

UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA



**NATIONAL REPORT ON
HUMAN SETTLEMENTS DEVELOPMENT
IN TANZANIA**

Prepared for

HABITAT II

**THE SECOND UNITED NATIONS
CONFERENCE ON HUMAN SETTLEMENTS
ISTANBUL, TURKEY, 3 - 14 JUNE 1996**

April, 1996

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work is the joint effort of many people but the special input of the following is acknowledged:

<i>Mr J. Mghweno</i>	<i>Director of Housing Development, Ministry of Lands, Housing and Urban Development (MLHUD)</i>
<i>Mr. Alphonse G. Kyessi,</i>	<i>Acting Director, Centre for Human Settlements Studies (CHS), Ardhi Institute</i>
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<i>Dr. J.M. Lusugga Kironde</i>	<i>Associate Professor, Ardhi Institute</i>
<i>Mr B.A. Seleki</i>	<i>Senior Principal Town Planner (MLHUD)</i>
<i>Mr A. Mushi</i>	<i>Managing Director, Co-Architecture</i>

The following Members of the National Steering Committee deserve special thanks:

<i>Mr. D.M. Mmari</i>	<i>Principal Secretary (MLHUD)</i>
<i>MR. Rogatian Shirima</i>	<i>Then Principal Secretary (MLHUD)</i>
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<i>Prof. I. Kikula</i>	<i>Director, Institute of Resources Assessment (IRA), University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM)</i>
<i>Mr. Ernest</i>	<i>For City Planner, Dar es Salaam</i>
<i>Mr. J. Zayumba</i>	<i>Director of Social Services, Planning Commission</i>
<i>K.N. Msita</i>	<i>Executive Secretary - National Construction Council (NCC)</i>

PART I: INTRODUCTION

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Preparation of the National Report for Habitat II Conference.

The First United Nations Conference on human settlements was held in Vancouver, Canada in 1976.

This First Conference required governments to implement most of the 64 resolutions endorsed in that Conference.

During the ensuing 20-year period (1976-1996) it has become clear that the involvement of all interested groups in human settlements development is a pre-requisite for attaining the goals set, especially in the areas of Shelter and Sustainable Human Settlements Development in an urbanizing world.

Habitat II is the Second United Nations Conference on Human Settlements. It is a follow up on the Vancouver Conference and it is to take place in Istanbul, Turkey between 3-14 June, 1996. In recognition of the rapidly urbanising world, this Conference is also to be known as the "City Summit".

The Habitat II Conference aims at addressing two themes, that is:

- (a) Shelter for All
- (b) Sustainable Human Settlement Development in an Urbanizing World.

This Conference is unique in the sense that it is the last UN Conference in a series of major conferences this century, coming, as it is, after the Women Conference in Beijing in September, 1995.

The Conference is also unique in the sense that all interested groups will sit together and deliberate on the two themes, a departure from the conventional system where only government bureaucrats attended this kind of conferences.

The Habitat II Conference was called by Heads of Governments after the 1992 UNCED Summit in Rio De Janeiro which endorsed Agenda 21.

Each government was required to prepare a National Report on the two themes, and to submit it to the Habitat II Secretariat. Heads of Governments are expected to present their National Reports at this Istanbul Conference in June, 1996.

1.2 The Participants in the Preparation of the National Report for Tanzania

This National Report on Human Settlements Development in Tanzania, including the National Plan of Action, was prepared through a highly consultative process. A National Steering Committee comprising of 20 members was appointed by the Government. It started its work in August 1994.

Members of the National Steering Committee were drawn from various actors involved in human settlement development. Its membership was composed as shown below:

Sector	Number of Members
Central Government	6
Local Government	5
Parastatal Organisations	3
Private Sector	2
Training and Research Institutions	2
Non-governmental Organisations	2
Total	20

A National Coordinator was also appointed on 1st August, 1994 on part-time basis.

The task of the National Steering Committee was to prepare a National Report which was to include:

- i) An assessment of human settlements in Tanzania with special emphasis on urban areas.
- ii) An Assessment of the National Shelter Situation using indicators and also highlighting the situation on a gender basis.
- iii) An Assessment of the Environmental Situation in Urban Areas
- iv) An Assessment of current and past programmes and strategies that have a bearing on human settlements development.
- v) A National Plan of Action designed to bring together all participants in the Human Settlements Development.
- vi) A review of Programmes that may be specific for Tanzania.
- vii) Technical and Financial options including capacity building, necessary to implement the National Plan of Action

In order for the National Committee to work efficiently towards that goal, it formed itself into three sub-Committees to address three tasks which were considered to be key ingredients for the National Report. The tasks were:

- i) A review of the effectiveness of existing policies and strategies;
- ii) Assessment of needs using urban indicators incorporating gender analysis. This included capacity building in the field of human settlements development.
- iii) Nomination and dissemination of best practices and partnership in managing human settlements

This Report is a result of several consultative processes which included: reviewing of existing national reports, some of which were presented at recent United Nation Conferences; conducting studies; and organising consultative meetings, workshops and seminars. A National Workshop on Urban and Housing Indicators; A National Exhibition of Best Practices

in Tanzania, and a National Workshop to deliberate on the draft National Report were held as part of the consultative process which culminated into the National Report for Habitat II.

1.3 COUNTRY OVERVIEW

1.3.1 Location and Land Area

Tanzania is located in Eastern Africa just South of the Equator. It is bounded to the east by the Indian Ocean; to the south and west by a chain of mountains and deep, narrow lakes (Lakes Nyasa and Tanganyika) along tectonic fault lines; to the Northwest by Lake Victoria, a large, shallow lake that is the source of the River Nile; and to the northeast by high mountains (Mt. Kilimanjaro and Mt. Meru) and plains extending into Kenya. The interior is divided by mountain ranges into the Central and Eastern Plateaus in the West and Southeast and the Masai Steppe in the Northeast. Offshore the marine coast are three large Islands, Zanzibar, Pemba and Mafia and numerous smaller ones.

The area of Tanzania Mainland is 942,600 square kilometres or 364,900 square miles. This is divided into 888,200 square kilometres of land surface, and 54,400 square kilometres of water. Zanzibar and Pemba Islands have a total area of 2,332 square kilometres. Most of the country forms a plateau lying between 1020 and 1650 metres above sea level. About 85% of the country has enough rainfall to support crops in most years. Nearly half the country is virtually uninhabited because of difficult relief, tsetse flies, unreliable rainfall, national parks, and game and forest reserves. All resource inventories indicate that Tanzania is a country well endowed with natural resources and has at the same time a tremendous ecological diversity which can be the basis for a diversified agricultural and livestock economy as well as tourism. However, more than 50% of the country is infested with tsetse flies and this concentrates the considerable livestock population of 12 million in tsetse free areas causing overgrazing and conflicts with agricultural uses.

1.3.2 Climate

The two major climatic elements, rainfall and temperature, produce what is essentially a tropical equatorial climate. The climate is highly modified, however, by the altitude, resulting in a temperate climate in the higher regions. Lower temperatures also conserve rainfall by reducing the rate of evapotranspiration. Although greater rainfall generally means greater agricultural potential, this is partially offset at higher elevations by steeper slopes, faster run-off and greater erosion. Population distribution is strongly influenced by the distribution of rainfall.

In terms of potential water scarcity, one projection is that by the turn of the century there will be 520 persons for each million cubic meters of water consumed per year. This is just over a quarter of the "water crisis" threshold, estimated at 2,000 persons per million. Tanzania also has considerable hydropower potential of 5,000 MW. Nevertheless, it is estimated that only half the land receives enough rainfall to support intensive grazing and agriculture.

Along with the rest of Southern and Eastern Africa, Tanzania is currently experiencing a severe drought. In normal years, about 39.5 million hectares are cultivatable under rain-fed

conditions. Irrigation agriculture is limited to surface water because the prevalence of igneous rocks inhibits the formation of major aquifers.

The major characteristic of rainfall in many parts of Tanzania is the variability in time and onset dates. The amount of rainfall varies from year to year as do the starting dates for the rainy seasons. Rainfall, therefore, is unpredictable.

The temperature ranges from 23 - 29 °C in the lowlands and the Islands of Zanzibar and Pemba, to 18-27°C in the medium altitude plateau of 700 - 1500 metres above sea level to 15-22°C in high altitude plateau and mountains of 1500-2300 metres above sea level. Tropical and temperate crops are grown within the respective altitude ranges.

1.3.3 Soils

About 25% of the country is covered in sandy soils, developed on sediments and acid Basement Complex rocks with low natural fertility and poor moisture storing properties. These soils are common in the coastal areas and the central and western plateau areas. About 20% of the country is covered in soils of variable texture, but mostly heavy black cracking clays ('Mbuga' soils) with fairly high fertility but with seasonally or permanently waterlogged conditions. Concentrated in some lowland areas such as the Malagarassi swamps and the Wami plain, they are also a common feature of bottom lands throughout the country. Another 20% of the country is characterised by well drained, yellowish or reddish friable clayey soils with strong acidity, which translates into a variety of fertility problems such as aluminium toxicity, poor nutrient retention and phosphorus fixation. These soils prevail in the western highlands of Kagera region and on crest areas of Basement Complex rocks under high rainfall regimes. A variety of shallow and immature soils, not suitable for agriculture, predominates in 8% of the country. 7% of the country is covered in old weathered soils occurring mostly in the Masai steppe. These soils are unsuitable for agriculture because of low fertility, poor structural properties and lack of water. Only about 3% of the country is covered in a motley of extremely variable soil types, including mountain peats, acid sulphate soils, salt-affected soils and soils of volcanic origin.

The main soil constraints relate to poor natural fertility, requiring considerable amounts of fertilizer or other amendments, and poor moisture storing properties, including poor retention on sandy soils and surface capping on medium-textured soils. Soils of good innate fertility occur only in young alluvial valleys which are subject to flooding, and on volcanic highlands, of which the wetter parts are already overexploited; and the drier parts are subject to wind or water erosion.

Forests cover nearly half the Tanzania land area. The most prevalent type is miombo woodland, consisting of scattered trees, bush and thicket. Closed forests - those with continuous canopies, such as tropical rain forests - account for less than two per cent of the total land area. A fringe of mangrove forest borders part of the mainland coast and islands. Tree plantations mainly for industrial uses make up less than half per cent of the total forest area. The overall deforestation rate is estimated to be about 0.3% annually, which is still at least twenty times the rate of reforestation.

Arable Land

Probably less than 50% of Tanzania Mainland is suitable for grazing or cultivation and perhaps a tenth has medium or high fertility. If all land receiving adequate rainfall - that is, about 750 millimetres per annum in nine out of ten years - is included in the inventory, land with medium or high fertility increases to 22%. As in the case of forest land, there is an accelerating rate of land degradation due to soil exhaustion and erosion and desertification, particularly in the semi-arid ecosystems dominated by agro-pastoral communities. The problem of soil erosion is prevalent, however, both in areas of high agricultural potential and in areas of low potential devoted to livestock keeping.

To arrest and reverse the trend towards land degradation, the Government of Tanzania has adopted environmental conservation measures such as afforestation and erosion control. Forest reserves amounting to some 13 million hectares have been put under legal status as game sanctuaries including national parks and game reserves.

As of 1995, protected land amounted to about 25% of the total land area, of which about 10% is wilderness area (i.e. lands showing no evidence of development).

1.3.4 The Tanzanian Population Profile

Tanzania boasts of several pre-colonial urban settlements both along the coast, and in the interior. However, by far the majority of today's urban centres were created during the colonial era as centres of administration and commerce. Until the late 1940s, the colonial government considered the urban areas to belong to Europeans and Asians, but in which Africans were required to provide the necessary labour. Africans however, were considered to be temporary urban residents who would eventually go back to their rural areas. From the late 1940s, Africans who were employed began to be accepted as permanent urban residents.

Colonial policy instituted a racially segregated urban residential land use regime. While housing, serviced land, or longterm Right of Occupancy were given to non-Africans, Africans were confined to high density poorly serviced areas, and short term titles to land, although, from the 1940s, the government started building "quarters" for some Africans.

Independence in 1961 opened the doors of migration to urban areas, but even then, non-employed Africans were considered unwanted in urban areas, and repatriation policies were usually enforced, though with dismal results. This concept, where the bulk of the urban residents were considered temporary migrants, has greatly affected government attitudes towards involving the urban population in the servicing of their areas. The situation is now changing. Not only have many Africans put in considerable investment in urban areas, but attitudes towards "going back home" are changing at the same time as rural ties are diminishing. Conditions are therefore ripe for more involvement of the urban residents in the provision and maintenance of services in their areas.

Although more than 75% of Tanzania's population still lives in the countryside, the urban population has been growing rapidly since 1948, but more so since independence. A notable feature of the Zanzibar population is that it has a much older tradition of urbanisation and is much more urbanised than the population of Tanzania Mainland. Some 35.5% of Zanzibar's

population lives in urban areas.

Originally, urban growth was seen entirely as being a result of rural to urban migration. However, there is an increasing awareness that natural growth is becoming a major factor in urban growth. For example, the analysis of the 1988 Tanzania population Census shows that nearly half (48%) of the population of Dar es Salaam City was actually born in the City itself.

Rapid urban growth has been taking place in a situation of national economic hardships, especially since the mid-1970s. The results of this phenomenon have been varied but have included the failure by the public authorities to provide new, or to expand existing, infrastructure to cope with the demand, while the stress on existing services, coupled with lack of maintenance, has led to the breakdown of most infrastructure in urban areas.

Population Profile

The salient features of the population profile are population size, growth rate, composition, distribution, density, fertility, mortality and morbidity (See Table 1.1).

Table 1.1 Tanzania: Population Profile 1990

Population Size (in thousands)		Population Growth Rate	
1985	21,895	1985-90	3.43%
1990	25,993	1990-95	3.36%
2025	74,142		
Population under 14 Years		Crude Birth Rate (per 1000)	
1985	48.6%	1985-90	48.6
1990	49.3%	1990-95	48.1
Elderly (65+ years)		Total Fertility Rate	
1990	2%	1985-90	6.8
		1990-95	6.3
Dependency Ratio		Contraceptive Prevalence Rate	
1985	99.0	1974-85	1.0%
1990	98.6	1990	5-7%
Population Density (per km ²)		Crude Death Rate (per 1,000)	
1985	24.0	1985-90	14.4
1989	26.1	1990	14.6
Urban Residence		Infant Mortality Rate (per 1000)	
1985	17.6%	1985-90	108
1990	20.7%	1990	102
Urban Growth Rate		Life Expectancy at Birth	
1985	11.6%	1985-90	51.8
1990	8.0%	1990	50.9

Source: United Nations and University of Dar es Salaam (1993), *Population and Environmental Development in Tanzania*, United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Development, Table 1.1, p. 3.

Population Size and Growth Size

Despite periodic fluctuations caused by tribal and colonial wars, slavery, and natural disaster such as droughts and epidemics, Tanzania's population size remained fairly stable until the beginning of this century. Rapid population growth began to be experienced in the late colonial period, after World War II, and has continued since independence in 1961. According to national census figures, the population size tripled between 1948 and 1988, from 7,744,591 to 23,174,336 people.

Estimates of the overall national population growth rate vary between 2.8% to 3.6% per year, with the urban growth rate reaching more than 9%. Taking 3.3% as the average national

population growth rate would give a population "doubling time" of about 20 years. The Tanzanian population is projected to increase to 39 million people by the year 2,000; 50 million people by the year 2,010; 75 million by the year 2,020; and will reach 90 million people by the year 2,050. This natural increase is based on a predicted decline in the present total fertility rate of just under seven children born to each woman throughout her child-bearing period, assumed to be between the ages of 15 and 49. No population increase is expected from international migration, although throughout this century, the rate of internal migration from rural to urban areas has been extremely high.

Population Composition

As of 1990, 49.3% of the population was under 14 years of age, and 2% was 65 years or above. This means a dependency ratio of 98.6. The high proportion of those under 14 indicates, one, the need for more social services, and, two, a potential for high population growth. There are generally more men than women.

Population Distribution

A major population redistribution is taking place in the country with the urban population growing fast. Over one fifth of the population was living in urban areas, chiefly seen as Regional Centres, in 1990, but when the population in District Centres and areas considered to be mixed urban and rural is considered, then close to a third of the population lives in urban areas (see Tables 1.2 and 1.3)

Table 1.2 Growth of Regional Centres, Total Population and Urban Population, Tanzania Mainland 1948-1988

Centre	YEARS						
	1948	1952	1957	1967	1978	1988	1996
D'Salaam	69,227	99,140	128,742	272,515	737,836	1,360,850	2,168,988
Mwanza	11,296	13,691	19,877	34,855	109,480	223,013	391,857
Dodoma	9,414	12,262	13,435	23,569	45,637	203,833	672,872
Tanga	20,619	22,143	38,053	60,935	102,560	187,155	300,555
Morogoro	8,173	11,501	14,507	25,263	61,890	177,760	196,361
Mbeya	3,179	5,566	6,932	12,469	75,948	154,844	266,567
Arusha	5,320	7,690	10,038	32,348	55,240	134,708	274,381
Shinyanga	2,596	2,596	2,907	4,732	20,448	100,724	344,129
Moshi	8,048	9,079	13,726	26,696	52,223	96,838	159,067
Tabora	12,768	14,011	15,561	20,994	67,392	93,506	121,239
Su'wanga	-	-	-	10,422	28,389	91,972	234,307
Songea	612	990	1,401	5,403	17,944	86,880	311,389
Iringa	5,702	8,013	9,578	21,946	57,182	84,860	116,137
Kigoma	1,106	1,351	16,255	21,369	49,900	84,647	128,925
Singida	-	3,125	3,938	9,540	29,252	80,987	182,640
Mtwara	4,125	14,382	15,266	20,414	48,366	76,632	110,658
Musoma	2,962	4,937	7,707	15,415	30,976	68,536	124,064
Bukoba	3,247	3,570	5,297	8,186	20,431	47,009	91,626
Lindi	8,577	10,784	10,315	13,351	27,019	41,587	58,241
Kibaha	-	-	-	-	2,217	37,638	32,640
Tanzania Mainland							
Total National Populat'n	7,480,500	8,785,613	8,788,500	12,231,342	17,036,449	22,533,758*	28,104,673
Total Urban Populat'n	197,266	269,841	361,072	677,780	2,203,000	6,250,173	11,749,820
% Urban Populat'n	2.4	2.8	4.1	5.7	12.8	27.7	41.8
Zanzibar							
Total National Populat'n	264,200	295,600	61,475	-	100,578	-	-
Total Urban Populat'n	27,000	32,000	101,500	-	204,774	-	-
% Urban Populat'n	19.95	24.36	-	-	31.97	-	-

* This figure has been calculated by putting together the population of all urban districts, as well as the population classified as urban or mixed rural and urban in all the wards outside urban districts, as enumerated in the National Census of 1988.

Source: Official Population census reports 1948 - 1988.

Figure 1.1: Urban/Rural Population Growth Relationship (Source: Table 1.2)
(Tanzania Mainland)

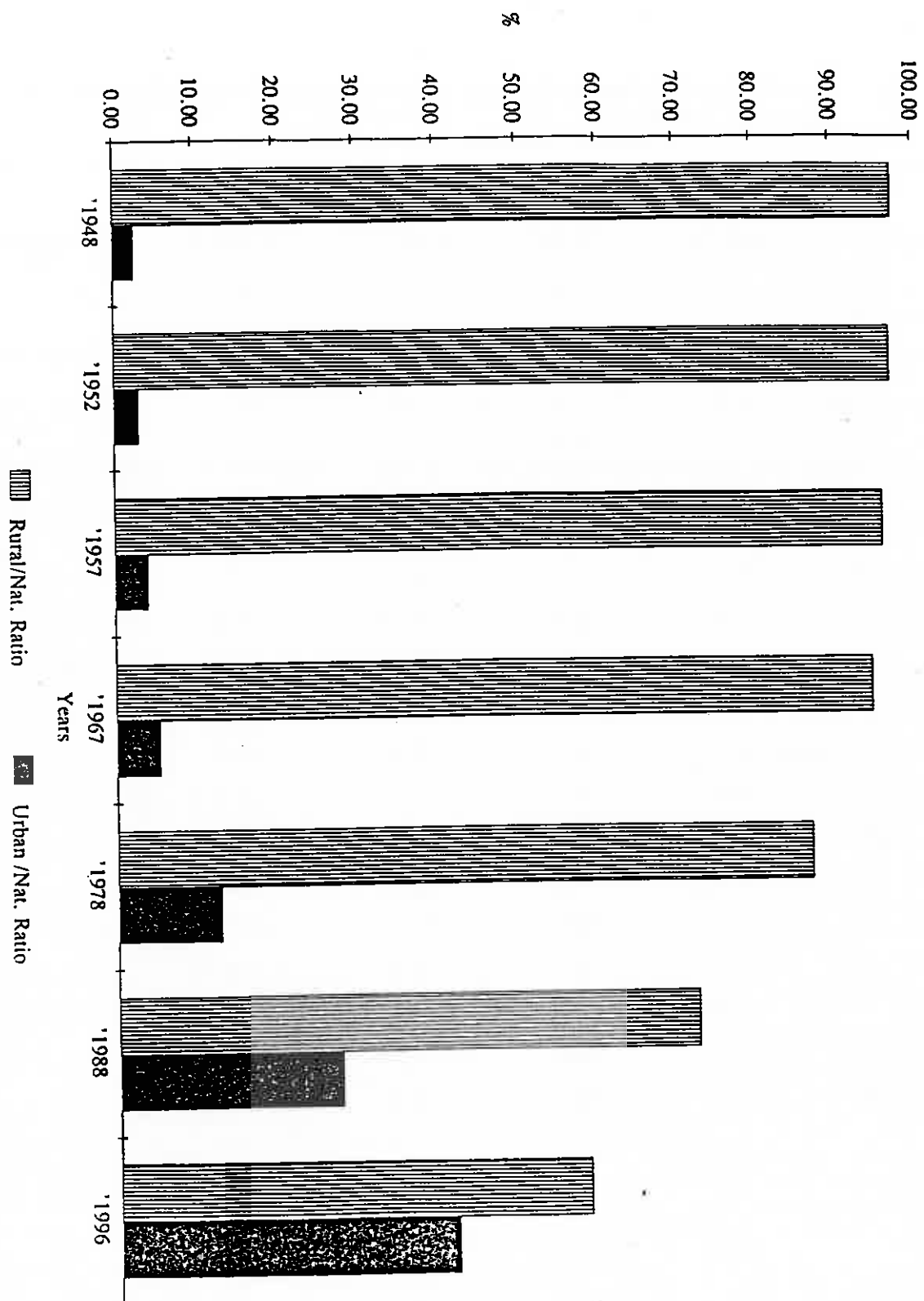
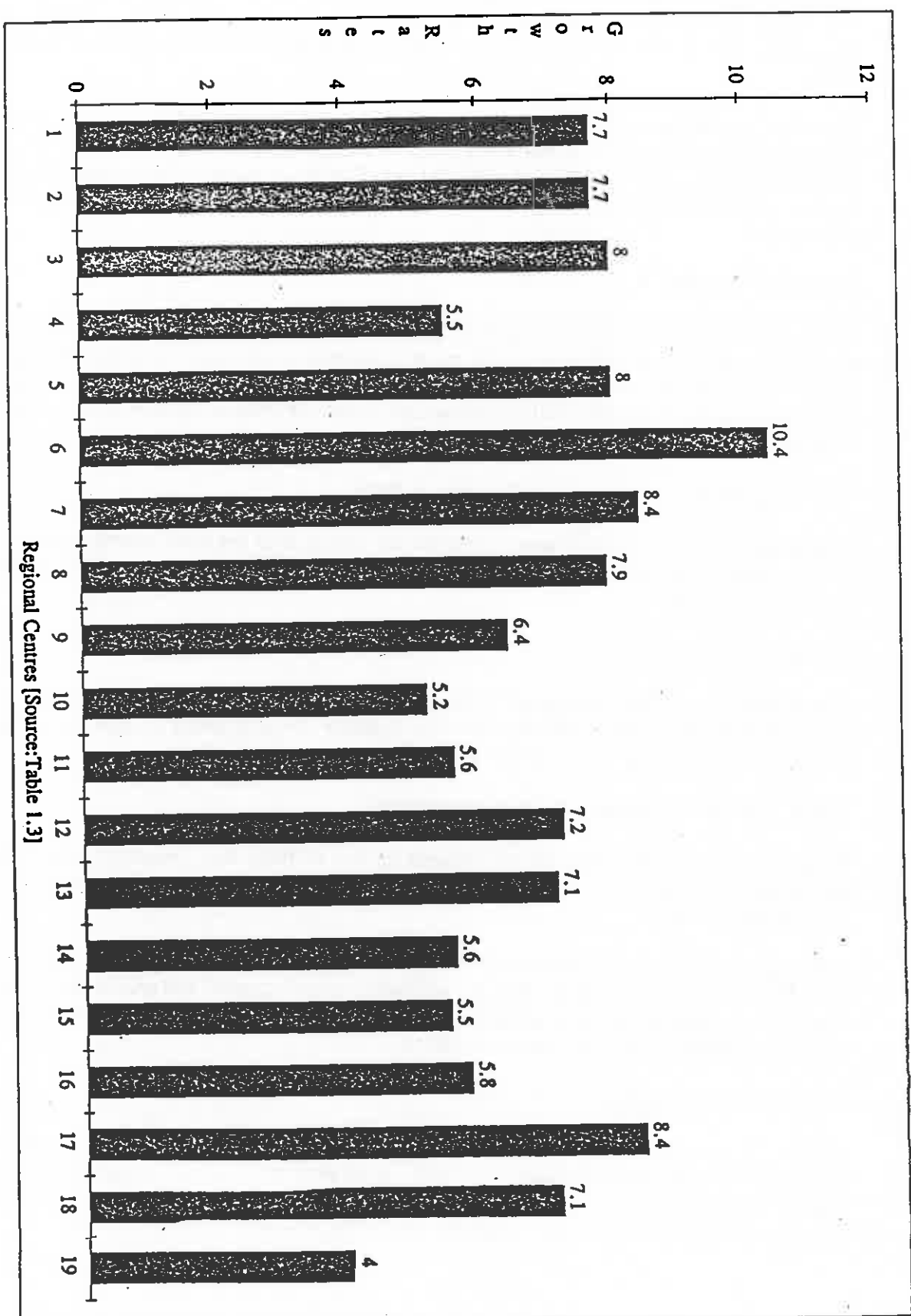


Table 1.3 Growth Rates for Regional Centres, Total National Population, and Total Urban Population, 1948-1988.

