



THE KINGDOM OF LESOTHO

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FOREWORD

Twenty years could seem like a long time yet it may just be sufficient time to introspect, reflect and chart the way forward in addressing so many imperatives to improve the quality of life in human settlements. Like the rest of the nations of the world, Lesotho recognizes that what happens to daily lives and well-being of citizens is profoundly and inextricably related to how we manage and support our human settlements processes. The Report presented here is a compilation of successes and challenges over the past twenty years. We will henceforth strive to improve on our successes and address challenges. When we do that, it will be evidence that as a country we are making progress.

From Habitat I in Vancouver, whose theme was Sustainable Human Settlements, Governments began to recognize consequences of rapid urbanization as a global issue that need to be addressed collectively. The theme of Habitat II held in Istanbul was Adequate Shelter and Sustainable Human Settlements Development in an Urbanizing World and now to setting the New Urban Agenda, Lesotho is in unison with the rest of the world that human beings are at the centre of efforts towards sustainable development that is also in harmony with nature.

Lesotho has steep terrain that poses a challenge for infrastructure provision and climate change adaptation mechanisms. Strides have been made in addressing these even though they are not yet adequate. The process of reviewing progress and pitfalls in the human settlements sector offers us a unique opportunity to once again commit our efforts to the important goal of attaining sustainability in human settlements development. Together with and with assistance from our development partners we have made progress towards deepening democracy through decentralization, compiling a comprehensive Housing Profile that will lead to the formulation of a Housing Policy and provision of basic infrastructure and health facilities that extend to rural and remote areas.

As we set the Agenda for the coming twenty years we will seek to continuously improve our human settlement strategies by reviewing our policy, institutional and legislative frameworks. By improving the environment for human settlements planning and management within the decentralized context we hope and believe that by 2036 we will have Lesotho that every citizen will be proud to call home.

Pontšo ‘Matumelo Sekatle
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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AIDS	-	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
CBD	-	Central Business District
DDP	-	District Development Plan
DMA	-	Disaster Management Authority
DRWS	-	Department of Rural Water Supply
EIA	-	Environmental Impact Assessment
GDP	-	Gross Domestic Product
GIS	-	Geographic Information System
GOL	-	Government of Lesotho
HIV	-	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
IT	-	Information Technology
km	-	kilometer
LAA	-	Lands Administration Authority
LEC	-	Lesotho Electricity Company
LED	-	Local Economic Development
LDHS	-	Lesotho Demographic Health Survey
LDS	-	Lesotho Demographic Survey
LMS	-	Lesotho Meteorological Services
LHLDC	-	Lesotho Housing and Lands Development Corporation
LNDC	-	Lesotho National Development Corporation
LSPP	-	Department of Lands, Survey and Physical Planning
LWSP	-	Lowlands Water Supply Project
MAFS	-	Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security
MCA-L	-	Millennium Challenge Account (Lesotho)
MCC	-	Maseru City Council
MDGs	-	Millennium Development Goals
MDP	-	Maseru Development Plan
MEMWA	-	Ministry of Energy, Meteorology and Water Affairs
M&E	-	Monitoring & Evaluation
MGYSR	-	Ministry of Gender, Youth, Sports and Recreation
MLGCPA	-	Ministry of Local Government, Chieftainship and Parliamentary Affairs
MMC	-	Maseru Municipal Council (same as MCC)
MDP	-	Ministry of Development Planning
MOU	-	Memorandum of Understanding
MPWT	-	Ministry of Public Works and Transport
MSME	-	Medium, Small and Micro Enterprises
MTEC	-	Ministry of Tourism, Environment and Culture
MUPTS	-	Maseru Urban Planning and Transport Study
NES	-	National Environmental Secretariat
NGO	-	Non-Governmental Organization
NSDP	-	National Strategic Development Plan
OVC	-	Orphaned and Vulnerable Children
PPP	-	Public Private Partnership
PRS	-	Poverty Reduction Strategy
PSUP	-	Participatory Slum Upgrading Programmed
RSA	-	Republic of South Africa
SACU	-	Southern African Customs Union

SADC	-	Southern African Development Community
SMME	-	Small, Medium and Micro Enterprises
SDF	-	Spatial Development Framework
UN	-	United Nations Organization
UNICEF	-	United Nations Children's Fund
VIP	-	Ventilated Improved Pit Latrine
WASCO	-	Water and Sewerage Company
WATSAN	-	Water and Sanitation Project
WHO	-	World Health Organization

INTRODUCTION

The Kingdom of Lesotho is a small mountainous country of 30 355 km², entirely landlocked inside the Republic of South Africa. It is bounded by the province of Kwazulu-Natal to the east, the Eastern Cape to the south and the Free State to the north and west. The western quarter of the country is lowlands and foothills that rise from 1 388 to 2 000 metres above sea level while the remaining three-quarters comprise highlands, which rise from 2 000 to 3 482m above sea level, the point of the highest peak, Thabana-Ntlenyana, in Southern Africa. The country is divided into ten (10) administrative districts as shown on map 1. There are twelve (12) gazetted urban centres, including Maseru. Ten of these urban centres, with the exception of Maputsoe and Semonkong, also serve as administrative headquarters for the districts. Eleven (11) of the urban centres were designated Urban Councils in 2011 whilst Maseru has been designated a Municipality since 1989.



Map 1: Map of Lesotho with Districts and Urban Centers

The 2006 Census recorded a total population of 1,876,633 while 10 years earlier (1996) it was 1,862,275, which gives an inter-census (1996-2006) growth rate of (0.08%)¹, a significant decline from the previous (1986-1996) inter-census growth rate of (1.5%). The decline has been attributed to increased mortality due to HIV and AIDS pandemic, which, at (23%) infection nationally, makes Lesotho the second highest in the world. Other factors include a (33%) decline in life expectancy at birth (from 59 to 39.6 years); (15%) in fertility rate (from 4.1 to 3.5); decline in household size from 5 in 1996 to 4.4 in 2006, and migration

¹ BOS, 2006 Lesotho Population and Housing Census Vol. IIIA, Dec. 2009

to the Republic of South Africa (RSA). In demographic terms, Lesotho is considered young, with around (40%) of its population comprising of the youth (15-35 years). Literacy rates are relatively high at (80.0%) for men and (96.6%) for women in the age-group of 15-49 years (Millennium Development Goals Status Report: 2013).

An estimated (30%) of the population resides in the highlands region while (70%) resides in the lowlands and foothills region. The average population density is 61 persons/km², ranging from 24 persons/km² in Mokhotlong district to 112 persons/km² in the Berea district. Expressed in terms of arable land, the density averages 658 persons/km², with the lowest density of 485 persons/km² being in the district of Thaba-Tseka, while the highest density of 902 persons/km² is in the district of Maseru. The population of Lesotho is predominantly rural, with slightly over (72%) residing in rural areas or outside urbanized settlements². According to the MDG Status Report (2013), the rural population depends to a large extent on subsistence agriculture for their livelihoods. However, that is limited by the fact that only (9%) of the land surface is available for arable farming, hence resulting in the country relying heavily on food imports from the RSA as domestic cereal production satisfies only (30%) of the country's food requirements. As of 2006, arable land made up only (9%) of the Country, having declined from 3,134 km² in 1996, with that loss mainly attributable to soil erosion and encroachment by human settlements.

Lesotho is economically classified as a lower-middle-income country, with a per capita income of about US\$1000. Poverty figures indicate that 57.1 per cent of the population lives below the national poverty line³. The NSDP (2012/13-2016/17) estimates that (21.4%) of households (117,309 out of 548,032) are at risk of what it calls 'multi-dimensional poverty', although the government old-age pension scheme that was introduced in 2005 for all citizens aged 70 and above, is acknowledged to have had significant mitigating impact on poverty⁴. The NSDP also mentions that Lesotho's income distribution is unequal with a Gini coefficient of 0.54.

As of 2008, an estimated 608,000 economically active people were employed, while 192,000 were unemployed, thereby representing an unemployment rate of (24%) (NSDP, 2012/13-2016/17). The NSDP further states that 230,000 of those who were employed were in formal wage employment while the rest (71.1%) were employed informally. The numbers of Basotho working in the mining industry of South Africa also declined from 50,000 in 2005 to 41,555 in 2010. Local employment in the Lesotho National Development Corporation (LNDC) assisted firms that dominate the clothing and textiles manufacturing sector also declined from 46,386 in 2009 to 45,595 in 2010 (NSDP, 2012/13-2016/17). The public and private sector wage jobs account for more than half of employment in urban areas, and the World Bank in 2008 praised the textile sector for providing most opportunities for young women migrating from rural areas.

According to the MDG Status Report, the economy of Lesotho grew by (4.3%) (real GDP) in 2013. The Report further observes that excessive dependence on the Southern Africa Customs Union (SACU) receipts, reliance on miners' remittances and textile exports to the

²Legal urban areas are currently 12, but prior to 1986 there were 5 more urban areas (Morija, Roma, Mazonod, Mapoteng and Peka) whose legal status was then removed but urban related water supply and other services were continued, leaving the urban population statistics confused, ranging from 23% to as high as 28%, and the National Strategic Development Plan 2012/13-2016/17 has recommended their re-instatement).

³GOL, Millennium Development Goals Status Report, 2013, April 2014

⁴GOL, National Strategic Development Plan 2012/13-2016/17, 2014

United States of America continue to render the country vulnerable to external shocks. For example, revenue from the SACU has been declining due to global economic and financial crisis, yet a significant proportion of the national budget depends on it, at (53%) in 2012-13; (42%) in 2013-14 and an expected (48%) in 2014-15. According to the NSDP (2012/13-2016/17), the growth of the economy of Lesotho since the 1990s was boosted by strong growth in the construction, mining and textile sectors, which had become the largest sectors of the economy by 2005. However, during the same period, agriculture grew at only half that rate, with its contribution to GDP falling to (15%). Furthermore, remittances from migrant workers as a share of GDP also declined by half, with earnings from domestic employment filling the gap of supporting domestic consumption. For example, since 1990, an estimated 64,000 RSA-based mining wage jobs were lost, while at the same time about 40,000 new jobs were created in the public and the textile sectors locally. The mining sector increased its share of GDP from (0.2%) in 2000 to (7.3%) in 2009/10 (NSDP, 2012/13-2016/17).

1.0 URBAN DEMOGRAPHIC ISSUES AND CHALLENGES FOR THE NEW URBAN AGENDA

1.1 Managing Rapid Urbanisation (540 words)

Like most other African countries, Lesotho is experiencing rapid urban transition with large-scale internal migration to the urban centres, and higher urban than rural population growth rates. The urban population comprised just over (7%) at independence in 1966, but had increased to (22.2%) in 2006 (Table 1). In absolute terms the number of urban dwellers increased from 67 000 in 1966 to 422 000 in 2006. The UN projects that urbanization in Lesotho will rise to (33.4%) by 2026 and to (46.7%) by 2050.⁵ Most of the Country's rural population lives in the lowlands villages, and within less than 2 hours of the nearest urban centre by public transport. Table 1 below illustrates the actual and projected urban population of Lesotho. The urbanization trends are further illustrated in Figure 1.

Table 1: Lesotho Urban Population (actual and projections to 2050)

Year	Total Population	Urban Population	Urban as % of total Population
1966 ²	952 000	67 000	7.0
1976 ¹	1 200 000	117 000	9.8
1986 ¹	1 600 000	183 000	11.4
1996 ¹	1 800 000	312 000	17.3
2006 ¹	1 900 000	422 000	22.2
2016 ²	2 142 000	596 000	27.8
2026 ²	2 344 000	782 000	33.4
2036 ²	2 532 000	987 000	39.0
2046 ²	2 736 000	1 216 000	44.5
2050 ²	2 818 000	1 316 000	46.7

Sources: ¹Lesotho Bureau of Statistics Census Reports

²UN World Urbanisation Prospects 2014

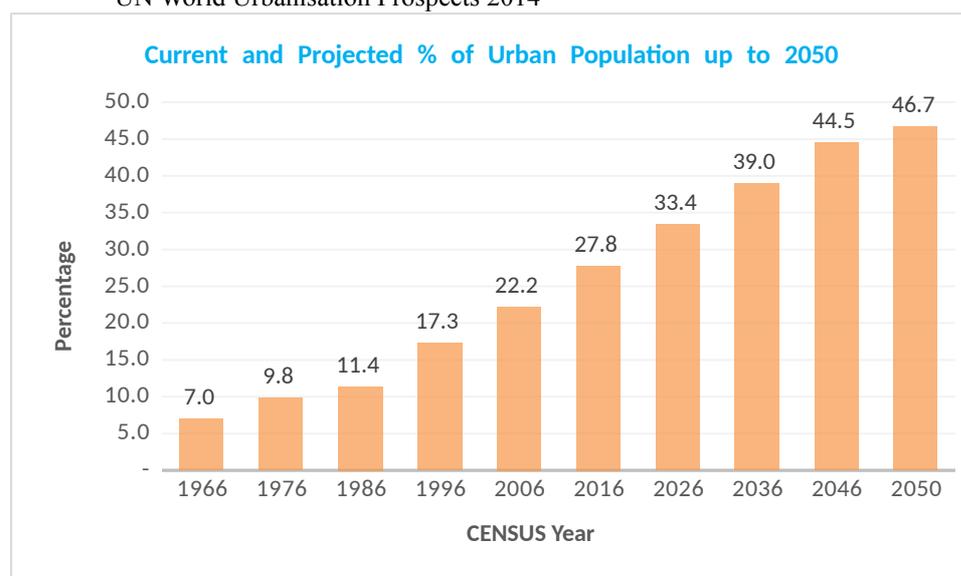


Figure 1: Lesotho Urban Population Trends 1966-2050

⁵UN World Urbanisation Prospects 2014

Lesotho's 9 of the 12 current legal urban centers originated as exclusive administrative centres for the British colonial magistracies and police camps, and were proclaimed in 1905 as 'government reserves'.

Maseru, the capital of Lesotho, is the country's largest urban center, located on the eastern banks of the Caledon (Mohokare) River that borders Lesotho and the Republic of South Africa (RSA). It was originally established after the 1869 Treaty of Aliwal North that established the current boundary between Lesotho and the RSA. During the colonial era that followed, this camp grew to a small town with commercial, educational and health functions.⁶ Major shifts in the face of the city came with independence in 1966 including expanded government facilities, the in-migration of rural families with little prospects of deriving incomes from agriculture, and the expansion of urban socio-economic opportunities. As a result, by 1986, (60%) of Lesotho's urban population lived in Maseru (Table 2), this temporarily dropping to (44%) in 1996 as other urban centers began to grow. However, with the establishment and growth of textile manufacturing in the 1990s, Maseru's primacy was re-established. By 2006, over (46%) of the urban population lived there (Table 2).

