12	44.29
2014-15	45.90
2015-16	45.91

Source: MHRD Report 2017 at www.mhrd.gov.in

Moreover, the share of female students for students in institutes under the state legislature Act is 61.2%, and in state public universities is 50.1%; whereas in central universities it is 48.1%. Moreover, according to the MHRD (2021), the medical science stream indicates female domination, where out of total 13.5 lakh students, females are 8.04 lakh (62.2%).

3. Divorce Rate and Employment Status of Women

The analysis reveals that the increase in divorces over the past 20 years is mostly due to the greater independence of women and increased awareness of human

rights (Mok, 2016; Wood, 2013). Even though women in traditional communities have long suffered from physical, mental, and emotional abuse at the hands of men (Christine 2020; Einio, 2023), it is only in recent times that these instances have reached the judicial system due to growing knowledge of modern women's rights. The first comprehensive national studies on intimate partner violence was conducted by Statistics Canada in 1993, the Centres for Disease Control and Prevention and the National Institute of Justice in the United States in 1994. The study collected data on the incidence and prevalence of physical and sexual intimate partner violence. The results showed that millions of Americans suffered from such violence, with 24.8% of women reporting having ever experienced physical or sexual abuse from an intimate relationship (Tajaden, 2000). Many European nations, including Finland and Sweden, followed suit a few years later and conducted their own nationally representative surveys on violence against women; and the findings were similar (WHO, 2016). Intimate partner abuse is a global and pervasive epidemic that disproportionately affects young women and those from less developed nations, according to estimates from 2013 and 2018 (WHO, 2013 & 2019). Physical violence and mental abuse have been the two main issues (Sardinha et al., 2022; Garcia, 2006; Jorden, 2010; Brandle, 2022), with NFHS (2019) statistics indicating a 26% global prevalence of IPV in 2018. In this aspect, the prevalence is 35% in southern Asia, in which India falls; and 33% in Africa, where Tanzania is located.

Evidently, the view of women has changed fundamentally due to the impact of education. In a recent study, Namadev (2017) found a significant difference between decision-making ability of educated working women and educated non-working women. Educated working women are more capable of making their own independent decisions than their non-working counterparts. In fact, many women today make more money than their male colleagues. In consequence, women leave marriages requiring them to put up with controlling and violent husbands (Tjaden, 2000; Brandle, 2020). Due to social, familial, and economic pressures, women in the past continued to be in relationships even after discovering their spouses' infidelity and brutality. Prospectively, women's working status represents a potent force that is driving divorce rates up (Hobson1990; Kalmijin & Poortman, 2006). Many scholars suggest that a woman's involvement in paid work might be indicative of her partners' poor performance as an income provider, which might lead to strain (Cherlin, 1979; Jalovaara, 2003).

With an increase in educational level, Tanzanian women's contribution to the economy has significantly gone up. Women's participation in the labour force was high at 80% in 2019, according to the ILO (2021). However, it remains below that of men with a gender gap of 7% (ibid.). The World Bank reveals that projections were at 83.35%, with a minimum of 79.37% in 2020 and a maximum of 87.11% in 2006. The latest value from 2021 is 79.53%. For comparison, the world average in 2021 based on 181 countries was 50.14%. Women's economic empowerment encompasses a wide set of issues, notably control over their own time, lives and bodies, and socioeconomic decision-making (UN Women, 2020). Nevertheless,

the focus has primarily been on women's capacity to make strategic choices in other dimensions of their lives related to well-being, social empowerment, health and education (Kabeer, 2015): the changes associated with women's empowerment that are making a difference.

In Tanzania, most households are male-headed, just like in India. However, female-headed households have significantly increased from 18% in 1991-92 to 25% in 2011-12 (NHS, 2014) because of an increment in women's independence (Lihiru, 2023; Jackson, 2014). In 1985, Tanzania was the one of the first countries to establish a women's quota for parliamentary seats and reserved seats. As a result, the number of female members of parliament has since steadily increased. Over the years, the country has also initiated some political reforms that contributed to 19 women holding cabinet positions, and 36.8% occupying parliamentary seats in 2018. The empowerment of women also increased their decision-making power.