CENTRE	1948-57	1957-67	1967-78	1978-88	1948-88
Dar es Salaam (1)	7.1	7.8	9.7	6.3	7.7
Mwanza (2)	6.5	5.8	11.0	7.3	7.7
Dodoma (3)	4.0	5.8	6.2	16.1	8.0
Tanga (4)	7.0	4.8	4.8	6.2	5.5
Morogoro (5)	6.6	5.7	8.5	11.1	8.0
Mbeya (6)	9.1	6.0	17.9	7.4	10.4
Arusha (7)	7.3	12.4	5.0	9.3	8.4
Shinyanga (8)	1.9	6.3	14.2	17.3	(7.9)
Moshi (9)	6.1	7.0	6.2	6.4	6.4
Tabora (10)	13.4	4.8	4.8	0.9	5.2
Sumbawanga (11)	n.a	n.a	9.5	12.3	(5.6)
Songea (12)	14.4	n.a	11.5	17.1	(7.2)
Iringa (13)	5.9	8.6	9.2	4.0	7.1
Kigoma (14)	2.4	5.9	8.1	5.4	5.6
Singida (15)	n.a	9.3	10.7	10.7	(5.5)
Mtwara (16)	1.7	6.9	3.0	4.7	5.8
Musoma (17)	10.0	7.9	7.1	8.3	8.4
Bukoba (18)	5.6	4.4	8.7	8.7	7.1
Lindi (19)	2.1	2.6	6.7	4.4	4.0
Tanzania Mainland	1.8	3.4	3.0	2.9	2.8
Urban Population	6.9	6.5	11.3	11.0	9.0
Zanzibar					
Z'bar town	-	2.33	2.87	3.6	
Wete	-	2.07	3.22	4.1	
Chake Chake	-	0.54	2.21	3.8	
Mkoani	-	3.28	2.55	2.6	

Source: Calculated from official Population Census Reports. Bracketed figures refer to the 1967-1988 period.

Figure 1:2 Urban Growth Rates 1948-1988



From Tables 1.2 and 1.3, and Figures 1.1 and 1.2 above, it is seen that while the urban population grew at 9% between 1948-1988, the total national population grew at just 2.8%. The result is that while 2.6% of the population lived in urban areas in 1948, the urban population had grown to over 27% in 1988, and this proportion is estimated to be higher now.

The total population in Zanzibar has been growing as well although the urban population has been growing faster, and is currently 35.5% of the total population. Thus, of Zanzibar's 756,000 people, 271,575 live in urban areas. The main urban area in Zanzibar is Zanzibar Town, which with a population of 198,000 people, accommodates 73% of Zanzibar's urban population.

Population Density

Compared with the estimated current population size of 28 million, Tanzania has a low populating density of 26 persons per square kilometre, up from 19.8 in 1978. The actual numbers vary widely within the country. For example, Zanzibar and Pemba Islands have an average population density of 300 persons per square kilometre; while in Moshi, the per capita available land is less than 0.4 hectare.

Fertility Rate and Contraceptive Prevalence Rate

The fertility rate is just over seven children per family and the contraceptive prevalence rate is estimated by the UNFPA to be between 5-7%, a rather low figure, and a harbinger for fast population growth.

Mortality and Morbidity

Life expectancy is now estimated to be just over 50 years, and the infant mortality rate (per 1000) is 102. Between 1980-86, half the children under 5 years of age were classified as being undernourished, 7% of them severely.

1.3.5 A Brief on Tanzania Development Profile

Tanzania is classified by the United Nations as one of forty-four "least developed countries", the general criteria for this designation including a GNP (Gross National Product) per capita of US\$ 300 or less.

Although there are many forms which the development of society can take, only two headings are considered in this report, that is, economic development and social development. The former is considered in sectoral terms, primarily agriculture, industry and services; while the latter is a summary of the level of social services.

The Tanzania Economy

Economic development is a major concern for any country, and the more urgent in situations where rapid population growth is straining resources. In the case of Tanzania, economic conditions have been difficult, and economic performance has faltered. Yet there is now some realistic hope for recovery and even positive growth.

The Tanzanian economy has become increasingly liberalized and economic management has shifted away from central controls towards market orientation. The Government has undertaken to reduce its involvement in directly productive and commercial activities, and the private sector has been encouraged to take over. The Government sees its role as being the maintenance of law and order, provision of social and economic infrastructure, formulation and pursuit of appropriate macro-economic policies, and the creation of an enabling environment for other actors on the economic scene to operate efficiently. The restructuring and down sizing of the public sector has been necessary to enable the private sector to play an active and efficient role in the development of the economy. It has also been necessary to maintain an environmentally sustainable development path.

In the last ten years the macroeconomic environment in Tanzania has changed quite remarkably compared to the one that existed at the start of the 1980s, but the state of the economy remains far from satisfactory. Growth has been oscillating instead of accelerating. Moreover, the growth rates have been too low to facilitate wholesome improvements in peoples' living conditions. While economic growth has oscillated, inflation has become intransigent.

The shift in the emphasis of economic policy has not dampened the Government's resolve to enable people to uplift their living conditions. What has essentially taken place is a change in the strategy to attain that objective. Whereas previously the Government sought to implement this task more or less on its own, today, it is seeking broader participation. High and accelerated economic growth is the key to the effective tackling of poverty related problems that continue to afflict the majority of the people. Achieving both the growth of at least 5% of GDP per annum and reducing inflation from 26% in 1995 to 10% by 1998; continuing with the financial, parastatal and civil service reforms, and achieving stability, are the major challenges in the next five or so years. Annual economic growth must exceed the overall population growth of 2.8% p.a. to realise improvements in peoples' welfare as well as reductions in the government budgetary deficit and improvements in the balance of payments position. The government is therefore geared to promote economic growth rigorously.

Agriculture dominates Tanzania's economy, providing a livelihood for 80% of the economically active population, 59% of the GDP, and 75% of foreign exchange earnings. The principal export crops are coffee, cotton, tea, cashewnuts, sisal, cloves and tobacco. Subsistence farming accounts for about 50% of the total agricultural output. An estimated 8% of the land is presently under cultivation, of which about 3% is irrigated.

About 74% of the land in Pemba is cultivated, compared to 42% in Zanzibar Island. Overall, Zanzibar remains a mono-crop economy with cloves providing 90% of the Islands' foreign exchange earnings.

Overall, around 42 million hectares, or about 45% of Tanzania's total areas, is potentially arable land, although only 12% is suitable for irrigation. However, only 15% of this arable land is under actual cultivation at present which indicates the potential for agricultural expansion in the country. Nonetheless, the productivity of much of the cultivated area is steadily declining due to increasing human and livestock pressures, lack of resources including labour and capital, as well as inadequate land and water conservation measures.

Opening additional lands to cultivation will require significant new inputs of capital, labour and material. Use of fertilizer almost tripled between 1970-1971 and 1987-88, from 31 to 92

hundred grams of plant nutrient per hectare of arable land. Vulnerability to soil exhaustion and erosion will also need to be monitored; extensive land degradation has already occurred in both fertile and marginal areas.

Industry in Tanzania is based on processing local commodities and manufacturing goods for import substitution. The principal industries are food processing, textiles, brewing, cigarettes and tourism. The industrial sector grew at a modest annual rate of 4.2% between 1965-80, but then declined by 2.4% during 1980-87, due mainly to rising energy costs and insufficient foreign exchange to purchase raw materials, machinery and spare parts. Between 1965 and 1989 the industry share of GDP declined from 14 to 7%; manufacturing during this period was also halved, from 8% to 4%. Since the Economic Recovery Programme was launched in 1986, there has been a gradual improvement in production.

Both investment and employment in the service sector have remained fairly constant during this period. Structural adjustment measures call for curtailment of direct government participation in economic activities and thus requires the reduction of subsidies and the privatization of public enterprises (parastatals). Foreign assistance to the government has declined from earlier levels although the government budget is still heavily dependent on foreign aid.

Household Incomes

With regard to income, households in Tanzania get their income mainly from self employment on farm and non-farm activities, wage employment and rental services. In the rural areas, various sources of income indicate that 54 per cent of rural households get their incomes from agricultural activities, 20% from non-agricultural self-employment activities, 8 per cent from wage employment, and 18 per cent from other resources. The pattern for urban households is slightly different. About 28 per cent of urban household get their income from agricultural activities, another 28 per cent from employment in non-agricultural activities, and 18 per cent from wage employment. Rental income is important for 2 per cent of urban households. The remaining 26 per cent of urban households get their incomes from sources other than those mentioned above.

Social Development

Social development is a prominent feature of Tanzania's development profile, one on which the country's leaders have placed special emphasis. Areas that had received special attention before Structural Adjustment, included popular education, mass health, and mass access to clean water. After adopting the Economic Recovery Programme in 1986, increasingly, the Government of Tanzania (GOT) and the donor community have recognised that the issue of social sector development has not been adequately addressed in the reforms. Under structural adjustment programmes, public expenditure on health, education and human services has relatively and in some cases absolutely declined significantly.

The majority of Tanzanians - 99% of the urban and 57% of the rural population - enjoy convenient access to health services, defined as "the percentage of the population that can reach appropriate local health services on foot or by the local means of transport in no more than one hour". This rather encouraging picture dissolves when two other key indicators are introduced: for 1987, the population per physician was placed at 24,400, and per trained nurse at 5,336. Currently the number of hospital beds is 0.3 per 1000 people. The

expenditure on Health and Education is only 4% of the GDP. It would seem therefore that "access" as defined by proximity of residence does not guarantee efficient delivery of health services. On the other hand, it was also reported for 1985 that 74% of births were attended by some recognised health service worker. Nevertheless, many hospitals, dispensaries and health centres lack essential drugs and equipment.

Other signs of deteriorating social services include the following: Child mortality was found by the *Demographic and Health Survey* of 1991/92 to have gone up to 141 per 1000 live births, compared to the figure of 102 in 1990. Primary school enrolment had reached 98.3% in 1986. In 1994, this had fallen to 74.2%. The school infrastructure is deteriorating from lack of maintenance and overuse; classrooms are overcrowded and many lack desks; and teachers are underpaid and demoralised. In 1986, the literacy rate had reached 90%. In 1993, it had declined to 84%. In 1991/92, 75% and 15% of rural and urban households respectively were classified as using unsafe water. In all probability, these proportions have gone up in recent years.

Growing unemployment, Poverty and Informal Sector Activities.

Tanzania is currently experiencing a major employment problem largely due to the poor performance of the economy in the 1980s. The unsatisfactory performance of the economy severely limited the ability of the formal sector to create employment opportunities. In the mid 1970s for example, the formal sector created about 30,000 employment opportunities a year but the capacity declined to less than 2,000 in the early 1990s. The streamlining of the civil service in the late 1980s and early 1990s and the privatization of the public sector in the 1990s have also contributed to the reduction of employment in the formal sector. While the ability of the formal sector to offer employment was declining, the informal sector which could have provided alternative employment opportunities was, up to the late 1980s left, undeveloped.

The potential of the informal sector in the generation of employment and income earning opportunities is now acknowledged since a great deal of work has been done on the subject at both theoretical and practical levels. At the theoretical level, some research has been undertaken to measure the level of informal sector activity, identify the constraints that limit the growth of the sector, and develop and propose an informal sector policy which aims at putting into place an environment considered conducive for the development of the sector. At the practical level some programmes, have been developed and implemented that have given some direct support to the informal sector. These projects have offered training, credit and extension support services to informal sector operators. But a major characterization of these projects has been their lack of an integrated approach to the provision of support service to the informal sector.

As a result of the research that has been undertaken, many facts about the future and dynamics of the informal sector are now known. The informal sector study carried out in 1991 showed that it is composed of 22% of the labour force (about 2,400,000 people) and 56% of the urban employed population. Its contribution to the GDP grew from 10.3% in 1985 to 32% in 1991. 57% of the contribution originated in the retail trade and food vending activities. 67% of informal sector employment was male, and the largest activity (i.e. trade and food vending) generated 51% of the total employment. It is accepted that the income of an informal sector operator is on the average twice as high as the salary of the average civil servant, and even an informal sector employee in most occupations earns more than a

government employee earns in terms of salary.

In order to accelerate the generation of employment and economic opportunities, the government enacted the *Human and Resource Deployment Act* in 1983 and this has been a key piece of legislation to define the position of informal sector activities in employment creation.

The original intention of this law was to provide a framework for human resources planning activities, and to support the efficiency of local administration by providing them with a manpower statistical database. There is a general perception that the *Human Resources Deployment Act* of 1983 contains more of a statement of general objectives rather than guidelines for implementation. Thus the inability of the public sector to put into practice many of its provisions for registration of occupations for example. Another example, is the way street traders on empty land, including road sides, shop pavements and alleys are always harassed by police or local government authorities.

In implementing this Act, the Dar es Salaam City Council and other urban councils have issued by-laws (for example, the *Hawking and Street Trading by-laws* of 1991) reserving certain commercial activities for informal sector operators, which are distinguished from the standard kind of urban business.

The potential of the informal sector for employment creation and economic growth is becoming increasingly realized. Preparation of an informal sector development policy is being finalised and its promulgation is expected soon.

1.3.6 Tanzania: The Political Set Up

Tanzania is a United Republic, composed of the Mainland, formerly known as Tanganyika, and Zanzibar (made up of the main islands of Zanzibar and Pemba) (Figure 1.3). These two formerly independent countries united in 1964. At the National level, there is the Union Government. Then there is the Zanzibar Government. With the exception of matters like defence and external affairs, the Zanzibar Government is responsible for the entire socio-economic development of its people. It formulates and implements its own development plans, runs its own budget, maintains and controls its own foreign exchange reserves, and is responsible for servicing its foreign loans. The latter is responsible for most matters internal to Zanzibar. There is only one level of local government in the country, made up of urban authorities and district (rural) authorities. The country is divided into 20 regions on the Mainland, and 5 regions in Zanzibar. In 1993, Tanzania adopted a multiparty democracy after more than 30 years of single party, socialist oriented rule.

This Report is a National Report covering both the Mainland and Zanzibar.

A detailed map of Tanzania, showing its administrative regions and major cities. The map includes the following regions: Kigoma, Shinyanga, Tabora, Singida, Dodoma, Morogoro, Iringa, Mbeya, Sumbawanga, Rukwa, Mwanza, Mara, Kilimanjaro, Arusha, Tanga, Zanzibar, Lindi, Pwani, and Ruwama. Major cities marked include Bukoba, Musoma, Mwanza, Shinyanga, Singida, Dodoma, Morogoro, Iringa, Mbeya, Sumbawanga, Arusha, Moshi, Lushoto, Tanga, Dar es Salaam, and Lindi. The map also shows Lake Victoria, Lake Tanganyika, Lake Malawi, and the Indian Ocean. Neighboring countries are labeled: Uganda, Kenya, Rwanda, Burundi, Zaire, Zambia, and Mozambique. A legend at the bottom left defines symbols for National Boundary, Road, Regional Boundary, Regional Headquarters, and Railway. A north arrow and a scale bar (1:750,000) are located at the bottom right.

**PART II: ASSESSMENT OF, AND PRIORITIES IN,
HUMAN SETTLEMENTS IN TANZANIA**

2.0 ASSESSMENT OF, AND PRIORITIES IN, HUMAN SETTLEMENTS IN TANZANIA

Preamble

The purpose of this review and assessment is to look into the social and economic policies and their relationship to human settlements in Tanzania, and to evaluate the effectiveness of these policies, as well as the various programmes that have been implemented in the past to effect these policies. Finally issues of current and projected highest priority are identified.

2.1 Assessment of the Relationship between Human Settlements and the Socio-economic Trends in Tanzania

The policies reviewed and assessed are those related to:

- Social economic development
- Urban Settlements Development
- Shelter Development and Affordable Housing
- Land Policy
- Poverty Reduction and Employment Generation
- Women and Vulnerable Social Groups
- Environmental Management
- Disaster Mitigation, Relief and Reconstruction
- Population Policy, and,
- Decentralisation and City Management (Governance)

2.1.1 Socio-Economic Development Policies

The Tanzanian economy performed relatively well from Independence in 1961 until the early 1970s. It then plunged into an economic crisis of considerable proportions with a decline in real GDP growth from an average 5.1 per cent p.a in 1970-76 to less than 2 per cent p.a. between 1977 and 1986; a decline in real per capita income by more than 15 per cent between 1976-86; a rise in the average annual rate of inflation from 5 per cent in 1966-70 to 30 per cent from 1979 onwards; a deepening external imbalance of trade; and an overall deficit in public finance which reached 20 per cent of the GDP in 1980.

The reasons for the decline are both external and internal and include:

- A significant decrease in the prices of primary commodities on the international market, on the one hand, and increases in the prices of manufactured imports and of oil, on the other;
- Unfavourable climatic conditions in the mid 1970s and early 1980s; and,
- The cost of the war with Uganda in 1979.

Critics of policies adopted by Tanzania since the *Arusha Declaration* in 1967 point to the following policy factors as being predominant in explaining the severe economic decline:

- The "commanding heights of the economy" that were nationalised not only failed to stimulate production and trade, but also did not achieve the goal of a fairer distribution of wealth;
- The relatively few gains made in social objectives, for example in the education and health sectors, are now being endangered by severe resource constraints and lack of economic opportunities from the increasing neglect of the potentially productive urban economies, which are fundamental to economic growth, further accelerating economic decline.

The failure of the economic policies of the 1970s and early 1980s was recognised and a new approach was introduced. The Economic Recovery Programme (ERP) was put in place in 1985 to rectify the situation. Tanzania then experienced five consecutive years of positive per capita GDP growth and received considerable support from donor and international financial institutions. The ERP was extended in 1989 into ERP II or the Economic and Social Action Programme (ESAP). Reforms undertaken as part of this structural adjustment included the liberalisation in external trade; the removal of restrictions in internal trade, including price decontrols; and floating of the Tanzanian Shilling vis a vis external currencies. The Government has also promoted reforms in financial markets and has liberalised marketing arrangements. As a result, inflation fell below 20 per cent in 1990, although it rose again slightly in 1991. The government is also currently addressing the reform of the parastatal sector.

A major feature of the Tanzanian economy is the existence of a significant second, or informal economy. This includes the financial sector where a large proportion of transactions is undertaken outside the banking system. Recorded incomes are usually far short of actual incomes. For example, many employees earn insufficient salaries to maintain a household even at a minimum level of expenditure. Public sector salaries are one fifth of their real levels in the late 1970s. Employees can therefore be safely assumed to be supplementing their incomes by participating in the informal economy. Many non employed people live by participating in the largely undocumented informal sector.

Many people have one or more jobs, or other economic activities, including small scale income generating enterprises such as the keeping of livestock (in urban areas), operating retail stalls, building houses for rental and so on. The second economy is an important ingredient of the housing market in terms of the goods and services provided including, for example, the manufacture of building materials such as building blocks and bricks.

2.1.2 Urban Human Settlements Development Policies

National Development Policies in the first two decades of independence focused on rural areas. Towards the end of the 1960s, concern was being expressed at the level of urban primacy and lopsided development that the capital city, Dar es Salaam depicted. Thus, in the early 1970s a growth centre and rural development policy was adopted. This was hinged upon removing economic activity from Dar es Salaam and directing it to 9 other urban areas in the country. Secondly, the capital of the country was to be removed from Dar es Salaam to the inland town of Dodoma in a process expected to be completed in 1986. Thirdly, the rural population was to be reorganised into Ujamaa villages in order to speed up economic and social development. This latter policy was in part aimed at stemming rural urban migration. By the early 1980s, some 8300 villages had been registered. Overall, these policies did not achieve their stated aims. Besides, the abolition of local governments in the early 1970s brought about a major deterioration in urban services and infrastructure. This drew government attention back to the urban areas, and in the 1980s, local authorities were restored, and the role of urban areas in overall national development was recognised.

Within urban areas, early independence policy was hinged upon the public sector supplying most housing. By the 1970s, this had run its course, and emphasis was laid on sites and services and unplanned area upgrading. Unfortunately these projects remained few and far apart so that internal urban development in most towns proceeded without any control or direction from the urban authorities. Limited resources, partly resulting from underpricing urban land, and the failure of cost recovery, meant that the public authorities had little control over urban development, particularly in terms of providing or maintaining infrastructure, or supplying land for urban development.

The role of the informal sector, hitherto accorded limited priority, was recognised in the 1980s, and, under the *Human Resources Deployment Act* of 1983, many informal sector activities were legalised. Nevertheless, there was no clear urban development policy, and many actions and undertakings remained adhoc and uncoordinated.

The government realises now that urban growth is inevitable, and possibly irreversible, and steps are in hand to prepare a National Urban Development Policy which will address issues of hierarchical development of urban areas, as well as the internal dynamics and directions of the growth of these urban areas. The Urban Sector Engineering Project, currently being implemented in 9 municipalities, and the Sustainable Cities Programme, now being implemented in Dar es Salaam, are examples of the new concern with urban development.

In Zanzibar, the policy has been implemented in the form of "urban renewal schemes", in areas of Michenzani, Kilimani, and Kikwajuni in Zanzibar Town; while in Wete, Chake Chake and Mkoani, public housing schemes have been undertaken in new neighbourhoods. In addition, unserviced but surveyed plots have been allocated to individuals for development.

However, the institutional framework within which urban development policies are implemented is not clear. There is a complex system of ministries, departments local authorities and parastatal organisations to guide, support and control the development of human settlements. However, these institutions have not been effective in ensuring that, for example, land is made available, planning mechanisms guide and control development in accordance with agreed plans, and that finance is available for infrastructure and for

individuals wishing to build. There has also been a serious lack of coordination between the various institutions dealing with human settlements.

There are many actors in urban development and for this reason social services and employment will mainly fall within the interests of all agencies involved in the provision of those services. Since more than 80% of investments in the national economy go through the government's budget, the Government has practically all urban investments in its control and can direct the creation of new jobs and urban growth in accordance with the overall national development policy.

2.1.3 Shelter Policies

Government policy has passed through a number of phases in response to the growing demand for urban housing and within the context of worsening financial constraints. At independence the Government identified two principal strategies:

- (a) the construction of houses by the public sector; and
- (b) servicing land and upgrading existing settlements.

To a large extent, the policy of providing housing by the public sector was realised through the National Housing Corporation (NHC), established in 1962. Between 1962 and 1990, the NHC constructed some 16,000 housing units mainly for rental, but also a few for sale under various schemes. The parastatal sector also played some role in providing housing. However, the combined output of the public sector has remained insignificant compared to the shelter requirements of the country.

The government approved a National Housing Development Policy in 1981. The policy was in many ways ahead of its time as it foreshadowed the enabling approach later to be adopted by the United Nations as part of the Global Shelter Strategy. However, the policy focused on housing, not on the broader aspects of human settlements. Moreover, the policy was only partly implemented and has not made a significant impact. The 1981 policy also had a number of weaknesses in terms of conception and implementation. The policy statement was never followed up with the preparation of a realistic programme and plans for action at national and local levels. The institutional arrangements for implementation were not clearly defined, and the policy was narrow in that it did not consider housing within the wider context of human settlements.

Construction, Appropriate Technology, Building Standards and Regulations

Although extensive research has been carried out on building materials, e.g. through the Building Research Unit and CAMARTECH, there has been little application of these findings in the production and use of appropriate techniques and local building materials. Some of this research was specifically aimed at reducing building costs for both rural and urban builders. Moreover, the majority of local authorities have not introduced revised building standards and regulations.

Shelter Financing Policy

Under the country's shelter policy, financial institutions lending for housing were to be

responsive to the needs of low income groups in both rural and urban areas. It was envisaged that new financial institutions might be created to increase lending opportunities. The Tanzania Housing Bank (THB), which was created in 1973 and became the sole source of formal housing finance, was only marginally able to lend to low income groups and over the years, lending declined in real terms as both building costs and interest rates increased. The THB was liquidated, effective from August 1995. As a result, there is currently in Tanzania, no formal source of financing for shelter development.

The THB, during its lifetime, did not play a significant role in the financing of shelter in the country. Many studies show that all income groups finance the construction of shelter through their own means. These include savings, loans from the extended family, capitalisation of assets, employers, cooperative societies, and credit and savings societies. Personal savings however is the major form of financing the construction of shelter.

The outcome of these strategies is seen in the large number of uncompleted buildings which are being constructed incrementally as and when funds become available. Completing a house, therefore, takes years for the majority of builders, a good number of whom fail completely to complete their buildings, and a good number of whom occupy their buildings incomplete. It is also possible that many would-be builders, especially in the low income categories simply fail to do so. Slow housing construction adversely affects the provision of shelter (e.g. leading to high rents and overcrowding) and puts a break on the development of the construction and building material industries, a major source of employment and livelihood for many low income households.

The absence of longterm finance has adverse effect on the social economic set up of the country. Many people aspire to acquire shelter as : a hedge against inflation; a major form of investment; a status symbol; a consumer durable; a collateral and so on. Without finance, owning decent shelter becomes a distant dream for many people in low income brackets.

2.1.4 Land Policy in Tanzania

Land issues have been recently examined by the *Presidential Commission on Land Matters*, by a study which was undertaken under the Urban Sector Engineering Project and under the Tanzania Forestry Action Project. These initiatives have resulted into a Land Policy which is expected to improve the systems of tenure and land delivery in the country.