Table 2: Population of Urban Centres in Lesotho, 1976-2006

Urban Area	1976	%	1986	%	1996	%	2006	%
Botha-Bothe	7,740	6.4	8,340	4.6	12,610	4.0	14,070	3.3
Hlotse	6,300	5.4	8,080	4.4	23,120	7.4	55,180	13.1
Maputsoe	15,820	13.6	11,200	6.1	27,950	9.0	--	--
Teyateyaneng	8,590	7.4	12,930	7.1	48,870	15.6	61,270	14.5
Maseru	55,030	47.2	109,200	59.6	137,840	44.1	195,300	46.3
Mafeteng	8,200	7.1	12,180	6.6	20,800	6.7	31,760	7.5
Mohale's Hoek	5,200	4.5	7,900	4.3	17,870	5.7	27,690	6.6
Quthing (Moyeni)	3,500	3.0	4,310	2.3	9,860	3.2	13,490	3.2
Qacha's Nek	4,840	4.1	4,600	2.5	4,800	1.5	8,100	1.9
Mokhotlong	1,480	1.3	2,390	1.3	4,270	1.4	8,490	2.0
Thaba-Tseka	--	--	2,150	1.2	4,450	1.4	6,750	1.6
Semonkong	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Total	116,620	100	183,200	100	312,440	100	422,100	100

Source: Leduka (2012: 4)⁷

6D. Ambrose (1993) *Maseru: An Illustrated History*. Morija: Morija Book Printers.

7C. Leduka (2012) "Lesotho Urban Land Market Scoping Study" *Report for Urban LandMark*, ISAS: Roma.

The urban population trends in the years 1976,1986,1996 and 2006 are illustrated further in Figure 2 below:

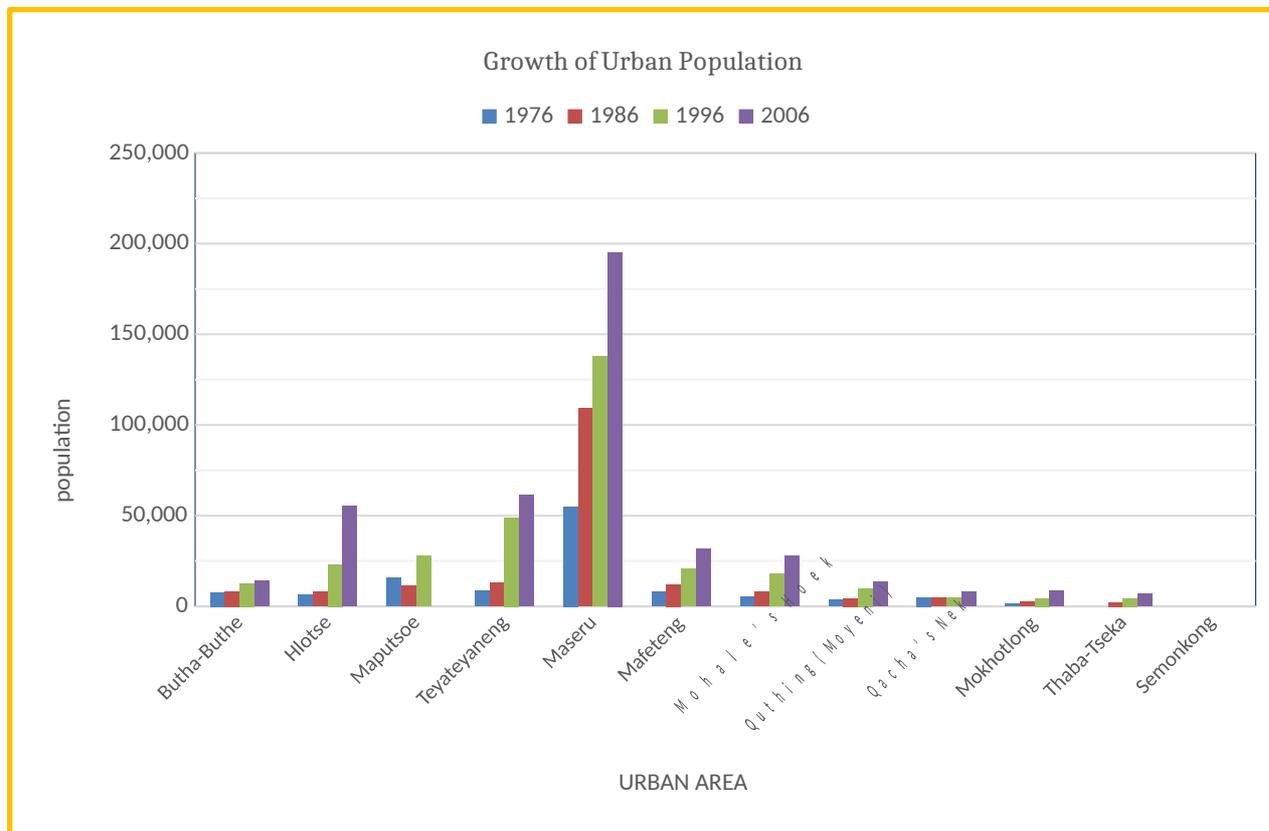


Figure 2: Growth Patterns of Urban Population in Lesotho

Rapid urbanization in Lesotho is driven by a combination of natural increase and rural to urban migration. For example, only (32%) of the population of Maseru have lived in the city since birth. This means that only around 70,000 of the city's residents were actually born in Maseru, and in fact as many as (36%) moved there between 2007 and 2011.

Management of urban growth is the responsibility of Urban Councils for the 11 secondary towns and the Maseru Municipal Council (MMC) for the capital city of Maseru. The councils are also responsible for natural resources management, land and infrastructure, local economic development and social services, as stipulated under section 5 (First Schedule) of the Local Government Act 1997 and shown in Table 3 below:

Table 3: Functions of Municipal/Urban Councils

Natural Resource Management	Land and Infrastructure	Local Economic Development	Social Services
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Environmental Protection • Grazing Control • Water Supply • Forestry 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Physical Planning • Land allocation • Building Permits • Minor Roads • Water Resources • Roads and Traffic • Fencing • Omnibus terminals 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Markets • Promotion of Economic Development • Licenses • Agricultural services • Laundries 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Public health • Streets and public spaces • Burial grounds • Parks and gardens • Fire • Education • Recreation and Culture • Care of mothers, the young, the aged and disabled • Mortuaries and burials of destitute and unclaimed • Public decency

Source: Maseru Municipal Council (in Kapa 2014: 8)

With the exception of the MCC, other smaller urban councils have assumed partial responsibility over some of these statutory functions, with a shared challenge of central government's hold on power. Other challenges faced by the councils include inadequate funding, with allocations often coming late in the year; weak financial management and accounting systems; compounded by the very low revenue base, that is further aggravated by the multiplicity of other revenue collecting agencies.⁸ The government has developed the Decentralisation Policy (2014) with a view to systematically unlock the pervasive challenges of decentralisation including aspects detailed under 5.1 ('Improving municipal /local finance').

Execution of above functions by municipal /urban councils is circumscribed by powers vested in other government agencies. For instance, municipal /urban councils have no authority over the supply of electricity and water in their areas of jurisdiction, which remain the responsibility of government companies – the Lesotho Electricity Company (LEC) and the Water and Sewage Company (WASCO) respectively. This is also true of functions shared by cognate government ministries such as education, recreation and culture, economic development, public health, etc., that have only been de-concentrated to district levels. Coordination between these de-concentrated units and urban councils remains problematic, partly due to lack of policy guidance and lack of technical and institutional capacity in the new councils.

Urban councils currently have limited capacity to manage rapid urban growth as the management of the city and secondary towns, including the most important functions of physical planning and land allocation are divided between several government ministries/departments and other service-providing state companies. Minimal management of rapid urban growth has been through legislation and urban planning policy implementation. Outside Maseru, only Maputsoe, Hlotse and Mohale's Hoek have had so-called structure plans that were meant to manage and direct their growth but with limited success.

⁸Government of the Kingdom of Lesotho (2014) *National Decentralisation Policy*. Maseru: MOLGCPA.

Citizens noted improvements in road infrastructure and schools; emergence of modern residential areas; the emerging appetite of the private estate development sector and the development of two major shopping malls in Maseru, which have created employment opportunities while also raising the economic profile and competitiveness of the city. Above all, they appreciated the establishment of the Ministry of Local Government and of elected Councils.

1.2 Managing Rural-Urban Linkages *(540 words)*

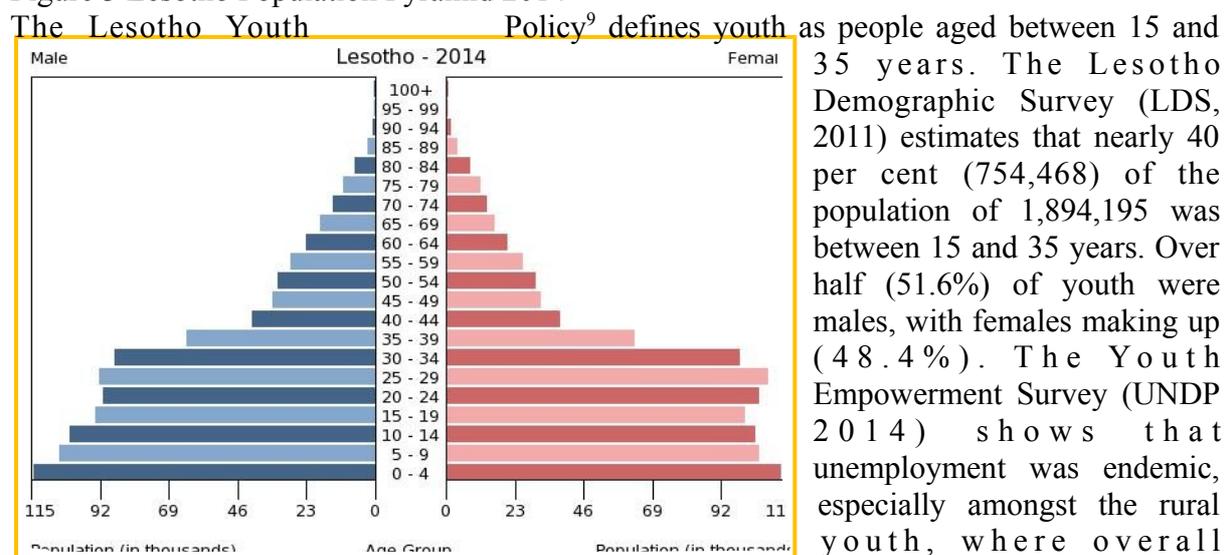
Rural-urban linkages may take a variety of forms, including but not limited to rural-urban migration; urban-rural remittances; urban-rural skills transfer; investment in agriculture and commercial enterprises by urban-based workers, etc. Outside of rural-urban migration, research-based evidence on rural-urban linkages in Lesotho is virtually non-existent, which means that such linkages are not only unknown, but remain untouched by any policy intervention. Nevertheless, evidence from elsewhere suggests that cities have engendered greater innovations in rural agriculture, where cities are natural markets for their rural hinterlands.

As in other African countries, rural-urban migration, trade and remittances are the most predominant forms of rural-urban linkages in Lesotho. Recent studies show significant flows of cash, goods and produce between rural and urban areas. Under Section 3.3 (Reducing Traffic Congestion), it has been noted that Maseru, as the capital and primate city, draws daily work related commuters from as far as Mafeteng (76km south) and Maputsoe (85km north) and over 70km eastwards, with the sphere of influence covering hundreds of villages along these axes. It has emerged in interviews with the Traffic Commissioner that daily commuting has extended as far as 136 km in Botha-Bothe in the north and 178km in Quthing in the South. If people can commute that far in execution of their daily chores, it means that urban-rural linkages are indeed complex and hence specific studies are required to determine the extent of such robust linkages. A new major road link has recently been opened in the south eastern part of Lesotho, that opens up hitherto marginalized communities to the national network of contemporary interaction. This is presented in detail under section 6.6.

City dwellers recognized achievements in the form of expanded coverage of mobile communication services which facilitate electronic funds transfers using mobile technologies; government subsidies to agriculture, which enhance production of crops and livestock in rural and peri-urban areas for consumption in urban centres.

1.3 Addressing Urban Youth Needs (540 words)

Figure 3 Lesotho Population Pyramid 2014



unemployment in 2012 was (30.5%) compared to urban youth unemployment of (29.4%). In terms of residence, majority (73%) of youth were found to be rural, with males dominating at (53.8%), while in urban areas, females predominated at (54.5%). As percentage of overall urban population, youth are believed to constitute over 60 percent of the national urban population.¹⁰

The policy identifies issues of social exclusion and marginalization of youth as related to high rates of youth unemployment, with most finding jobs in the informal sector; high levels of extreme poverty and malnutrition; lack of access to most urban services, including recreational services; high levels of substance abuse and crime; high levels of HIV/AIDS; and non-participation in decision-making processes at all levels of government.¹¹

However, similar to most aspects of urban socio-economic life, urban youth and children have attracted limited research in Lesotho. Consequently, they have generally been excluded from urban policy-making processes and interventions in urban services, housing, employment, education and participation in urban governance and decision-making processes.

Outside the urban realm, a series of initiatives have been undertaken by government and its development partners, particularly the UNDP, to address some youth concerns, especially employment creation. The Youth Employment Project (YEP) was piloted in 2006 to equip urban and rural youth with entrepreneurial training to initiate small businesses. In 2007, the Lesotho Youth Credit Initiative (LYCI) was established to complement the YEP through providing micro-finance for young entrepreneurs. In 2009, the government, again in partnership with the UNDP, established the National Volunteer Corps Project (NVCP) to afford graduates from University and tertiary institutions the opportunity of exposure to the work environment in the public and private sectors, through job attachment. In 2012, both the

⁹Undated

¹⁰UNDP (2014) *Lesotho Youth Empowerment Survey*. UNDP: Maseru

¹¹UN-Habitat (2004) 'Youth, Children and Urban Governance': *UN-HABITAT Global Campaign on Urban Governance Policy Dialogue Series No. 2*. <http://files.tigggroups.org/15232/get-web/Final%20Policy%20Di%20C3%82%60%20Governance.doc>

government and Lesotho National Development Corporation (LNDC) put in place Partial Credit Guarantee Fund/Schemes (PCGFs) to support small, medium and large business entrepreneurs who were unable to access loans from commercial banks due to lack of collateral.¹² The impact of these initiatives on youth employment is still to be assessed.

Another initiative that aimed to address the challenge of unemployment as a result of lack of skills is the partnership between the Ministry of Gender and Youth, Sport and Recreation and the Computer Business Solutions (CBS), a private ICT company, in easing access to ICT training for the youth, with a view to providing them with skills that would increase their employability. The programme was designed to be low cost but identical with that accessed by the youth in Maseru city, as the programme modules' content and delivery were aligned to the International Computer Driving License (ICDL).