The increased participation of educated women in the labour force might have increased their financial independence. Paradoxically, the recent trend show that even though labour force participation of females is declining, the rate of divorce is increasing, as Table 4 illustrates.

Table 4: WPR and Divorce Rate in Tanzania

Year	Divorce Rate	Female Labour Force %
2008-09	1.1	87
2011-12	1.3	82
2012-13	1.8	81
2014-15	2.1	80

Source: Census-2011 & NBS, 2014; ILO, 2022

It is assumed that, like India, as educational attainment rises, the proportion of women who are illiterate or have less education declines. In India, the proportion of working women has sharply decreased (Table 5). However, this is not depressing considering that the percentage of illiterate women in the workforce is decreasing: between 1983 and 2018 it fell from 59% to 22% in urban regions; and from 85% to 29% in rural areas. According to the most recent data on WPR by educational level (2017–2018), women's labour quality appears to be higher in urban India than in rural areas, where only 13% of women have college degrees or above live. In comparison, about one-third of women in the workforce in urban areas have degrees.

Table5: WPR and Divorce Rate in India

Year	Divorce Rate	WPR
1. 1981	0.36	25.8
2. 1991	0.50	35.0
3. 2001	0.90	34.5
4. 2006	1.50	29.6
5. 2011	2.00	27.0
6. 2015	3.00	24.0
7. 2018		10.0

Source: NBS & ILO 2021

More importantly, the survey shows that more than 67% of the women were married, compared to those who were single (21.2%), widowed (9.2%), and divorced (1.6%) (Mkuna, 2021).

While agriculture is still the most significant activity for less educated women in urban Tanzania (Klesen, 2019), as education levels rise more women in Tanzania moves in search of better career prospects since higher educated women are more active in business and formal employment. Klesen and Pieters (2015) observed that, for India, the average participation rates are lower for women with lower education than with those with higher qualifications. In fact, prospects slightly increased for those with secondary school, graduates and -- much more significantly -- for women with postgraduate credentials. The majority of less educated women also worked in other sectors, including agriculture, wholesaling, and trade. On the other hand, most highly educated women had white collar jobs, or worked in public administration, education, and health.

4. Educational and Employment Status of Women in High/Low Divorce Rate Regions

Further analysis of high divorce rate areas shows a significant relationship between education and divorce decision. In India, Mizoram (the second-least populous state) had one of the highest divorce rates of 6.34%, according to the 2011 census data. The state also happened to have a high (91.33%) literacy rate: 93.35% for males and 89.27% for female. In Meghalaya, which is second in divorce cases, female literacy is rated at 72.89%; followed by Sikkim and Kerala, where female literacy is also found to be exceedingly high (92.65%, 96.11%, respectively). Lower divorce rates can be found in Jammu and Kashmir (0.69%), UP (0.12%), Bihar (0.04%), and Rajasthan (0.25). The NSSO poll results on the labour force show that Mizoram has the highest proportion of women working in India at 59% (7 March 2019). Moreover, among legislators, senior officials, and managers, Mizoram has the greatest ratio of female to male employees (70.9%) (periodic labour force survey, PLFS, for July 2020 to June 2021). The data further show that the ratio of the female workers to total workers in usual status working in managerial position was 18% at the national level. Female literacy rate in Kerala is extremely high with 92% as Figures 2a and 2b illustrate. Moreover, previous evidence reveals that the FPR of women in Kerala is lower.