The general aspects of national policy towards access to land derived from the Colonial *Land Ordinance of 1923*, which declared the bulk of the land in the country to be vested in the President who can allocate land by way of a Right of Occupancy, which is granted expressly, or can be deemed to be granted in the case of land held under customary tenure. Up to 1947, land could only be allocated to non natives through public auction. This changed after an amendment to the *Land Ordinance* in 1947 which allowed the allocation of land to anybody through a variety of means including public auctions, premium tendering and administrative allocation. The most common way of allowing people access to government land has been through administrative allocation. The general policy of the government has been that access to land should be affordable to all, and as a result, charges for access to planned land have been kept relatively low. Planned land is expressly granted for a short term (1-5 years) or longterm (33-99 years) duration.

Despite the goal of making planned land available to all, the supply of this land has been

limited compared to demand. Taking Dar es Salaam as a case in point, figures from the Dar es Salaam City Council (DCC) suggest an annual reported demand of 20,000 plots in Dar es Salaam from the late 1970s. Yet it is calculated that between 1972 and 1994 no more than 40,000 plots in total (or an average of 2,000 plots per annum (10% of the demand)) were prepared and allocated by the authorities in the City. According to the records of the Department of Lands in Zanzibar, the government managed to provide only 10% of the total demand for plots in the Isles between 1980 and 1995. The situation is similar in most other urban areas in Tanzania.

Reasons for this situation are many but hinge on lack of resources to acquire, plan and survey land fast enough to meet demand. The other reason is poor conceptualisation of the whole question of land markets which ignores the role of the private sector.

The result of this situation has been the inability of people in low income brackets to get access to planned land, and the growth of unplanned settlements in most urban areas in the country.

The general approach towards making land available to developers has been by way of declaring an area to be a planning area under the *Town and Country Planning Ordinance* of 1956. No further development of land is allowed in a declared area without the sanction of the planning authority. Usually, the government has aimed at removing existing occupiers from areas declared to be planning areas, by way of compulsory acquisition and compensation. The basis of the compensation figure is the value of the land occupier's unexhausted improvements. No value is assigned to the land itself since it is considered to be public. This is a legacy from colonial days aimed at allowing the government to acquire land cheaply. Because compensation is unrealistically low, and as it has rarely been paid promptly, and since alternative suitable land has rarely been allocated, there is in Tanzania, as elsewhere in Africa, popular opposition against compulsory land acquisition. In any case it becomes questionable to remove people from the land and allocate it to others as if those being removed were not entitled to its occupation.

Once an area is declared a planning area, the planning authority prepares a planning scheme which legally, must be placed before the public, and the objections raised, if any, addressed, before it is approved by the relevant Minister. After that, the land is demarcated, compensation paid and land allocated with covenants such as those pertaining to the land's development and the payment of land rent. Some of these procedures have not been followed creating various complains in land administration. The allocated Right of Occupancy can be revoked if covenants are breached. Transfer of undeveloped land is prohibited. Land has to be surrendered to the government for reallocation if it cannot be developed. Partially or fully developed land can be transferred although capital gains tax is payable to the government.

Access to Land by the Poor

The stated government policy had been to make land available to low income households. This, to some extent, underlies the cheap land policy adopted for planned land, as well as the abolition of Premium Tendering in 1974. At the same time there have been specific planning schemes undertaken with a stated policy goal of benefitting low income households. These include the sites and services programmes of the 1970s.

The biggest weakness in this approach has been that planning schemes themselves have been

highly subsidised and have remained limited and far apart, and as a result of dearth of resources, from the failure of cost recovery for example, have not been replicable. The resulting shortage of planned land has made planning schemes an arena of contest for the control of this land. Besides, the bureaucracy involved in getting this land is considerable and discourages low income households; as is the siting of most planned schemes in locations that are not suitable to the needs of the poor. The result has invariably been the edging out of the poor from planned land. Thus while the policy is in theory geared to the needs of low income households, the outcome has in most cases been the opposite of what was expected. The poor have had therefore, no choice but to occupy land in unplanned areas.

Women and Access to Land

There is legally, no discrimination between men and women as far as access to land which is not under customary tenure is concerned. Nevertheless, the disadvantaged position of women in other areas of economic and social spheres (like education, income and employment) reflects itself in the poor access of women towards land. Besides many local customs and traditions discriminate against women as far as access to land is concerned. There is some considerable evidence, some of it collected by the *Presidential Commission on Land Matters*, that women suffer adversely as far as access to land is concerned in general, and when they are single, divorced, or widowed in particular.

Access to Land through the Informal System

In view of the restricted supply of planned land most people get it through the informal system. This could be occupying land without anybody's permission; inheritance; allocation by a friend, relative or local leaders; or purchase from acclaimed owners. Various studies have established that by far, the majority of land owners/occupiers in urban areas get land by way of buying it from others. Thus an informal land market exists, although this is not recognised by the government.

Land obtained through the informal land sector would many times be in unplanned areas. Unplanned land is usually obtained and developed outside the ambit of government. It is assumed to carry a deemed right of occupancy, since there is a supposition that such land is held under customary tenure. In any case, unplanned land is usually acquired from its recognised owners usually by way of purchase. The occupiers are therefore, not squatters in the legal sense. Unplanned land is usually unsurveyed although individual plots can, with the concurrence of the planning authorities, be surveyed and granted title.

The majority of the population in most urban areas in Tanzania live in unplanned settlements, but despite this fact, the attitude of the government to these unplanned areas has been to tolerate them rather than positively deal or cooperate with them to bring about a better habitat environment.

Also conflicts have arisen between existing settlements and planning authorities. The authorities have adopted an approach that aims at clearing existing settlements of current occupiers, plan the land anew and allocate it. This has generated conflict between existing land occupiers and the planning authorities, and has contributed to limiting the supply of land and to the discouragement of the creation of a better living environment. Thus the majority of land occupiers in unplanned areas lack legal title to land, and such areas are irregularly developed and lack infrastructure or even land for such infrastructure at a future date. The

lack of a positive policy to address unplanned areas is perhaps one of the major weaknesses in policy towards human settlements in the country.

Land Administration and Management

The major tool for land administration is the Certificate of Title, yet studies show that in recent years, the awarding of these titles even over planned and allocated land has been on the decline. The government has on many occasions expressed its intentions to speed up the issuance of titles, but this policy has had only limited success. The problem would appear to hinge on the lack of resources to plan and survey land fast; the adherence to fairly high standards for land surveying; centralised and bureaucratic institutions to approve surveys and issue titles; and limited involvement of the private sector.

Another area needing mention is the institutional arrangements to administer land. Legally, powers to administer land are vested in the Ministers responsible for Lands although these powers can be delegated to other planning authorities. A conflict has generally existed between the Ministers responsible for Lands and Local Authorities and other state organs like the ruling political party, regional and district authorities, and village and customary authorities, as to who should administer land. This has resulted into confusion, overlap of powers, and conflicts between the various authorities. The result of this has been land maladministration characterised by such happenings as the allocation of the same piece of land to various beneficiaries. In order to deal with this situation, the mainland government issued a directive in 1989 spelling out the powers of each level of authority. The gist of this Directive is that it concentrates powers within the Ministry of Lands, and has been opposed by some local authorities. This is an area needing clearing up and strengthening.

Provisions contained in a new Land Policy that are related to Human Settlements.

In May 1995 the Government endorsed the new National Land Policy for Tanzania Mainland, and steps have already been put in place to draft a new Land Law to effect the new Land Policy. Some of the provisions in this new land policy impinge directly on human settlements. These include:

- The vesting of all land in the President;
- The recognition of land values and land markets;
- The payment of full, fair and prompt compensation in the case of acquired land;
- The recognition that customary and statutory tenure were equal in law;
- Equal access to land and property for both men and women
- The confirmation that the Ministry of Lands would be the sole authority responsible for land policy administration;
- The allocation of residential, commercial, institutional and industrial land on a cost recovery basis, and/or on the basis of market value;
- The speeding up of the issuing of Certificates of Title and the decentralisation of the land registry; and,
- The undertaking of the upgrading of unplanned settlements with the cooperation of the local authorities and local residents;

The aim of this new land policy is to generally improve efficiency and equitability in land tenure and administration in the country.

Effective implementation of the New Land Policy is likely to bring new dimensions in human settlements in Tanzania.

In Zanzibar, the Government has undertaken progressive land reforms since the early 1980s. A new *Land Tenure Act* became operational from 1992, and it introduces private land ownership, whereby an individual Zanzibari can be allocated a "Right of Occupancy" which is freely transferable and which can be held in perpetuity. Moreover, all the land in the Isles is in the process of being surveyed for the purpose of its registration, to enhance security of tenure, and to smoothen the land market.

2.1.5 Poverty Reduction and Employment Generation Policies

The majority of Tanzanians are afflicted by poverty and various policies have been put in place to address this problem and to generate employment and income earning opportunities. Indeed, national policy realises poverty as one of the three national enemies. A poverty alleviation portfolio is now in existence in the Vice President's Office. Up to the early 1980s, policy was concentrated on rural development, and the urban unemployed and poor were directed to rural areas where gainful employment was considered to be in abundance. Unfortunately, both rural and urban poverty continued unabated, and for many of the youth, the better of the two worlds was the urban areas. As such, migration to urban areas continued.

The Human Resources Deployment (*Nguvu Kazi*) Policy and Local Authorities

A major policy initiative was undertaken in 1983 with the enactment of the *Human Resources Deployment Act*, of 1983. This Act empowered the government to look into, and find a solution, to the question of unemployment in the urban centres, particularly among the youth and the school leavers. Considerable responsibility was put on local authorities who were given the tasks of formulating employment generating projects. It was also mandatory for local authorities to form Human Resource Development Committees to plan for employment generating projects and give guidance regarding the undertaking and execution of self-help schemes. The Minister responsible for Labour was empowered to make proper arrangements for the repatriation and subsequent employment of the unemployed residents in urban centres.

Urban authorities were enabled to allocate agricultural plots at the outskirts of urban areas to office workers and the majority of urban residents engaged in informal sector activities so that they can subsist or supplement their incomes. Second, urban areas were enabled to issue *Nguvu Kazi* licenses to small scale traders and others engaged in informal sector activities on easy and generous terms. Third, urban authorities in collaboration with the central government and a number of external agencies was able to establish a number of youth camps so as to engage the youth in productive work. In fourth place, many urban councils passed bye laws which legalised many activities previously considered unlawful provided one obtained a licence and the business was conducted on premises or locations approved by the Council. This brought to an end, in principle at least, the policy of repatriating those engaged in informal sector activities from the urban areas, although in practice, many local authorities have yet to formulate policies that accommodate small scale entrepreneurs. Conflicts between these and local authorities, particularly over licensing and over where to conduct business is a common phenomenon in many urban areas.

Poverty Alleviation through NGOs

Because of the persistence of poverty and unemployment exacerbated by structural adjustment programmes, both central and local governments have now begun to respond positively to pressure from both the local and international communities to adopt policies that can promote employment and alleviate poverty. Many non governmental organisations have sprung up and are supported by the government to help the poor and the unemployed (mainly in terms of finance and expertise) to set up micro enterprises. Local authorities are now looking into the possibility of setting aside land for informal business operators.

The private sector is also being encouraged to set up enterprises that can generate employment. The international community is also supporting programmes like the National Income Generation Programme (NIGP) which are seeking to expand employment opportunities particularly among the youth.

The Sustainable Cities Programme

Another initiative is the Sustainable Cities Programme, currently being implemented in Dar es Salaam in the form of the Sustainable Dar es Salaam Project (SDP). This programme is aimed at bringing all the actors, local and international, together to tackle the City's problems. One area which is addressed is urban economic management and petty trading with the aim of finding ways and means of improving the urban economy and incorporating informal sector actors. Again within the Sustainable Cities Programme, it is envisaged that whatever programmes are undertaken to improve the urban environment, like waste management or neighbourhood upgrading, they would utilise local resources, particularly labour. In Dar es Salaam for example, programmed are under way to involve small operators in waste collection and recycling. Again in the case of Hanna Nassif area upgrading, it is local labour that is being utilised for the civil works that are being undertaken.

National Employment and the Informal Sector Policy

The government following its recognition of the role of the informal sector in employment creation and income generation has initiated the formulation of the National Employment Policy and the Informal Sector Policy. The National Employment Policy acknowledges the contribution of the informal sector in employment creation, and through it, the government has indicated a general commitment to use the informal sector as a major source of employment opportunities.

The **Informal Sector Policy** sets in specific terms what the government will do to promote the informal sector. This will include:

- Setting up mechanism which will provide guidance to the government on how to deal with the informal sector;
- Creation of a conducive environment for the development of the informal sector;
- Improving working conditions within the informal sector;
- Promoting the use of appropriate and improved technology in the informal sector.

The institutional mechanism set up for the implementation of the Informal Sector Policy includes the establishment, at district level, of Centres for Informal Sector Promotion with responsibilities to:

- facilitate the provision of services to the informal sector operators. The services may include training, marketing and business sites;
- encourage the formation and development of savings and credit schemes;
- establish some special funds for the development of the informal sector; and,
- to encourage the formation and development of Informal Sector Associations and Self help Organisations.

It is expected that the centres will be funded by District Councils with subsidies from the national micro enterprise development fund that will be created in the implementation of the National Informal Sector Policy.

2.1.6 Policies on Women and Vulnerable Social Groups

The constitution of Tanzania ensures equality between human beings and does not discriminate on the basis of sex, age, tribe, race, religion or social status. In practice, certain social categories in the country, including women, children, the elderly and refugees, many times find themselves in vulnerable situations. In terms of land allocation for example. While there is no discrimination between men and women, many practices emanating from tradition and custom discriminate overtly against women.

In order to address such problems, the government set up a Ministry of Community Development, Women Affairs, and Children, and this has been sensitizing people on the plight of these vulnerable groups through workshops, seminars, research, cooperating with NGOs and foreign governments and institutions, and championing legislation aimed at removing discrimination or nonchalance.

Tanzania has a long and good record of taking care of its disabled persons. In 1980, there were 43 Geriatric homes spread all over the country (19 run by the government and 24 by voluntary agencies), plus 4 Rehabilitation Centres and several schools for the disabled. These, however, have suffered from the adverse effects of structural adjustment and many of their services are now very inadequately provided. Also a number of street children homes have sprung up many run by voluntary organisations but receiving direct or indirect support from the government.

Tanzania has for a long time been the recipient of refugees from neighbouring countries, including Mozambique, Zaire, Burundi and Rwanda. Refugee camps are now established in north western Tanzania, harbouring over 1,000,00 people. It is reckoned that each refugee camp consumes about 12 ha of woodland a day. Thus there is need to address the question of refugees on both moral and environmental considerations.

In terms of human settlements, it is however possible to argue that there has been no concrete policies adopted, directly geared towards taking care of the needs of women and other vulnerable social groups.

2.1.7 Policies on Environmental Management

Tanzania has made substantial advances in developing the kinds of institutions which are capable of meeting challenges of current environmental problems.

After the Stockholm Conference on the Human Environment in 1972, concern began to be shown on ecological issues of the environment. An Environmental Management Unit was therefore established under the Town Planning Department of the Ministry of Lands, Housing and Urban Development (MLHUD) in the 1970s. By the early 1980s, it was realised that an independent agency was required to deal with issues of the environment beyond human settlements. In 1983, the *National Environmental Management Act* was enacted and in 1986, the National Environmental Management Council (NEMC) started to operate as an independent agency separate from the MLHUD.

The main role of NEMC has been to sensitize society on environmental issues, exert regulation and control where this has been necessary, to advice government, and to coordinate environmental issues. The government itself has a Department of Environment within the Vice President's Office.

NEMC has recently completed and submitted to government, a **National Conservation Strategy for Sustainable Development (NCSSD)**. The document details priority areas with regard to environment and development. These include the integration of development and the environment as recommended by the UNCED conference held in Rio de Janeiro in 1992, and hinge upon the carrying out of Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) for development proposals and undertakings.

There are currently some 58 pieces of legislation which touch on one issue or the other of the environment. Most of this legislation is outdated (e.g. giving very light deterrents), is uncoordinated and is unenforceable, and most goes unenforced. NEMC itself lacks regulatory and supervisory powers. This is an area needing attention.

There is also the need to sort out administrative and institutional matters particularly to remove power overlaps and to define the responsibility of each level of government, with respect to the question of the environment; and to increase environmental education, public awareness and participation, and to increase environmental research and technology.

A national environmental policy is currently nearing completion under the auspices of the vice President's Office. There is need to complete and operationalise this policy as soon as possible.

There is general agreement that the level of environmental awareness in the country and among policy makers is quite high, although in terms of priority in resource allocation, concern with the environment is still relatively low.

The Sustainable Dar es Salaam Project is an example of a project that approaches the development of the city from the environmental perspective. Also various NGOs have now sprung up to address environmental issues and these are being encouraged by the government.

Problems Encountered with Relation to Environmental Management

Environmental management in the country suffers from a number of problems:

- The NEMC has been faced with the problem of lack of regulatory and supervisory powers to deal with those who degrade the environment.

- There has been laxity in enforcing laws and regulations that relate to protecting the environment at all levels of government. In some cases the government has bent its own laws or changed them to suit short term gains with little regard for the environment. An example of this, is the regulations related to protecting the beachlands in Dar es Salaam which were changed to allow construction too near the beach although it was clear that such construction was detrimental to the environment.

- There is a general paucity of relevant legislation as well as relevant criteria at which to peg environmental standards.

- Resources, both financial and in terms of manpower have been grossly inadequate.

In Zanzibar, the Department of Environment was established under the Commission for Lands and Environment within the Ministry of Water, Construction, Energy, Lands and Environment. The department completed Zanzibar's *Environmental Policy* in 1992. This latter is now the main document guiding environmental management. Recently the House of Representatives passed the *Environmental Law* to give more powers to the Department of Environment to enable it to smoothly implement the *Environmental Policy*.

2.1.8 Disaster, Mitigation, Relief and Reconstruction

Many times human settlements suffer from disasters, and governments need to have policies in place to deal with such situations. In Tanzania, disasters that have taken place in the past and are likely to occur in the future include fires, floods, and epidemics.

Fires can result from many factors, and could in theory be controlled and prevented from spreading or causing extensive damage. But the fact that a good number of shelter is constructed of easily combustible materials; that many areas are inaccessible to fire tenders; that many fire fighting authorities suffer from the lack of key resources; that many areas lack fire fighting requirements like water or water hydrants; and that many buildings are constructed very close to each other, mean that fire outbreaks can be very disastrous.

Floods occur regularly in a number of urban areas in Tanzania, including Dar es Salaam, particularly during the rainy seasons. Property does get damaged and sometimes life has been lost. Reasons for such regular flooding include: construction (authorised or not) in low lying areas and river valleys; blocking natural water courses; blocked or not maintained water drains where they exist; and lack of surface water drains in many areas.

Epidemics notably cholera, plague, and typhoid fever, have occurred in a number of urban areas in recent years. The cause of this is usually a poor environment that human settlements find themselves in, including undisposed or poorly disposed of waste, polluted water and so on.

There is no National Policy on Disaster Mitigation and Reconstruction although there are many laws that are aimed at preventing or dealing with disasters.

- The *Fire Inquiry Ordinance Cap 33* and *The Fire and Rescue Services Act of 1985* are supposed to deal with fire disasters;
- Local Government Acts give powers to local authorities to regulate public health, inspect buildings, regulate construction to prevent e.g. construction in unsuitable areas, or to provide fire fighting services;
- The *Town and Country Planning Ordinance* provides for the orderly growth of urban areas. This, if followed, can prevent disasters;
- *Building Rules* specify regulations to be followed to prevent fire outbreaks or to minimise damage caused by fire;
- The *Public Health (Sewerage and Drainage) Ordinance, Cap 336* has provisions to control drainage which can prevent floods and minimise public health hazards.

In 1990, the government saw the need to establish a Disaster Relief Department (*Government Notice 9*, of 1990). This Department is within the Prime Minister's Office and is voted money regularly by Parliament to provide emergency assistance in case of disasters like floods, famine, earthquakes or typhoons. The Ministry of Health also has a small Disasters Unit. Plans are under way to prepare a document to form the basis of a National Policy on Disaster Mitigation and Reconstruction.

Effectiveness of the Disaster Mitigation and Reconstruction Policy

The effectiveness of the Disaster Mitigation and Reconstruction Policy is limited due to a number of reasons:

- Many laws and regulations which are aimed at preventing disasters are not known or enforced. For example many buildings carry no building permits, and whether they do or not, many fire regulations and precautions are ignored or flouted.
- Lack of enforcement of land use regulations means that many neighbourhoods are constructed on unsuitable land or in such a manner that they are liable to floods, fire or epidemics.
- Lack of resources has also hindered the effectiveness of disaster mitigation policies. Many fire brigades in urban areas for example lack the necessary resources, including serviceable fire tenders.
- There are no specific precautions to prevent disasters.
- There is no substantial use of insurance services to deal with disasters.

2.1.9 Population Policy

A National Population policy was adopted by the Government in 1992. The principal objective of the policy is to reinforce national development through harmonizing population trends with development of other national resources, in order to improve the quality of life of Tanzanians. A programme to implement the policy has already been prepared and one of the objectives is to put in place policies to influence population distribution in Tanzania towards sustainable utilization of the nation's resources for rapid socio-economic development, by the year 2000.

2.1.10 Decentralization and City Management (Governance)

Effective management of human settlements is dependent upon efficiently working local governments, and their interaction with the local population. This is referred to as governance, and means the incorporation of all actors and interest groups in managing urban life.

The Evolution of Urban Governments in Tanzania

The Pre-decentralisation era

The first law allowing the formation of urban authorities was passed in 1946. Prior to that, urban areas were directly ruled by the central government, through Township Authorities appointed by the Governor under the *Township Ordinance* of 1920. The *Municipalities Ordinance* of 1946 empowered the governor to establish municipalities. After the enactment of the enabling legislation in 1946, it took three years before Dar es Salaam was made the first municipality. There is some significance that Dar es Salaam became directly a municipality and not a town council first. It would appear that the *Municipalities Ordinance* of 1946 was enacted with Dar es Salaam in mind. It was the *Local Government Ordinance* of 1953 which enabled the governor to establish lower levels of urban authorities i.e. town councils, county councils and district councils. At Independence there were 11 urban councils in the country. These had grown to 15 at the time of decentralisation (1972).

The Decentralisation era (1972-1982)

Local authorities in Tanzania were abolished between 1972 and 1974 in a process known as decentralisation which in fact saw the central government abolishing all local authorities and extending its control to the local level. Thereafter, a combination of factors, saw major deterioration of urban services and infrastructure and in 1976, the government set up a Committee to look into the situation. As a result of the Committee's recommendations, the Dar es Salaam City Council was restored under an interim legislation in 1978. The rest of the councils were restored in 1982.

The Post-decentralisation era (1982 onwards)

The Constitution of Tanzania stipulates that local government authorities shall be established at all levels in accordance with the respective laws passed by Parliament. It further stipulates that the primary objective of local government is the devolution of power to the people. It requires all authorities to involve the people in development activities, to provide local government services in their respective areas, to maintain law and order and to strengthen democracy.

The current legislation enabling the formation of urban governments and the controlling of their operations is the *Local Government (Urban Authorities) Act*, of 1982. According to this law, every urban authority is governed by a council made up of elected councillors, local members of Parliament, and nominated women whose numbers make up 25% of all the elected members. These women are nominated by the various political parties in proportion to the number of elected members that these parties have. Urban Authorities are classified as Town, Municipal, or City Councils. Town Councils are headed by a Chairman, while Municipal or City Councils are headed by a Mayor. Both of these are elected from among the councillors.

Urban Authorities govern through standing Committees. The 1982 Act stipulates six committees: Administration and Finance; Health and Social Welfare; Education and Culture; Works and Communication; Town/Urban Planning; and Trade and Economic Planning. The *Human Resources Deployment Act* of 1983 required urban authorities to have a seventh committee - the Human Resources Deployment Committee - which was aimed at ensuring that each able bodied person participated in productive activity. Several Councils have added to those committees stipulated in the Act according to their needs. The Dar es Salaam Council for example has in addition to the above seven: an Agricultural and Livestock Committee; and a Natural Resources Committee.

At the operational level, the work of the council is carried out under the direction of the Director, appointed by the country's President. He is the chief executive of the council and is personally accountable for the funds of the council. The Heads of the various departments form the Management Team of each urban authority under the chairmanship of the Director.

For administrative purposes each urban area (except Dar es Salaam which is both a city and a region, and is divided into three districts) is part of a District, but is also, an electoral constituency with an elected Member of Parliament. For the purpose of local government, each District has a rural part with its own District Council, and may have an urban part with a designated urban authority. The District Commissioner is the head of the district and is responsible for law and order, and oversees the administration, planning and development of his District.

Within the urban areas, the lowest level of administration is the Hamlet (*Mtaa*). This was established to supersede the 10-cell leader system which existed during the one party rule. The Hamlet is headed by an elected chairman. However, the Hamlet level of government does not appear to be well established. Many people do not know about their hamlets. Although the duties of these hamlets are defined in government documents, they seem to lack the recognition as well as the legal powers to make them work.

The next level of administration is the Ward Level. Councillors are elected at ward level. In terms of governance, it has been observed that many wards are too big, and that the relations of councillors with their electorate is sometimes far from cordial. Some councillors rarely consult or report back to, their electorate. A major concern of governance is the poor public turnout in local government elections (below).

There are currently in Tanzania nineteen urban areas with local authority status i.e. eight Town Councils, ten municipalities and one city council. On top of that there are 66 Township Authorities which are administered by District Councils. Mwanza and Arusha and Mbeya municipalities are currently seeking city status.

In the case of rural (district) authorities, the lowest level is the village, then comes the ward, then the Division and finally the District.

Central-Local Government Relationships

Under the present legislation, the central government has a number of key controls over urban and rural authorities. The central government appoints senior personnel to run these authorities while the byelaws made by them, as well as their budgets, or proposals to tap new sources of revenue or to increase existing taxes, must be approved by the Minister for Local Government. The government also issues directives from time to time which affect local authorities. Moreover several central government ministries and a number of national parastatals have a lot of crucial roles to play within the areas under the jurisdiction of urban or rural councils. Areas where central and local government roles overlap include road construction, drainage, water and electricity supply, and land use regulation (particularly land use planning and land allocation), agricultural promotion, and so on.