Focusing mainly in areas outside metropolitan Maseru, the Ministry provided training venues equipped with the necessary hardware in seven out of ten administrative districts and also recruited resident candidates for training as trainers. CBS provided the training of trainers through customized crash programmes plus continuous technical back-stopping as well as quality assurance.

Citizens participating in consultative workshops acknowledged achievements in the form of introduction of free and compulsory primary education; introduction of secondary schools bursaries; regular subventions to OVC homes; the establishment of sexual and reproductive health services for youth within reproductive health centres; facilitation of local and international adoptions with regular monitoring; the participation of young people in development committees such as those of the Ministry of health; rural development activities that provide short-term employment of citizens including youth as well as child grants for OVCs as well as existence of youth programmes under NGO partners. The GoL also enacted the National Youth Council Act 2008, which entrenched equal representation of elected female and male representatives.

1.4 Responding to the Needs of the Aged (540 words)

The WHO shows that global population of aged people over 60 years was (11%) in 2006 but is expected to grow to (22%) by 2050. Older people are globally increasingly living in cities, especially in developing countries, where there were 56 million old persons in 1998, a figure that is estimated to grow to 908 million by 2050, by which time old persons would constitute (25%) of the urban population in developing cities. Future cities should, therefore, not only be sustainable, but should also be 'age-friendly', by providing older people with 'supportive and enabling living environments to compensate for physical and social changes associated with ageing'¹³. In WHO's terms, age-friendly cities promote active-ageing by encouraging older people to be out and about in the city and engage in the civic life of the cities for as long as possible. They provide, for example, barrier-free buildings and age-friendly streets and pavements with ample sitting and resting areas and secure neighbourhoods. These would not only enhance mobility of older people, but also of people with disabilities, children and young mothers.

¹²Central Bank of Lesotho (2012) 'The Economic Impact of Youth Unemployment in Lesotho: Youth Unemployment is Escalating...' *Economic Review*, #148. www.centralbank.org.ls/publications.

¹³WHO (2007) *Global Age-Friendly Cities: A Guide*. Geneva: WHO.

In line with global trends, the Lesotho Policy for Older Persons defines older persons as those aged 60 years and above. According to census data, the proportion of the elderly population has fluctuated somewhat in the past. In 1986, older persons were (7.3%) of the population, dropping to (6.9%) in 1996, but increasing again to (7.8%) in 2006. The World Economic Forum projections show that by 2025, (10%) of the national population will consist of older persons.¹⁴ Majority of older persons will be female, who have constituted (60%) of older persons since the 1950s. The Lesotho censuses show a sex ratio of 63:100, indicating that for every 100 elderly women there were only 63 elderly men, although the ratio is much higher for the so-called ‘old older’ group or 80 plus.

In 2004, the Government introduced a targeted old-age pension for the purpose of improving the well-being of older persons who were 70 years or older. Over 80,000 older persons receive pension to the value of M500 per month. This is a wholly government funded non-contributory pension scheme that has received positive reviews from various quarters for enhancing the capacity of older persons to care for and support orphans and to improve the nutrition status of their household meals.¹⁵

Older persons in Lesotho also remain economically active until very late in their lives (80 years and beyond). For instance, the Demographic Survey (2011) shows that 3 in 10 of persons aged 60 and above were economically active, with two-thirds of the elderly in the labour force being male. (71%) of the economically active elderly persons were self-employed, mainly as subsistence farmers. Labour force participation rates were also found to be similar in urban and rural areas, but higher among males in rural areas.¹⁶ The Lesotho (draft) Policy for Older Persons (2014) recognizes the rights of older persons with respect to infrastructure by acknowledging that older persons are often physically challenged hence the need to ensure that public buildings are accessible to them, through age-friendly designs of buildings, transport facilities and other infrastructure; and that in terms of housing and shelter, the policy aims at promoting access to and maintenance of safe and age-friendly housing for older persons.

Citizens recognized achievements in the form of the establishment of the Ministry of Social Development, which provides elderly services; the introduction of Old Age Pensions and the Old Age Policy.

1.5 Integrating Gender in Urban Development (540 words)

With the exception of the youth population cohort (15-35 years), a significant feature of the population of Lesotho across all age-groups is the greater number of females than males. These differences are likely to be the result of higher infant mortality for males and risky lifestyles than traditional labour migration of males to the South African mining and construction industries. Table 5 below shows the most recent statistics for gender characteristics of heads of households in Lesotho.

¹⁴World Economic Forum (2012) Global Population Ageing: Peril or Promise. http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_GAC_GlobalPopulationAgeing_Report_2012.pdf.

¹⁵ Government of the Kingdom of Lesotho (2014) *The National Policy Document on Social Development*. Maseru: Ministry of Social Development; Government of the Kingdom of Lesotho (2014) *National Social Protection Strategy*. Maseru: Ministry of Social Development.

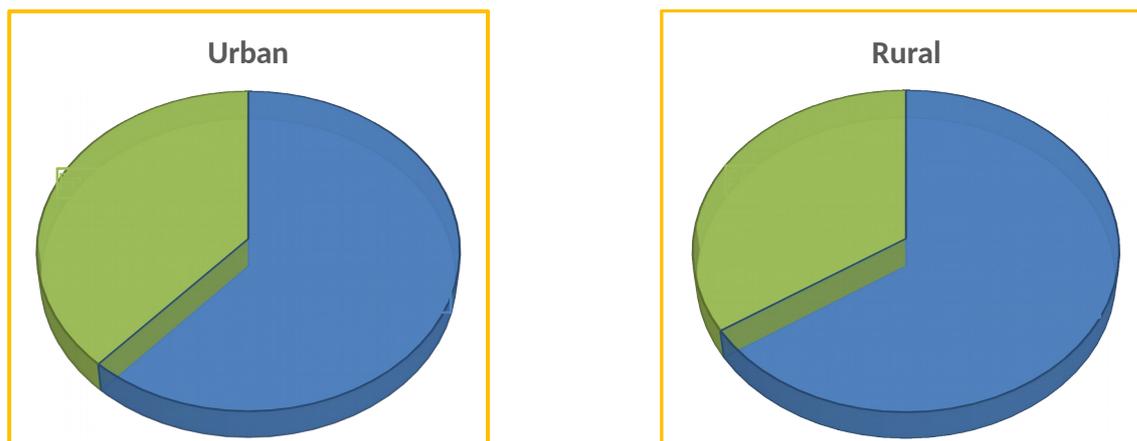
¹⁶Government of the Kingdom of Lesotho (2014) (Draft) *Policy for Older Persons*. Maseru: MSD.

Table 5: Sex of Heads of Households by Residence in 2013

Location	Male		Female		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Urban	82 521	61.7	51 243	38.3	133 764	35.0
Rural	163 575	65.7	85 358	34.3	248 933	65.0
Total	246 095	63.3	136 601	35.7	382 696	100.0

Source: CMS as quoted in Lesotho Urban Housing Profile

Figure 4: Comparison of the Numbers of Heads of Households by Gender in Urban and Rural Areas.



The above show there were twice as many male-headed households in urban areas as there were female-headed households. This is a higher proportion than would be expected given the greater number of females in the population. It is possible that the proportion of female-headed households would be higher if male migrants were not considered as heads even in their absolute absence, because of cleavage to cultural norms. This situation may have some implications on decisional powers and quality of livelihoods.

In regional and urban planning, gender mainstreaming invokes awareness of the varying types of living situations and interests of women and men who live in a variety of every-day worlds and inter-relationships, as well as other groups of people, children, youth and the aged. Thus gender specific differences must be considered in the planning and use of urban spaces to ensure that gender-specific requirements of safety, security and convenience, among other things, are catered for. For instance, women constitute significant proportions of the city population that produces food and feeds city populations; are often a majority of informal sector workers, especially in trade, whilst also caring for the home. Therefore, gender-sensitive urban planning must explicitly address these varying needs of the different gender groups, including creating spaces that allow for gender equality in issues of women's empowerment, civic engagement, participation in governance¹⁷, and issues of housing and security of tenure.

Under Lesotho's customary law, women cannot own fixed property, including land as of right, but can only do so through their husbands. However, the Legal Capacity of Married Persons Act 2006 removed these and related restrictions, although citizens attending consultative workshops reported that some Basotho citizens resisted these reforms. The Land Act 2010 also removes the discriminatory barrier of access to land by married women and widows, contained in the Land Act 1979, thus giving everybody equal access to land and related transactions including tenure security and inheritance of land.

In terms of housing, the 2005 Cities Without Slums survey shows that (70%) of women who were interviewed lived in rented accommodation with shared toilet and water facilities. Densities were found to be very high in plots where most women rented accommodation, with an average of 20 families found to be sharing a single toilet and water facility. The other (30%) lived in high quality housing with flush toilets, electricity and potable water. Majority of women who lived in high quality housing were found to be owner-occupiers.¹⁸

In terms of participation in governance, and as also alluded to in the 'Improving participation and human rights in urban development' section (4.3), there is significant representation of women in local government in Lesotho, as the policy is that one-third of special council seats be reserved for women. The candidates are drawn in a form of party list, which is additional to seats determined from the electoral divisions in a council. As of 2015, (49%) of councillors are women. That notwithstanding, there are no policies that specifically address gender issues in urban development in the sense that would be conveyed by the precepts of gender mainstreaming. However, the

¹⁷Lee-Smith, D & Stren, R. (1991) New Perspectives on African Urban Management. Environment and Urbanisation, 3(1), p.30-33.

¹⁸Silitshena, R. M.K & Kabi, M. (2005) *Cities without Slums Programme: Maseru Situational Analysis*. Maseru: Ministry of Local Government.

Decentralisation Policy and the Local Government Act 1997(as amended) recognise the need for participation of women in urban development matters.

Citizens acknowledged achievements with regard to the establishment of the Ministry of Gender and Youth, Sport and Recreation; the adoption of the Gender and Development Policy ; the establishment of the Child and Gender Protection Unit within the police service and the enactment of the Legal Capacity of Married Persons Act 2006 as well as the Land Act 2010, all of which have improved the safety and development opportunities for women. Although not mentioned by citizens, another significant achievement has been the establishment of a ‘safe shelter’ for victims of domestic violence in Maseru.

1.6 Challenges Experienced and Lessons Learnt in these Areas (730 words)

The tendency of ad hoc shifts in the determination of urban centres has rendered the establishment of urbanisation in Lesotho confusing, with the rates ranging from (23%) to (25%) (NSDP) and as high as (28%) (World Bank and UNDP). In the same manner, the calculation of Maseru urban population, stated as 195 300 in table 2, is also quoted by MCC Strategic Plan as 227 880 under section 3.3 of this report for the same period, 2006.

The management of urban growth is now the responsibility of urban councils across the country. However, with the exception of the capital city, urban councils are very recent. They are therefore, inexperienced and lack sufficient resources to implement policies and manage urban growth. Although the new councils possess sufficient planning staff, the enduring challenge remains lack of adequate skills to plan and manage the city and towns and financial resources to discharge their mandates. Yet another enduring problem is the multiplicity of claims over planning and land management functions of urban authorities by central government ministries and departments within and outside the Ministry of Local Government.

Youth are a significant component of the national population of Lesotho, constituting about (40%) . Majority of youth (73%), live in rural areas, with less than (30%) living in urban areas. However, data on the livelihoods and well-being of youth is scarce. The trend and ensuing challenge facing youth is not only unemployment, but also increasing numbers of youth and children who work and live on the streets. A serious policy vacuum exists here in terms of urban planning. A challenge also exists in terms of youth facilities, including dearth of recreational facilities. And similar to older persons, youth have significantly been marginalised from policy-making processes at all levels. It may be appropriate to ask if urban youth should be addressed as a specific socio- economic group that warrants specific policy and programmes, or whether the concerns of youth are broadly similar to those of the urban population at large and therefore, should be addressed through general policy interventions . In the majority of policy instances, it may be that there is little rationale in differentiating between youth and the rest of the population .For example, improved access to housing services for the general population would equally benefit the youth .In terms of employment, expanded employment opportunities are also likely to benefit the youth .That notwithstanding, there are distinctive areas for policy intervention that would clearly benefit the youth, such as education and skills training, as well as exposure to the world of work.

There are significant social policies relating to old persons in Lesotho but these are outside the realm of urban planning. There are currently no urban policies that directly target the elderly. As such old persons remain an invisible part of the urban population that also rarely participates in the civic life of cities. Facilities meant to cater for the needs of old persons are also non-existent. For instance, there are neither sitting facilities along street pavements where old persons can regularly rest nor are street pavements good enough to allow the elderly to walk unassisted. Access to developed city parks in Maseru is also often tightly regulated. Most public buildings and shopping areas are inaccessible to older persons and rarely provide dedicated facilities for them.

City dwellers raised the following issues in relation to the challenges experienced and lessons learnt :

Managing rapid urbanization

- The citizens raised concern about poor implementation of policies and law enforcement, which were compounded by poor settlement planning. They also noted inadequate delivery of housing land, which led to encroachment on agricultural land and unplanned settlements.

Managing rural-urban Linkages

- There is a challenge of poor planning and development of roads infrastructure, the high cost of road maintenance and high cost of improving communication due to the country's mountainous terrain.

Addressing urban youth needs (including OVCs).

- Street children phenomenon has surfaced in Lesotho including unfamiliar urban youth culture. The youth feature high in high rates of unemployment. Recreational facilities are inadequate and access to sport facilities is limited. There are no effective strategies to bring back the street children to home life. The National Youth Council, established to facilitate youth participation in governance, is in-effective.

Responding to the needs of the Aged:

- The elderly qualify for pension too late at 70 years while public servants qualify at 60 years. The elderly walk long distances to collect their grants. Crime against the elderly is on the rise. The elderly are subjected to theft, rape and murder, financial abuse and exploitation, poor housing, poverty, property grabbing limited access to services and lack of recreational facilities for their age. There are also limited homes for older persons.

Integrating gender in Urban Development:

- Obsolete customary 'Laws of Leretholi' still prevalent and in contradiction to new laws; and high unemployment among adult men perpetuates challenges to constructing /buying own homes.

1.7 Future Challenges and Issues in these Areas (1-5) that could be Addressed by a New Urban Agenda (540 words)

Inclusive urban planning policies that take into account the needs of older persons and youth will need to be formulated, including participation of all in formulating urban policies and programmes. The advent of urban local authorities should facilitate this dispensation as well as decentralisation of planning responsibilities to urban councils and resources being made available for implementation and management to take place.

Citizens, on their part, expressed the need for decentralised services and markets, and the need to establish several youth clubs. They also advocated for handicrafts training and start-up capital for new youth enterprises; improved access to health and transport services; subsidization of basic services for older persons and adoption of 60 years as pensionable age instead of 70 years.