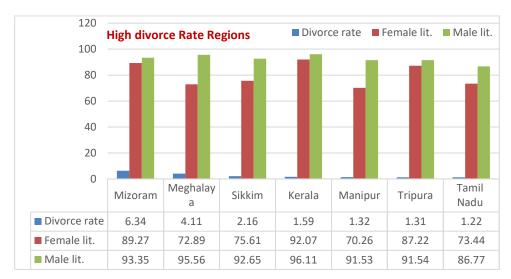


Figure 2a: High Divorce Rate and Female Literacy in India

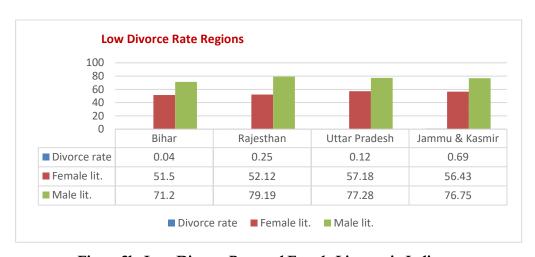
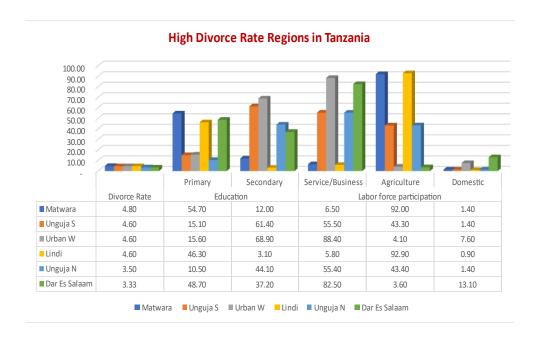


Figure 2b: Low Divorce Rate and Female Literacy in India Source: Census Data, 2011

Further analysis of female educational attainments and labour force participation in high/low divorce regions in Tanzania shows that Unguja South, Urban West, Unguja North, and Dar es Salaam region fall in the high divorce rate regions with a high proportion of females with secondary education and above, and with the majority undertaking services/businesses. Meanwhile, the study found no significant impact in Mtwara and Lindi. In low divorce regions, a higher proportion of females were educated up to primary school level, and the majority of them were engaged in agriculture as presented in Figures 3a and 3b.



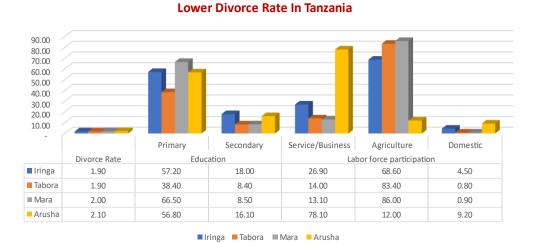


Figure 3a and 3b: High/low Divorce Rate Regions in Tanzania Source: Census, 2012; NBS, 2014 Report

Current Scenario of Divorce in India and Tanzania

One may assume that the census data from 2011 and 2012 are outdated statistics that were gathered years ago, and that the number of divorce cases is steadily rising. The number of married couples divorcing has been rising year after year in Tanzania, according to the Registration Insolvency and Trusteeship Agency (RITA). For example, in Dar es Salaam alone, the number of divorcees increased from 106 in

2014 to 149 in 2022. As the majority of couples do not file divorce papers, the number of actual divorcees exceeds those of our findings as captured by official records (RITA). According to recent studies, married couples are witnessing a concerning divorce trend. Dar es Salaam alone records more than 300 marriages per month, according to the parliament's social service development committee.

Similarly, divorce rates are rising daily in India. According to a news report of March 26, 2018, about 40% of Mumbai and Delhi marriages end in divorce. Whereas the divorce rate was 4.23% in 2020, the percentage was 2.7 in just the first five months of 2021. This statistic demonstrates that the number of divorce cases is rising daily. According to data from the Ministry of Law, Uttar Pradesh has the most pending divorce cases. which has 2, 64, 409 unresolved divorce cases in its family courts (Ministry of Law, 2018). More than 7 lakh divorce cases were pending judicial settlement by the end of December 2017. According to the law ministry, only the state of Uttar Pradesh had a 38% share. The third highest waiting rate was observed in Bihar, where 46,735 cases were pending. Both states were listed in the 2011 census report as having low divorce rates. In a further investigation of women's literacy, it emerged that in the states of UP and Bihar, the percentage of literate women has increased to 63.4% and 60.5%, respectively (NFHS, 2017), hence indicating a correlation between educational achievement and divorce decision.