Several commentators have decried this situation which gives a lot of powers to central government over local government in areas that are of local concern. They point out that it denies the local authorities the autonomy they are supposed to have, and that it leads to confusion and conflicts, and to problems of coordination, control, and ultimate responsibility. In some respects, this relationship has brought about poor local revenue collection and the concomitant deterioration of conditions in human settlements. Poor revenue collection means for example, that infrastructure cannot be provided or maintained, and the environment cannot be ameliorated. Although the Constitution talks of strong local governments, and although many policy statements made by the government and the ruling party for example give the impression that the government would like to see strong and independent local governments, this goal is far from being realised.

The Problem of Financing Local Authorities

An important element of effective decentralisation is the extent to which local, particularly urban governments can raise their own revenue. In Tanzania, there is legislation that gives powers to local authorities to enable them to raise revenue from local sources. Such sources include development levy, market dues, business licences, produce cess, and property tax. It was envisaged that urban authorities would depend on themselves to a large extent, except in the provision of services where they act as agents of the central government (e.g. in the provision of primary education and health services).

With very few exceptions, local authorities in Tanzania have continued to rely heavily on the central government for their revenue. Therefore their ability to manage urban development has been dependent on how much the central government can allocate to them and this has not been much. All the same, most local authorities depend for between 60% and above of their revenue, on central government subsidies.

At the same time, there is considerable evidence that many local authorities do not utilise fully the sources of revenue that are available to them. But, while revenue collection is poor, the pattern of expenditure also leaves a lot to be desired since it is concentrated on personal emoluments and the running of vehicles. This lopsided expenditure means that little is spent on essential services, which in turn has deleterious effects on human settlements and on local governance since it discourages residents from paying local revenue as a result of not seeing

any benefits of doing so.

Policy related to strengthening local revenue raising capacity

The stand of the central government on the possible efforts of local governments to raise their own revenue has been ambiguous:

- The central government takes long, sometimes several years, to approve bye laws aimed at empowering local councils to levy local dues;
- Many times the government has approved rates much lower than those proposed by the local governments;
- There has been lack of political will to encourage effective local taxation.
- There are cases where the central government collects taxes which have to be shared between itself and local governments, but it does not render to the local authorities their due share. This has been noted in the case of land rent and road tolls;
- It has been argued that the central government takes for itself the lucrative and easy to collect taxes leaving the difficult ones to local governments.
- There has also been some encroachment by central government into taxes like property tax, which are usually the recluse of local governments.

Central-local government relationship needs to be improved particularly in the area of enhancing local revenue collection.

Improving Urban Governance

There is need to streamline the multi-layers of authorities operating at the same time in urban and rural areas so as to avoid conflicts and overlaps. Blames have been traded between these authorities for failures. On its part, the central government argues that local authorities have a weak manpower and other resources base, and that, if left uncontrolled, they cannot discharge their duties properly. Nevertheless it has been argued that in fact much of local authority staff has been inherited or seconded from the central government, and are not used to the ethics of working in local government. Because some of the key local authority personnel are hired and paid by the central government, they lack loyalty to the local governments for which they are working. Both councillors and officials need to be trained in the ethics of local government.

At the same time, there is the need to improve the level of communication between the local governments, the central government and ALAT (the Association for Local Authorities in Tanzania).

Most of the proposals that have been advocated for improvement in local governance have conceived governance in the sense of "good government". There has been an undue tendency to concentrate on state organs as opposed to the relationship between ruler and ruled, and the various actors that shape local governance. The idea of governance however transcends "good government" and involves all the various actors (the civil society) on the local scene.

to deal with pressing local issues is frustrated by technical and legal problems and lack of coordination among the various actors, and between these actors and the urban councils.

There is also the need to operationalise the hamlet (*Mtaa*) level of urban government, which can serve as a bottom line of reference in local governance. This level was introduced with the advent of multiparty democracy to replace the 10-cell system but there has been no deliberate efforts to strengthen it.

2.1.11 Conclusions

It has been found that the national policies and strategies pursued until recently have resulted in limited economic growth in urban centres in a situation of rapidly increasing populations existing in an environment of poverty. Not only are incomes low, but the majority of urban dwellers have no access to services like potable water, decent sanitation, basic health and education, road and footpath access and means of waste disposal. The quality of shelter is poor and investment in shelter and services is deterred by the present land policy and the planning mechanism. Existing policies have also created negative economic growth by for example preventing the operation of a formal land market and by severely restricting mortgage facilities for the construction of housing and for the development of the small scale business sector. Besides:

- Tanzania has had a very restricted, almost non existent, institutional set up for financing shelter, so that most shelter is self-financed. This results into limited shelter production as a result of the failure to start or complete construction, or to complete construction slowly over a long period of time. The quantity and quality of shelter suffers, and high house rents and overcrowding take place.

- Urban development is financed generally by the central government with hardly any system of effective and adequate cost recovery, or of incorporating the public into provision of infrastructure and other urban services. This results into shortage of planned and serviced land; poorly maintained or non existing infrastructure; the growth of unplanned settlements; speculation in the limited planned land that is available; and the edging out of the poor from planned land.

- Although local governments were re-established in 1982, and although effective decentralisation is the official policy, local governments are still weak particularly in terms of democracy and resources; and are generally controlled by and dependent on the central government.

- Urban Poverty is on the increase but government policy to deal with the phenomenon is ambiguous and many times contradictory, both at central and local government levels. The government however is supportive of steps to generate employment and increase income. Most of these initiatives are being carried out by NGOs. Rural Poverty is also on the increase leading to accelerated rural to urban migration.

- There is a general awareness that women and other socially vulnerable groups like children, the aged and the infirm, and refugees, need special consideration but there are no concrete policy undertakings to address their problems, although NGOs are being encouraged to shoulder some of the burden.

There is considerable concern with environmental management but concrete undertakings are hampered by a number of factors including poor institutional set ups; inadequate, ineffective, and uncoordinated legislation; limited resources; and limited public participation. Thus the state of the environment in human settlements remains poor.

While many human settlements are liable to disasters like floods, fire, typhoons, and the outbreak of epidemics, there is literally no policies put in place to deal with such situations.

2.2 Assessment of Current Human Settlements Conditions

An assessment of current human settlements conditions is given below under seven headings that is:

- Urbanisation Trends in Tanzania
- Urban Social Services
- Urban Infrastructure
- Environmental Management
- Local Government and City Management
- Affordable and Adequate Shelter
- The Rural Scene

The assessment concentrates on the most pressing urban and shelter development issues.

2.2.1 Urbanisation Trends in Tanzania

Increasing Urban Population

Although Tanzania, with an estimated population of 27 million people in 1995, is one of the least urbanised countries in the world, it has been experiencing a rapid rate of urbanisation. The annual rate of growth of the urban population in Tanzania rose from 6.5 per cent between 1957 and 1967, to 11.3 per cent between 1967 and 1978 and to 11 per cent between 1978 and 1988 (Table 1.3).

Rapid urbanisation in Tanzania, like most developing countries has been fuelled by high rates of natural population growth in the cities combined with migration from rural areas. Past studies have indicated that rural-urban migration assumes a far greater importance vis a vis natural increase in contributing to rapid urbanisation in Tanzania.

Pressure on Urban Infrastructure and Services

Rapid urbanisation has inevitably increased pressure on the already over-extended urban infrastructure and services, much of which has not been maintained or expanded to cope with

rapid urban growth. In addition to the failure to provide adequate infrastructure and services to cater for the rapid population growth in urban areas, there has been a failure on the part of the administrative machinery to provide for a "planned" home delivery system at a time when demand has been growing rapidly. Previous studies have shown that at the current rate of urban population growth, together with the existing housing deficit and the fact that quite a number of the existing dwellings will require replacement, the total demand for new dwelling units in urban areas by the year 2000 is estimated at more than 2,200,000 units

Growth of Unplanned (Squatter) Settlements

The inadequacy of the shelter delivery system to cater for the urban population has led to the extensive development of squatter or unplanned settlements. Current studies indicate that nationally about 75 per cent of the urban population lives in unplanned settlements and that about 40 per cent of the urban housing stock is to be found in these settlements. A more alarming situation is the rate at which these settlements have been growing. For example, the total number of houses in the unplanned areas of Dar es Salaam was about 50,000 housing units in 1974. The current figure is estimated to be more than 200,000 housing units. Investigation conducted by the Housing Development Division of the Ministry of Lands, Housing and Urban Development, indicated that about 65% of all residential housing constructed in urban areas in 1980 was in unplanned settlements and that in the same year developers in unplanned areas constructed around 10,000 dwellings in the various regional centres compared to less than 2000 that were constructed in planned areas. Studies conducted recently in 1995 under the Urban and Housing Indicators Programme corroborates the above conclusions. Unplanned areas accommodated about 70% per cent of the population in each of the urban areas of Dar es Salaam, Arusha and Mbeya, and 40% in Mwanza. The situation is similar in other urban areas.

Physical and social infrastructure in these settlements is either missing, or is in very poor condition. Common phenomena in these settlements include unhealthy water supply systems, overcrowding, lack of land for circulation routes and community facilities, and a poor environment characterised by poor sanitation, uncollected waste, and so on.

Increasing Unemployment, Poverty and Informal Sector Activities.

The overall average unemployment rate in Tanzania is about 22% while unemployment among women is more than 60%. The informal sector generates 56% of total employment in all sectors in urban areas in the country. Women make up about 35% of the employment in the informal sector. Evidence of growing poverty is manifested in the rising cost of living, a decline in real wages and the growth of informal activities. Families below poverty line make up about 25% of all households in Tanzania. It is estimated that Tanzania's informal sector represents 30% of the country's economy.

While it is generally accepted that the incidence of poverty is more acute in the rural areas, urban poverty is increasing fast in line with the higher rates of inflation. Urban poverty has also taken a new turn with structural adjustment programmes. Higher prices of basic goods and services; have reduced the relative value of social services sector; have led to reduced employment in the public sector, and also to the closure of many industrial establishments.

Some indicators of urban poverty in Tanzania include: declining real wages; higher prices of

food and other essential goods and services; falling formal employment; growth of informal sector activities, including a lot of street trading; increase in the proportion of people using unsafe water; deteriorating access to good medical and educational services; the growth of unplanned settlements many of which are overcrowded, lack basic amenities, and are sometimes constructed on marginal land (liable to flooding for example); and increasing destitution and delinquency, in terms of beggars and street children for example.

Increasing Women Headed Households

There is a considerable increase in women headed households. Many of these women are widows, divorcees, or have been abandoned, or have never been married. Women headed households constitute 25% of all households in the country. This rather high proportion can be an indication of changing gender relations or the breaking of family ties.

2.2.2 Urban Social Services

Urban social services began to deteriorate rapidly during the Decentralisation period when local authorities in Tanzania were abolished, and the country's economy began deteriorating. Thereafter, despite the restoration of local governments in 1982, these services have continued to deteriorate as a result of higher demand on them in a situation of reduced resources, growing out of budgetary constraints partly necessitated by structural adjustment programmes.

Education

In education it has been observed that education facilities throughout the country are deteriorating and illiteracy is on the increase.

In the 70's, the literacy rate was over 95% but had fallen to 80% in 1995. The quality of education has gone down and one indicator of this situation is the inadequate educational facilities eg. classrooms. An average size of a classroom in primary school is 75 children per class while secondary schools takes on average 35 students per classroom, compared to 45 and 25 students per classroom recommended by the Ministry of Education for Primary and Secondary School respectively.

Besides, much of the school infrastructure, particularly buildings, has deteriorated considerably, and school equipment is for most of the cases missing. Teachers too are highly demoralised as a result of low wages and poor working conditions.

Health

The main health problems in urban areas of Tanzania stem primarily from diseases associated with infectious agents and poor environmental sanitation, compounded by malnutrition.

The major constraints on the efficient functioning of the health care system as it now operates are shortage of staff, health care facilities, equipment, and medicine, and lack of land for expansion. Most of the health services in urban centres are provided in dispensaries. Given the fact that the majority of the urban dwellers are poor, they depend mostly on the services of government dispensaries. Thus, the service ratio is one government dispensary per 21,600 persons, which is very much below the national standard of one dispensary per 8,000 persons.

Other key indicators of poor health facilities in Tanzania include a high population per physician of 24,000 and per trained nurse of 5336; a child mortality of 141 per 1000 live births; the number of hospital beds of 0.3 per 1000 people; and a low health and education expenditure of only 4% of the GDP.

2.2.3 Urban Infrastructure

Water Supply

For most urban centres, the water supply per day is well below the demand. In Dar es Salaam, the demand is 90 million litres per day. Only 60 million litres is pumped by the National Urban Water Authority (NUWA) and only 40 million litres finally reaches the consumers. Much of it gets lost through leakages. As such, many areas have to go for days on end without water and rationing is practised in some areas. In many parts, many people depend on water sellers whose prices vary between Tshs 200-500 for a 20-litre container.

The quality of the water itself leaves a lot to be desired. This is a result of poor treatment, in turn a result of shortage of resources to procure the necessary chemicals. Back seepage during water cuts is another source of water pollution. It is now confirmed that piped water in many urban areas is poorly treated, or, in some cases, not treated at all.

The proportion of urban residents who have access to potable water is recorded as 70% while 40% of all connections have no water running and only 20% of all households have connections in their plots.

Sanitation and Drainage

The sanitation level in urban areas is not satisfactory, thus diminishing the housing standards especially in high density residential areas and unplanned areas. Existing sewerage and sanitation service in regional centres is inadequate and serves only a small proportion of urban dwellers. Of the twenty regional centres only eight have central sewerage system and their use is limited to under 10% of the population. These towns are: Dar es Salaam, Tanga, Moshi, Mwanza, Tabora, Dodoma, Morogoro, Arusha and Mbeya (under construction). The remaining regional centres are served by either septic tanks and soak away systems or traditional pit latrines. There are many households who do not have any form of sanitation.

The major reason for problems regarding sewage treatment and solid waste disposal in urban centres in Tanzania is the inadequate capacity on the part of municipal councils to manage liquid and solid waste disposal. This poses a great danger to the health and welfare of the various urban communities.

Cities are supposed to devote 20-40% of their budgets to waste management. In Tanzania, the average allocation is well much below that. The City of Dar es Salaam for example allocates only about 4.9% of its budget to waste management. The most important indicator of this inadequacy is the proportion of urban residents connected to a central sewer which is recorded as an average of 8% in the main urban centres in Tanzania. On average, 70% of urban residents use pit latrines, while 20% use septic tanks and soakaway, and 2% use other means including open drains. The problem with pit latrines which characterise high density areas and squatter areas is that they are poorly constructed and maintained thus creating unhygienic conditions. Pit latrines are also faced with poor emptying services. Flooding during

wet seasons is a common occurrence. The lack of drainage channels especially in squatter areas creates health problems.

All urban centres have inadequate refuse/sewerage collection vehicles and equipment including cesspit emptiers and garbage trucks and dust bins. Limited funds for purchase of new trucks and spare parts for maintenance of existing waste management fleet is a major constraint.

In most of the urban centres, public facilities like markets, bus terminals, recreation areas and leisure gardens lack public sanitary services. Those available are either out of order or are not properly maintained. In many areas, sewage from toilets and septic tanks pollutes the urban environment, overflowing onto open ditches and on the streets.

Electricity

The National Electricity Grid System, which handles about 84% of the total power generated in the country, currently provides the power requirements for Dar es Salaam, Morogoro, Coast, Tanga, Kilimanjaro and Arusha Regions. Hydropower accounts for 93% of electricity generated and fed into the grid system. It is interesting to note that the grid system recorded 260.16 (MV) generated against its installed capacity of 309.30 (MV). This reflects 16% capacity under-utilisation of existing power plants.

Other urban centres not covered under the grid system meet their electricity requirements from local generators. The number of generators vary from town to town. The greater the power demand, the bigger the number of units. In this system, capacity utilization is much lower (only 64%). Of the total installed capacity of 60,445(KW) as of December, 1980, only 38,545(KW) could be generated. Efforts by Tanzania Electricity Supply Company (TANESCO) to raise the level of generation and ensure security of supply in isolated power systems so as to match with the growing demand are frustrated by the following major factors:

- Shortage of fuel mainly due to poor deliveries
- Shortage of power generating plants and spare parts due to foreign exchange constraints
- Repeated machine breakdowns due to old age.

Urban centres which depend on diesel generated electric supply experience repeated power cuts and interruptions paralysing economic and social activity including industrial production, urban water supply, and other services. The most affected industrial centres included Mwanza, Musoma, Mbeya and Tabora.

The following is a summary of problems related with Electricity Supply in most urban centres especially higher order towns with complex functions:

- The spatial distribution of primary power transmission lines and substations within the town does not follow the urban land use pattern often causing overload in some areas due to unexpected increase in demand while other areas enjoy surplus power supply.
- Development of illegal backyard industries, e.g. Garages in residential areas strain the

planned power supply system.

Street lighting is inadequate in most urban centres particularly in high density residential areas.

Extension of power lines to new development areas is hindered by a shortage of transmission equipment including poles.

Villages located within urban areas as well as squatter areas are sometimes not supplied with power thus exacerbating social problems e.g. crime, robbery, etc.

Urban Energy besides Electricity

A majority of the urban household use fuelwood (including charcoal) and kerosine for cooking and lighting. Continued deforestation particularly near urban centres and escalating prices of imported fossil fuel have made charcoal and kerosine both scarce and expensive. In Tanzania, the rate of fuelwood and charcoal consumption is bigger than the woods are able to produce. Hence, rapid deforestation is one of the country's extremely serious development problems.

The urban population is forced to buy charcoal at ever increasing prices in the absence of alternative cheaper energy supplies. A low income household spends some 30% of its income on energy alone. Urban areas consume 1.2 million m³ of firewood per annum. Green areas are only 2.5% of the total metropolitan areas.

Urban Transportation:

Increasingly, many urban areas in Tanzania now have public transport systems. These include Dar es Salaam, Tanga, Moshi, Mwanza, Iringa, Arusha, Kigoma, Mbeya, Shinyanga and Bukoba.

Public transport is handled by the private sector although in Dar es Salaam there an ailing public transport company (UDA) still playing some role. Buses are many times overcrowded, and many of them are not in mechanical good order, and this can be a danger to passengers.

At the moment, public transport in Dar es Salaam is run almost entirely by *daladala* buses. The number of UDA buses owned, the number of passengers ferried and the distance (in kilometres) covered, fell from 226, 105,876,000 and 9,574,000 respectively in 1980, to 99, 22,346,000, and 2,867,000 in 1990. The number of passengers had fallen to 17,870,000 in 1992 and to 11,196,901 in 1993. In 1994, UDA had only 87 buses while the number of *daladala* buses registered with the Central Licensing Authority had grown from 219 in 1983 to 2569 in 1994 (Table 2.1). There are also many private buses that operate without licences.

Table 2.1 Changes in Public owned and Privately Owned Bus Services in Dar es Salaam

Year	Number of Buses Owned or Registered	Passengers Conveyed	Kilometres covered
	<u>UDA BUSES</u>		
1980	226	105,876,000	9,574,000
1990	99	22,346,000	2,867,000
1992	-	17,870,000	
1993	-	11,196,901	
1994	87		
	<u>DALADALA BUSES</u>		
1983	219		
1994	2569		

In most small urban areas in Tanzania, urban movement is on foot or by bicycle with very limited public motorised transport. Although walking forms the major mode of transportation (more than 80%) in most towns in Tanzania, the existing transportation systems do not provide pedestrian ways thus causing a higher than average traffic/pedestrian/Cyclists accident rate. There is a need of employing traffic segregation methods in urban areas.

Another factor contributing to road accidents is the poor road conditions characterized by pot holes and the lack of adequate parking - facilities in downtown areas.

In view of the present rate of urbanisation, the main problem related to urban transportation is the provision of adequate transport facilities for the greater majority of the population, rapidly increasing in numbers, who cannot in any case afford private cars. Under the present economic conditions more than 85% of urban dwellers walk to places of employment, commerce and other business.

Another problem is increasing vehicle ownership which stands at 3% per annum. This has resulted in traffic congestion of up to 40%, and this is made worse by poor roads, poor road design and lack of basic traffic control devices, and is also a major cause of pollution.

2.2.4 Environmental Management

Environmental problems and resource use conflicts are on the increase in Tanzania. Land degradation, pollution, and degradation of the marine environment are examples of environmental problems which adversely affect the socio-economic well-being of the Tanzanian people.

Rapid urban growth that Tanzania has experienced in the past decades, and that has taken place in a situation where both central and urban governments have been unable to exert control or regulation or to provide the requisite resources, has created environmental problems in human settlements.

Uncontrolled urban agriculture especially keeping of livestock, overuse of services without maintenance, poor disposal of garbage in both unplanned and planned areas and markets

degrade the urban environment. About 80% of the solid waste generated in urban areas remains uncollected and is either crudely buried or dumped in the open.

Problems resulting from the failure to manage waste include water pollution as a result of discharging untreated waste in water courses or ground water pollution from pit latrines and septic tanks; surface pollution from overflowing waste water, or uncollected solid waste; air pollution from motor vehicles, industrial, and domestic emissions and dust; land degradation as a result of removal of soil cover for construction and fuel supply, mining and supply of building materials; marine pollution as a result of discharging untreated waste in water bodies; degradation of beaches as a result of overuse, over-construction, and the removal of coastal vegetation and so on.

Studies carried out in Dar es Salaam for instance, reveal that only 10% of the solid waste is collected by the Dar es Salaam City Council vehicles or its agents, and that collected waste is just dumped at the 'landfill' site, causing extensive pollution. The rest of the waste is crudely dumped anywhere, burnt or buried, causing serious air and ground water pollution.

Less than 5% of the population of Dar es Salaam is connected to a sewer system, but even here, sewage is discharged untreated into the Ocean, or into water courses, or into oxidation ponds which no longer work. About 80% of the population have on site facilities chiefly (70%) pit latrines, and (30%) septic tanks. The high population concentrations and the high water table mean that ground water is badly polluted. Other studies point to a high level of air and noise pollution from motor vehicles emitting fumes, and also as a result of road congestion, and unpaved roads. Direct disposal of sullage on open land is also common.

Environmental degradation is made worse by lack of infrastructure and by the fact that the majority of urban dwellers build haphazardly in unplanned areas. Sometimes houses are constructed on sloppy areas and sand for construction is extracted along river banks leading to erosion.

Environmental pollution in Tanzanian urban areas emanates from improper treatment and disposal of the following elements:-

- domestic sewage;
- domestic and industrial solid waste (garbage);
- industrial effluent and;
- dangerous air emissions as well as poisonous vehicle exhausts.

All these elements pose serious health hazards to urban residents if their disposal is not safeguarded and controlled. The degree of this type of pollution is a function of the urban population and the level of industrial development.

(i) Pollution from Domestic garbage:

In many urban centres big amounts of garbage pollute the environment. Organic domestic garbage is left to degrade along the streets and on open spaces. These conditions create favourable breeding grounds for various organisms some of which can cause health hazards

to human beings. In most towns, there is less than half the number of the necessary refuse-collectors. The garbage dumping sites are in most cases badly located and, bad smell and smoke cause inconvenience for near-by residential areas. Rainfall could, through seepage through the waste tip cause pollution of nearby water bodies. If toxic chemicals and waste-products are dumped in an uncontrolled way the dumping sites can very seriously affect the environment.

(ii) Pollution from industrial wastes

Many industries produce sludge and solid waste which in many cases are stored in occasional dumping sites or ponds within the factory areas. Sometimes there is an over-flow from these ponds to adjacent lands. Haphazard location of cottage industries and backyard garages in residential areas is an eyesore. These activities pose fire hazards and are a nuisance in terms of noise, pollution and the littering of the surrounding areas.

(iii) Air pollution

Some industries in Tanzania have air outlets which do cause pollution. If appropriate environment protection measures are not installed, an industry located in an urban area can be a health hazard to the local population. Such an example is the fertilizer factory in Tanga, and the cement factory in Dar es Salaam.

Other well known air-polluters are power-generating plants especially those which use coal and diesel as fuel.

(iv) Water-pollution

Some types of industries in Tanzania discharge effluent which pollute water-courses considerably since this effluent is not treated before it is disposed of. Very few industries in the country have installed proper environment protection measures. Industries such as those producing chemicals and textiles, tanneries, slaughter-houses, and breweries are a major source of water-pollution. Urban centres suffering considerably from such pollution include Dar es Salaam, Arusha, Mwanza, Moshi, Morogoro and Tanga. Heavily polluted rivers include the Msimbazi, and the Pangani. In some cases the effluent contain toxic and inorganic chemicals and these are crudely discharged into water courses.

In urban centres, spillage of oil into storm water drains and ditches finds its way to water bodies which are often sources of water for neighbouring communities. Sources of such spillage include power plants, workshops, brewers, soft drink industries and petrol stations.

2.2.5 The Role of Local Government in Urban Development

Local Authorities have considerable responsibilities to manage and guide Urban Development by way of investment, or regulating urban activities. However, indicators show that per capita, only a negligible amount of money is spent by local authorities on infrastructural development or maintenance, and that much of urban development activities are totally outside the realm of government. Data from municipalities show that only 1.5 US\$ per capita is spent on infrastructure. The City of Dar es Salaam for example, spends only 0.02 US\$. Between 70 -75% of the available financial resources in municipalities goes to salaries and personal emoluments. At the same time, municipalities are dependent to the tune of 65% for

their revenue.

Poor capacity (in terms of resources and skilled manpower); poor revenue and continued control from the central government, are major obstacles limiting the effective role of local governments in urban development.

Lack of capacity building in urban management skills, strategies for revenue generation and inadequate autonomy in decision making from the central government threatens sustainable urban management.

Various studies have been commissioned to advise the government on how to improve the efficiency of local governments especially in the areas of manpower development and of financial mobilisation and management. The efficacy of local authorities would definitely improve if the proposals given were implemented, but there does appear to be some kind of inertia that impedes the central government from strengthening local governments and giving them local autonomy.

2.2.6 Affordable and Adequate Shelter Provision

In the absence of formal cheap housing, the majority of the urban population have resorted to accommodate themselves in overcrowded and substandard dwellings chiefly in unplanned areas. With little exception, the authorities give little attention to these area's social and economic welfare.