2.0 LAND AND URBAN PLANNING: ISSUES AND CHALLENGES FOR A NEW URBAN AGENDA

2.1 Ensuring Sustainable Urban Planning and Design (540 words)

National spatial planning in Lesotho started soon after independence in 1966, and continued sporadically until 1990 when the comprehensive National Settlement Policy was adopted, after 5 years of preparation. At the local level, a series of plans for Maseru have been prepared since, with the most significant plan being the Maseru Development Plan of 1990. Various plans have also been prepared for Maputsoe, Hlotse and Molele's Hoek. However, none of these plans have been effectively implemented. A new plan for Maseru was prepared in 2010 but is yet to be formally adopted. The Decentralisation Policy talks about the promotion of physical planning and urbanization, and it is hoped that its implementation will indeed support urban planning. Some of these plans are briefly reviewed below.

The Maseru Development Plan (MDP)

The Maseru Development Plan (MDP) was prepared under the provisions of Section 5 of the Town and Country Planning Act 1980, which came into effect in June 1984. The Act establishes a Town and Country Planning Board for purposes of examining and approving development plans and making recommendations to the Minister on the plans submitted to it for his/her approval. Once approved by the Minister, a development plan becomes a legally binding document under which all development of land within the area to which it applies has to conform. The MDP was duly approved in 1994 for implementation by the Maseru City Council (MCC), which had been established in 1989.

The objectives of the MDP that are relevant here are:

- To minimise urban growth on agricultural land and at the same time safeguard the latter in order to facilitate its rational use;
- To preserve and improve the city's aesthetic values and the environmental character of Maseru; and
- To provide the Maseru City Council and any other responsible authority with a basis for development control.¹⁹

Some of these general objectives were subsequently elaborated in more detailed area-specific local plans such as the Maseru CBD West and East local plans. The overall Plan applies to the designated 'Planning Area for Maseru', consisting of Maseru Urban Area as legally declared in 1980, and adjacent areas comprising of the Qeme Plateau, Thotá Moli (International Airport) and Mazenod.

¹⁹LSPP (1990) *Maseru Development Plan Vol. II -Development Proposals*. Maseru: LSPP, p. 32.

Areas outside the gazetted urban boundaries were to be subject only to development control provisions, with no detailed plans, while for areas inside the urban boundaries; development control was to be on the basis of the MDP, supported by detailed area specific local plans, such as the CBD-West Local Plans.

The Maseru Urban Planning and Transport Study (MUPT)

The Maseru Urban Planning and Transport Study (MUPT Study) was carried out under the auspices of the Integrated Transport Program of the Ministry of Public Works and Transport that was assisted by the World Bank. The planning part of the study proposes the following planning frameworks for Maseru:

- Vision for Maseru;
- Integrated Strategic and Spatial Development Framework (SDF);
- Framework for a Local Economic Development Plan (LED) for Maseru;
- Action planning frameworks for:
 - i) Integrated Industrial development nodes;
 - ii) Development of brown field/derelict inner-city land;
 - iii) Mobility and service needs for older persons and people with disabilities; and
- Transportation Investment Plan.

The MUPT Study framework and recommendations were premised on the assumption that the Town and Country Planning Bill of 2004 would have become law by 2011. This is because SDFs are provided for under the 2004 Bill, but not in the 1980 Town and Country Planning Act. In the main, the SDF and Maseru City Vision propose bold recommendations on urban growth management, especially strategies for the containment of urban sprawl. The plan is still to be adopted and then followed by effective implementation.

2.2 Improving Urban Land Management, Including Addressing Urban Sprawl (540 words)

Policy responses by government have largely taken the form of legislation aimed to solve urban land administration problems and restore order to urban development. The first attempt at such legislation was in 1973, with the enactment of the Land Act 1973 and the Administration of Lands Act 1973.

The Land Act 1973 and the Administration of Lands Act 1973 were subsequently merged to create the Land Act 1979. Although significantly increasing security of tenure, the Land Act 1979's poor implementation failed to bring about the anticipated order in urban land administration and development. It failed to deliver enough land to meet the demand for urban housing by majority of urban residents, hence resulting in the mushrooming of informal peri-urban settlements and along the main transport corridors. The latest Land Act 2010 and the Land Administration Authority Act 2010 have all been aimed at addressing the shortcomings of the Land Act 1979. The 2010 Acts also enable urban development through modernization of land administration, settlements regularization and promotion of land markets.

Under the Land Act 2010, land allocation is through a land allocation committee of each local authority. These committees comprise of councilors and officers and have replaced those established under the repealed Land Act 1979. Besides new allocations, the council land committees can also

regularize allocations made under the customary system, and assist those seeking formal registration of their urban plots.

Systematic title regularization is arguably the most significant land management innovation that has been introduced by the Land Act 2010 and is likely to change the nature of urban development and land market activity in Lesotho. Regularization (in effect mass titling) is provided for in Part XI of the Land Act 2010 and detailed further in the Systematic Regularisation Regulations 2010. It facilitates retrospective legalisation of informal land allocations. Regularisation is defined in the Act to mean one or both of the following:

- i) the process of surveying, planning, adjudicating and registering the boundaries and rights associated with a parcel of land informally occupied or;
- ii) readjustment of boundaries for the purpose of town planning (Land Act 2010: Part I)²⁰

Regularisation schemes are prepared by the Commissioner of Lands²¹ following consultations with respective local authorities and for approval by the Minister for Lands. To-date, a regularisation scheme of over 50,000 land parcels has been completed, covering Maseru, Maseru, Maseru, Maseru and Maseru. This mass titling scheme follows a one-year pilot project that set up the required processes and systems including the titling of 5,000 in the Maseru informal settlement areas. Fraudulent Form Cs, old Title Deeds and uncontested physical occupations were all accepted as evidence of legitimate claims to land. Regularisation is provided free of charge, except for minimal stamp duty fees. From planning and settlement upgrading point of view, the way the regularization was done – titling land parcels in-situ without planning adjustment, becomes prejudicial to the future upgrading schemes in terms of costs²².

The Government of Lesotho also supports various levels of local government in their mandate in land allocation and land management through providing technical assistance to councils. A notable achievement is the Technical Manual on Land Use and Settlement Planning, which aims to assist orderly growth and development of human settlements, reduce and ultimately eliminate unauthorized, unplanned and haphazard settlements development and the resultant encroachments on the limited agricultural lands and the destruction of wetlands, watersheds, waterways and other sensitive ecosystems²³.

²⁰A narrower definition of regularisation in the context of Lesotho is offered by Sean and Matela (undated) as: ‘a process that adjudicates existing land rights and landholdings and converts informal or irregular landholdings into leases’.

²¹Although the Land Act 2010 and its various regulations make reference to the Commissioner of Lands for purposes of implementation, the actual implementing agency is the Land Administration Authority which has a Director of Leases for purposes of executing all activities and undertaking all duties that the law currently assigns to the Commissioner of Lands. The position of the Commissioner of Lands remains a statutory position within the Ministry of Local Government and Chieftainship with no direct role in land administration anymore. It is widely anticipated that the Land Act 2010 is likely to be amended to reflect this state of affairs.

²²Leduka, .R. C. (2011) Urban Development and Shelter Sector’. National Development Plan Support. Maseru: Ministry of Finance and Development Planning.

²³Ministry of Local Government, Chieftainship and Parliamentary Affairs (2009) *Technical Manual for Land Use and Settlement Planning*. Maseru: MLGCPA

However, despite the Land Act 2010 and the organisational structures of land administration that it created, the management of urban land remains chaotic, with numerous agencies and government ministries and departments continuing to have a stake in land matters. The 2000 Land Policy Review Commission for instance, noted that the management of land was the responsibility of no less than nine different government agencies, each making decisions independently. For example, Land Use Planning, which was until recently located in the Ministry of Agriculture; the Directorate of Lands, Surveys and Physical Planning the lands and surveys part of the former LSPP now partially form the Land Administration Authority – LAA, along with the Deeds Registry, which was moved from the Ministry of Justice and Human Rights; the Ministry of Public Works and Transport; Trade and Industry; Natural Resources; Tourism, Sports and Culture; Environment, Gender and Youth Affairs; Education; Finance; Maseru Municipal Council (MMC) and the Lesotho Housing and Land Development Corporation (Ramodibedi, 2000).

Outside direct land laws, a series of planning and planning-related legislation pieces were also passed, also aimed at facilitating urban physical planning and management. These are the Town and Country Planning Act 1980 and its subsidiary legislation, namely, the Town and Country Planning (Development) (Amendment) Regulations 1993; Town and Country Planning (Land Use and Building Use Classes) Order 1991; Town and Country Planning (Control of Advertisement) Regulations 1991. Other closely related laws include the Building Control Act 1995 (and its regulations) and the Local Government Act 1997 (as amended). There is also in draft form, a new Town and Country Planning Bill 2004, which is yet to be made law.

Some of the draft Town and Country Planning Bill's salient points are the following:

- In contrast to the Town and Country Planning Act 1980, which is strongly oriented towards the control of development, the 2004 Bill leans heavily towards development facilitation and negotiated planning through instruments such as planning agreements and the exclusion of minor developments from the need to obtain planning permission.
- It recognizes the need to involve other actors in *doing* planning due to inherent lack of capacity in local authorities (e.g. engaging private consultants to prepare spatial plans).
- It makes reference to spatial development plans, which are meant to replace the rigid old-style master/development plans. Spatial plans imply change, movement, transformation and planning with markets.
- Unlike the 1980 Act, the 2004 Bill stresses the requirement for public participation much more explicitly by requiring a formal report on the participation processes, as well as building in a system of participatory plan review.

2.3 Enhancing Urban and Peri-urban Food Production (540 words)

GoL has no clear policy on urban agriculture and there has been a tendency for urban governments to rule the sector out of the range of urban land uses promoted within the purview of urban jurisdictions. That notwithstanding, as will be observed in subsequent paragraphs, many households are engaged in urban agriculture and many are now receiving, on a competitive government project assistance basis, financial support ranging from US\$1 000 – 10 000 for small grants to >US\$10 000 – 30 000 for medium size projects, through the Smallholder Agricultural Development Project, under the Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security, funded by the World Bank, IFAD and GoL, for the

purpose of improving marketed output in crops and livestock in the districts of Botha –Bothe, Leribe, Berea and Mafeteng. In addition, and in collaboration with the Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security, the Ministry of Industry and Trade, Cooperatives and Marketing is seized with another project designed to develop national capacity in production and marketing of high value fresh fruits and vegetables for local and external markets by smallholders, with the Ministry, under assistance of the International Trade Centre, providing (90%) subsidy for the acquisition of Greenhouse Farmers' Kits and Hail Net Supply Kits including training in the application of the technology and other relevant software interventions. This latter intervention targets the lowland districts of Mafeteng, Maseru, Berea and Leribe , which have the most developed marketing infrastructure and are most densely populated areas and well as better endowed with arable land.

While not deliberately targeting urban areas, interventions have supported innovative projects in vegetable production through financing of tunnels, green houses and shade-nets; commercial production of piglets and piggery farming; hatcheries for layers; slaughter plants for poultry and pigs ; bee-keeping ; grain- milling ; fruit-drying and juice extraction. The projects are by their nature land intensive, rendering them suited to urban scale agriculture. The applicants for the grants must be registered, either as companies or co-operatives and hold a trader's licence related to agriculture because as part of capacity building for entrepreneurial development, the grant funds are paid into the enterprise account for ease of monitoring. Joint multi-sectoral project management committees have been set up to ensure that the programme has broad support in relation, for instance, to public health requirements, land allocation and town planning controls , environmental standards ,trade and marketing, etc.

The urban agricultural census of 1999/2000 shows that a significant number of urban households (46,811) were engaged in urban farming of either livestock or crops. The census reported 44,813 cows in Lesotho's towns, with (45%) being kept for the production of milk. Egg production was also found to be significant, with over 500,000 dozens of eggs produced per year, (70%) of which were sold to institutions, (16%) to individuals and (5%) used for own consumption. Substantial broiler chicken, totaling 1.7 million birds, were raised per annum and sold to individuals and institutions. A variety of vegetables were also found, ranging from cabbage, spinach, carrots, turnip, etc. as well as fruit trees. The total value of urban vegetable crops produced in the 1991/92 summer season was approximately M48,500,000 and in the winter season M10,500,000. In the same farming season, a total of 92,700 tonnes of cereal crops were harvested, with a total value of approximately M106,605,000 (BOS, 2002).

The picture of urban farming makes even better sense if looked at within the confines of an individual urban area. For Maseru at least, data show that as the city expanded, arable land declined from (31%) of the total land within the urban boundary in 1989 to only (7%) in 2000. In 2000, it was estimated that over 26,000 or (28%) of households in Maseru were engaged in one form of agriculture or another and that, of those, 1,500 or (6%) considered urban agriculture as their main source of income. Two-thirds of household members in urban agriculture households contributed labour to this activity. In addition, over 1,000 labourers were hired for planting and over 8,000 for weeding in the city.²⁴

²⁴Bureau of Statistics (2012) *Lesotho Agricultural Census 2009/10 Vol. III: Urban Crops and Livestock*. Maseru.

Most of the products of city agriculture provide supplementary diets. However, the surplus is often sold to street vendors and to non-producing households. Commercial poultry and eggs and milk are often sold at the farm-gate although some of the farmers supply a few commercial outlets. Most peri-urban farming is undertaken by urban-based middle and high-income households – the so-called *lifestyle* or *hobby* farmers. The motives and strategies of peri-urban lifestyle farmers are yet to be understood, as is their contribution towards feeding cities in Lesotho. However, only (2%) of households surveyed reported obtaining any income from the sale of urban agricultural products.

In Maseru, (31%) of the surveyed households had gardens, a higher proportion than in any other city. Only (8%) had fields and (9%) had livestock. However, only (20%) said that they regularly (at least once a week) ate home-grown produce. Nearly a third of households said they were partly or totally dependent on garden crops, compared with less than (10%) who said they depended on field crops, tree crops or livestock. The survey also found that (47%) of households grew some of the food they consumed.

Anecdotal evidence suggests that as a result of urban and peri-urban farming, Maseru experiences a high level of import substitution as produce flows in from local producers, including from producers throughout Lesotho's lowlands. However, there is as yet very little integration between urban and peri-urban agriculture and other activity sectors in the urban economy, often forcing towns to continue to heavily rely on imports of agricultural products from South Africa.

The downside of urban farming has been found to be heavy demands on scarce water and sometimes electricity. Home gardens and intensive livestock rearing, particularly poultry, were found to compete for processed water with the city's population. In peri-urban areas, where water supply infrastructure is still low, it is difficult to engage in agricultural activities during drought periods (BOS, 2002).

In Maseru, intensive crop agriculture and its use of pesticides could also be associated with chemical pollution, especially in the catchments of Maqalika Dam, the main water supply reservoir of Maseru City located where the built-up area forms the catchment. Livestock production in backyards or at holdings within the built-up areas tends to be associated with air pollution, offensive smells, rodent and fly infestations, undesirable waste residues and associated parasitic infections and other hygiene problems.