This is a series of mismatched, incoherent, and confusing data

Overall, India appears to have a high divorce rate, according to the 2019–2020 UN report on world women's progress of families in changing world. According to a piece that appeared in the *Economic Times* on January 11, 2022, there had been a 50%–60% spike in divorce cases in 2021 due to the country's high post-pandemic stress levels among working professionals. Additionally, growing high is underlined mutual consent. Another piece of evidence that was reported in the news on May 30, 2016 showed that the divorce rate had increased. The main causes of divorce are no longer infidelity and impotence; as women today are becoming more educated and independent, they can resist physical or emotional abuse and, if necessary, seek separation.

Again, this is a series of general statements that are uncorroborated with data and sources

Discussion

The study has provided factors, including educational attainment and employment status, and how these have affected marriage stability in two traditional communities of India and Tanzania. Approximations indicate a noteworthy correlation between increased educational attainment and a rising divorce frequency. The degree of education and work position of a woman may influence her decision to file for divorce. Women with higher levels of education may have different expectations from marriage than what is often expected of them. From the standpoint of social interaction, employment, earning capacity, and education all raise the likelihood that women in unhappy marriages may petition for divorce. This was not the case in happy marriages, according to Schoen et al.'s (2002) study of 2,988 married couples to determine whether female's full-time employment affected divorce rates particularly when not in happy marriages. If a woman is

There is no coherent flow, and it is not within my competence to deal with it. So I ENDED here. independent and educated, she will have the opportunity to choose another partner if the first is unpleasant. For instance, a study of 100 women strongly stated that they would permanently leave their abusive relationships (Rusbuldt, 1995). Additionally, research indicates that divorce rates are higher for battered women (Bowlus, 2006). Men's history of violence and women's income and employment correlate, hence indicating that women's socioeconomic resources—such as education—are the most significant and reliable indicators of relationship failure (Anderson and Saunders, 2003; Kreager et. al., 2013; Jalovara, 2010).

According to a recent study, educated and working spouses are more likely to petition for divorce than unemployed or less educated wives (Namdeo, 2017). Studies support the idea that these qualities impact when a partner is mistreating someone (Bowlus & Seitz, 2006; Anisimov, 2016; Laktinova, 2010; Badawi, 2018). Generally, the attractiveness of the present marriage's alternatives—such as dating other people or remaining single—can influence divorce independently of how happy the marriage is (Lyngstad and Jalovara, 2010). Second, educated women are more likely to work and, thus, meet alternative partners at work (Server, 2007). Many scholars have suggested that a woman's involvement in paid work might be indicative of her partner's poor performance, which might lead to strains between spouses (Charlin, 1979; Jalovara, 2003) whereas others have argued that it gives her the opportunity to support herself and her children independently.

Nevertheless, the outcomes of numerical research on the effect of women's education, income, and work status are inconclusive. It has been convincingly proven by numerous studies that today, women are the ones who initiate close to 70% of divorces. According to a 2015 survey by the American Sociological Association (ASA), women allegedly initiate two-thirds of all the divorces; among those with college degrees, this number rises to 90% (Murphy, 2019). Another contributory factor is overwhelming stress in married life for women persist because of the gendered role, which prompts many women to adjust in dual role. Also, the US Bureau of Labour Statistics (2019) indicate that, on average, only 20% of men and 49% of women worked in households in 2018. In other words, women continue to be under a lot of pressure to work both within and outside the home while raising children. Furthermore, wives typically discover that their husbands do not encourage them when they succeed immensely in their careers. Six thousand American heterosexual couples found in a 2019 study that was published in the Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin that many males had psychological discomfort when their women made more than 40% of the home income after 15 years of marriage. These are all the elements that go into making a marriage miserable.