The housing problem in Tanzania appears to be twofold:

- Inadequate housing stock in most urban areas; and,
- Poor housing conditions.

(i) Formal Housing Supply

The gap between the supply and demand for housing has been widening with time. It was estimated that at the end of the First Five Year Development Plan (1964-1969), there was a shortage of 21,000 houses in urban areas. The shortage grew to 25,000 houses at the beginning of the Second Five Year Development Plan (1969-1974) and had shot to 300,000 houses in 1982. The growing housing shortage is confirmed by overcrowding levels found in the urban areas. On the understanding that an occupancy rate of more than two persons per room is overcrowding, the percentage of families in overcrowded homes is 34.4% in Dar es Salaam City, 34% in Mwanza, 37.5% in Arusha, 37.2 in Moshi, 38% in Dodoma, 24.7% in Kigoma and 28.7% in Kilosa.

The cumulative shortfall for new units of conventional housing in urban areas is currently estimated to be more than 450,000 units. If this trend continues the deficit of housing will rise to 2,200,000 units by the year 2000.

Most housing is constructed without reference to planning authorities even in planned areas, and this has resulted in the construction of sub-standard structures. Only 35% of all houses in urban Tanzania are in compliance with existing regulations. Poor facilities and infrastructural services for most neighbourhoods is an added impediment against proper housing development.

(ii) Informal Housing Supply

As pointed out above, unplanned settlements accommodate between 40-75% of the urban population in Tanzania. Dar es Salaam city has the highest proportion (75%) of its residents living in unplanned settlements. Houses constructed in unplanned settlements account for 65% of all urban housing development.

(iii) Housing Finance

There is a near complete lack of formal mortgage housing finance facilities and this has made house construction a difficult process for most households especially those in low income categories. Housing is financed from personal savings over a long period of time. this curtails the supply of housing.

(iv) Access to Home Ownership by Women

Almost all housing in rural areas and more than 90 per cent of housing in urban areas is privately owned. However existing customary laws and values still restrict house ownership by women although there is no such restriction in law.

2.2.7 The Rural Scene

The housing situation in rural Tanzania differs somewhat from that obtaining in urban areas. There is largely no shortage of houses in rural areas, where some 90% of all homes is owned. Indicators show that 60% of the rural households depend on wells for their water supply; 13% have communal taps; 5.8% are connected to water pipes; and 21.2% use other means, including rivers. Only 0.3% are connected to a sewer, and only 1% are connected to electricity. Much of rural housing is constructed of temporary materials like mud and pole and thatch; and much lacks adequate ventilation and flooring, so that the life span of 90% of rural dwelling units is between 7 and 8 years. As indicated in Part 1, environmental problems in rural areas emanate from the high rates of deforestation caused by the search for energy (97% of the people use fuelwood for energy), building materials, or clearing the land for agriculture. The other cause of environmental degradation is overgrazing, and soil erosion, as well as poor rainfall, in turn, an outcome of deforestation. The annual deforestation rate is around 0.3%, although the incidence of deforestation was, as of 1986, 33% of the land area affected.

2.3 National Experience in Implementing the Plan of Action from Habitat I

The Government of Tanzania participated fully in the different UN decisions either through the UN General Assembly Resolutions or through Resolutions in the different UN sponsored conferences and commission meetings. What has turned out to be a clear shortfall with regard to implementing the decisions is the non existence of comprehensive strategies and action plans and instruments that would interpret the UN decisions and Resolutions in the local context, together with providing a timetable and frame of implementation. This shortfall, however, does not mean non-implementation of the various UN decisions. What was implemented was dependent on sporadic and sometimes uncoordinated programmes and projects. The following are some of the important activities in implementing UN decisions since Habitat I in 1976.

2.3.1 The National Housing Policy:

a) The Government endorsed a National Housing Policy in 1981. In formulating the National Housing Policy the government was convinced that a written policy would:

- i) achieve a national understanding of the dimensions and implications of the shelter sector issues among all the groups concerned by providing a common data base and projections for both the public and private sectors.
- ii) establish a unity of purpose and a basis for decision making in both the private and public sectors. In this sense, it would act as an agent for co-ordination.
- iii) establish the place of shelter in the national development priorities. It would therefore force consideration of the rightful claim on resources and its relationship to other development sectors, thus removing the stigma of treating housing as a "residue" to other sectors.
- iv) define the role and responsibilities of the public and private sectors and contribute to the establishment of effective public-private sector partnerships in the shelter sector.
- v) define the shelter delivery system to serve the shelter needs of all income groups throughout the settlement system and therefore eliminate the bottlenecks and constraints within the delivery system.

b) The endorsement of the National Housing Policy in 1981 was a landmark in housing in Tanzania. It was the first comprehensive statement on housing since independence, and was indeed the first attempt at synthesizing comprehensive housing policy. The principal objective of the policy was to ensure that Tanzanians had access to adequate shelter and to basic services in urban areas. The main points of the policy together with implementation status is as follows:

- i) It recognised both the social and economic dimensions of shelter and therefore the necessity of integrating economic planning into the development of human settlements. Despite this recognition, the government has given the sector a low priority. For example between 1964-1984 approximately 4.89 per cent per annum of the GDP has been invested directly in housing related activities. The trend shows a decline since 1984.
- ii) The policy acknowledged that nearly all shelter in rural areas is constructed with little or no intervention from the public sector. It therefore encouraged this trend and viewed the role of government as that of facilitator to individuals, public corporations, institutions and informal organisations. It stressed that:
 - ◆ The process of making land available in urban areas must be streamlined.
 - ◆ The production of basic and affordable building materials should be promoted and building standards and regulations should be revised so that building costs are affordable to the majority. Research activities and

the government current programme to strengthen the Building Research Unit (BRU) should pave the way for effective utilisation of research findings in the production of basic building materials. Further, enlightened local authorities' management should be flexible in applying building regulations and standards.

- ◆ In order to localise implementation of the policy, local authorities should develop and implement specific housing development programmes incorporating extension services to housing development organised groups. They need to be strengthened institutionally and be given technical assistance to enable them to effectively implement human settlement policies within their localities.
- ◆ Financial institutions lending for housing should be more responsive to the needs of low income groups. It also realised the need to initiate the formation of new mortgage facilities. Although previously the government had worked on programmes to strengthen the Tanzania Housing Bank, the only mortgage institution which existed, the Bank finally closed its doors in August 1995. Tanzania now has no mortgage facilities other than the limited ones created to serve specific groups. e.g. the revolving housing loan fund for civil servants
- ◆ The policy recognised the existence of informal settlements and re-affirmed its already existing policy of upgrading these settlements. The programme of upgrading squatter settlements implemented in the 1970's and 1980's had a significant positive impact, benefiting approximately 407,000 people. However the impact was eroded by the continued growth of informal settlements in urban areas. The programme was therefore not designed to sustain itself. The programmes laid too much emphasis on spatial and physical components and less attention to social and economic process. Further, it was planned from above without allowing for participation of the residents and local authorities.
- ◆ The policy emphasised the need for an institutional framework that would provide for clear lines of responsibility and ensure co-ordination. Training in the human settlements sector was also to be strengthened. Despite this vision the institutional framework is not yet clear. There is still a complex system of ministries, departments, local authorities and parastatals to guide, support, and control the development of human settlements. With regard to training, although Ardhi Institute has developed a number of programmes for human settlements training, there is need to focus also on specific training needs to cover skills in social and economic disciplines including sociology, statistics, economics, administration and business management.
- ◆ The policy stressed the importance of the concept of community participation as being central to the success of the policy-action scenario in human settlement development. One of the areas stressed is the encouragement of the formation of housing co-operatives. Following on

this, more than 52 housing co-operatives were registered in Dodoma Municipality. A special technical services unit was established under the Capital Development Authority to provide necessary extension services. However, the programme has been stalled due to non-existence of mortgage facilities.

- c) The housing policy statement has a number of weaknesses including the following:
- i) While the general directive for housing has been outlined in the statement, little of a specific nature is included. For example little is included which would suggest definite strategies or approaches to identifying and solving housing problems in the country.
 - ii) Whereas the policy statement relied on data from the censuses, household budget surveys and the like, there was no realistic assessment of the human settlements situation, which is an important input in the formulation of an effective National Housing Policy. Such an assessment would have allowed for the computation of the projected need for housing and the level of investment required to bring the entire housing stock to a minimum level of quality commensurate with the projected requirements.
 - iii) The policy statement was not followed up with the preparation of a national implementation strategy and an action plan.
 - iv) The institutional arrangements for implementation were not clearly defined, thus handicapping the Housing Development Division in carrying out its responsibility to co-ordinate activities, monitor and review performance and advice the government much more effectively.
 - v) The policy was narrow in that it did not consider housing within the wider context of human settlements and urban development.

2.3.2 The Sites and Services Project

While resolutions urging governments to undertake sites and services projects were being endorsed at the Vancouver Habitat Conference in 1976, Tanzania was already implementing a National Sites and Services Programme. The approach to sites and services was adopted by the government in 1972. The National Report to the Vancouver Conference and the Resolution from the Conference strengthened the government desire to continue implementing the programme.

The objective of the programme was to provide basic planned surveyed and serviced plots for allocation to would-be developers with preference given to low income families. In addition to the provision of services and community facilities developers were to be assisted with credit facilities for house construction.

The first phase of the programme, launched in 1974, was funded by the World Bank. The Second Phase was launched in 1977 and was also funded by the World Bank. The two phases were intended to provide for about 75 per cent of the need for residential plots in the 9 towns covered under the programme. It was also believed that this approach would assist

in containing the growth of squatter settlements.

Despite the fact that the project had positively assisted in increasing the housing stock and that the few infrastructural improvements and community facilities which the programme managed to provide have led to improved health and better security, the following have been considered to be weaknesses which require rectification in future such programmes:

- i) The plot allocation criteria worked against the interests of the targeted low income households;
- ii) The soft loans available through the Tanzania Housing Bank were not accessible as procedures were excessively complicated and required securities which could not be afforded by low income groups.
- iii) The materials loans component suffered from a severe shortage of building materials.
- iv) Insufficient finance for building materials loans severely constrained the pace of house construction.
- v) The small-plot sizes were unsuitable for a pit latrine system and also prevented urban subsistence farming.
- vi) The number of Plots remained small in relation to demand.
- vii) Cost Recovery and therefore Replicability failed.

2.3.3 The Squatter Upgrading Programme

Simultaneous with the National Sites and Services programme, Tanzania implemented a squatter upgrading programme. Implemented in 2 phases and funded by the World Bank, the programme benefited about 450,000 people, providing improvement to more than 40 per cent of squatter settlements in Tanzania.

Despite the achievements of the squatter upgrading programme, the following have been identified as implementation weaknesses:

- i) Squatter upgrading projects were planned, designed and implemented without involving the communities concerned sometimes even without involving relevant local authority personnel. Further, no in-depth studies were conducted to determine the priority needs of the communities involved. The outcome has been failure to incorporate such projects into the overall fabric of the urban development setting.
- ii) Insufficient finance for building materials loans constrained housing improvement in upgrading areas despite the fact that security of tenure was provided.
- iii) The projects laid too much emphasis on spatial and physical components and less attention to social and economic processes. The components on employment generation and credit facilities were given a relatively low profile in the project.

- iv) The number of upgraded areas remained few compared to the magnitude of the problem.

2.4 Case Studies of the National Implementation of Agenda 21 and the Global Shelter Strategy

2.4.1 Case Studies of the Implementation of Agenda 21

(i) National Strategy for Sustainable Human Settlements Development

Tanzania has put in place a National Strategy For Sustainable Human Settlements Development. This strategy describes the priorities of the Government of the United Republic of Tanzania for support to Human Settlements, and in particular for the sustainable development of urban centres. It is not therefore intended to cover rural settlements in any substantive manner.

Previously, the government had approved a National Housing Policy in 1981, the principal objective of which was, as has been pointed out above, to ensure that Tanzanians had access to adequate shelter. The policy was unfortunately too narrowly focused on housing, without any complementary policy for urban management incorporating other aspects of human settlements development. Moreover, the policy was only partly implemented, and has not made a significant impact on the National Housing Problem.

Hence, in 1991, the Government requested UNDP and UNCHS (Habitat) to assist in the preparation of a "Review of the Human Settlements Sector". It was agreed that this would encompass a much wider perspective, including the broader aspects of human settlements development and urban management. The sector review, completed in 1992, identified *inter alia*, the key constraints which were impeding the development of human settlements. The sector review therefore provided a basis for the strategy for implementing what is contained in Agenda 21, Chapter 7.

This strategy concentrates on tackling the key constraints identified in the review. The focus is upon developing local capabilities to undertake strategic planning, and on enhancing capacities at the national level to support these initiatives at the local level. The objective is to:

Create sustainable development in urban centres which will improve living conditions in informal settlements, alleviate poverty, stimulate economic growth and employment and improve the urban environment.

The strategy consisted of four closely interrelated elements and emphasised the necessity of establishing and supporting an effective institutional framework for implementation. The elements are:

Element One Improving the capacity of local institutions to implement the sustainable human settlements strategy through human resource development.

Element Two Improving the management of land, access to affordable urban services and the living environment.

Element Three: Improving the quality and increasing the quantity of affordable shelter.

Element Four: Stimulating economic growth and employment

Activities and interventions were proposed for each element. A number of these will be undertaken by government and include policy decisions, as well as legislative and administrative actions. Others will require external support and it is intended that these will be developed into projects in partnership with the private sector and the international community.

The draft strategy document was forwarded to all interested central and local government institutions for their comments, and was debated exhaustively before a final document was produced.

(ii) National Programme For Sustainable Human Settlements Development

Tanzania has also prepared a National Programme for Sustainable Human Settlements. This is a four to five year programme designed to implement the Government's National Strategy for Sustainable Human Settlements Development. It focuses on strengthening capacities at the local level, of local authorities, non Government and community based organisation, as well as the private sector. It is intended to remove constraints which impede economic development, and to improve living conditions through improved environmental management.

The core budget for the programme was: approximately US\$ 3.5 million intended to be used as follows:

- Establishing a Municipal Support Unit (\$ 945,000);
- Fund the second phase of the Sustainable Dar es Salaam Project (SDP) (\$713,000);
- Extension of the Sustainable Cities Programme (SCP) to six other urban centres (\$ 1.65 million); and,
- Support to human resource development at the Ardhi Institute (\$ 299,999).

The programme included further project components totalling \$ 32,252,000.

This Programme was prepared to implement the national strategy, focusing on capacity building at the local level, thus reversing the centralising trends of the past two decades. It aims at strengthening the capacity of local government to plan and implement, and to become more financially self-sustaining. By harnessing other available resources, the Programme is also aimed at alleviating poverty through community based initiatives. At the same time, it is intended to create an enabling framework so that community organisations and the private sector can have a much greater opportunity to participate in the decision making and implementation processes.

The Programme sets the government priorities amongst the eight programme areas of Chapter 7 of "Agenda 21", in accordance with the Country's Economic and Social Action Programme, as well as the National Environmental Action Plan.

Programme Management

Programme implementation was proposed to be carried out by a central "Municipal Support Unit" (MSU), comprising of a multi-disciplinary team of professional staff drawn from various Ministries and Institutions responsible for shelter development, management, and

environmental infrastructure provision who will:

- assist local authorities to prepare and implement urban environmental management strategies and detailed Action Plans, and, in doing so, improve local capacities through in-service training;
- ensure that constraints identified whilst implementing activities at the local level are addressed at the national level, through appropriate policy, and legislative and institutional changes. This should include strengthening appropriate training capacities;
- Provide donors with an agreed conceptual and institutional framework to enable them to respond positively by detailing specific projects in which they have a comparative advantage.

(iii) The New National Land Policy

The government in 1995 approved a New National Land Policy, after a long period of research and consultations. The new Policy contains decisions aimed at correcting the shortfalls pertaining to Land Tenure, Management and Administration in Tanzania. As said earlier, the aim of this new land policy is to generally improve efficiency and equitability in land tenure and administration in the country.

Steps have already been put in place to draft a new Land Law to effect the new Land Policy. Some of the proposals in this new land policy impinge directly on human settlements.

(iv) The Sustainable Dar es Salaam Project (SDP)

The Government, in partnership with the Dar es Salaam City Council, with UNDP/UNCHS support through the Sustainable Dar es Salaam Project, is implementing Agenda 21 at the city level. This project is being undertaken under the concept of the Sustainable Cities Programme (SCP) being implemented in eleven other cities of the world.

Dar es Salaam is the industrial and commercial centre for Tanzania with an estimated population of between 2.5 and 3 million people, and growing at approximately 8% per annum. This rapid growth has not been co-ordinated despite the past preparation of a number of Master Plans. As a consequence the city experiences a shortage of housing and grossly inadequate urban infrastructure and services.

The Sustainable Dar es Salaam Project (SDP) was launched in 1992 and became fully operational from November, 1993. It has an overall aim of managing the growth and development of Dar es Salaam on a sustainable local basis.

- (a) strengthening local capacity to plan, co-ordinate and manage the interaction of development and the environment, and,
- (b) preparing a long term economic and integrated development plan and investment strategy.

The sustainable Dar es Salaam Project is implementing many of the recommendations of Agenda 21. Strengthening the Role of Local Authorities is fundamental. The Sustainable Cities

concept made an important contribution in the formulation of Agenda 21. The project is therefore concerned, *inter alia*, with implementing a wide range of recommendations under Chapter 7.

The recommendations of Chapter 8, Integrating Environment and development in Decision making also underlie the SCP/SDP approach and are being put into practice in Dar es Salaam.

2.4.2 Case Studies in the Implementation of the Global Strategy for Shelter to the Year 2000.

In the years between 1984 and 1987, the efforts in connection with the International Year of Shelter for the Homeless had contributed to raising international awareness of shelter issues. It was largely because of that effort that the idea of a Global Strategy for shelter started to take form.

The following are strategies and programmes undertaken as part of the implementation of the Global Shelter Strategy to the year 2000.

(i) National Shelter Strategy:

In order to improve the housing conditions in both rural and urban areas, the Government had adopted a number of objectives in which the following strategies were to be used:

- Continue with the implementation of sites and services and squatter upgrading projects. Housing conditions in squatter areas could be improved and prospective house developers could be provided with planned and serviced land.

- Provide technical assistance in key areas such as the formation of housing co-operatives, on site housing technical guidance, and training.

- Continue with research and development of local, cheap but durable, building materials.

- Review existing building regulations in order to ensure that they encourage people to build and do not become an impediment to their efforts, given the available technology and resources.

- Strengthen public institutions responsible for housing.

- Widen the resources base of the (now defunct, but then operating) Tanzanian Housing Bank to enable it to provide more loans. The Workers and Farmers Fund which was meant for workers and farmers was earmarked to continue lending money at lower interest rates than other funds (9 per cent instead of 31 per cent).

- Advise employers to implement housing programmes for their workers.

- Strengthen housing building brigades in the rural areas to enable them to play a bigger role in providing technical assistance in housing provisions.

- Increase the capacity of producing cheap and appropriate building materials.

- Require regions and districts to prepare their own housing programmes
- Enable employees to get housing loans, from their employers or from other sources.

(ii) **Strengthening Public Housing Institutions**

Until 1990, the country had two main public institutions dealing with housing construction and management. These were the National Housing Corporation (NHC) and Registrar of Building (ROB).

To strengthen the performance of these public housing institutions the government made three interventions which were;

- Amalgamating the two institutions into one NHC
- Exempting the NHC from the some clauses of the *Rent Restriction Act* of 1984 which were impeding its performance.
- Selling of properties in order to get capital for further construction.

Amalgamation of the two Institutions

The National Housing Corporation and the Registrar of Buildings were amalgamated by the Government through the *National Housing Corporation Act* of 1990, with the intention of increasing efficiency, reducing costs and enhancing revenue collection. It was felt that the two corporations had overlapping functions and were overstaffed. The new Corporation was provided with a new working institutional structure and new a management to enable it to carry on its functions.

Exemption from some Provisions of the *Rent Restriction Act*, 1984

With its exemption from some provisions of the *Rent Restriction Act* of 1984, the NHC was enabled to fix rents for its properties more freely, though these are, for most houses, still lower than the standard rent allowed by the *Act* and also lower than the market rents. With these new rents which are higher than the old ones, the NHC has been able to increase its resources and has thus been able to improve its performance in housing supply and management.

Sale of Properties

The NHC decided to sell some of its low and medium cost properties (mainly to sitting tenants) in order to get capital for future estate development and to avoid the costs incurred in maintaining them. This was one way of encouraging home ownership. Many people have shown interest in buying these properties.

(iii) ***The Rent Restriction Act, 1984***

Parliament enacted the *Rent Restriction Act* in 1984. The main objectives of the Act included:

- Establishing mechanisms for computing house rents for both public and privately owned housing in the country.
- Creating a framework for landlord/tenant relationship.
- Creating legal system for handling disputes relating to house rents.

It has been argued that the *Act* to a large extent stands in favour of tenants providing more for their rights, and ignoring their responsibilities over the properties they are renting. The outcome of this is that the *Act* in a way serves as a disincentive for private developers to invest in housing development or to let their houses for residential uses. Already a review is under way to redress this imbalance.

(iv) ***Repeal of the Acquisition of Buildings Act, 1971***

The government in 1971 acquired a certain category of privately owned buildings following the enactment of the *Acquisition of Buildings Act* of 1971. This action by the government had a negative impact on private sector investment in housing development.

The government, made an amendment to the *Acquisition of Buildings Act*, of 1971, removing the powers of the President to acquire buildings. The whole Act was repealed by the *National Housing Corporation Act* 1990. It is believed that this decision by the government will serve as an incentive to entrepreneurs to invest in the shelter sector.

(v) ***Revolving Housing Loan Fund***

To cushion the impact of shortage of housing for civil servants the Government through staff circular No. 8 of 1962 and No. 4 of 1965 established a 'Revolving Housing Loan Fund' to finance renovation, construction or purchase of houses for its employees.

In 1972, when the Tanzania Housing Bank (THB) was formed, the Fund was abolished and all borrowers were transferred to the newly established Bank. By 1989 it was observed that the THB was undergoing fundamental constraints and was failing to serve civil servants as had earlier been envisaged.

The Government reintroduced the 'Revolving Housing Loan Fund' for Civil Servants in 1990. The main features of the facility include the following:

- (a) The Fund should serve all permanent and pensionable civil servants in central government.
- (b) The fund would initially depend on contributions from the Treasury.
- (c) Collateral will be the property being constructed.

- (d) The Fund should be able to serve about 500 applicants per annum in order to have an impact on the supply of housing.
- (e) The Fund will be used to develop housing in both urban and rural areas throughout the country and will cover inter alia:
 - Construction of a new house on surveyed land with certificate of Title in urban areas.
 - Rehabilitation to existing houses carrying a certificate of Title in urban areas.
 - Construction or rehabilitation of houses in registered villages.
 - Purchase of existing houses in urban and rural areas that meet the conditions outlined above.

The Fund started its operations officially in the 1992/93 financial year. So far the fund has benefited about only 200 people. The Government was supposed to inject in this fund 200 million shillings annually until when it would start to revolve, but due to financial constraints it has been unable to do so.

2.5 Identification and Assessment of Examples of Best Practices in Tanzania

2.5.1 The Selection Process

The selection process of the Best Practices in Tanzania started with the identification and short-listing of the practices, projects or initiatives, based on the following criteria:

1. Direct or positive impact on the living environment in at least one of the following areas:
 - (a) Alleviation of poverty and job creation,
 - (b) Reduction of pollution and improving environmental health, extension of safe water supply and improving sanitation
 - (c) Easing access to land, affordable housing and infrastructural services
 - (d) Contributing to inner city revival and rehabilitation
 - (e) Improving the preparedness to deal with disasters, as well as with post-disaster reconstruction.
2. Involvement of at least two or more of the following actors:
 - (a) Local or central government
 - (b) Non-governmental, or community based organizations
 - (c) The Private Sector
 - (d) International Agencies
 - (e) The Media

3. Sustainability, notably in bringing about lasting changes in at least one of the following:

- (a) Legislation, by-laws or standards
- (b) Social policies and strategies
- (c) Decision making processes and management practices
- (d) Governance and partnership
- (e) Revenue utilization and allocation.

4. Gender awareness and sensitivity

- (a) Equal opportunities for both men and women
- (b) Improved opportunities for children and families
- (c) Involvement of both men and women in decision making
- (d) Equal access to land, shelter, loans and other services to both men and women.

Ten practices from all over the country indicated their willingness to participate in an arranged exhibition which took part in November 1995. Nine of them exhibited their activities.

2.5.2 Summary of Exhibited Practices

The following is a summary of the activities of the nine practices which were documented and later displayed at an Exhibition in Dar es Salaam from 9 - 10th November, 1995.

1. Tanzania Traditional Energy Development Organization (TATEDO).

This is a registered, Dar es Salaam based non-governmental organization whose objective is to develop and disseminate throughout the country, traditional technologies which sustain life, conserve energy, protect the environment and create employment. It implements community based developments projects in both rural and urban areas. TATEDO was identified as one of the Best Practices because its actions resulted in clear improvements in the quality of life and the living environment of the people involved, in a sustainable manner. This has been achieved through the planting of over 50,000 trees of different varieties in order to preserve the environment, and to provide renewable energy sources for the people of the Goba area in Dar es Salaam. TATEDO has also facilitated the production of over 70,000 charcoal stoves which are designed to save energy.

2. The Sustainable Dar es Salaam Project (SDP)

The Sustainable Dar es Salaam Project (SDP) was launched in 1992 and became fully operational in November, 1993. It had the overall aim of managing the growth and development of the rapidly growing City of Dar es Salaam, the biggest industrial and commercial centre in the country, and the adjoining region, in a sustainable manner. Basically, the project aims at strengthening local capacity to plan, co-ordinate and manage the environmental and developmental interactions; and at preparing long term, dynamic, and integrated development plans and investment strategies.

The City Council of Dar es Salaam is the government project implementing agency. The project however, draws a lot of resources from such UN-agencies as the UNCHS, UNDP, ILO, UNV and FAO. Many Local Organizations including the private sector are also actively involved

in the project.