2.4 Addressing Urban Mobility Challenges (540 words)

So far the only town where comprehensive data on transport and mobility is available is Maseru, the capital. There is prevalence of pedestrians – an outcome of poor public transport that often compels people to walk some distance to a bus/taxi stop or final destination. Recent figures here show that (46%) of the population are pedestrians, (40%) are public transport users, (10%) are own-car users, and (4%) use other means. Majority of pedestrians and public transport users are considered as poor. However, according to the Maseru Urban Planning and Transport Study (MUPTS) of 2010, dedicated pedestrian facilities by way of protected sidewalks and road crossings are lacking.

Public transport is provided by taxis (15-seaters), 4+1 cars and conventional buses. Taxis are the dominant form of transport, accounting for (74%) of all users of motorised transport in Maseru. Public transport fares are too high, with low paid workers in Maseru spending (20%) of their income

on transport, and this proportion increasing to (30%) for the lowest earning households. Although comparable to some cities in the Third World, cities such as Dar-es-Salaam and Buenos Aires, where poor households spend (20 – 30%) of their disposable incomes on transport, these fares are unaffordable and unsustainable, and perhaps explain why the majority of the lowly paid masses are pedestrians.

Mobility problems by the poor are compounded by urban sprawl and inadequate public transportation system. The urban poor and new migrants to the cities and towns are often located on the urban periphery where transport is mostly limited and expensive. They often have to make trade-offs between food, transport fares and walking long distances to work and essential services. Evidence shows, however, that improved mobility can enhance access to education and health facilities, and can also facilitate access to employment and social trips (to friends and relatives). All these possibilities are hampered in the case of Lesotho urban areas, especially the capital, because of:

- Long commutes to the CBD from the periphery, with distances increasing consistently away from the city centers as urban sprawl burgeons further outwards;
- Employment opportunities and services that are concentrated in and around the town centers;
- Lack of safe and comfortable pedestrian facilities; and
- High transport fares and low level of public transport services.

In accordance with its Strategic Plan, the MCC has set as one of its priorities, improvement of the deteriorating state of peri-urban roads with a target of 3km/ward for its 13 Council wards, excluding on-going roads construction or reconstruction mostly in the peri-urban areas. The Urban Development Services of the Ministry of Local Government also budgets for at least 10km of urban roads upgrading on an annual basis. With at least 1 365 (15-seater) taxis and 1 428 (4+1) cabs for Maseru alone, coupled with roads improvements and construction of new traffic-circles in Maseru, authorities are maintaining attention to keep the city mobile. Investment needs for broadening travel modes and creating space for pedestrians, including people with special needs, are articulated in the Maseru Urban Planning and Transportation Study.

Three important traffic by-pass roads, ostensibly intended to facilitate mobility and minimise traffic congestion were built, two in Maseru, Mpilo Boulevard which runs parallel to Kingsway, the main street, and Kofi Anan Road, which scours the south of the city. One other by-pass was built in Mhales'hoek in the south of Lesotho, while yet another by-pass to the north of Maseru city remains on the drawing board. Yet another eastern cross-link to the northern and southern corridors was constructed to avoid non-CBD bound traffic entering the city.

2.5 Improving Technical Capacity to Plan and Manage Cities (540 words)

The mandate to plan and manage cities was vested in the Physical Planning Division of the Department of Lands, Surveys and Physical Planning under the Ministry of Local Government and Chieftainship. The division is mandated to provide a full physical planning (town and regional planning) service in Lesotho. In recent years, local authorities have been formed and Assistant Physical Planners deployed to all community councils. Nevertheless, the planners lack most of the requisite skills to facilitate delivery on the mandate. At the central level, the division is not adequately resourced in terms of equipment, staff numbers, skills and finance to enable effective

planning at this level. If the function is to deliver as expected, it needs to be given more attention in terms of resourcing, institutional review and capacity building.

The Decentralisation Policy (2014) promises to empower local authorities to manage urban planning and urbanization in general (see Section 4.2, Decentralisation and strengthening of local authorities), and together with the National Strategic Development Plan (NSDP) 2012/13-2016/17, some action plans have been proposed which, if effectively implemented, will improve technical capacity to plan and manage cities, towns and settlements.

2.6 Challenges Experienced and Lessons Learnt in these Areas (730 words)

The Land Act 2010 and its associated regulations have significantly changed the land administration face of Lesotho. It has introduced significant institutional reforms in the form of a quasi-governmental Land Administration Authority (LAA), which has significantly improved the land registration process by way of reducing the turn-around time for preparation of land titles. Through the on-going title regularization scheme, a significant proportion of urban properties now have formal titles. This has increased tenure security and also the potential to kick-start formal land market processes that were not possible without formal property titles.

Although various land and planning laws have been enacted to facilitate land management and urban planning, there has been limited success to fully enforce the legislation that is in place, as well as a slow pace in updating other outdated pieces of legislation.

International experience suggests that the success of planning depends on politically strong, independent and adequately resourced local government. Urban local government in Lesotho is not only new, but lacks resources of all types with most decisions still centralized. For example, the MCC, which is the oldest urban local authority in Lesotho, still has a budget that is barely sufficient to cover recurrent expenditure, with virtually nothing left for capital expenditure and investment, and has limited prospects for increased revenues outside direct transfers from central government.

The key challenge faced is that the urban settlements are largely unplanned and where formal urban planning has occurred, there has been limited involvement of the urban population, with assumption that the plans would be voluntarily supported upon implementation. However, the logic of urban growth has had very little to do with prepared plans and programs. A new approach is therefore required and there are numerous examples that may be emulated locally and elsewhere.

Lesotho's towns are significantly pedestrian towns, with most people and school children often walking long distances to and from work/school. However, mobility and transport requirements of this urban population, often also the poorest, are yet to become a focus of planning. For the capital city Maseru, comprehensive planning proposals for the mobility and transport needs of the urban poor and other public transport disadvantaged groups (such as people with disabilities) have been made in the recently completed Maseru Urban Planning and Transport Study (MUPTS)(2010). These proposals can easily be replicated in reduced form in other smaller towns of Lesotho. However, similar to previous plans for the city, the MUPTS is yet to be formally adopted as a working policy for Maseru.

2.7 Future Challenges and Issues in These Areas That could be Addressed by a New Urban Agenda (730 words)

The main challenge is to contain informal settlements and urban sprawl that has threatened agricultural land around major urban centres in Lesotho. The people need well planned settlements with roads, sanitation and street lights. There is also need for the various government agencies with a stake in land and urban planning to collaborate in carrying out their mandates and also to rectify past mistakes.

Outside conventional regularization, upgrading and site-and-services that have taken place in some form in Lesotho, promising approaches, especially for the management of peri-urban development, include land readjustment/pooling. This involves the assembly of small peri-urban land parcels into large land parcels, planning and providing infrastructure and then returning the readjusted/pooled land to the land owners after deducting the cost of infrastructure provision from the sale of some serviced land.

Opportunities also exist for densification/up-zoning in the inner areas of all urban centres in Lesotho, in which the public sector (government) owns extensive land with superior infrastructure, but under extremely low density development. It might be appropriate to consider making this land available for development at higher densities, taking advantage of the Sectional Titles legislation to push for high density development. This may occur through outright sale of such land or development in partnership with the private profit and not-for-profit sectors.

Government will consider adoption of Maseru Urban Planning and Transport Study for the city of Maseru while also adapting the strategy for application in other urban centres. However, the implementation of the MUPT Study strategy will need to take account of the long distance commuters to Maseru, that the study itself neglected. Attention will also be accorded urban mobility with a view to making the city a home for all, including people with disabilities, with improved safety and access to services. Further, a comprehensive study of Lesotho's rural-urban divide is necessary to fully understand the spatial development challenges of the country, rendering the entire country a virtual cohesive fabric.

Government will consider update and enactment of the Town and Country Planning Bill(2004), as well as rationalizing the institutional set up for effective land management and urban planning, including improvement of peri-urban settlements. Government will also enhance public participation with a view to ensuring ownership and success of development schemes and management of land related conflicts. Given the scarcity of job opportunities in Lesotho and the challenge of the country's heavy dependence on imported food stuffs as well as the impact of climate change on traditional rural productivity, support will be extended to urban agriculture to promote food security, to preserve agriculture and arable land and also ensure urban agricultural activities are carried out within regulation and without aggravating pollution. This agenda necessitates alignment of skills and resources to maximise opportunities for success.

Habitat partners have emphasised the need for sharing of experiences and knowledge between the public and the private sector actors to enrich interventions in various areas. It is also evident that the divide between agriculture and urbanization, particularly in peri-urban fringes is becoming invisible

and given the productivity of smallholders, future urban agenda should define the space for urban agriculture.

3.0 ENVIRONMENT AND URBANISATION: ISSUES AND CHALLENGES FOR A NEW URBAN AGENDA

3.1 Addressing Climate Change (540 words)

The ‘Climate Change’ issues in Lesotho are easier understood by broader public when presented in terms of observable climatic changes that adversely affect agriculture through frequent droughts, heavy storms with floods in wet summers, and corresponding heavy snowfalls in the highlands areas in winters - all of which disrupt people’s daily lives, damage buildings, roads and bridges, resulting in loss of lives and livestock and mass hunger and starvation that frequently call for external food aid. Photos 1 and 2 present a typical household livelihood level climate change effect and emerging micro-level government sponsored response respectively.



Photo 1: Vegetable Production Under Climatic Stress (by M.Theko) Photo 2: Vegetable Production Under Green House (by M.Theko)

Historically (prior to 1980), Lesotho’s climate had been known as continental and temperate, with 4 distinct seasons of summer, autumn, winter and spring, and receiving 85 per cent of its annual rainfall (averaging 700mm a year) from October to April. Temperatures tended to fall below 0°C in winter in the highlands, but rising to above 30°C in summer, especially in the lowlands. Winter snowfall would occur annually in the highlands areas and once in three years in the lowlands²⁵.

The NSDP confirms that Lesotho is already experiencing impacts of extreme weather conditions – heavy rains and floods, drought, heat stress, hail, snow, strong winds and early or late frosts. The Millennium Development Goals (MDG) Status Report of 2013, attributes Lesotho’s vulnerability to climate change as being due to its reliance on rain-fed subsistence agriculture, and on water resources for export earnings and hydroelectricity²⁶. It says while water is currently abundant in Lesotho, the changing climate patterns could result in Lesotho entering a water stress period of less than 1,700m³ per capita per year by 2019, and a water scarcity period of less than 1,000m³ per capita per year by 2062.

²⁵ GOL, Lesotho Second State of the Environment Report for 2002

²⁶ GOL, April 2014, Millennium Development Goals Status Report, 2013

With respect to biodiversity, both the Lesotho Second State of the Environment Report for 2002 and the Lesotho Fourth National Report on Implementation of the Convention on Biological Diversity (December 2009), warned that the mountain ecosystems are expected to be negatively affected by climate change²⁷. The reports project that Lesotho is likely to change into a tropical dry forest and that the Afro-alpine Grassland ecosystem of Lesotho may disappear and its biodiversity replaced by warmer, lower altitude flora. The overall implications are that in general, climate change would exacerbate deforestation, and chronic drought would hinder the recovery of rangelands and wetlands.

With respect to agriculture in particular, all reports raise the prospect of dry conditions brought by climate change reducing agricultural yields and exacerbating food insecurity. Extreme weather events, such as long dry spells with dry lands followed by heavy rains would quickly erode and wash away the soil, thus shrinking the arable land coverage to as little as 3 per cent. For the overall picture, the NSDP reports that in 2011, Lesotho experienced its heaviest rains in decades²⁸, resulting in loss of agricultural output and damage to infrastructure such as the collapse of power-lines, roads, bridges and culverts.

The NSDP points to evidence that current measures being undertaken by government such as tree planting, donga reclamation, protection of wetlands and other biodiversity conservation programmes, not being adequate to reverse environmental degradation, including desertification and to restore the fragile mountain ecosystems. It further warns that current practices such as ploughing on steep slopes and/or marginal lands by crop farmers (54% of croplands are exposed to sheet erosion), over-grazing of rangelands (an estimated 50% over-stocking of livestock), cutting of trees for fuel and other uses and unregulated encroachment of human settlements onto prime agricultural lands are aggravating the situation, which is compounded by inadequate physical planning, poor implementation of plans and inappropriate land use, urban sprawl and building on areas that are prone to natural hazards such as exposure to high winds or floods.

The 2007 National Adaptation Programme of Action (NAPA) on climate change analysed all vulnerable sectors, identified adaptation options, and assigned the responsibility for measuring climate change to the Lesotho Meteorological Services (LMS), which collects and processes climate data and feeds it to public and national institutions, such as the Disaster Management Authority (DMA) for use in the Early Warning System, as well as preparing regular early warning bulletins and community-level vulnerability assessments. The Government of Japan has contributed to disaster preparedness by providing grants for disaster response equipment, services and weather stations²⁹.

The MDG Status Report underscored the slow progress on reducing reliance on carbon-based energy sources, pointing to slow development of the Energy Policy (2003), as well as the Renewable Energy Policy for expanding affordable renewable energy, such as solar, hydropower and wind. Electrification rate in 2013 stood at (24%), with (65%) for urban and (5%) for rural households. Only (6%) of the country's total energy consumption is currently supplied by electricity, with the biomass (wood) and petroleum providing nearly (90%) of fuel needs. The Government's electrification target is (35%) by 2015 and (40%) by 2020.

²⁷GOL, Lesotho Second State of the Environment Report for 2002, and GOL, Lesotho Fourth National Report on Implementation of Convention on Biological Diversity (December 2009)

²⁸GOL, National Strategic Development Plan 2012/13-2016/17

²⁹GOL, April 2014, Millennium Development Goals Status Report, 2013

The NSDP has committed the Government to the following climate change adaptation plans and measures:

- Reversing land degradation and protecting water sources through integrated land and water resource management;
- Promoting biodiversity conservation;
- Increasing clean energy production capacity and environment friendly production methods and exploring opportunities for carbon trading;
- Improving land use, physical planning and increasing densification and ‘ring-fencing towns’ to avoid human settlements encroachment on agricultural land and other fragile ecosystems;
- Improving the delivery of environmental services, including waste and sanitation and environmental health promotion; and
- Improving coordination, enforcement of laws, information and data for environmental planning and increasing public knowledge and protection of the environment.
- Undertaking or reviewing vulnerability assessments and sector plans and programmes so as to improve mainstreaming of climate change;
- Consolidating the national climate change policy and adaptation strategy, agenda and investment programme;
- Upgrading standards for infrastructure development to ‘climate-proof’ investments;
- Developing mechanisms to improve access to climate change adaptation technology and use;
- Harmonising policies and legal frameworks and undertaking an institutional review and implementing the recommended reforms for improving coordination, efficiency, policy implementation and service delivery;
- Developing skills, including undertaking policy analysis and physical plan development, operating geographic information systems and producing maps for the country;
- Establishing environment and climate change registry and building capacity to compile statistics (such as ‘green’ accounts), and utilising them for medium to long term forecasting, policy and planning;
- Enhancing capacity and networking of institutions to share information domestically and internationally; and
- Enhancing public education on environment and climate change and creating incentives for communities to be more aggressive on the issues.