Conclusion

On the whole, increasing women's economic independence alone cannot fully account for why women are more likely than men to file for divorce. Instead, it might be directly or indirectly a matter of their choice due to a variety of factors, including the relationship being much more beneficial to men than women. Moreover, women

bear the bulk of responsibilities for childcare and housework, which can be overwhelming and stressful for working women. Furthermore, among educated middle and upper classes, the ideals of good marriage have evolved to include responsibility sharing and a stronger emphasis on equality in marital relationships. Indubitably, women now have comparable or nearly universal equal rights and suffrage as their men counterparts. In the past, many women ended up trapped in miserable marriages because they were over-reliant on their spouse for lack of gainful employment and, at times, lack of education altogether. Such women often followed social demands that they get married to secure their financial stability, with some of them even committing suicide or murder to escape profound suffering. The women may now manage their finances, own property, and quit unhappy marriages without starving to death through choice of making divorce.

Recommendations

India and Tanzania should implement marriage counselling, family life education, support networks, legal reforms, gender equality, work-life balance, positive media narratives, and mental health support to reduce divorce rates and promote healthier marriages. Policies supporting work-life balance and shared household responsibilities can also help. Besides, marriage and divorce must be registered under strict rules. Communities should involve community leaders, ensure accessible legal processes, respect cultural values, address health issues, and promote mental health awareness. Furthermore, formal registration of marriage and divorce is required for transparency. For a current and correct update, research must be promoted. These recommendations seek to lessen the increasing divorce rates and encourage stronger, longer-lasting marriages by considering the unique cultural, social, and economic circumstances of Tanzania and India.

References

- Abraham, W. (1987). Sources of African Identity. In Alwin Diemer (ed.). *Africa and the Problem of Its Identity*, Frankfurt, Peter Lang.
- Alison, A., Omar, R. & Huguette, S. (2013). Marriage and Divorce: Patterns By Gender, Race, and Educational Attainment. *Monthly Labor Review*, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, https://doi.org/10.21916/mlr. 2013. 32.
- Amato, P. R. & Boyd, L. M. (2013). Children and Divorce in World Perspective. In Abela, A. & Walker, J. (eds.). Contemporary Issues in Family Studies: Global Perspectives on Partnerships, Parenting and Support in a Changing World. Pp. 227–243.
- Amato, P. R., Booth, A., Johnson D. R. & Rogers, S. J. (2007). *Alone Together: How Marriage in America is Changing*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press (p. 148).

- Anderson, D. K. & Saunders, D. G. (2003). Leaving an Abusive Partner: An Empirical Review of Predictors, the Process of Leaving, and Psychological Well-Being. *Trauma, Violence & Abuse*, 4(2), 163–191. https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838002250769.
- Anisimov, S. A. (2016). Female Violence as an Attribute of the Destruction of Family Relations, the Dynamics and Inertia of Reproduction of the Population and the Replacement of Generations in Russia and the CIS. *Sociologists and the History of the Reproduction of the Population of Russia*, Yekaterinburg, 1: 159.
- Ashraf, N., Bau, N., Nunn, N. & Voena, A. (2016). 'Bride Price and Female Education'. Working Paper. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University, National Bureau of Economic Research. webaccessibility@nber.org
- Ayisi, O. E. (1997). An *Introduction to the Study of African Culture*. Nairobi: East African Publishers.
- Badawi, D. (2018). Equality of Genders in Islam, Information on http://baznica.info/article/nasilie-v-korane/.
- Becker, G. (1991). A *Treatise on the Family*. Enl. ed. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Bowlus & Seitz. (2006). Domestic Violence, Employment, and Divorce. *International Economic Review*, 47(4). *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 21(6): 558–571.
- Brandson, A. (1990). Marriage Dissolution, Remarriage and Childbearing in West African: A Comparison Study of Cote d' Ivor, Ghana and Nigeria. Ph. D. thesis, Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania.
- Brown P. (2016). The Transformation of Higher Education, Credential Competition, and the Graduate Labour Market. In: Cote J. E., Furlong A. (Eds.). *Routledge Handbook of the Sociology of Higher Education* (pp. 197–207). New York: Routledge.
- Byaro, M., Mafwolo, G. & Ngereza, C. (2023). Does Unemployment in Sub-Saharan Africa Have Asymmetric Effects on Health? a Panel Quantile Approach. the *Journal of Economic Asymmetries*, 28, e00316.
- Cherlin, A. (1979). Work Life in Marital Dissolution. In: Levinger, G. & Moles, O. C. (Eds.). *Divorce and Separation, Basic Books*. New York, 151–166.
- Christine, S. (2020). *Women in Precolonial Africa*. https://doi.org/10.1093/ acrefore/ 9780190277734.013.259.
- Coltrane, S. (1996). Family Man: Fatherhood, Housework and Gender Equity. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Dacher, M. (1992). Compensation Matrimonial et Dette Feminine: Les Goin du Burkina Faso in Relations Genre et Development: Femmes et Sociétés, Éditions de l'ORSTOM (Colloques et seminaries): Paris, pp. 57–73.
- Dagnew, G. W. (2020). Factors Associated with Divorce from First Union Among Women in Ethiopia: Further Analysis of the 2016 Ethiopia Demographic and Health Survey Data. *PLoS One* 15(12): e0244014.
- Dalmia, S. & Lawrence, P. G. (2005). The Institution of Dowry in India: Why it Continues to Prevail. The *Journal of Developing Areas*, 38(2): 71–93.