Some of the more prominent activities conducted by the SDP and which have recorded tangible achievements are: solid waste management; managing surface water and liquid wastes; upgrading unplanned settlements; and managing open spaces.

3. The Mwanza Rural Housing Programme (MRHP) at Missungwi

The Mwanza Rural Housing Programme was launched in Mwanza Region in 1990 in response to the United Nations' call to Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), and other actors to help solve the global problem of poor and inadequate housing particularly for low income households as stipulated in the document "International Year of Shelter for All by the Year 2000" published in 1987.

The MRHP whose headquarters is at Missungwi, some 40 km from the Municipality of Mwanza, had by 1993, worked with a total of 11 villages in Missungwi and Inonelwa divisions. The project has also, indirectly worked with more than 6 other villages through diffusion of knowledge, by using Village Housing Committees Coordinated Boards (VHCCBs), of Missungwi and Inonelwa Divisions. It has trained Community Development Technicians (CDTs); Community Development Assistants (CDAs); and village *fundis* (artisans) from all the 6 districts of Mwanza Region.

The MRHP has recognized that the core problems giving rise to poor housing in the area include shortage of building materials, poor skills and technology, rural poverty, desertification and heavy workload for women and children. The strategies put forward to solve these problems have included: discussing and analyzing the problems with the target groups; developing techniques and trying them out; disseminating knowledge on adopted building materials and cheap construction practices; and assessing and evaluating the achievements against the objectives or goals set.

A major thrust in recent years has been the promotion of farming practices linked to housing development as an entry point to sustainable improvements in the living environment. This includes income generating activities for women groups in particular. Access to safe water supply and sanitation is also achieved by tapping rain water catchment areas, and harvesting and storing it.

MRHP involves a number of actors in its operations, the main ones being the local District Council, which provides staff and pays their wages and transport costs; the Central Government which also meet part of the staff wage bill particularly for the senior personnel and provides office space; and, NGOs such as CARITAS, Oxfam, CDTF, and COOPIBO (TZ) who provide financial assistance and training opportunities.

4. Peramiho Home Makers League (PHOLE)

This is Community Based Organisation (CBO) whose head office is in Peramiho, Songea, Ruvuma Region. The League was established and registered as a Society in 1992. It was formed to provide its members with descent shelter by building affordable houses on a self-help basis. The other objective of the League is to alleviate poverty among its members by creating job-opportunities.

PEHOLE has four main working teams: Building materials production; carpentry; masonry; and building rehabilitation. Subsidiary activities include farm work (to produce food and cash crops); animal husbandry; agro-forestry; transport, and retail trade businesses.

The Organisation has had a direct and positive impact on the environment and the living conditions of the people of the area. The project has been able to generate 77 employment opportunities for the youth, and has distributed 12,400 seedlings to more than 150 families, thus enabling the planting of six hectares of trees. Since its inception the project has roofed 97 houses in Songea, Mbinga, Njombe and Iringa districts using tiles produced from its own tile-factory.

PEHOLE is believed to have a sound and sustainable foundation, thanks to the overwhelming cooperation it enjoys both within and without the project. Apart from funds obtained from the sale of building materials and from the project's other activities, PEHOLE's other sources of funds include members' contributions, loans from Peramiho Catholic Mission and the National Bank of Commerce, and, grants from the European Community, the British High Commission and the local Youth Fund.

PEHOLE is gender-balanced. Women are fully involved in the activities of the project. Out of the 34 members of the group, 15 (44%) are women. The ten-member managing committee has four women on it. Women engaged in petty trading have also benefited from PEHOLE's credit facility, with four women's groups having received a total of Tshs. 220,000/= so far, to set up small scale projects in Peramiho villages.

5. The Environmental Press Foundation (EPF), Arusha

The Environmental Press Foundation was officially launched on 20th August, 1991 when its constitution was formally approved by the extra ordinary meeting of the foundation which sat on the same day. The establishment of the Foundation was prompted by two main factors:

- i) One, was the fact that sustainable development was then, as is now, a prominent agenda facing world citizens and their organisations, be they governmental or non-governmental;
- ii) Two, that members of the Environmental Press Foundation in Tanzania had not, in the past, had the opportunity of constituting themselves into an "Association" that would be a forum for airing their views, and a hub bringing together their divergent professions towards environmental development and conservation.

The EPF deals with various environmental and developmental issues throughout the country, although, currently most of its activities are concentrated in Arusha and Moshi. Some of the more conspicuous environmental issues which EPF has consistently campaigned against by way of offering advice to municipalities and other authorities are:

- i) The uncontrolled growth of kiosks, shops, unlicensed garages and food stalls (*Mama Ntilies*) in urban areas, since such growth blocks accessibility, makes sanitation and fire fighting difficult, and also makes the areas dirty;
- ii) Use of pavements, walkways and verandahs for businesses, particularly as is currently the case, by vegetable vendors, street traders (*machingas*), and secondhand clothes

(mitumbas) dealers; erection of fences (e.g. by contractors) which never get removed; and, careless removal of shade trees; all of which make pedestrian movement very difficult; and,

- iii) Industrial pollution through emission of poisonous gases and untreated effluent.

The EPF has also been at the forefront in advising relevant authorities and the general public on the dangers likely to arise out of unplanned development, currently taking place in all urban areas in Tanzania.

6. Kiluvya Village Building Materials Centre

Kiluvya Village is located approximately 20 kilometres from the centre of the City of Dar es Salaam, along Morogoro Road. It is one of the several villages surrounding the City. It is administered by a village government consisting of a Chairman, Secretary, Treasurer and a village council, as stipulated by the *Villagization Act* of 1975. The village is empowered to make its own, regulations and by-laws.

The village is named after one Mr Kiluvia, a former civil servant who moved into the area in the early 1960s. Later on in early 1970's, the former Vice President of Tanzania, Hon. R.M. Kawawa acquired a piece of land in the village and built a house there. He was mostly unhappy when he saw the poor conditions of the dwellings of his neighbours. He thus initiated several development schemes, including those related to water supply, affordable housing, agriculture, animal husbandry, health, education, women economic activities, etc. The affordable housing scheme began in 1988 when the Hon. Mr. Kawawa requested the Central Government to provide assistance to improve the housing conditions in the village on the basis of self-help, poverty alleviation and job creation.

In 1988 a preliminary social economic study was conducted in the village by the Building Research Unit to assess the village's housing needs and the question of the availability of resources. The per capita annual income for the villagers was found to be about Tshs 15,000/= . With 5 persons per household and assuming the expending of 20% of household income on housing, then the income that the people in Kiluvya could spend on housing per annum was only Tshs 15,000/= . It was also learnt that there was a great shortage of traditional building materials such as poles, thatch, stone, etc. although there was plenty of good clay and sand. Piped water was also available in the village.

The village has 1600 women and 700 men. Most of the women are old widows and men are referees. Their activities comprise mainly of subsistence farming and petty trading. All villagers have access to land. 90% of the housing stock was totally degraded and unfit for human habitation.

In view of the poverty of the villagers, it was envisaged that the best way of helping them was to centralize the production and distribution of affordable building products. Through the Building Research Unit the government provided a building and equipment for producing low cost building materials which the villagers could afford. Thus the Kiluvya Building Material Centre was set up. Initially the centre produced cement blocks, sisal reinforced concrete tiles, standard busses, and doors and windows and their frames. Three design house types were also prepared, and from these villagers made their choice.

At first, twenty five households - 23 female-headed and 2 male-headed - requested to participate in the project. They could buy low cost building materials produced at the centre and engage trained fundis to build them houses on their plots. 5 houses for women applicants were the first to be constructed.

The Kiluvya Building Material Centre is now complete but it is not working efficiently. The greatest problem is one of cash flow. Although the villagers need cheap building materials, the cost of those produced at the Centre would appear to be on the high side especially when an element of transportation to the sites is added into consideration. Cheaper methods of transportation such as introducing donkeys and carts in the village could alleviate this problem. Another way would be to produce more house design options that can be developed on an incremental basis by the owners.

7. The Health through Sanitation and Water (HESAWA)

HESAWA stands for "Health through Sanitation and Water". It is an integrated development programme which was initiated in 1985 by the governments of Tanzania and Sweden to improve the welfare of both rural and urban populations of the regions bordering Lake Victoria.

HESAWA is implemented through intensive community participation and involvement. The community is involved through all the stages of the project cycle, that is, decision making, planning implementation, monitoring and evaluation.

Four different ministries are involved in the implementation of HESAWA projects in the country. These are the Ministries of Community Development, Women Affairs and Children; Health; Water, Energy and Minerals; and the Prime Minister's Office. The formal responsibility for implementing the HESAWA programme lies with the executing agencies at district level. The villagers are involved in the whole project cycle from the very beginning. They also contribute cash and labour and other local resources, and they are highly involved in the operation and maintenance of the programme's activities.

Whereas the Tanzania Government provides local funds, personnel, offices, local materials, housing, access to institutions and equipment, the Swedish Government, through the Swedish International Development Agency, provides the necessary foreign funds, equipment and technical assistance, including experts.

HESAWA started on a pilot basis in some 32 villages. By 1995, it had projects running in more than 846 villages in all the 15 districts of Mara, Mwanza and Kagera regions. Since its inception, in 1985, the HESAWA programme has benefitted more than 1.2 million people in the Lake Zone. Although HESAWA's achievement is mainly qualitative given the nature of the programme, the following figures give insights into the programme's success.

The HESAWA programme has to date constructed 2150 wells, and rehabilitated 336 others; constructed or rehabilitated 1077 piped water scheme domestic points; improved 921 traditional domestic points, and has improved 921 traditional water sources. The programme has also constructed 447 latrines at institutional level, while the number of those constructed by different households stands at 5401. More than 1120 village health workers have been trained, and thousands of villagers have in one way or another participated in various seminars conducted by HESAWA.

HESAWA provides health education to improve peoples' welfare and the environment. HESAWA believes that improved health indirectly enables people to actively participate in economic activities which lead to improved incomes and hence to the reduction of poverty.

HESAWA provides education on the protection of water sources in order to safeguard its water scheme projects. This is done in close cooperation with NGOs dealing with afforestation and the general environment. The programme also promotes the use of energy-efficient technologies. These include the now popular mud stoves which help to reduce fuel wood consumption, thus leading to long term environmental conservation.

8. The Sigara Building Cooperative Society

The shortage of housing in Dar es Salaam in the early 1970's, coupled with the inability of the National Housing Corporation to meet housing demand prompted the workers and management of the Tanzania Cigarette Company to look for alternative and practical solutions to provide themselves with housing. They decided to form a cooperative society which they called the Sigara Cooperative Society.

The Society began its activities in 1976 when it was registered as an employer based Housing Cooperative under the *Tanzania Cooperative Act* of 1968 (No. 27 of 1968). All its members are employees or former employees of Tanzania Cigarette Company.

The society was initially allocated with 80 plots in Sinza Block B area, Kinondoni District. The construction of houses was to be done in phases. By 1985, 40 housing units had been completed with the assistance of a loan provided by the Farmers and Workers Housing Fund.

The construction and completion of the 40 housing units generated new enthusiasm among the other employees to own their houses. This forced the management of the society to look for more plots to meet the increasing number of new applicants.

The Dar es Salaam City Council allocated to the Society, an unsurveyed area at Yombo Vituka. The Society accepted the offer and paid for the valuation and compensation of the mud-built houses which were found there. Members contributed a total of Tshs. 4.7 million to pay for the valuation and compensation. Surveying was done for 228 residential plots and 7 public open spaces.

The construction of houses in this second phase did not take off as scheduled because the **Farmers and Workers Housing Development Fund** was no longer in operation. This however, did not **discourage** members from meeting their desire to acquire shelter. They decided to fend for themselves and seek some assistance from their employer.

The success of an employer-based housing cooperative society depends very much on the assistance and support provided by the employer. The Tanzania Cigarette Company management played a **crucial** role in supporting the society, both materially and financially. The employer, for example, supported the society by providing such services as those needed for accounting and auditing purposes, transporting of building materials, provision of stationery, office space and secretarial services, and above all, giving out soft loans. Recently, 150 members were each given a soft loan amounting to just over one million shillings.

Irrespective of the support provided by the employer, the members have always recognised

that the success of their Society depends greatly on their own initiative. The introduction of self-help activities and direct participation of the members, either individually or in groups has greatly assisted in cutting down construction costs.

The Society has very actively involved women in all its activities ever since it was established. For example, its first chairperson was a woman. She led the society for 16 years, from 1977-1993. Out of the 74 members who have houses in Block B Sinza area, 34 are women. Women also own 140 plots (56%) out of the 252 plots made available to members in Yombo Vituka. The Chief as well as the Assistant Legal Advisor of the Society are both women.

Together with the problems of inadequate building capital the Society's plots at Yombo Vituka lack infrastructure such as roads, water and electricity networks. Assistance is needed to institute infrastructure in that area. Among the future plans of the Cooperative Society are the following: the upgrading of infrastructure in the already built up area, the construction of a nursery school, recreational facilities, and light industries in both estates.

9. The Kasulu Habitat for Humanity Project

Habitat for Humanity International is an ecumenical, Christian housing ministry that seeks to eliminate poor housing from the world and to make decent shelter a matter of conscience and action. Founded in 1976 by Linda and Millard Fuller, Habitat for Humanity International builds and rehabilitates homes with the help of the home owners. Houses are sold at no profit to partner families, and no-interest mortgages are issued over a fixed period of time.

Habitat for Humanity International started its activities in Tanzania in 1986 when the Kasulu Habitat for Humanity Project (Mascon) was launched as a non-profit voluntary organization to help poor rural people construct and complete their houses in the spirit of community participation, their biggest contribution being their own labour. This project is located in the Kasulu District in Kigoma Region (Western Tanzania), some 95 kilometres north of Kigoma town. The project has so far built 672 houses in 13 villages and in Kasulu township, and has been replicated in other districts of Kigoma Region, and in Ruvuma and Tabora regions.

The Project is not a charity, but is a joint venture in which those who benefit from the housing ministry are involved in the shelter provision undertakings in various forms. The family of each home owner is required to invest "sweat equity" into the construction of their home. This reduces the cost of the house, increases the pride of ownership among family members, and fosters the development of positive relationship with other people.

Applications are submitted by interested families to the local Habitat project. Selection of participants is made by a committee and is based on the level of need; willingness to become partners in the programme; and ability to repay the loan. Every project follows a non-discriminatory policy of family selection. Neither race nor religion is a factor in choosing the families that participate in the project.

"Maskani" is a continuous project in the sense that the beneficiaries repay their loans thus creating a "revolving fund" which enables other people to build their houses as well. Other sources of income are the selling of building materials, and undertaking consultancy work.

About thirty six people are employed by the project, while another forty young men are self-employed on the project to construct the houses, but get paid on contractual basis. Villagers,

both men and women, are sometimes employed by the project as casual labourers. As a general observation, the income of peasants involved in the Habitat Project has increased substantially compared to that of those who are not involved.

The policy of Kasulu Habitat for Humanity Project is gender sensitive and encourages the participation of women in all of its activities at all levels. A third of participants is set aside for women.

Despite all these achievements, the project faces a number of problems, including the failure on the part of the members to honour their loan repayment obligations; insufficient funds compared to demand; and bush fires that destroy many hectares of trees, thus frustrating the project's plans of conserving the environment.

2.5.3 The National Exhibition on Best Practices

The National Exhibition on Best Practices was held at the 'Nyumba ya Sanaa' in Dar es Salaam from 9 - 10th November 1995. All ten examples of the good practices documented above had initially agreed to take part in the Exhibition, however, one of them - the Dar es Salaam Urban Health Project - pulled out at the eleventh hour because of insufficient time to make proper preparations.

The examples of the good practices were drawn from both the urban and rural areas. The inclusion of the urban practices in the exhibition was inevitable since the main theme of the Habitat II conference is to focus on ways and means of making the world's cities, towns, and villages more habitable and on a sustainable basis. Rural projects had to be included as well given the fact that over 70% of the people in this country live in rural areas, and also over 80% of these people depend on rural activities for their livelihood. A well conceived rural housing or any other human settlement programme may turn out to be, not only a viable long term investment, but may also help in stemming rural-urban migration, which, more than any other factor, is usually blamed for the worsening housing conditions in the urban areas. However, and equally important, is the fact that some of the rural projects can also be replicated in urban areas.

Rating the Practices

A panel of four judges, picked from training institutions, government, the media, and NGOs, was appointed to judge the practices.

The judges were given all the necessary information on the practices, including full reports of the documentation of the practices, prior to the day of the exhibition. A marking scheme based on the criteria for selection of best practices was also given to them.

The judges visited the exhibitions, and put a number of questions to the exhibitors. Each judge spent about an hour assessing each practice, and they all reached a consensus to rank the Best Practices as follows:

1. HESAWA
2. Mwanza Rural Housing Project
3. PEHOLE
4. SDP
5. Kasulu Habitat for Humanity

6. TATEDO
7. Sigara Building Cooperative Society
8. Kiluvya Building Materials Centre
9. Environmental Press Foundation

2.5.4 Replication of Best Practices

The exhibition was a success and it was recommended that it be made an annual event as a forum of demonstrating what was being done in the field of human settlement development; thus offering the various actors a chance to learn from each other, and to improve and replicate the practices.

It was also recommended that a pavilion of human settlement projects should be established in the Dar es Salaam International Trade Fair with a longterm objective of making it a regional/zonal affair.

It was also resolved that Habitat Day should be given the prominence it deserves by incorporating many actors involved in human settlement development.

A National Committee for Human Settlement Development was formed to spearhead the implementation of the resolutions passed during the exhibition.

2.5.5 Conclusion

The Exhibition on the Best Practices was hailed by many people as having been a success, and deserving to be made an annual event. However, this success can only be ensured by having as many practices as possible getting replicated in various parts of the country. This calls for concerted efforts on the part of those concerned, particularly the newly formed "National Committee for Human Settlements Development" to publicise and disseminate the activities of the Best Practices to as wide an audience as possible.

2.6 Priority Issues

Having reviewed the situation with regard to Human Settlements in Tanzania, and the policies put in place to address Human Settlements issues, the following were identified as issues of current and projected highest priority. The consensus on these priorities was arrived at after a lengthy consultative process. These are:

1. **Generation of Political and Bureaucratic Commitment and Support for Community felt Needs**
2. **Increase of Resources to Human Settlements as part of National Economic Development**
3. **Strengthening Institutions and Establishing a Framework for Co-ordinating Human Settlement Development**
4. **Strengthening Local Authorities to allow them play a positive role in Human Settlements and Shelter Development**

5. Enhancing the Effective Involvement of Community Groups
6. Improving Access to Serviced Land for All
7. Ensuring that All Tanzanians have Access to Adequate and Affordable Shelter
8. Improving the Living Environment in a Sustainable and Equitable Manner; Preventing further Environmental Degradation, and Conserving Natural and Man made Heritage and Biological Diversity.
9. Improving the Urban Economy in terms of Employment Generation and Poverty Reduction especially among the Youth.
10. Ensuring the Provision and Maintenance of Infrastructure in Human Settlements.
11. Carrying out a thorough Review of the Laws and Regulations Related to Human Settlements.
12. Addressing the needs of people in vulnerable situations particularly women, children, old people, the people with disabilities and refugees.
13. Ensuring Preparedness to Deal with Disasters in Human Settlements.

2.6.1 Generating Political and Bureaucratic Commitment and Support for Community Felt Needs

While governments have been participating in deliberations and accepting decisions of the various UN fora, at times it has proven difficult for politicians to take the lead in supporting certain issues requiring national action especially in aspects considered to be difficult policy measures. In Tanzania, areas in this category include landownership, finance, community involvement, charges on land (cost recovery) macro-economic linkages, subsidies on public housing, and institutional arrangements for human settlements development and the environment. These issues cannot be dealt with only in technical terms, ignoring realities such as political implications for interest groups, government policy, empowerment etc. It is therefore important to obtain maximum political endorsement for human settlements development strategies at each stage of the process. In addition the need for institutional co-ordination among the actors involved, both horizontal (i.e. inter agency and public-private) and vertical (central-local levels) raises issues of governance which require political endorsement for their successful implementation.

2.6.2 Increase of Resources to Human Settlements as part of National Economic Development

Human settlements, and particularly shelter development, play an important economic role and have been proven to be a key component of the National Economy. International research has revealed that housing investment typically comprises 2 to 8 per cent of GNP and from 10 to 30 per cent of gross capital formation in developing countries. Housing investment provides a flow of services equal to another 5 to 10 per cent of GNP. Combined investment in housing and housing services therefore make up between 7 and 18 per cent of GNP. In addition it affects inflation, labour mobility, and the balance of payments, as well as government

buildings etc.

In Tanzania the construction industry, whether it be formal or informal, provides considerable employment although much of this is unrecorded as it is part of the second economy and is undertaken by small-scale artisans. In addition to these backward linkages there are forward linkages in the form of supplies of fixtures and fittings and services. Moreover, a house is often a source of income for low income households, in form of rent, as a collateral and as a location for productive activities.

It is important therefore that in planning for National development, it should be recognised that housing and urban development are vital components of the economy and should not be regarded simply as part of the social welfare system. The housing agenda should not be seen as one of shelter per se or an element of welfare policy, but rather as one of managing the housing sector as a whole. Further, housing must be seen as an important and productive sector, in which policies have serious repercussions for overall economic performance and not as a drain on productive resources. The government should therefore consider increasing the share of investment for human settlements development in its planning and programming activities; and also increase resources to enhance human resources development in the sector.

2.6.3 Strengthening Institutions and Establishing a Framework for Co-ordinating Human Settlement Development

An institutional framework is the means by which policy and strategies are implemented. In Tanzania there is a complex system of ministries, departments, local authorities and parastatal organisations which have been established to guide, support and control the development of human settlements. Reviews have shown that the system is not working properly and this is demonstrated in the failure to make land for planned development available; the failure of the planning practices and mechanisms to guide and control development in accordance with agreed plans; and the failure to make available, finance to households and corporate bodies for shelter construction and infrastructure provision. This situation is partly a result of the lack of co-ordination among institutions dealing with human settlements and shelter development issues.

Strong horizontal co-ordination of the existing organisations involved in human settlements and shelter development is a prerequisite for successful implementation of human settlements strategies. Such organisations include those involved in planning, finance, infrastructure provision, regulating, construction, land management etc. Examples of successful co-ordination include that of the Philippines where roles have been restructured under the overall lead of the Housing and Urban Development Co-ordination Council; and that of Thailand where a Joint Sub-Committee on Housing has been established under the National Economic and Social Development Board.

Co-ordination of human settlements and shelter development in Tanzania requires also the designation of responsibilities for policy making and implementation. These responsibilities need to be clearly allocated to organisations within the public and private sectors. In addition, appropriate human, finance and technical resources need to be allocated to allow those organisations to fulfil their mandates.

2.6.4 Strengthening Local Authorities to allow them to play a positive role in Human Settlements and Shelter Development

Local authorities have a broad mandate in relation to human settlements, and this includes development control and the provision of local services. National level co-ordination must be complemented by the decentralisation of powers and the development of the necessary resources for local government which, ultimately, is the prime force for the coordination of action for the delivery of shelter at the local level.

Local authorities are important institutions in the implementation of support to community and individual efforts to construct housing and to create income generating opportunities. They are responsible for administering the regulatory framework within which development takes place; as well as for the provision of infrastructure. They have the potential to form a supportive relationship with local communities which is essential if urban development is to be guided in the right direction.

Strengthening local authorities requires administrative and political decentralisation, accompanied by adequate powers (human and technical) together with financial buoyancy. These authorities should effectively assume the role of guiding and managing urban growth in collaboration with the private sector and community groups, individuals and organisations. They should further play a major role in supporting economic development by creating an enabling environment for the various actors to operate efficiently, and also enter into partnerships with local enterprise, where this is pertinent.

2.6.5 Enhancing the Effective Involvement of Community Groups

Public participation is critical to human settlements and shelter development. Tanzania, has for a long time, been nursing the philosophy of involving the people in matters that concern their well being. What is required is effective involvement of community groups. These organisations must be involved in the planning and implementation of local authority strategies, which equally must recognise and support private and community needs and initiatives. CBOs can, with support and encouragement, develop methodologies for supporting sustainable income-generation programmes. They can also assist in the development of savings and credit programme; provide managerial and technical assistance to small-scale enterprises; and encourage the development of neighbourhood entrepreneurs' associations. A partnership between local government organisations, the private community and non-governmental organisations needs to develop based on a mutual respect for each others' capacity and interests to manage the urban environment. The process must ensure that it does not miss those groups in society which are in most need of representation i.e very poor households; women; and squatters, all of whom have the least resources in terms of time, money, legal rights, and social acceptance.

2.6.6 Improving Access to Serviced Land for All

The official land delivery system does not function efficiently making access to land inequitable, time consuming and expensive. Complex legislation and procedures relating to planning approvals, and sub-division and registration, coupled with a lack of resources and staff, have prevented government agencies from keeping up with the demand for new residential and commercial land and the provision of titles.

The official approach towards the provision of land for development has been hinged on the belief that land management is within the domain of the public sector, that land had no value in itself, and that the cost of land should be kept as low as possible to the beneficiaries, as a way of ensuring equity.

Evidence amassed over recent years has shown that the majority of seekers of land get it from the informal land market, and that there is a complex, if in some respects inefficient, informal system of managing land, operating totally outside the formal sector.

Improving access to serviced land for all will require the incorporation of the private sector in the planning, delivering and developing of land; the incorporation of the informal land market in the main land delivery system including involvement in the issuance of title to land, improving land information, and also the servicing of land; improving revenue collection, including appropriate cost recovery strategies to enable the servicing of more land; streamlining the land delivery procedures including the decentralisation of powers, to increase efficiency; improving the storage and retrieval of information; and capacity building in terms of both resources and manpower.