City dwellers, whilst concerned that climate change mainstreaming across various actors is slow, noted that:

- The Decentralisation Policy has incorporated climate change issues for local authorities to take account of in their plans and operations;
- Climate change/environmental awareness and education programmes are systematically offered by Government and NGOs to the public in their various formations. Climate change is now also included in the school curriculum;
- Some of the advice and education /training given to members of the public include encouraging house owners to keep their settlements clean and tidy, as well as to re-cycle some waste and avoid the burning of garbage, awareness campaigns to prevent and manage soil erosion, especially with respect to times of heavy rains; awareness campaigns on ways to curb

overgrazing, undertake tree planting and partake in land reclamation programmes; and advice on ‘keyhole gardens’, conservation farming and new crop farming strategies with high yields and other land reclamation cultivation programme;

- Public infrastructure provided to deal with climate change associated problems includes on-going construction of better designed and better quality new roads, bridges and foot bridges over rivers and fast streams in various locations; provision of improved drainage systems on the newly constructed roads including streets; and
- Technically sound waste management starting to be seen whereby town councils designate suitable waste dump/ disposal areas where recyclable items are selected before the rest of the waste can be disposed.

3.2 Disaster Risk Reduction (540 words)

The NSDP and the MDG Status Report 2013 confirm that Lesotho is vulnerable to a range of natural disasters, such as droughts, hailstorms, high winds, earth tremours, snowfalls, floods, including failure of man-made structures such as dams and bridges etc. that cause significant loss of economic outputs such as communication infrastructure, roads, bridges, houses, livestock and crops.

The key institution responsible for ‘Disaster Risk Reduction’ in particular, and responsible for disaster preparedness, prevention and management in the event they occurred is the Disaster Management Authority (DMA), normally assisted by Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), private sector volunteers and other relevant sectors.³⁰ Generally, disaster preparedness is inadequate.

Below is a tabular summary of most likely disaster generating sources in Lesotho, and the need to systematically address or manage the risks.

Table 3: Disaster Risks Minimisation/Reduction

Disaster Type	Likely Impacts	Likely Occurrence Frequency	Risk Reduction Measures
Rain/hail Storms accompanied by floods	Crops destruction, flooding of dwellings/ structures, rivers and destroying of crops, roads, bridges, other accesses and crossings, causing loss of lives of people and livestock, etc.	Frequency associated with the wetness of summers (about 4 times at varying locations per wet season).	Measures in-place: some roads and bridges quality improvements on-going, normal response to disaster occurrence in place through DMA; public urged to improve dwellings/structures and to avoid settling in dangerous locations (steep slopes, swampy areas, water courses, etc.) and provide preventive drainage; provision of some soil erosion measures, some early warning and public awareness provision. Required measures: better preparedness plans (pro-activity) through resourced DMA, including more effective early warning and awareness campaigns, increased pace of infrastructural improvements and provision, building standards to

³⁰Environmental Profile for Maseru City: Summary Report, 2007

Disaster Type	Likely Impacts	Likely Occurrence Frequency	Risk Reduction Measures
			avoid settlement in dangerous locations, etc.
Heavy winter snowfalls (in the highlands)	Damage to power-lines, communication structures, dwellings and other buildings, flooding of roads, loss of lives, etc.	Frequency associated with the wetness of summers (about 3 times in the highlands per wet season).	Measures in-place: early warning and public awareness campaigns, rescue measures during disasters (by DMA and volunteers). Required measures: better preparedness plans (pro-activity) through resourced DMA including provision of snow ploughs and other rescue related equipment, improved quality of dwelling and other structures roofing, more effective early warning systems and public awareness campaigns, etc.
Strong devastating winds/whirlwinds/sand storms	Damage to power-lines and communication structures, dwellings and other buildings, etc.	Strong devastating winds un-accompanied by rain and sand storms occur at the rate of about twice a year at varying locations).	Measures in-place: public urged to improve quality of dwellings and other structures to withstand such wind ravages; standing response to disaster by DMA. Required measures: better preparedness plans (pro-activity) through resourced DMA and promotion of improved dwellings and other structures especially through building standards measures institution.
Fire	Damage to biodiversity, dwellings and other buildings, possible loss of livestock and human lives.	Fires to dwellings and other structures are not frequent, and very rarely spread to adjacent structures; veld fire mostly in the highlands in winter but damage tends to be limited by land barrenness, and rarely threaten /damage structures.	Measures in-place: in settlements: public generally urged to improve dwellings/ structures to prevent/ withstand fire and other disasters, while in the highlands, and open grassland areas, biodiversity preservation related public awareness campaigns, especially for herd boys, are carried out. In Maseru, the capital, there is standing response to fire disaster through 2ineffective fire-fighting units while other settlements have nothing. There are ineffective building standards in urban areas. Required measures: establishment of effective building standards and related institutions, adequate and resourced fire-fighting brigades in Maseru and larger settlements, effective campaigns to prevent environmental fires, etc.
Man-made structure failures (bridges, structures, dams related drowning), etc.	Damage to infrastructure, buildings and possible loss of people and livestock' lives, etc. including dams related drowning.	Except for small scale buildings, such man-made structure failures are very rare, but dam related drowning (ferry disasters likely with construction of more and more dams).	Measures in place: public urged to improve dwellings and other structures, but no building standards as yet; otherwise standing response to disaster by DMA. Water safety awareness and training minimal. Required measures: better preparedness plans through resourced DMA and promotion of improve dwellings and other structures (building standards introduction), water safety related awareness and training required.
Earth tremors	Damage to infrastructure, buildings and possible loss of lives.	Threatening earth tremors are very rare in Lesotho.	Measures in place: no specific measures, except specifications for erecting tall buildings and large engineering related structures. Tremors related to Katse Dam fast impoundment in late 1995 resulted in a tremor that caused a crack/fissure that ran upslope through the village, damaging most of the 19-householdMapeleng village (located 4km

Disaster Type	Likely Impacts	Likely Occurrence Frequency	Risk Reduction Measures
			upstream of the dam wall), and hence forcing its relocation (by the Dam Project) to a safer area about 2km upstream and upslope, but this was treated as a very rare, isolated incident. Required measures: better preparedness plans through resourced DMA and promotion of improved dwellings and other structures (building standards introduction).
Land/mud slides, rock-falls	Damage to infrastructure, buildings and possible loss of lives.	Though rare in the past, but due to climate change and pressure for urban sites, people are starting to settle in risky places, risking landslides and rock falls associated with heavy rains.	Measures in place: no specific measures, except general warnings to public and land allocating authorities to avoid settling people in steep slopes, water courses, and other such potentially disastrous areas; ineffective building standards in urban areas. Required measures: establishment of effective planning and building standards and related enforcement institutions, effective campaigns to prevent settlements in dangerous locations.
Public Health related hazards	Due to settling in proximity to dangerous activity areas: public health related hazards including loss of lives could occur.	Though occurrences rare so far, but riskier proximity to waste dump sites, chemical storage sites, explosives /blast sites, polluted areas, etc. would sooner or later start to occur.	Measures in place: no specific measures, except general warnings to public to avoid settling too close to potentially dangerous activity areas such as waste dump sites, chemical storage sites, explosives /blast sites, polluted areas, power-lines and substations, etc.; ineffective urban building standards. Required measures: establishment of effective settlements planning and building standards, environmental impact assessment for locating risky industrial and such activities close to settled areas.

Source: Author Generated

Table 5 above highlights areas that require pro-active intervention by the state by way of planning and putting in preventive and proactive measures because, due to climate change and increased urbanisation, the likelihood of disaster occurrences will increase.

Empirical data on natural disasters, including storms and whirlwinds is scarce in Lesotho³¹. However, according to the Lesotho Second State of the Environment Report for 2002, the Disaster Management Unit gathered sufficient information in 1999 on the impacts of such whirlwinds on peoples' lives, on the environment, and particularly on buildings. The highlands districts, especially Thaba-Tseka, suffered the greatest damage impacts while in the lowlands Botha-Bothe suffered the least damage.

According to the same report, normal and lightning-induced veld fires do occur in Lesotho, and protected areas with long grass are particularly vulnerable, but threat to human life is minimal because people do not reside in bushy areas. In fact, due to overgrazing of the rangelands and over-harvesting of fuel wood, most parts of the country today do not have accumulated fuel base conducive to major fires and hence lightning-induced fires are today less common than in the past, and those that do occur are less likely to spread over large areas.

³¹Lesotho Second State of the Environment Report for 2002

Fire incidences within urban and smaller settlements that require the intervention of public authorities such as the DMA and specialist units have been rare, which could explain the delay in instituting preventive and proactive measures. Even Maseru, the capital, is served by a single under-resourced fire-fighting service unit with limited success history. The second fire service unit is based at the international airport, some 15km outside the city, and intervention efforts have always been constrained by long travel distance, traffic jams, bad roads and lack of street addresses. The need for fire disaster preparedness is critically urgent, especially in Maseru, which is growing at a fast pace but without planning.

Regarding Disaster Risk Reduction or preventive measures, people are constantly advised to ensure that their dwelling structures are set to withstand storms and consequent flooding, and to provide preventive surrounding drainage. The Town and Country Planning Act 1980 and related subsidiary legislations including The Building Control Act 1995, have to be effectively implemented in order to have any impact on disaster risk reduction.

The NSDP identifies disaster risks as being aggravated by over-grazing of rangelands, given an estimated (50%) over-stocking of livestock, cutting of trees for fuel and other uses and unregulated encroachment of human settlements onto prime agricultural lands. It also confirms that inadequate physical planning and poor implementation of plans also result in inappropriate land use, urban sprawl and building on areas that are prone to natural disasters, including exposure to high winds or in flood plains. It suggests the introduction of appropriate planning to cater for spatial development required for future industrial and social developments.

It further suggests the increasing of capacity for disaster risk management at household, community and national levels by:

- Considering options for establishing a Disaster Risk Management and Climate Change Fund;
- Exploring the viability and/or alternatives to building infrastructure for strategic commodity reserves;
- Educating the public to strengthen capacity to manage disasters and establishing more effective early warning systems, design of appropriate responses and effective communication with target groups; and
- Enhancing capacity to increase national food, water and energy security.

City dwellers participating in consultative workshops raised the following issues:

- Establishment of Disaster Management Authority (DMA) with dedicated committees in the communities or at local level required as promised;
- Notification by DMA of impending /imminent disasters through Lesotho television, radios and other media needs improvement;
- Some selected people in risky areas do receive training on disaster risk reduction and management and further get continuous information through cell phones;
- Members of the public are encouraged to use high pitched roofing to minimise its blowing away by strong winds;
- The Urban and Community Councils, as well as the NGOs, are now discouraging people from putting up houses in swampy and steep-sloped areas; and

- DMA has provided boats and trained operators to assist communities along the Senqu River.

3.3 Reducing Traffic Congestion (540 words)

Regarding traffic congestion, only Maseru, the capital and primate city, could be regarded as experiencing any traffic congestion, especially during the morning and afternoon peak hours. City sprawl, that does not provide for decentralization of services or service points, aggravate traffic congestion. The road infrastructure is also not aligned to the demand side of the rapidly growing vehicle population, especially since the recent surge of used vehicle imports from Asian markets as well as the licensing of 1 428 cabs to operate on a free-range, un-metered basis in the city.

Maseru City traffic generation influence goes far out, since due to its primacy, it attracts daily work related commuters living as far out as Botha-Bothe, around 136km to the north, Moyeni in Quthing, around 178 km to the south, and over 70km along north-eastern, eastern and south-eastern route corridors. The Maseru Urban Planning and Transport Study 2010 did not address the impact of these commuter traffic aspects. This is a phenomenon yet to be explored. What is known though is that these commuters travel by mini-buses, larger buses and private cars on roads that are not in good condition, with high frequency of fatal accidents as indicated under sections dealing with urban transport and safety.

In terms of local traffic, Maseru City occupies a total land area of approximately 143km², with a population estimated by MCC at 227 880 (census of 2006) or approximately (18%) of the national population³². The city is located on the western border with South Africa, connecting directly to it and the rest of the world by road through Maseru Bridge border post. It is further connected by a 2.5km of railway line through the same bridge, and by air through Moshoeshe I International Airport, located 15 kilometres to the south of the city. The railway line, with its terminal at the Industrial Area, is now wholly devoted to freight, servicing mainly industrial and commercial establishments. However, it is the road transport with associated traffic congestion issues that carry major impacts on the city environment.

Table 6 below shows the road infrastructure portfolio of the Maseru City Council³³, which was about 654km in 2013. Only 79km of the road network was paved by then. The rest was either gravel or dirt roads. However, according to the Maseru Urban Planning and Transport Study³⁴ (2010), there was an extra 121.34km of higher standard paved roads in the portfolio of the Ministry of Public Works and Transport (MPWT) within the city planning boundaries. Most of the roads infrastructure emerged as tracks that connected outlying villages to the town centre, hence there are no planned layouts that systematically link the peri-urban areas to national trunk routes in the city.

Table 6: The MCC Road Network

Type of Road	Length in Kilometres (km)	Percent of Total Length
Paved/ tarred	78.66	12

³²MCC Strategic Plan (2013-2016), January 2013

³³Ibid

³⁴GOL, Maseru Urban Planning and Transport Study, October 2010

Gravel	289.26	44
Earth	285.67	44
TOTAL	653.59	100

Source: Computed from MCC Strategic Plan (2013-2016), January 2013

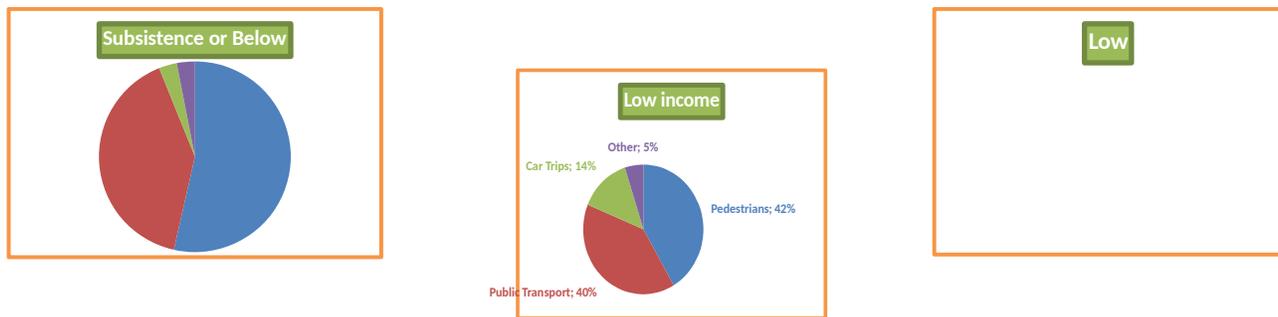
Maseru is the only urban centre where an urban planning and transport study has been undertaken to-date (Maseru Urban Planning and Transport Study: 2009-2010). The study results show the modal split as depicted in Table 7 and illustrated in Figure 5 below for different socio-economic groups:

Table 7: Maseru Urban Area Modal Split by Socio-Economic Group

Socio-Economic Group	% Pedestrian	% Public Transport Trips	% Car Trips	% Other
Subsistence or Below	53%	40%	3%	3%
Low	42%	40%	14%	5%
Medium-High	18%	23%	48%	10%
Total Population	46%	40%	10%	4%

Source: Maseru Urban Planning and Transport Study, October 2010

Figure 5: Comparison of Maseru Urban Area Modal Split by Socio-Economic Growth



The Study found that there was little or no pedestrian dedicated infrastructure in Maseru. Few paved walkways exist mostly around the CBD and major access corridors. The Study found 132km of developed sidewalks in the City, with two-thirds paved, but generally inadequate in scale and poorly maintained. Moreover, intersections were poorly designed for pedestrians, hence pedestrians tended to occupy the whole road reserve and thus hindering traffic flow³⁵ and putting their lives at risk.