- Diederik, B. & Harkonnen. (2018). Why Does Women's Education Stabilize Marriages? the Role of Marital Attraction and Barriers to Divorce. *Demographic Research*, 38(41): 12411276. http://www.demographicresearch.org/Volumes/Vol38/41/ DOI: 10.4054/ DemRes. 2018. 38. 41.
- Gill, H., Thiara, K. R. & Turner, A. (2011). Bride-price and its Links to Domestic Violence and Poverty in Uganda: A Participatory Action Research Study. Women's International Forum, 34(6): 550–561.
- Goody, J. & Tambiah, S. J. (1973). *Bride Wealth and Dowry*. Cambridge, U. K.: Cambridge University Press.
- Härkönen, J. & Dronkers, J. (2006). Stability and Change in the Educational Gradient of Divorce. A Comparison of Seventeen Countries. *European Sociological Review*, 22: 501–507.
- Hobson, B. (1990). No Exit, No Voice: Women's Economic Dependency and the Welfare State. *Acta Sociological*, 33(3): 235–250. http://www.jstor.org/stable/4200800.
- Jordan, C. E., Campbell, R. & Follingstad, D. (2010). Violence and Women's Mental Health: The Impact of Physical, Sexual, and Psychological Aggression. *Annual Review of Clinical Psychology*, 6: 607–628. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-clinpsy-090209-151437.
- Kabeer, N. (2009). Women's Economic Empowerment: Key Issues and Policy Options. *Women's Economic Empowerment*, Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency, https://cdn. SIDA. se/publications/files/sida52479en-womens-economic-empowerment. pdf.
- Kabeer, N. (2015). Gender Equality, Economic Growth, and Women's Agency: The Endless Variety and Monotonous Similarity of Patriarchal Constraints. *Feminist Economics*, 22(1): 295–321.
- Kabeer, N. (2016). Economic Pathways to Women's Empowerment and Active Citizenship: What Does the Evidence from Bangladesh Tell Us? *Journal of Development Studies*. pp. 1–15. ISSN 0022–0388.
- Kabir. (2017). Economic Pathways to Women's Empowerment and Active Citizenship: What Does the Evidence from Bangladesh Tell Us? the *Journal of Development Studies*.
- Kalmijin, M., Poortman, A. R. (2006). His or Her Divorce? the Gendered Nature of Divorce and Its Detriments. *European Sociological Review*, 22: 201–214.
- Kalokhe, A., Del Rio, C., Dunkle, K., Stephenson, R., Metheny, N., Paranjape, A. & Sahay, S. (2017). Domestic Violence Against Women in India: A Systematic Review of a Decade of Quantitative Studies. *Glob Public Health*. 12(4): 498–513.
- Khatibu, K. & Mawoya, B. (2023). Road to Divorce in Tanzania. *African Journal of Economic Review*, II(5): Dec, 2023.
- Klasen, S. & Pieters, J. (2015). What Explains the Stagnation of Female Labour Force Participation in Urban India? *World Bank Economic Review*, Volume 29, Issue 3, 2015, Pages 449–478, https://doi.org/10.1093/wber/lhv003.
- Kreager, A. D., Felson, R. B., Wenger, M. R. & Warner. (2018). Women's Education, Marital Violence and Divorce: A Social Exchange Perspective. *Journal of Marriage Family*, 75(3).