2.6.7 Ensuring that All Tanzanians have Access to Adequate and Affordable Shelter

In the rapidly urbanising world in which Tanzania is, the situation of shelter particularly for low income households is very grim. The supply of new accommodation to cope with demand is highly limited; while the condition of existing shelter is deteriorating and in need of refurbishing. As a result, there is a shortage of shelter and this leads to high rents as well as to overcrowding. Besides, the quality of the shelter as well as the environment in which shelter finds itself leaves a lot to be desired. It is thus necessary as matter of priority that a policy is adopted to ensure adequate and affordable shelter for all. The situation in Tanzania is particularly critical as construction costs are soaring and as there is no formal housing financing institution.

In order to ensure adequate shelter for all it will be necessary to: ease access to land; increase and support the role of the private sector (both formal and informal) in shelter provision; review the regulatory laws and procedures to attain realistic and attainable standards; establish shelter financing institutions to promote the availability of affordable finances, and to encourage community based lending arrangements; encourage the development of, and the dissemination of research findings on, cheap and appropriate building materials and cheap building designs and processes; and develop the culture of maintaining the existing housing stock and its environment.

2.6.8 Improving the Living Environment in a Sustainable and Equitable Manner; Preventing further Environmental Degradation, and Conserving Natural and Manmade Heritage and Biological Diversity.

Population redistribution in the form of rapid urbanisation in a situation of household poverty and national economic problems has led to a major stress on the environment. Within urban areas, solid, liquid and industrial waste is not properly managed and forms a major pollutant to the environment. In an effort to fulfil energy and other basic needs, much of natural soil cover, particularly trees, is disappearing fast. The need for building land has many times led to the occupation of hazardous land; and the improper management of waste means that untreated waste is usually discharged in the natural habitat, a danger to much of the flora and

fauna. There is that the need to have in place, a policy and programmes specifically geared towards improving the living environment.

Such a policy will have to: establish ways of increasing resources to the waste management sector, including privatisation, and the involvement of small scale operators, NGOs, and communities; streamline the legal framework to allocate responsibilities and sanctions for environmental management to the various stakeholders, including industries, households and the community at large; mount an education campaign about environmental management; establish alternative means of dealing with waste, including small scale treatment and recycling; intervene in the development of human settlements to prevent the occupation of environmentally hazardous land; prevent and control of the pollution of coastal waters and reduce coastal resources degradation; pass and operationalise appropriate laws, regulations and guidelines, with appropriate sanctions, to prevent environmental pollution and environmental degradation; involve the community fully in issues of environmental management; prevent, reduce, control, and eliminate industrial pollution and the uncontrolled discharge of hazardous waste; and, promote the integration of environmental concerns with development plans at all levels by encouraging the use of environmental impact assessment in all projects.

2.6.9 Improving the Urban Economy in terms of Employment Generation and Poverty Alleviation especially among the Youth

While it is generally accepted that the incidence of poverty is more serious in the rural areas, urban poverty is increasing fast in line with the higher rates of urbanisation. Urban poverty has also taken a new turn with structural adjustment programmes which have led to higher prices of basic goods and services; have reduced the relative government expenditure on the social services sector; and have led to reduced employment in the public sector, and also to the closure of many industrial establishments. Poverty and unemployment particularly among the youth is major social threat, and operates adversely against bettering the human habitat.

Policies and programmes undertaken to meet the challenge of poverty and unemployment will have to: adopt strategies that are aimed at encouraging employment generating investment, both corporate and small scale, at a local level; encourage local authorities to see poverty alleviation and employment generation as one of their main responsibilities; increase the access of the poor to productive assets such as affordable credit, grants, commodity aid and natural resources and ensure that these reach the targeted population; create an atmosphere conducive to the establishment of income generating activities including provision of suitable land and services, streamlining licensing processes, and giving of advice and logistical support; use community labour in infrastructure and service delivery undertakings; invest in Human Capital, like education, health, nutrition and food security; promote institutional support to the informal sector, including special credit facilities, and business extension and advisory services to the informal sector; review regulations, laws and procedures to attract the private sector; encourage the formation of informal sector cooperatives and self-employment groups; promote Youth Economic groups; train and instill skills in the Youth; and, encourage local authorities to spend a sizeable % of their budgets on poverty alleviation projects.

2.6.10 Ensuring the Provision and Maintenance of Infrastructure in Human Settlements

Adequate provision of infrastructure is one of the most important catalyst in embracing human

settlements and shelter development. Traditionally in Tanzania, the provision of infrastructure has been an important task for the public sector, given that the initial capital investment required is often too high and that the provision of city-wide networks of water supply, for example, requires careful co-ordination in terms of planning, maintenance, finance and cost recovery. Due to inadequacies of this arrangement, infrastructure investments have fallen behind growth.

Tanzania will have to adopt new arrangements. The reform should focus on users' demand rather than the traditional concentration on the supply of services. This arrangement will assist decision on what services to deliver, what technologies to adopt and how prices should be set. These broad goals should be integrated in a variety of innovative approaches to infrastructure delivery using both the informal and the formal private sectors. In many cases NGOs and CBOs assist communities in infrastructure provision. Private organisations have also, in a number of cases, been involved in the construction, operating and financing of infrastructure services ranging from contracting out of services to full privatisation. It will be important to work out mechanisms that will ensure that infrastructure provision keeps up with growth; that costs are largely recovered through pricing, taxes and fees, and that the private sector participates in infrastructure provision e.g. through joint public/private ventures; and that a secure financial basis is ensured for agencies dealing with infrastructure.

In the case of unplanned areas, it will be necessary to work out in cooperation with residents of these areas, affordable and sustainable improvement schemes, which would generally involve land regularisation and the institution of infrastructure.

2.6.11 Carrying out a thorough Review of the Laws and Regulations Related to Human Settlements

The regulatory environment, particularly planning and building regulations, has an enormous impact on human settlements and shelter development. Traditionally, such regulations were introduced to protect public health, ensure structural safety, encourage "amenity", and support environmental quality. Although they were introduced with the best motives in mind, there is widespread experience of poor results in implementing traditional planning and building regulations.

The revision of building and infrastructure codes and regulations is a matter of high priority. Such modifications should take into account the status of the urban poor and the existing informal settlements, and should ensure non-discrimination against indigenous/traditional building materials. This practice is showing positive results in the Sustainable Dar es Salaam Project and should be emulated nationwide.

2.6.12 Addressing the needs of people in vulnerable situations, particularly women, children, the elderly, the disabled and refugees.

Certain groups of people, sometimes find themselves in vulnerable situations compared to the rest of society. In terms of human settlements, women usually find themselves disadvantaged when it comes to access to land and finance; and children and the elderly are dependents and their fate is usually tied with that of their sponsors. People with disabilities cannot compete equally with those without. Moreover, Tanzania has, in recent years, been the recipient of thousands of refugees from neighbouring countries, and these have had adverse effects on the human habitat in the affected areas.

Tanzania lacks a concrete policy to address the needs of these vulnerable groups, and one must be put in place and must: encourage gender, age, and refugee sensitive approaches in formulating and implementing projects; strengthen resource allocation to the social services sector particularly education, health and social security; remove or otherwise tackle laws and practices that are discriminatory; encourage the formation of community based groups; increase the access of these vulnerable groups to productive resources including land, capital and technology; encourage training and public education; encourage the carrying out of regular social surveys; encourage the adoption and adherence to useful culture and traditions, and sensor harmful external influences; establish geriatric and rehabilitation centres; sensitise society to accept the disabled; and ensure preparedness to deal with refugees and internal displaces.

2.6.13 Ensuring Preparedness to Deal with Disasters in Human Settlements.

While many human settlements are liable to disasters like floods, fire, typhoons, and the outbreak of epidemics, there are no concrete policies put in place to deal with such situations. Also the mitigating institution of insurance cover is hardly undertaken.

Policies required to be put in place to deal with disasters must: minimise the occurrence of disasters by adhering to planning and land use requirements; strengthen institutional and financial arrangements related to disaster mitigation and reconstruction; establish insurance arrangements to deal with disasters; and formulate and operationalise laws and regulations aimed at dealing with disasters.

PART III: THE NATIONAL PLAN OF ACTION

3.0 THE NATIONAL PLAN OF ACTION

Having outlined the issues of priority above, a national plan of action is hereby presented in terms of programmes to address each of the priority areas highlighted above.

**PROGRAMME 1: Generation of Political and Bureaucratic Commitment and Support
for Community felt Needs**

Strategies/Policies

- Sensitising Politicians and Bureaucrats to address community-felt needs
- Sensitising the community at large to be able to exert their needs
- Establishing means of monitoring community needs

Objectives (Measurable Targets and Expected Results)

- To get the politicians and key government officials to get committed to understanding and addressing community felt needs in human settlements
- To mobilise as many policy makers as possible to support human settlements
- To have a general public which can press for their needs, organise themselves, and be able to enter into partnerships with the authorities to address these needs.

Activities

- 1996: Seminars and Workshops involving Members of Parliament and key politicians
- 1997: Seminars and Workshops involving Key Government Officials
- 1998: Seminars and Workshops involving officials of Local Governments
- 1999: Seminars and Workshops involving Community Groups

Actors

- Teaching Institutions like the University of Dar es Salaam, the Institute of Development Management; Ardhi Institute
- ALAT (Association of Local Authorities of Tanzania)
- CBOs, NGOs
- International Bodies and Consultants
- Mass Media

Monitoring Progress

- Progress can be monitored by observing the extent to which the politicians and government through its officials, address issues affecting communities

Commitments

All the Actors itemised above are willing to implement the Programme

PROGRAMME 2: Increase of Resources to Human Settlements as part of National Economic Development

Strategies/Policies

- Increasing the share of investment in shelter development
- Increasing the share of national investment in infrastructure provision
- Developing human and physical resources required for the development of human settlements
- Lobbying Policy Makers to increase the share of the national cake going to human settlements

Objectives (Measurable Targets and Expected Results)

- To increase the share of GNP to the shelter and construction sector

Activities

- 1996 + Campaigning with policy makers through seminars, workshops and other education undertakings

Actors

- Ministry of Lands, Housing and Urban Development (MLHUD)
- Planning Commission
- Prime Minister's Office
- International Agencies
- Ministry of Water, Construction, Energy, Lands and Environment
- Ministry of State (Planning)
- Chief Minister,s Office

Monitoring Progress

Progress can be monitored by observing the reaction of government officials and politicians through their actions or their utterance in Parliament or elsewhere

Commitments

Currently the Government allocates relatively little national cake to human resources. It is a primary duty of the Ministry for Lands, Housing and Urban Development and other related bodies to ensure that the situation changes.

PROGRAMME 3: Strengthening Institutions and Establishing a Framework for Co-ordinating Human Settlements Development

Strategies/Policies

- Strengthening institutions that are related to human settlements like the National Housing Corporation
- Establishing a framework where various policy actors in human settlements can coordinate their activities
- Strengthening local authorities and delegating most powers to them
- Extending and replicating the Sustainable Cities Programme in Tanzania
- Strengthening the involvement of community groups in human settlements development
- Educating and Training the relevant policy makers and manpower

Objectives (Measurable Targets and Expected Results)

- To minimise decision and investment overlaps
- To minimise the cost of decision making
- To increase efficiency in investment decisions, and running and maintenance undertakings
- To specify the onus of responsibility in human settlements
- To bring all the actors on the human settlement scene together
- To minimise land management maladministration
- To incorporate community action

Activities

- 1996-97 Establish the legal framework
- 1996-97 Establish the Institutional Framework
- 1996-2000 Carry out education, training and other activities to equip the manpower as well as policy makers
- 1996-2000 Evaluation and Readjustment

Actors

- Prime Minister's Office
- Attorney General's Chambers
- Ministry of Lands, Housing, and Urban Development
- Local Authorities
- Ministry of Water
- Ministry of Works
- Ministry of Health
- Utility Establishments e.g. TANESCO, NUWA
- CBOs and NGOs
- Local and International Consultants
- International Agencies like UNCHS, UNDP, World Bank
- Ministry of Local Government and Regional Administration
- Ministry of Water, Construction, Energy, Lands and Environment

Monitoring Progress

Progress can be monitored by observing the extent to which coordination is achieved. The success of programmes like the Sustainable Dar es Salaam Project would be an indicator as to whether coordination is being achieved or not.

Commitments

The key actor here is the central government and it has shown a willingness to strengthen and coordinate the institutions involved in human settlements.

PROGRAMME 4: Strengthening Local Authorities to allow them to play a positive role in Human Settlements and Shelter Development

Strategies/Policies

- Mounting a lobby to strengthen the autonomy of local authorities
- Increasing the capacity of local authorities in terms of viable financial bases and other resources; and in terms of human resources;

- Improving the quality of councillors, and decision makers
- Improving the relationship between the local authorities, the central government and the civil society especially in terms of interactions, transparency and accountability.
- Encouraging partnerships between local governments, the private sector, NGOs and CBOs, and the general community.
- Integrating local authorities into the process of shelter and infrastructural provision and environmental management

Objectives (Measurable targets and Expected Results)

- To have local authorities that are buoyant financially and that are democratic
- To have local authorities that can play an active role in promoting human settlements, particularly in terms of infrastructure provision and maintenance; and creating an enabling environment
- To have politicians and local authority officials who are willing and able to realise the goals of local government.
- To have a civil society that is active in local affairs

Activities

- | | |
|-----------|---|
| 1996-97 | Review legislation and procedures to give autonomy and powers to local governments |
| 1996-97 | Mount education and other campaigns to improve the performance capacity of the local authorities |
| 1996-97 | Operationalise property tax and improve efficiency of collection of other revenue |
| 1996-98 | Compile vital information pertaining to local authorities that is on residents, land and property ownership, business establishments, state of physical and social infrastructure |
| 1996-2000 | Devolve gradually, powers related to raising sufficient revenue; investment,; planning implementation and control; land management; manpower management, legislation, and so on, to local authorities |

Actors

- Prime Minister's Office (PMO)
- The Attorney General's Chambers
- Ministry of Lands Housing and Urban Development (MLHUD)
- World Bank (Urban Sector Engineering Project)

- Teaching Institutions like Ardhi Institute, University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM), Institute of Development Management (IDM)
- International Organisations like UNDP, UNCHS
- Local and External Consultants
- National and Local Politicians
- Local Authorities
- Community Organisations
- Ministry of Water, Construction, Energy, Lands and Environment
- Zanzibar Municipal Council
- Ministry of Local Government and Regional Administration

Monitoring Progress

Progress can be monitored by observing the following:

- Increase in sources and collection of revenue at municipal level, and therefore increased financial buoyancy of these authorities.
- Increase in the proportion of revenue spent on infrastructure
- Increase in the education level and experience of councillors, and officials
- Higher level of participation by the civil society in municipal affairs e.g. participating in local elections

Commitments

The Third Phase Government of Tanzania has committed itself to enhancing local authorities

The Teaching Institutions and International bodies have shown commitment to help build strong local authorities.

PROGRAMME 5: Enhancing the Effective Involvement of Community Groups in Human Settlements Development

Strategies/Policies

- **Encouraging** the formation of CBOs and NGOs in as many neighbourhoods as possible
- **Strengthen** existing groups by giving them access to resources, and by creating an enabling environment for their development
- Review existing laws and procedures to encourage the development and growth of these groups
- **Strengthen** focal points for encouraging facilitation of networking between central and local government and community based groups
- Build capacity in CBOs by improving skills and providing resources.

Objectives (Measurable Targets and Expected Results)

- To realise the formation of CBOs and NGOs in municipalities, based on neighbourhoods, gender, economic interests, etc.
- To realise an amicable and fruitful working relationship between CBOs and NGOs and the central and local governments
- To reduce conflict between the local authorities and communities as a result of the plans or intended actions of the authorities
- To harness the capacity of the communities in ameliorating the living environment
- To reduce incidence of inequity especially among the weak members of society, emanating from public action

Activities

- 1996-97 Create legal and institutional framework to enable the efficient development and working of CBOs and NGOs
- 1996-2000 Seminars, Workshops, Study Tours, Training Courses for communities and manpower involved with CBOs

Actors

- Ministry of Home Affairs
- Prime Minister's Office
- Municipal Authorities
- Ministry of Community Development, Women Affairs and Children
- Office of the Attorney General
- Community Groups
- Training and Research Institutions
- Donor Organisations
- The Media
- Chief Minister's Office
- Ministry of Local Government and Regional Administration
- Ministry of Women and Children

Monitoring Progress

- Data and other information on the formation and performance of CBOs and NGOs
- Improved interaction between Community Groups and central and local authorities
- Sustainable community based activities

Commitments

Key national and local actors have shown concerted commitment to implement the plan of action.

PROGRAMME 6: Improving Access to Serviced Land for All

Strategies/Policies

- Implementation of the New National Land Policy
- Reviewing and simplification of laws and procedures, including the decentralisation of many of the powers related to land management
- Incorporation of the private sector in the land delivery system
- Improving revenue collection and cost recovery to increase the resource base available for land servicing
- Completion and implementation of the New Urban Development Policy
- Popularisation of alternative use of land regularisation and servicing, like land pooling and land sharing
- Incorporating Community groups in servicing and delivering land
- Strengthening local governments in terms of equipment and manpower
- Working with and incorporating the informal land market in the land delivery process
- Improving the collection storage and retrieval of land information

Objectives (Measurable Targets and Expected Results)

- To have as many people as possible, including households in low income brackets and women, getting access to land
- To reduce waiting lists in applications for land
- To improve access to land titles and land registration services
- To reduce corruption and administrative melee in land delivery
- To reduce the growth of unplanned areas, and irregular settlements
- To improve revenue collection from land
- To improve land information systems, including information on the operation of informal markets and informal subdivisions
- To improve the resource base of local authorities in terms of manpower, and equipment

Activities

- 1996-97 Preparation and reviewing of legislation and procedures to allow the operation of the New National Land Policy, the National Urban Development policy, decentralisation of land management and delivery powers, enabling the incorporation of the private sector and informal land markets
- 1997 Seminars, workshops and other training and research undertakings to popularise and understand the new land delivery set up
- 1997-98 Pilot land regularisation and privatisation schemes
- 1998-2000 Major land regularisation and privatisation schemes
- 2000 Evaluation and Review and Updating of various schemes
- 2000+ Various land regularisation and servicing schemes

Actors

- Ministry of Lands, Housing, and Urban Development
- Attorney General's Chambers
- Prime Minister's Office
- Local and International Consultants
- Teaching and Research Institutions
- Community Groups and Non governmental organisations
- International Support Agencies like UNCHS, ODA, UNDP, World Bank (WB)
- Ministry of Water, Construction, Energy, Lands and Environment
- Ministry of Communication and Transport
- Municipal Authorities

Monitoring Progress

- Adoption of new legislation and procedures
- Number of plots made available and planning and regularisation schemes implemented
- Number of Titles issued, quantity of land registered
- Fall in the proportion of urban residents living in unplanned
- Increase in the level of land servicing

Commitments

The government is currently working on the legislation for the New National Land Policy, and the MLHUD is preparing

the operationalisation of the National Urban Development Policy.

PROGRAMME 7: Ensuring that All Tanzanians have Access to Adequate and Affordable Shelter

Strategies/Policies

- Establishment of institutional housing mortgage facility
- Establishment and strengthening of sustainable non-conventional savings and credit unions that can finance shelter especially for low income households
- Encouraging the production and use of appropriate and cheap building materials, and building designs and processes
- Increasing the role of the private sector in the provision and delivery of shelter
- Reviewing laws and regulations to encourage the use of affordable building materials and building processes as well as the setting of attainable and realistic standards
- Increasing the efficiency and effectiveness of public sector involvement in the shelter delivery process by concentrating on the creation of an enabling environment in which various operators can operate to their optimum, sometimes in partnerships with the public sector
- Improving access to land
- Encouraging the development of sustainable housing cooperatives, and other community based organisations related to shelter
- Encouraging the development of a national culture of maintaining the existing stock of shelter and its environment
- Reviewing the existing and preparing a new National Shelter Policy
- Increasing the role of the public sector in shelter supply by allowing the sector to work at market levels and avoid reliance on subsidies

Objectives (Measurable Targets and Expected Results)

- To increase the quantity and quality of shelter available year after year in relation to demand
- To expand shelter ownership across the spectrum of society, but particularly with respect to low income, and women headed households
- To reduce the cost of providing or getting access to shelter in terms of building costs and rents
- To reduce the level of overcrowding

- To increase the speed of house construction
- To increase the number of sustainable institutions, conventional and unconventional, providing finance for shelter development and acquisition; and the availability of this finance to all sections of society
- To improve the level of the environment in which shelter finds itself
- To reduce the proportion of shelter stock that is built in irregular areas, and outside the regulatory framework
- To increase the institutions carrying out research and disseminating information on alternative building materials

Activities

- 1996-1997 Preparation of a New National Shelter Policy
- 1996-1997 Reviewing of the regulatory framework to incorporate the informal shelter supply shelter
- 1996-1997 Preparation of the legal framework allowing the formation of conventional and unconventional shelter financing establishments
- 1998-2000 Establishing of shelter financing institutions
- 1996-2000 Various undertakings to improve access to land
- 1996-2000 Developing, testing and disseminating cheap but appropriate building materials
- 1996-2000 Seminars, Workshops, Training Sessions on ways of increasing affordable shelter
- 1996-1997 Research into the status of shelter to establish indicators such as demand, supply, quality, overcrowding, building and maintenance costs and rents, finance, informal and formal shelter supply, shelter tenure, the general workings of the shelter market and so on

Actors

- Ministry of Lands, Housing, and Urban Development
- National Housing Corporation (NH)
- Ministry of Finance
- Prime Minister's Office
- Local Authorities
- Local and International Consultants
- The International Donor Community
- Teaching and Researching Institutions like the Centre for Human Settlements Studies, Building Research Unit, CAMARTEC, etc

- Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives
- Various Financing Institutions
- The Private Sector
- Community Organisations
- Ministry of Water, Construction, Energy, Lands and Environment

Monitoring Progress

Progress can be monitored by observing:

- The extent to which the legal and institutional framework is developed to encompass the various actors in supplying shelter

- The development and adoption of alternative building materials

- Improvements in access to serviced land

- Number of housing cooperatives and community based shelter provision organisations formed and operating

- Numbers of units of shelter demanded and provided

- Stabilisation in shelter costs

- The extent to which low income and women headed households expand their level of shelter ownership

- Environmental amelioration

- Amount of shelter finance loaned out

Commitments

The Government of Tanzania is determined to improve shelter for all as indicated in the National Strategy for Shelter

PROGRAMME 8:	Improving the Living Environment in a Sustainable and Equitable Manner; Preventing further Environmental Degradation, and Conserving Natural and Man made Heritage and Biological Diversity.
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Strategies/Policies

- Streamlining the legal framework to allocate responsibilities and sanctions for environmental management to the various stakeholders, including industries, households and the community at large.

- Passing and operationalising appropriate laws, regulations and guidelines, with

appropriate sanctions, to prevent environmental pollution and environmental degradation.

Mounting a National education campaign about environmental management.

Establishing ways of increasing resources to the waste management sector, including privatisation, and the involvement of small scale operators, NGOs, and communities.

Establishing alternative means of dealing with waste, including small scale treatment, recycling and so on.

Intervention in the development of human settlements to prevent the occupation of environmentally hazardous land; and to encourage development with environmental amelioration in mind.

Prevention and control of the pollution of coastal waters and reduction in the degradation of coastal resources.

Involvement of the community in issues of environmental management.

Formulation of appropriate land use plans.

Completion and Implementation of the National Environmental Policy.

Strengthening of the relevant institutions.

Prevention, reduction, Control, and Elimination of Industrial Pollution and the uncontrolled discharge of Hazardous Waste.

Promotion of the integration of Environmental concerns with development plans at all levels by encouraging the Use of Environmental Impact Assessment in all projects.

Support the rehabilitation of decaying urban areas which are part of the human historical heritage, in conformity with the promotion of the Tourist Industry

Objectives (Measurable Targets and Expected Results)

To reduce and ultimately eliminate pollution in the environment, including local neighbourhoods, air, water courses

To ensure the safe disposal of solid, liquid and industrial and hazardous waste

To improve the environmental quality of the living environment

To generate employment and income earning opportunities in environmental management activities like recycling

To eliminate the construction on environmentally hazardous land like river valleys, and delicate coastal lands

- To popularise the use of Environmental Impact Assessment in the evaluation of projects

Activities

- 1996 Complete and Operationalise the National Environmental Policy
- 1997 Formulation of appropriate standards related with environmental issues
- 1997 Formulation of appropriate legislation
- 1997-1998 Establishing appropriate institutional set ups
- 1997-2000 Workshops, Seminars, and other training and educating undertakings and Research in ameliorating the environment

Actors

- Ministry of Lands, Housing, and Urban Development
- Ministry of Natural Resources, Tourism
- National Environmental Management Council
- Attorney General's Chambers
- Prime Minister's Office
- Local Governments
- National Land Use Planning Commission
- Community Organisations
- Local and International Consultants
- Research and Training Institutions like UDSM and Ardhi Institute (ARI)
- The Private Sector
- Office of the Vice President (Environment)
- Ministry of Water, Construction, Energy, Lands and Environment
- Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Natural Resources
- Commission of Tourism

Monitoring Progress

Progress in the realisation of the plan of action can be monitored by observing:

- The change in the level of pollution in human settlements over a period
- The change in the proportion of the amount of waste collected and safely disposed of
- Reduction in the occupation of environmentally hazardous land, or land important for the preservation of biological diversity
- The degree to which the community is involved in ameliorating the environment

Commitments

The government is committed to improve the environment and is preparing a National Environmental Policy

PROGRAMME 9: Improving the Urban Economy in terms of Employment Generation and Poverty Reduction especially among the Youth.