According to the NSDP, the transport system in Lesotho is dominated by road transport and transport services are predominantly provided by private sector operators³⁶. However, as the Maseru Urban Planning and Transport Study (MUPTS) showed, the public transport system in Maseru and elsewhere is generally poor and disorganised, causing users to walk long distances to bus stops or to ultimate destinations. Walking conditions are poor despite the large number of pedestrians, and this lack of dedicated and protected sidewalks, together with lack of protected pedestrian crossings, makes walking in Maseru and other trafficked urban areas a perilous activity³⁷.

³⁵GOL, Maseru Urban Planning & Transport Study, October 2010

³⁶GOL, National Strategic Development Plan 2012/13-2016/17

³⁷GOL, Maseru Urban Planning & Transport Study, October 2010

The MUPTS estimated the vehicle registration data at approximately 16 to 17000 private vehicles on the road in Maseru in 2009. That was calculated to mean a motorisation rate of 60-70 vehicles per 1000 population, which was regarded as very low. However, motorisation rates were expected to rise rapidly with expected economic growth and the growth of the middle class. Whilst car trips accounted for only (15%) of all trips in the city, private cars accounted for between (50%) and (60%) of all traffic volume, which meant a far smaller proportion of passengers given its low reported ridership.

Summary findings and implications/ recommendations were presented as follows:

- Focus should be placed on improving the safety, convenience and speed of pedestrian trips, given that this is the prime mode of movement in the City.
- Since pedestrian routes develop in response to the urban structure, future land use development should focus on the need to limit distances and shorten pedestrian trips by: concentrating future development in inner-city and reserves; increasing densities, locating services and selected functions in or in proximity to residential concentrations, and by developing pedestrian “short-cuts.”
- The current public transport system negatively impacts the economic growth of the City, as Maseru residents are required to invest significant part of their income and free time to travel rather than on more productive activities.
- Effective re-organisation of public transport in Maseru would contribute significantly to economic growth in the City, whilst improving the standard of living for many. There is significant leverage for the introduction of improvements in the network structure and public transport operations.
- Effective re-organisation of public transport in Maseru would in itself serve to redistribute demand patterns and relocate lower order services to the residential areas.
- The current fare structure in Maseru makes public transport unaffordable to many residents, who are, in turn, forced to walk, often for lengthy periods.
- The current share of public transport vehicles in total traffic volume is 40-50 per cent. Reducing the number of public transport vehicles on the road (with higher capacity buses and an integrated public transport network) would reduce traffic volumes and congestion could be minimised or eliminated, at least in the short term.
- There are no major problems associated with vehicular traffic, except for a few bottlenecks, especially around the taxi and bus ranks, the markets and near major intersections. Most of these bottlenecks can be resolved with appropriate traffic management measures.
- Speed needs to be reduced and road behaviour modified at major pedestrian areas such as schools and crossings.
- It is recommended that on-street parking regulations be introduced in the city centre to improve parking in the CBD.

The NSDP for its part plans to improve transport safety, ‘climate-proof’ infrastructure and reduce road accidents by:

- Assessing the quality and safety level of existing infrastructure and upgrading standards for climate-proofing transport infrastructure;

- Installing quality road safety furniture e.g. road signs; and
- Improving and enforcing speed and drinking-and-driving regulations.

City dwellers on their part raised the following issues in relation to the status of traffic:

- New road network development on-going in some parts of Maseru, the capital city;
- Programme in place for construction of all-weather gravel and tarred urban roads;
- De-concentration of industrial estates in Maseru, Maputsoe, Mafeteng, Mohale's Hoek and Botha-Bothe on-going;
- Development of Road Safety Policy undertaken;
- Participation of private sector in the provision of public transport in place or on-going;
- Street lighting development on-going;
- Some pavements for pedestrians, together with marked crossings on-going;
- Designation and development of bus stops on-going;
- Maintenance of road signs reasonable;
- The number of vehicles, including public transport ones increasing at alarming rate, and hence public transport is becoming more convenient for pedestrians; and
- Speed humps to control traffic speed in selected areas are deemed helpful.

3.4 Air Pollution (540 words)

The National Plan of Action (1996-2000) report did recognise the necessity to regulate and reduce emissions of pollutants into the environment in order to help attain clean air status in the built-up areas. It lamented the inadequate monitoring of pollution sources and the poor enforcement of the law against polluters, and hence advocated for the quantification of the problem and measures to improve air quality during the 1996-2000 plan period. In the meantime, air pollution continued to happen uncontrolled, generated mainly by 'poorly-maintained vehicles' and the use of high sulphur coal for residential and industrial use, with these contributing to a high incidence of respiratory diseases among the population³⁸.

The Maseru Environmental Profile study 2007 also warned of the advent of significant air pollution levels associated with Maseru City's rapid growth accompanied by car emissions, industries, smoke from burning of fuel wood and coal in households, and this being most evident in winter³⁹. However, according to the Maseru Urban Planning and Transport Study⁴⁰, there had hitherto (2010) been no known air quality monitoring station in the City and hence, given the scale of low density of development, low levels of motorisation, prevalent wind regime and based on its on-site observational study, it saw no serious air pollution problem or risk at that stage for Maseru.

The Maseru Urban Planning and Transport Study finding above offers some respite for the authorities to proactively start putting in place preventive and remedial measures, including monitoring facilities, because at the rate Maseru City is growing, associated potential air pollution risks are real. The Maseru Environmental Profile study of 2007 also alluded to the risks associated with the fact that industrial zones tend to be surrounded by residential settlements, and the resultant

³⁸National Plan of Action for Human Settlement Development: 1996-2000, LSPP

³⁹Environmental Profile for Maseru City: Summary Report, 2007

⁴⁰GOL, Maseru Urban Planning and Transport Study, October 2010

pollution risks would likely manifest in the high risk of recurring diseases which usually become apparent after a period of time either to the industrial workers and/or residential inhabitants.

Furthermore, the NSDP adds that the rapid urbanization and inadequate capability to cope with increasing housing needs in urban areas have contributed to the development of informal settlements, often presenting health risks due to poor quality of drinking water and sanitation; cooking and heating facilities that lead to excessive exposure to indoor pollution and overcrowding that can contribute to stress, violence and other social ills (NSDP p108). It observes the limited opportunity to expand existing industrial sites as they are quickly encroached upon by human settlements due to poor planning (NSDP p109), noting also the inadequate infrastructure and systems to prevent pollution through solid and hazardous waste generated especially by activities in the agriculture, industry and construction sectors. It also raises the need for effective measures to reduce environmental health hazards posed by inadequate water supply and sanitation. Furthermore, poor construction and operational practices of some industrial and commercial operations lead to inefficient use of resources such as energy and water and preventable environmental pollution. Lesotho is a minor emitter of greenhouse gases, nonetheless, adopting a low carbon development route would allow Lesotho to develop a higher degree of energy security, improved competitiveness through lower energy costs and potentially, access to international climate finance.

In terms of air pollution mitigation, there are multiple policies addressing key environmental and climate change challenges (NSDP p126), however, delivery has been weak because of institutional duplication of efforts, insufficient cross-sectoral coordination within the government and non-governmental sectors, weak implementation and enforcement of policies and legislation. With the exception of waste management, there are no specific measures in the National Plan that directly address the issues of air pollution.

In the absence of NSDP proposed measures, city dwellers on their part raised the following issues concerning air pollution risks:

- Recent establishment of standardization unit in the Ministry of Trade, Industry, Cooperatives and Marketing (MTICM), will hopefully have a bearing on pollution management;
- Use of electricity should be promoted to substitute coal in homes and steam rooms;
- Implementation of waste strategy for Municipality requires to be speeded up;
- World Vision NGO discourages householders from burning waste but instead, dispose it in safer ways;
- Tree planting initiatives with assistance from the Ministry of Forestry and Land Reclamation (MFLR) and other NGOs should be beefed up; and

3.5 Challenges Experienced and Lessons Learnt in These Areas (700 words)

Climate Change:

Changing climatic and weather patterns affecting agriculture, environment and other peoples' life activities present a serious challenge to Lesotho and Basotho, forcing them to find means of survival. Lesotho possesses some responsive measures as reflected in the NSDP, but the challenge lies with effective implementation as most are not well understood by the broader public in terms of roles and resources. The challenge is for the government to repackage existing measures, sell them to stakeholders, followed by effective implementation.

City dwellers concerns regarding ‘Climate Change’ lessons and challenge issues were stated as follows:

- Heavy storms that blow away dwelling roofs, causing floods, damaging property, crops and causing loss of lives from time to time present direct challenge to citizens at government, community and individual levels, and compels them to do something. However, existing measures have been found to be ineffective, and the challenge lies with coming up with improved measures, or effectively implementing what is already planned or on the ground;
- Frequent droughts affecting farming and hence accompanied by famines affect people at individual and collective levels and present a challenge to them. Existing counter-measures are weak, and the challenge is well packaged measures, most of which already exist at government and international levels, and adapting them to the local situation, with the government providing leadership and required resources for effective implementation;
- It is a challenge to make people understand the issues of climate change and requirements to adapt and take preventive measures; hence the need to beef up communication and education to the communities;
- It is a challenge at institutional level where government requires to lead through its well-resourced institutions at central government, local government, other agencies and international partnership levels; and
- It is a challenge for local authorities to have means with which to intervene whenever necessary. Required services include refuse disposal, pollution control, public health management, roads and drainage provision, biodiversity preservation, and development controls, etc.

Disaster Risk Reduction:

The Government of Lesotho and its people face challenges of environmental disasters coming in the form of natural occurrences such as: heavy rain storms accompanied by destructive floods in wet summers, heavy disruptive snowfalls in the mountains in wet winters, mud/ landslides and rock-falls in wet years, strong devastating whirlwinds and sand storms especially in dry years, earth tremors once in a while, etc., as well as results of man-made physical developments such as dam failures or boat drownings, structure failures, roads and bridges collapse, fires within settlements and at veld level especially in winters, etc. and they are not well prepared to effectively deal with any of them when they do occur. In the construction sector in particular, government needs to closely monitor and regulate materials used to minimise challenges posed by climate change.

Some types of disasters are more frequent, damaging and disruptive than others and require unique or specialised intervention measures by the government operating in partnership with communities and individuals. However existing measures, as reported in the NSDP, are found inadequate. All identified disaster possibilities require a management study followed by preparedness plans that are resourced and understood by all other actors at institutional, community and individual levels.

City dwellers concerns regarding ‘Disaster Risk Reduction’ issues include the following:

- Disasters associated with climate change that affect peoples’ properties and well-being are frequent and hence should be well planned for;

- Ineffective development control by local/urban authorities compromise enforcement of development standards to avert disasters caused by forces of nature and those man-made, often as a result of erecting poor quality buildings and building houses in high sloped areas, in water courses and in swampy ones;
- Non-adherence to environmental management plans during implementation of big or large-scale projects, ends up with environmental disasters;
- Illegal conversion of arable land into urban residential and other land uses continues unchecked, increasing the scale of unplanned peri-urban settlements, and calling for more rigorous intervention measures;
- People continue to travel to places where DMA has advised against based on weather forecasts, with often dire consequences; and
- Lack of cellular phone networks in the highlands often results in poor means of communication especially with respect to pending disasters warnings.

Reducing Traffic Congestion:

Due to its unplanned urban settlements, traffic congestion issues in Maseru are starting to be serious for all modes of traffic: pedestrians, private and public transport vehicles. Government and local authorities should therefore develop a comprehensive approach that will cater for all traffic modes. The intervention will be infrastructural at the core, followed by effective implementation, under the auspices of the NSDP. The city council and other private property owners with open space administer some parking charges but this has little impact on reducing congestion, particularly on busy streets. These streets also function as trading spaces for the informal sector operators who also occupy the parking bays. The parking spaces in government centres, which generate traffic, are used largely, if not exclusively, by public servants.

City dwellers concerns regarding traffic congestion reduction issues include the following:

- Urban employment working hours need to be staggered to break traffic congestion during peak hours (7:30 - 8:30hrs, and 16:30 - 17:30hrs);
- Road designs should consider all modes of transport, including vehicular, pedestrian, cycling and other;
- Neglect of physical planning and development control have resulted in urban sprawl, and enforcement could improve the relationship between land use and traffic movement.
- Poor public transport planning, if any at all, limited travel modes alternatives, lead to prevalence of informal and unsafe public transport, together with limited underdeveloped related facilities such as bus stops and stops;
- Delay in the implementation of Maseru Urban Planning and Transport Study (2010) study is a drawback;
- The condition of existing urban roads is generally poor, especially roads in the unplanned peri-urban areas;
- Lack of pedestrian pavements except in the CBD, and non- protection from vehicles in the form of rails, exacerbate lack of safety;
- Serious shortage of developed parking in the CBD, worsened by rapid increase of vehicle ownership since the start of importing 'used vehicles' from the Far East around year 2000; and

- Traffic laws are not effectively enforced; hence unqualified drivers occupy the roads to the detriment of safety.

Air Pollution Management:

Air pollution in Lesotho is mainly generated by vehicles, industries and households with their coal fire for cooking and heating as well as burning waste. Dealing with air pollution is a challenge because the scale is still small. Government is still to device a monitoring mechanism and any form of intervention outside of the waste management efforts but still at inception stage. Currently, there is no comprehensive response demonstrating co-ordination of key actors such as the construction sector and citizens at large, industrialists and local authorities.