- Lahoti, R. & Swaminathan, H. (2015). Economic Development and Women's Labor Force Participation in India. *Feminist Economics*, 22(2): 168–195. https://doi.org/10.1080/13545701.2015.1066022.
- Laktionova, M. A. (2010). Gender-based Violence as a Sociocultural Phenomenon: Stating the Problem. *Bulletin of the Maikop State Technological University*, 4: 37.
- Lausi, G., Burrai, J., Baldi, M., Ferlazzo, F., Ferracuti, S., Giannini, A. M. & Barchielli, B. (2023). Decision-Making and Abuse, What Relationship in Victims of Violence? *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 20(10): 5879. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph20105879.
- Leopold, T. (2018). Gender Differences in the Consequences of Divorce: A Study of Multiple Outcomes. *Demography*, 55(3): 769–797. https://doi.org/10.1007/s13524-018-0667-6.
- Lihiru, V. M. (2023). Promoting Women's Political Participation in Tanzania: Assessing Voluntary Gender Quotas in CCM's and CHADEMA's Constitutions. *Journal of Southern African Studies*, 49(5–6): 1003–1021. https://doi.org/10.1080/03057070.2023.2327265.
- Lowes, S. & N. Nunn. (2017). 'Bride Price and the Wellbeing of Women'. WIDER Working Paper 2017/131. Helsinki: UNU-WIDER.
- Malik, A. H. & Malik, A. M. (2022). Dowry System as a Social Evil: A Study of India. *American Journal of Multidisciplinary Research in Africa*, 2(1): 1–9.
- Mbuyita, S. (2021). SIGI Tanzania Qualitative Report. https://www.oecd.org/development/
- Mok K. H. (2016). Massification of Higher Education, Graduate Employment and Social Mobility in the Greater China Region. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 37: 51–71.
- Mortelmans, D. (2020). Parental Life Courses After Separation and Divorce in Europe. *Life Course Research and Social Policies*, 12.
- Namdeo, R. (2017). Impact of Education on Decision-making Ability of Women. *Educational Quest: An Int. J. of Education and Applied Social Science*: Special Issue. 8: 431–434, June 2017. DOI: 10.5958/2230–7311.2017.00087.3.
- Nutan, K., Rajan, R. & Chander, S. (2022). Determinants of Under-registration of Marriage among Women in India: An Exploratory Study in Jhunjhunu District of Rajasthan. *Clinical Epidemiology and Global Health*, 14: 100976, ISSN 2213–3984, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cegh.2022.100976.
- Ogungbemi, S. (1993). A Critical Assessment of Religions in Africa with Focus on African Traditional Religion & Islam. *Journal of African Religion and Philosophy*. Vol 2, issue 2: 151–154.
- Pandey, R. (1969). *Hindu Samskaras: Socio-religious Study of the Hindu Sacraments*. See Chapter VIII, pp. 153–233. ISBN 978–8120803961.
- PEW Research Centre. (2007). Modern Marriage. Retrieved June 12, 2009 from http://pewsocialtrends.org/pubs/542/modern-marriage.