Strategies/Policies

In order to realise the goal of improving the urban economy, generating employment and income, and alleviating poverty, the following strategies and policies are envisaged:

- Creating an atmosphere conducive to the establishment of income generating activities including provision of suitable land and services; streamlining licensing processes; and giving of advice and logistical support.
- Encouraging local authorities to see poverty alleviation and employment generation as one of their main responsibilities.
- Adopting strategies that are aimed at encouraging investment both corporate and small scale, at a local level.
- Increasing the access of the poor to productive assets such as affordable credit, grants, commodity aid and natural resources.
- Using community labour in infrastructure and service delivery undertakings.
- Investing in Human Capital, like education, health, nutrition and food security.
- Promoting Institutional support to the informal sector, including special credit facilities, and business extension and advisory services.
- Reviewing regulations, laws and procedures to attract the private sector, and to encourage public/private partnerships.
- Encouraging the formation of informal sector cooperatives and economic groups
- Promoting the formation and development of Youth Economic groups.
- Collaborating with local governments to streamline procedures for allocating working premises to the informal sector.
- Encouraging the formation of formal and informal financing organisations.

Objectives (Measurable Targets and Expected Results)

The following are the **objectives** of the programme which at the same time form the basis for the measurable **targets** and **expected results**:

- To reduce unemployment among both men and women
- To expand the spectrum of income earning activities and to raise income
- To reduce the number of people defined as poor, or as being below the poverty line

To reduce the bureaucracy currently in the way of any would-be investor, large or small

To encourage the formation of community based economic groups

To realise the participation of local authorities in income generating activities

Activities

1996-97 Studies on the extent of poverty and unemployment

1996-97 Coordination of all actors on poverty

1996-97 Reviewing legal and institutional framework particularly with respect to poverty alleviation and the local authorities

1996-2000 Workshops, Seminars and Other Training undertakings with respect to the running of income generating activities

Actors

Prime Minister's Office

Attorney General's Chambers

Ministry of Labour and Youth

Ministry of Lands, Housing, and Urban Development

CBOs

NGOs

Local Authorities

International Donor Agencies e.g. ILO

Local and International Consultants

Teaching and Research Institutions

Office of the Vice President

Chief Minister's Office

Ministry of Information, Tourism and Youth

Monitoring Progress

Progress can be monitored by observing the following:

Coordination between local authorities, central government and the various local and international actors related to income generation

More orderly accommodation of small scale operators by the central government and local authorities

Decline in open manifestations of poverty and a rise in household income

Commitments

The government has shown a keen commitment to eradicate poverty by establishing a poverty reduction department in the Office of the Vice President, and is also encouraging various

actors to join in this crusade

PROGRAMME 10: Ensuring the Provision and Maintenance of Infrastructure in Human Settlements.

Strategies/Policies

The following strategies/policies are envisaged:

- Improving revenue collection, including cost recovery, to offset costs and be able to increase the financial base for expanding infrastructure
- Incorporation of the private sector in the provision and maintenance of infrastructure and social services.
- Incorporation of the general public, particularly through community organisations, in the provision of infrastructure in both the planned and the unplanned human settlement sector.
- Working out, with the people, affordable improvement schemes for unplanned areas.
- Incorporating and cooperating with the residents of the unplanned areas to improve and maintain their settlements.

Objectives (Measurable Targets and Expected Results)

The objectives of the programme, which can also be taken to indicate measurable targets and expected results include the following:

- To ensure that human settlements neighbourhoods are provided with some basic infrastructure
- To reduce environmental pollution (e.g. from uncollected solid or liquid waste) resulting from lack of infrastructure
- To extend infrastructure over time to unplanned settlements
- To reduce the number of unplanned areas lacking infrastructure

Activities

- | | |
|---------|---|
| 1996-97 | Setting up the legal framework |
| 1996-97 | Seminars, Workshops, Other Education undertakings, and researches into the question of providing infrastructure for all |

1997-2000 Various Infrastructure Undertakings and Schemes

1997-2000 Various unplanned areas upgrading schemes

Actors

- Ministry of Lands, Housing, and Urban Development
- Prime Minister's Office
- Ministry of Works
- CBOs and NGOs
- International Bodies like UNDP, UNCHS, World Bank
- Local Authorities
- The Private Sector
- Research and Training Institutions
- International and Local Consultants
- Ministry of Water, Construction, Energy, Lands and Environment
- Ministry of Local Government and Regional Administration
- Ministry of Communication and Transport

Monitoring Progress

Progress can be monitored by observing the following:

- Improvement in the institution and maintenance of infrastructure
- Improvement in the resource base for infrastructure provision and maintenance
- Level of participation in infrastructure provision by the private sector, CBOs, NGOs and so forth
- Falling proportion of neighbourhoods without infrastructure

Commitments

Both the government and international support agencies are committed to see that human settlements are provided with infrastructure and that such infrastructure is maintained

PROGRAMME 11: Carrying out a thorough Review of the Laws and Regulations Related to Human Settlements.

Strategies/Policies

- Setting up Commissions or appointing Consultants to Review laws and regulations related to Human Settlements such as planning laws and procedures, building rules, laws governing environmental management, and those incorporating community groups
- Operationalising New revised laws and regulations

Carrying out public education campaigns on revised laws and regulations

Objectives (Measurable Targets and Expected Results)

- To incorporate, legalise and help the actions of the majority of actors in human settlements
- To enable the smooth operations of the activities of community groups
- To speed up various procedures e.g. those related to land management, licensing, various approvals, and so on
- To reduce bureaucracy and insensitivity to community needs
- To reduce the proportion of activities that operate outside the official framework

Activities

- | | |
|-------------|---|
| • 1996-97 | Appointment of Consultants and Research Groups to look at the various laws and regulation |
| • 1996-97 | Preparing the necessary laws |
| • 1996-2000 | Studies, Workshops and other training undertaking on the new laws and regulations |
| • 1997-2000 | Operationalising the new laws and operations |
| • 1999 + | Evaluations and adjustments |

Actors

- Ministry of Lands, Housing, and Urban Development
- Attorney General
- Ministry of Community Development Women and Children
- Local Authorities
- CBOs, NGOs
- Teaching and Research Institutions
- Local and International Consultants
- Ministry of Water, Construction, Energy, Lands and Environment

Monitoring Progress

Progress can be monitored by observing the following:

- Number of laws and regulations that are under review
- Speedier bureaucratic action
- Involvement of community groups

Commitments

The government has shown interest to review various rules and regulations since the mid-1970s

PROGRAMME 12: Addressing the needs of people in vulnerable situations particularly women, children, old people, people with disabilities and refugees.

Strategies/Policies

- Adopting gender and age sensitive approaches in formulating and implementing projects.
- Strengthening resource allocation to the social services sector particularly education, health and social security.
- Removing or otherwise tackling laws and practices that are discriminatory.
- Encouraging the formation of community based groups.
- Increasing the access of these vulnerable groups to productive resources including land, capital and technology.
- Encouraging training and public education
- Encouraging the carrying out of regular social surveys
- Encouraging the adoption and adherence to useful culture and traditions; and censuring harmful external influences
- Establishing geriatric and rehabilitation centres
- Sensitising society to accept people with disabilities
- Ensuring preparedness to deal with refugees and internal displaces.

Objectives (Measurable Targets and Expected Results)

- To increase the proportion of the presence of women participants in, and beneficiaries from, human habitat activities
- To reduce discriminatory practices against women, children, old people, people with disabilities and refugees
- To increase the proportion of gender sensitive undertakings and community groups
- To increase knowledge and public awareness in the fields of gender, and vulnerability

- To reduce the incidence of poverty and social deviant behaviour
- To increase the number of centres that can take care of vulnerable groups in society
- To increase income earning and other employment opportunities
- To increase the proportion of women and other vulnerable groups among those with access to social services and infrastructure

Activities

- 1996-97 Review and removal of discriminatory laws and practices
- 1996-97 Public education and other sensitization activities
- 1996-98 Carrying out of Social Surveys
- 1996-2000 Establishing Income generating and other Employment opportunities, particularly in close cooperation with municipalities.

Actors

- Ministry of Community Development, Women and Children Affairs
- Ministry of Labour and Youth and Social Welfare
- Ministry of Foreign Affairs and International Cooperation
- Ministry of Health
- Prime Minister's Office
- Local Authorities
- CBOs and NGOs like Women Advancement Trust (WAT)
- Chief Minister's Office
- Ministry of Information, Tourism and Youth
- Ministry of Women and Children Affairs

Monitoring Progress

Progress can be monitored by observing the following:

- **An increase in the proportion of women showing effective presence in human settlement activities**
- **Abandonment of discriminatory laws and practices**
- **An increase in the number of centres to deal with peculiar situations**
- **Establishment of gender sensitive community groups**
- **Decline in the incidence of poverty**

Commitments

The commitment of the government of Tanzania to dealing with the needs of vulnerable groups can be gauged from the fact that a Ministry exists to deal with these issues.

PROGRAMME 13: Ensuring Preparedness to Deal with Disasters in Human Settlements.

Strategies/Policies

- Minimising the occurrence of disasters by adhering to planning, environmental and land use requirements.
- Strengthening institutional and financial arrangements related to disaster mitigation and management.
- Establishing insurance arrangements to deal with disasters.
- Formulating and operationalising laws and regulations aimed at dealing with disasters.
- Completing and operationalising the National Policy on Disaster Mitigation and Reconstruction

Objectives (Measurable Targets and Expected Results)

- To reduce the incidence of irregular construction
- To increase the proportion of human settlement neighbourhoods with infrastructure
- To reduce the proportion of houses constructed on dangerous land
- To set up disaster units within local authorities
- To increase the uptake of insurance cover against disasters
- To set up a sustainable national sources of funds to deal with disasters

Activities

- | | |
|-----------|--|
| 1996-97 | Completion and operationalisation of the National Policy on Disaster Mitigation and Reconstruction |
| 1996-97 | Public Education Campaigns |
| 1996-2000 | Infrastructure and neighbourhood improvement schemes |
| 1996-98 | Institutional Set Up |
| 1996-2000 | Research and other studies in disaster mitigation and reconstruction |

Actors

- Prime Minister's Office
- Ministry of Health
- Ministry of Community Development, Women and Children Affairs
- National Environmental Management Council
- Ministry of Lands, Housing, and Urban Development
- Local Authorities
- Ministry of Home Affairs
- Research and Training Institutions
- Local and International Consultants
- CBOs, and NGOs
- Ministry of Water, Construction, Energy, Lands and Environment
- Chief Minister's Office

Monitoring Progress

Progress can be monitored by observing the following:

- Improvement in infrastructure
- Regular construction
- Infrastructure maintenance
- Reduction in the incidence of flooding, or fire outbreaks, or diseases
- Rate of adoption of disaster mitigation policies and setting up appropriate institutions

Commitments

The government is in the process of preparing a National Policy on Disaster Mitigation and Reconstruction, a clear indication of its commitment.

**PART IV: INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION,
ASSISTANCE, AND CAPACITY BUILDING**

4.0 INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION, ASSISTANCE, AND CAPACITY BUILDING

4.1 Highest Priority Programmes and Activities for which International Cooperation and Assistance will be Sought

Listed and elaborated below are the programmes and activities of highest priority for which international cooperation and assistance will be sought. It is to be emphasised that gender balance will be a necessary ingredient in all these programmes and activities:

1. Servicing Land for Sustainable Development
2. Ensuring Access to Adequate and Affordable Shelter for All
3. Poverty Reduction and Employment Generation
4. Disaster Mitigation, Relief, and Reconstruction

4.1.1. Servicing Land for Sustainable Development

The importance of this programme stems from the fact that Tanzania is urbanising fast and by far the majority of new and old urbanites find their land in the unplanned and unserviced sector. Not only is the planned sector unable to meet the demand for land, but also the little land that this sector provides is usually wont of services. Urban expansion requires land for the construction of shelter, industries, social infrastructure, utilities, recreation, transportation, commerce, communal needs and so on.

The servicing of land for sustainable urban development entails the undertaking of various schemes over the next several years aimed at the provision of infrastructure to various areas; revision of various laws and regulations pertaining to human settlements; decentralisation of powers and responsibilities for human settlements to local authorities and community organisations; strengthening of local authorities; effective community involvement; addressing the issues of land markets, cost recovery, land taxation, and land administration; the incorporation of the private formal and informal sector in servicing land; the upgrading and regularisation of many unplanned areas; and capacity building.

There is the need to replicate and extend the Sustainable Cities Programme both in Dar es Salaam and to other urban centres, as a viable example of ensuring the servicing of land for sustainable development.

4.1.2 Ensuring Access to Adequate and Affordable Shelter for All

This priority involves the undertaking of various schemes, activities, and investments such as: the establishment of conventional shelter financing institutions; research into, and dissemination of information about, cheap but appropriate building materials, designs and processes; ensuring access to serviced land; reviewing of laws and regulations pertaining to shelter development; incorporating the private formal and informal sectors in shelter provision and management; redefining the role of the public sector;

strengthening local authorities and community organisations; and, promoting housing cooperatives.

4.1.3 Poverty Reduction and Income Generation

The question of poverty and income generation has a very high priority because of the rapid rate of urbanisation and structural adjustment programmes that have in part resulted into a shrinking public sector, a beleaguered local manufacturing sector, higher prices, the decline in social services, and a poor rural economic and social environment.

Projects to be undertaken include those related to: the retuning of local authorities so that they can actively participate in employment generation activities particularly by creating an enabling environment; financing, establishing and running of micro-enterprises; use of community labour in human settlements and other projects; enhancement of skills and business acumen; encouragement the formation of community economic groups; establishment of conducive forms of credit to small scale operators; streamlining bureaucracy; and generally improving the national and urban economies.

4.1.4 Disaster Mitigation, Relief, and Reconstruction

Disasters that have hit Tanzania in recent times include floods, typhoons, epidemic diseases, fires, and accelerated environmental degradation (as a result of the recent influx of refugees from neighbouring countries, for example).

Activities to be undertaken include those related to precautions against disasters like the institution or maintaining of infrastructure, avoiding construction on hazard land, increasing access to serviced land, strengthening of local governments and community groups, the setting up of disaster mitigation units at national and local levels; dealing with refugees especially in terms of resettlement, and, the strengthening of institutional and financial arrangements related to disaster mitigation and reconstruction.

4.2 Capacity Building in the Human Settlements Sector

All the programmes and activities listed above require that capacity be developed to implement or sustain them. International assistance and cooperation will be sought in order to build this capacity. Details of the areas where capacity building will be required are:

- | | |
|----|---|
| 1. | Manpower development |
| 2. | Building the Resource Base |
| 3. | Institutional Set up and strengthening |
| 4. | Improving the Information and Data Base |
| 5. | Legal Reform |
| 6. | Community Organisation and Mobilisation |
| 7. | Population Management |

4.2.1 Manpower Development

All programmes related to improving human settlements require manpower development. This ranges from training, reorientation, and motivation. Those concerned include central and local

government officers, politicians, community leaders. Critical areas include manpower related to: strengthening local governance, servicing land for sustainable development, revenue generation and management, resource handling and management, shelter improvement and management, infrastructure provision and maintenance, poverty alleviation programmes, and application of appropriate technology.

4.2.2 Building the Resource Base

Many programmes and activities related to human settlements have a very weak resource base which needs to be improved in terms of:

- Finance, and,
- Equipment.

To address the question of finance, it is necessary to establish sources of credit and also to strengthen the capacity to expand the revenue base, to collect this revenue and to manage it efficiently. Tools, vehicles and computers and some of the equipment badly needed, and these have to be acquired and maintained in a sustainable manner.

4.2.3 Institutional Set Up and Strengthening

The Institutional set up to deal with human settlements is in some cases non existent, in others, very weak, and in others, badly set up and poorly coordinated. Key areas to be addressed include the institutional set up to: strengthen local governance, ensure the incorporation of the private sector and the informal actors in human settlements, incorporate community groups, deal with land management matters, improve the environment, deal with poverty alleviation, provide and maintain infrastructure, and to deal with disasters.

4.2.4 Improving the Information and Data Base

One of the major obstacles in human settlement development is a poor information and data base. Capacity building to improve this situation is crucial. There is thus the need to establish and strengthen the Land Information Management System by way of computerisation, digitization, and so on. In one sense, the improving of manpower and the resource base has a positive impact on improving the information and data base. However several concrete actions are required. These include:

- **Actions related to improved land management**
- **Expanding and Replicating the Indicators Programme**
- **Recording and Disseminating Best Practices**

Actions Related to Improved Land Management

Im... es have crucial connotations for information on human
set... ts. ne... id tenure, extending land registration, unclogging land
ma... incorporating the informal land markets, and incorporating the private sector will all
lea... improving the information and data base in human settlements. Other ways include
the use of modern technology like computers and aerial photography to improve the land
information base.

Expanding and Replicating the Indicators Programme

The collection of urban and housing indicators which was carried out in Tanzania in preparation of the National Habitat II Report demonstrated the usefulness of the Indicators Programme, and it is now proposed that this programme be extended to cover rural areas as well; and also to collect missing urban indicators and to disaggregate the data on a gender, age, economic group and qualitative aspects basis. It is further proposed that the programme be replicated to become a regular undertaking. There is therefore a need to establish an **Indicator Programme for Tanzania** to be grouped under a series of modules each dedicated to address certain information. These include:

(i) **The Background Module** where indicators to be monitored include: urban population growth rates and total population by sex and age; the percentage of the land area used for informal or unplanned residential development; and types and sizes of households.

(ii) **The Socio-economic Development Module** where the indicators to be monitored are: the rate of unemployment; informal sector activities; urban productivity; and families below poverty line; literacy rates among societies; and access to educational and health facilities; and child mortality.

(iii) **The Infrastructural Module** where the most important indicators include: liquid and solid waste disposal methods; accessibility; Proportion of households connected to potable water supplies, electricity and telephones.

(iv) **The Transport Module** where the indicators to be monitored are travel time; transport fatalities; road congestion; air and noise pollution; car ownership; and expenditure on road and infrastructure maintenance.

(v) **The Environmental Management Module** where indicators to be monitored are still few and being developed, but where the following are relevant: the proportion of greenery in urban areas; the levels of air and water pollution; waste generation, and collection and disposal capabilities and methods; and damage caused by causes emanating out environmental disasters like flooding.

(vi) **The Local Government Module** where indicators to be monitored include sources of local authorities' finance; patterns of municipal expenditure; amount of revenue collected from service charges and cost recovery schemes; and quality of municipal staff, in terms of capacity to effect urban management.

(vii) **Affordable and Adequate Housing Module** where the most important indicators to be established and monitored are: the quantity of housing units available vis a vis demand; the condition of these houses; the proportion of housing provided by the informal sector; the supply of rental housing; the types and values of properties; gender dimensions of access to housing in terms of house/land ownership by women.

The long term objective is to use indicators as a tool for reviewing the condition of human settlements and providing bench marks for the development of urban and shelter conditions and policies over space and over time.

Specific objectives are:

1. To identify key indicators of problem areas and areas of success.
2. To collect these indicators on a regular and coordinated basis.
3. To establish a permanent data collection facility and data base that will permit regular analysis of the status of human settlements in Tanzania.

This will require that a legal and institutional framework be established to carry out this task. Staff has also to be trained for the task. For what has been done so far, there is need to establish the missing indicators and also to validate the existing ones. Indicators will need to be monitored and updated.

Recording and Disseminating Best Practices

There are various practices in housing and urban development in Tanzania which have tended to improve the shelter and environmental conditions in the areas where they have been practised. Some of these practices need to be replicated. Bottlenecks to this dissemination, however, need to be overcome. These include: Inadequate information on existing best practices in the country; Poor or inadequate information dissemination on best practices; Lack of technological and technical support for best practices enhancement; Lack of marketing strategies for these best practices.

It is thus proposed to document the Best Practices in human Settlements in the country, many of which are not known. There is also a need to disseminate information on best practices so that these can be emulated elsewhere. This is proposed to be a regular undertaking, as part of capacity building.

It is proposed that best practices be sought in the following priority areas:

- Shelter Production
- Building Materials Development and Utilisation
- Energy Conservation
- Environmental Protection
- Infrastructure Development
- Poverty Alleviation, and,
- Job Creation.

4.2.5 Legal Reform

Many of the laws and regulations relating to human settlements are outdated, unenforceable and many go unenforced; many serve only to increase the cost of decision making and investment and to create a climate for corruption, and many do not address the situation at hand.

Capacity building is therefore required as part of reforming these laws and regulations so that in particular, they can speed up decision making and bring about efficiency; so that they can incorporate the actions of all actors in the human settlements scene particularly the private sector, the informal sector and community groups.

4.2.6 Community Organisation and Mobilisation

There is an increasing role of the community groups on the human settlement scene. These communities need strengthening in terms of manpower, resources, and a legal and institutional framework that will enable them to operate to their maximum efficiency.

4.2.7 Population Management

Population growth and distribution are important considerations in determining policy on human settlements. Capacity building is therefore required to control population growth as well as population movement. To curb rural to urban population movement it may be necessary to improve rural economic and social conditions and to prevent rural degradation.

ANNEX I

PROJECTS PREPOSED UNDER THE NATIONAL PROGRAMME FOR SUSTAINABLE HUMAN SETTLEMENTS DEVELOPMENT (1993)

The following Projects were proposed for funding and implementation under the *National Programme for Sustainable Human Settlements Development* prepared in 1993.

TITLE	OBJECTIVES	EXECUTING AGENCY	DURATION	ESTIMATE D COST
Managing the Sustainable Growth and Development of Dar es Salaam (Phase 2)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Consolidate the Resources and Experiences gained under Phase 1 ◆ Provide support to the cross-sectoral, multi-institutional Working Groups established in the City Council ◆ Support and strengthen policy coordination functions in the City Council ◆ Support and strengthen policy implementation 	Dar es Salaam City Council	2 Years	US\$ 713,000
Community-based improvement of Tindiga unplanned settlement in Arusha Municipality	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Develop a strategic plan; an action and an implementation schedule for Arusha ◆ Improving the living conditions in Tingida unplanned settlement 	Arusha Municipality	2 Years	US\$ 275,000

Human Resources Development and Reorientation of Professionals	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Train trainers in the skills of planning and managing sustainable human settlements development ◆ Ensure that the curriculum review is informed by the state of the art ◆ Provide Heads of Planning Departments in Local Authorities and Practising Planners to get acquainted with managing sustainable human settlement development 	Ardhi Institute	<p>Activity One: Trainers: 2 day seminars</p> <p>Activity 2: Planning Professionals: 2 days seminars</p> <p>Activity 3: Practising Planners: 14 day courses</p>	<p>Activity 1: US\$ 40,000</p> <p>Activity 2: US\$ 40,000</p> <p>Activity 3: US\$ 120,000</p>
Land Management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Provide an efficient system of Land Information management ◆ Undertake aerial photographs in all regional towns ◆ Enhance capacity in LIS and GIS 	Ministry of Lands, Housing and Urban Development; Local Authorities; Ardhi Institute	<p>Activity 1: Computerisation of Land and Planning information in Dar es Salaam and 6 Municipalities: 1 year</p> <p>Activity 2: Aerial Photography and Mapping in Selected Towns: 2 Years</p> <p>Activity 3: Training and Refresher Courses in LIS and GIS: 6 months</p>	<p>Activity 1: US\$ 80,000</p> <p>Activity 2: US\$ 1,000,000</p> <p>Activity 3: US\$ 5,000</p>

Site Development Fund	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Provide seed capital to establish a revolving infrastructure investment fund to service the development of new land and housing in the city ◆ Reduce hidden subsidies and increase transparency and accountability in urban land management practices 	Dar es Salaam City Council Other Towns	5 Years	US\$10 million
Non Conventional Shelter Financing Strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Assist in the mobilisation of domestic savings from individuals and community based groups ◆ Identify and assist existing shelter financing mechanisms in the country 	Private Consultants or an NGO	2 Years	US\$ 98,000
Housing Refinance Facility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Increase the availability of affordable housing to lower and middle income groups ◆ Introduce private and public longterm finance for shelter ◆ Promote the growth of low cost building materials, industry and expertise 	Bank of Tanzania	4 Years	Technical Support: US\$ 69,000 Capital: US\$ 20 million
Construction Assistance Project for Small and Medium Contractors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Develop the capacities of local small and medium-sized contractors ◆ Increase the use of local building materials 	NGO and/or Private Teaching Institution	2 "	US\$ 1 million

ANNEX II

CURRENT AND PLANNED DONOR FUNDED PROGRAMMES AND PROJECTS IN THE HUMAN SETTLEMENTS SECTOR

PROJECT	DESCRIPTION	MAJOR DONOR	STATUS OF IMPLEMENTATION
Managing the Sustainable Growth and Development of Dar es Salaam	To provide Dar es Salaam with improved environmental management and planning capacity on a self-sustaining basis	UNCHS (Habitat)/UNDP	Phase 1 Implemented since 1991
Settlement Upgrading Arusha	Assistance to the municipality of Arusha in planning and implementing upgrading schemes	UNCHS (Habitat)/UNDP	Technical Assistance provided since 1991
Physical Planning Bukoba	Assistance with a physical plan which will enable Bukoba to enhance its capacity to act as a port	UNCHS (Habitat)/UNDP	Implementation 1992
Preparation of Sector Review for Human Settlements	To enable the Government of Tanzania to develop a strategy for Human Settlements	UNCHS (Habitat)/UNDP	Implemented 1992
Urban Sector Engineering Project	Rehabilitation of Infrastructure in 9 Towns (Dar es Salaam, Mwanza, Morogoro, Mbeya, Moshi, Arusha, Tanga, Iringa and Tabora)	World Bank/IDA	Ongoing

Support to the Ardhi Institute	Capital Funds for the rehabilitation of Ardhi Institute buildings Technical Assistance through the Royal Danish Academy for Fine Arts	DANIDA	Ongoing
Pit Latrine Development, Tanga	Support for Research into Pit Latrines	GTZ	Implented 1994
Assistance to the National Housing Corporation	Developing new strategies including management and possible disinvestiture of commercial and housing portfolios	USAID	Ongoing
Intervention in Low income Communities in Dar es Salaam	Improving conditions in low income areas	Plan International	Ongoing
Dar es Salaam Road Rehabilitation Project	Reconstruction of Roads in Dar es Salaam	Japanese government	Ongoing
Manual Emptying Technology	Developing hand pump based technology for emptying sludge at commercial rates	Netherlands Government	Ongoing
Employment Generation in urban Areas	To improve employment generation opportunities in areas that can improve the environment	ILO/UNDP	Ongoing
Coastal Zone Management	To improve the management of coastal areas	UNEP	Ongoing

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