- Poortman, A. (2005). How Work Affects Divorce. The Mediating Role of Financial and Time Pressures. *Journal of Family Issues*, 26: 168–195. doi: 10.1177/0192513X04270228.
- Purewal, N. (2018). Sex Selective Abortion, Neoliberal Patriarchy and Structural Violence in India. *Feminist Review*, 119(1): 20–38. https://doi.org/10.1057/s41305-018-0122-y
- Rao, V. 1993. The Rising Price of Husbands: A Hedonic Analysis of Dowry Increases in Rural India. *Journal of Political Economy*, 101(4): 666–677.
- Rusbult, C. E. & Martz, J. M. (1995). Remaining in an Abusive Relationship: An Investment Model Analysis of Nonvoluntary Dependence. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 21(6): 558–571. https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167295216002
- Sardinha L, Maheu-Giroux M, Stöckl H, Meyer SR, García-Moreno C. (2022). Global, Regional, and National Prevalence Estimates of Physical or Sexual, or Both, Intimate Partner Violence Against Women in 2018. *Lancet*, 399: (10327): 803–13.
- Schouler-Ocak, M. & Brandl, E. J. (2022). The Impact of Violence and Abuse on Mental Health of Women Current Data. *European Psychiatry*, 65(Suppl. 1): S37. https://doi.org/10.1192/j. eurpsy. 2022. 130.
- Sharma, I., Pandit, B., Pathak, A. & Sharma, R. (2013). Hinduism, Marriage and Mental Illness. *Indian Journal of Psychiatry*, 55(Supple 2): S243–S249. https://doi.org/ 10.4103/0019-5545.105544.
- Sharma, R. (1997). Domestic Violence and Women. Jaipur, Mangal Deep Publications.
- Shelton, B. A. & Daphne, J. (1996). The Division of Household Labor. *Annual Review of Sociology*. Annual reviews, Palo Alto, CA, 22: 299–322. 10.1146/annurev.soc.22.1.299.
- Shita, N. G. & Zeleke, L. B. (2024). Predictors of Divorce and Duration of Marriage Among First Marriage Women in Dejne Administrative Town. *Sci Rep.* 14: 8728. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-024-59360-5.
- Stephenson, E., & DeLongis, A. (2019). A 20-year prospective study of marital separation and divorce in stepfamilies: Appraisals of family stress as predictors. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, *36*(6), 1600-1618. https://doi.org/10.1177/0265407518768445
- Takyi, B. K. (2001). Marital Instability in an African Society: Exploring the Factors That Influence Divorce Processes in Ghana. *Sociological Focus*, 34: 77–96.
- Thompson, N. (2020). *Anti-Discriminatory Practice, Equality, Diversity and Social Justice*. London, UK: Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Tilson, D. & Larsen, U. (2000). Divorce in Ethiopia: The impact of Early Marriage and Childlessness. *J. Biosocial Sci.* 32(3): 355–372.
- Tjaden, P. & Thoennes, N. (2000). Prevalence and Consequences of Male-to-female and Female-to-male Intimate Partner Violence as Measured by the National Violence Against Women Survey. *Violence Against Women*, 6(2): 142–61.
- UNWomen. (2020). *Facts and Figures: Economic Empowerment*, https://www.unwomen.org/en/what-we-do/economiempowerment/facts-and-figures.
- Vignoli, D., Styrc, M., Matysiak, A. & Tocchioni, V. (2017). The Positive Impact of Women's Employment in Divorce Context, Selection or Anticipation. *Demographic Research*, 38: 1059–1110.

- Woodd, M. (2013). The Move Towards a Different Career Pattern: Are Women Better Prepared Than Men for a Modern Career? *Career Development International*, 5: 99–105.
- World Health Organisation (WHO). (2016). Global Plan of Action to Strengthen the Role of the Health System Within a National Multisectoral Response to Address Interpersonal Violence, in Particular Against Women and Girls, and Against Children. Geneva: WHO. https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/9789241511537.
- World Health Organisation (WHO). (2019). *RESPECT Women: Preventing Violence Against Women*. Geneva: WHO. https://www.unwomen.org/en/digital-library/publications/2019/05/respect-women-preventing-violence-against-women.