City dwellers concerns regarding air pollution management issues include the following:

- Increased use of dilapidated/unserviceable vehicles emit pollutants into the environment;
- Absence of regulations on air pollution standards and monitoring facilities poses a challenge for the government to intervene;
- Existing environment friendly laws to be enforced while devising new ones where gaps exist;
- Home dwellers continue to burn home generated solid waste despite advice to the contrary by authorities, hence calling for improved intervention measures; and
- Shepherds and the youth continue the bad practice of burning of pastures and tyres in the urban areas despite continuous awareness education by authorities and the NGOs.

3.6 Future Challenges and Issues in These Areas that could be Addressed by a New Urban Agenda (700 words)

Climate Change:

The NSDP raises considerable measures that the government undertook to implement during the course of 5 years of the plan period. Effective implementation should be followed with lessons identified for informing the next NSDP. The New Urban Agenda should assist with ensuring that the next Strategic Plan is well designed, incorporating lessons learnt locally and including global best practices.

City dwellers raised the following issues for consideration under a new urban agenda:

- Preparedness Planning for various adverse effects of climate change is required to manage risks and enable people to adapt and take pro-active measures;
- Effective implementation of planned measures is required to seriously address the issue, including resourced institutions, legislative and other policy measures, targeted action plan measures, and people’s awareness and involvement;
- Appropriate strategic plan over-arching all other sub-plans, incorporating lessons learnt locally and from the world required in the form of the next National Strategic Development Plan 2017/18 – 2022/23; and
- The current Decentralisation Policy requires effective implementation and refocus to adequately deal with issues of climate change;

Disaster Risk Reduction:

The current NSDP contains very little by way of concrete measures to implement during the plan period, hence the new urban agenda has to call for comprehensive planning at government and community levels so as to have in place pro-active and reactive measures in relation to the variety of disasters that already threaten the country (NSDP 2017/18 – 2022/23).

City dwellers raised the following issues for consideration under a new urban agenda:

- Disaster Preparedness Planning for various types of disasters that are prevalent in Lesotho is urgently required to manage risks and deal with the occurrences;
- Effective implementation of planned measures would be required, including resourced Disaster Management Authority (DMA) and other specialist and supporting institutions, legislative and other policy measures, and people's awareness and involvement;
- Effective settlements planning with development controls to minimise disaster risks, with environmental safeguards throughout the country, and the educated public, would be key to such requirements;
- The current Decentralisation Policy would require effective implementation and refocusing to adequately deal with issues of disaster risk reduction.

Reducing Traffic Congestion

Traffic congestion is not yet a problem in Lesotho, but due to rapid urbanization and increasing vehicle ownership rates, together with inadequate road system that does not cater for pedestrian and public transport, and long commuting distances in relation to Maseru, Lesotho is on the throes of traffic chaos, accompanied by high frequency of fatal accidents. The new urban agenda therefore has to focus on measures of transportation planning that include related infrastructure provision. The current NSDP (2012/13-2016/17) does not put much on the table in this regard, and the new NSDP 2017/18 – 2022/23 should give it a priority. Future planning should focus on encouraging travellers to use public transport in order to reduce private vehicles. The intervention should include a deliberate urban transport policy that will encourage large passenger carriers in place of small carriers. Habitat partners have advocated for major expansion of roads including relocation of existing developments to make way for new the necessary changes. The City Council will also need to improve informal trading conditions in order to reduce competition for street space.

City dwellers expressed the following views with regard to issues for a new agenda:

- Proper town/ settlements planning that incorporates transportation planning is required through the next NSDP, to be implemented through central and local authority structures;
- Urban employment working hours for all employing sectors would require some form of staggering to moderate traffic congestion at peak hours (7:30 - 8:30hrs, and 16:30 - 17:30hrs), and this should enable time for proper and long term infrastructure development;
- On-going roads improvement projects should be immediately modified to cater for pedestrian pavements, crossings and bus stops, together with signage and enforcement of traffic laws.

Air Pollution Management:

Air Pollution is not yet a major problem in Lesotho mainly due to low level of industrialization, but rapid urbanization, use of coal for cooking/heating and increasing vehicle ownership, are cause for emergence of the phenomenon in urban areas, especially Maseru. The current NSDP (2012/13-2016/17) does not say much on it, and there are no pollution monitoring facilities, hence the new urban agenda should ensure that pollution is addressed and properly provided for in the next NSDP of 2017/18 – 2022/23. In the meantime it should be time for planning. The plan should provide for comprehensive intervention measures such as air pollution standards, regulations and monitoring facilities, etc. that would require participation of key actors such as citizens at large, polluting industrialists, the construction sector and local authorities.

4.0 URBAN GOVERNANCE AND LEGISLATION: ISSUES AND CHALLENGES FOR A NEW URBAN AGENDA

4.1 Improving Urban Legislation (540 words)

Key urban related legislations stem from the Constitution, going down to the Local Government Act 1997 (as amended), that enables creation of local authorities, the Land Act 2010 that governs land management, the Valuation and Rating Act 1980, enabling local authorities to raise property based tax revenue, the Town and Country Planning Act 1980, for planning and development control, the Building Control Act 1995, for setting up building standards; the Survey Act 1980, for land surveying and mapping, the Environment Act 2008 for environmental safeguarding, and the Legal Capacity of Married Persons Act 2006, for gender mainstreaming especially in property development related issues. The National Strategic Development Plan 2012/13-2016/17 (NSDP) mentions plenty of other supporting pieces of legislation mostly at draft bill stage, while others exist but require updating or improving, and the rest only require effective implementation.

Table 8 below summarises those key pieces of legislation with their status and improvement related suggestions.

Table 8: Existing Urban Related Legislations

Existing Legislations	Recommendations
<p>The Constitution of Lesotho (1993) <u>Local Authorities:</u> Article 106 of the constitution provides for Parliament to “establish such local authorities as it deems necessary to enable urban and rural communities to determine their affairs and to develop themselves. Such authorities shall perform such functions as may be conferred by an Act of Parliament”. <u>Land:</u> Article 109 provides for Parliament to “make provision prescribing the allocations that may be made and the interests or rights that may be granted in exercise of the power conferred by section 108 of this Constitution, the grounds upon which and the circumstances in which such allocations or grants may or shall be so made or may or shall be revoked or derogated from or the interests or rights which may or shall otherwise be so terminated or restricted, appeals in respect of the allocation or refusal to allocate and or the revocation of interests to or in land and, generally, regulating the principles according to which and the manner in which the said power shall be exercised”. <u>Environment:</u> Section 36 states that “Lesotho shall adopt policies to protect and enhance the natural and cultural environment of Lesotho for the benefit of both present and future generations and shall endeavour to assure all citizens a sound and safe environment adequate for their health and well-being.”</p>	<p>The Constitution presents no impediments at this stage. The legislative provisions enacted under it must first be effectively implemented before issues of constitutional shortcomings could be considered.</p>
<p>Local Government Act 1997 (as amended): provides for the “establishment of Local Authorities and for the purpose of Local Government in Lesotho and for matters incidental thereto” and deals</p>	<p>Requires full implementation</p>

Existing Legislations	Recommendations
<p>specifically with declaration of Community, Rural, Urban and Municipal Councils, their composition and functions, administrative staff, powers to make bye-laws, finance, Local Government Service Commission establishment, boundaries commission and function schedules. Specific functions (27 of them) for urban/municipal councils are specified in the First Schedule of the Act while those of rural councils (7 functions) are specified in the Second Schedule. Such functions are not assumed all at once, but are assigned progressively by Central Government as and when local capacity is deemed adequate, and for urban/municipal councils, over half of them are still to be exercised.</p> <p>It came into operation on December 10th 2001, and through the elections of April 2005, resulted in the establishment of 128 Community Councils for rural and 11 urban areas then designated as community councils and a Municipal Council for Maseru, the capital and 10 District Councils. Subsequent 2011 elections saw the Community Councils consolidated and their number reduced to 64, 11 Urban Councils and the Municipal Council for Maseru.</p> <p>It replaced the Urban Government Act(1983) which enabled the institution of Maseru City Council in 1989.</p>	<p>before issues of amendments could be entertained. Local authority institutions started from April 2005, but, powers conferred on local authorities are still limited, which calls for resourcing those institutions first.</p>
<p>Land Act 2010</p> <p>It came into operation in June 2010, providing for administration of land including 1) granting and converting of titles to land (primarily leases), 2) land expropriation for public purposes, 3) systematic regularisation and adjudication, and 4) creation of related land courts and disputes settlements.</p> <p>The Land Act 2010 establishes functional land administration system where land and property can be clearly identified, leasehold assigned, and provision made to support transactions in land and property. In relation to urbanisation and housing, the Land Act 2010 provides for regularisation of informal rights in urban and peri-urban areas, effectively creating leases and so providing greater security, clarity and a more formal registration of land rights, and through regularisation, providing a framework within which lease and other rights can be transferred, traded, inherited and assigned, and in principle, used as collateral where significant improvements have occurred.</p> <p>Under the new law, the new local authorities (established under the 1997 Local Government Act) will take over the allocation of land under the supervision of the Commissioner of Lands.</p> <p>With this new Act, discriminatory barrier of access to land by married women and widows contained in the 1979 Land Act has been removed, giving everybody equal access to and transactions on land including equal land rights and tenure security.</p>	<p>Like all other legislations, they all require full implementation with all required resources for the shortcomings to start showing and require addressing. There is Sectional Title Bill at the draft stage, which is needed to complement this Land Act.</p>
<p>The Valuation and Rating Act 1980</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Act is intended “to provide for a modern system of valuation and rating of property to raise revenue for payment of public services and purposes connected therewith and incidental thereto”. • It applies to ‘property in any area designated by the Minister by notice in the Gazette’. • The Valuation and Rating Act 1980 therefore, primarily provides for a modern system of valuation and rating of property to raise revenue for payment of public services by urban/municipal councils. The general basis of the valuations of a property is market value. • The Act further says valuation principles can also be used to value any property for transaction and compensation purposes. <p>Thus the Act provides for a modern system of valuation and rating of property to raise local authority revenue for payment of public services. It regulates the powers of local authorities/ municipality to value and rate properties, with the general basis of property valuations being the market value.</p>	<p>The Act was passed in 1980 before the Local Government Act of 1997, hence it requires updating for effectiveness. It has hitherto, been implemented in 13 areas of Maseru Municipality.</p>
<p>Town and Country Planning Act 1980</p> <p>It provides for production of “land use” planning in urban and other designated “gazetted areas”, and these plans vary from “structure plans”, through ‘strategic or forward plans and broad zoning for urban areas to district and local plans and layout schemes. It also provides for development controls to ensure compliance with plan stipulations.</p>	<p>There is an improved draft Town and Country Planning Bill⁴¹ of 2004, but is still to</p>

Existing Legislations	Recommendations
<p>It is the principal legislation that regulates and guides the development of land in areas that have been designated as 'planning areas'. It mandates the Planning Authority to prepare a development plan for the development of land within its jurisdictional area. The Act establishes a Town and Country Planning Board for purposes of examining and approving development plans and making recommendations to the Minister for approval. Once approved, such a development plan becomes a legally binding document to which land developments within a designated area have to conform.</p>	<p>be enacted and would require resourcing for effective implementation.</p>
<p>The Building Control Act 1995: it prescribes building standards in order to ensure structural safety. Amongst other things, it sets standards on building materials, fire resistance, ventilation, sanitation, plumbing and drainage. For implementation and enforcement purposes, the Act establishes a Review Board, a Building Authority and Building Control Officers and spells out their functions. Penalties for non-compliance are also prescribed.</p> <p>It is for urban councils to administer but related institutions still need to be established and resourced.</p>	<p>It requires proper institutionalisation, and resourcing to make it work at the local authority level.</p>
<p>Survey Act 1980: it provides for general land survey control in Lesotho, inclusive of establishing and maintaining geodetic control network for mapping, cadastral surveying and engineering requirements, maintaining copies of national maps, aerial photographs and survey records, controlling and authenticating cadastral surveys for title registration under the Land Act 1979 (now Land Act 2010), and licensing private surveyors.</p>	<p>It requires proper resourcing for effective survey work at the local authority level</p>
<p>The Environment Act 2008: It provides for “for the protection and management of the environment and conservation and sustainable utilization of natural resources of Lesotho and for connected matters”. Its scope covers the areas of establishment of the ‘National Environmental Council’, and further covers environmental planning at national and district levels, environmental impact assessment, audits and monitoring, environmental quality standards, pollution control, environmental management, environmental restoration order, environmental awareness, etc.</p> <p>With respect to settlements and housing, the key parts are Part V (Environmental Impact Assessment, Audits and Monitoring) which deal with types of projects for which an environmental impact assessment or strategic environment assessment is required, submission of project brief, environmental impact studies and statements, review of environmental impact statements, environmental monitoring and environmental audit, environmental impact assessment licence and record of decision, and submission of environmental impact assessment report after issue of environmental impact assessment licence.</p>	<p>Effective implementation is also what is required here; proper institutions and adequate resources are key.</p>
<p>Legal Capacity of Married Persons Act 2006: The Legal Capacity of Married Persons Act 2006, which came into effect on 6 December 2006, removes the following restrictions which a husband had over the person and property of his wife: 1) entering into a contract; 2) suing or being sued; 3) registering immovable property in her name; 4) acting as an executrix of a deceased’s estate; 5) acting as a trustee of an estate; 6) acting as a director of a company; 7) binding herself as surety; and 8) performing any other act which was restricted by any law due to the marital power before the commencement of this Act.</p> <p>Before the commencement of this Act, a woman was regarded as a minor in terms of Lesotho laws and therefore could not enter into any contracts without the consent of her husband. The advent of this Act now confers equal powers on both spouses married in community of property, and requires that both spouses obtain consent of the other spouse when entering into any agreements concerning the joint estate. This means that the spouses now have an equal capacity to dispose of the assets of the joint estate, contract debts for which the joint estate is liable, and administer the joint estate.</p>	<p>The Act requires effective implementation before issues of improvements could arise.</p>
<p>Public Health Order 1970 provides for promotion of public health including management of waste at community, business and industrial levels.</p>	<p>Requires updating.</p>
<p>Sanitary Services and Waste Removal Regulations 1972: these are regulations based on the Public Health Order 1970, and therefore seek to operationalise it by addressing in detail, amongst others, the issues of waste management, refuse removal and latrine sanitation.</p>	<p>Requires updating</p>

Source: Compiled for this document.

The general public identified the following points as noteworthy with respect to the current status of the legislative improvement areas concerns:

- The existence of the Local Government Act 1997 ushering in the new councils requires effective implementation;
- Community Councils, District Councils, Urban Councils and Maseru Municipal Council require financial authority;
- The offices of District Administrator, Town Clerk, Community Councils Secretary and District Council Secretary, should serve the public;
- Local Government Service Commission (of Central Government) has been established to engaged/ employ local authority officers and allocated resources for local level service delivery. The same Commission further engages people for employment at their own local authority areas;
- The Decentralisation Policy provides for devolution of power to the local authorities and represents progress;
- There is now a growing understanding of local governance;
- Legal Capacity of Married Persons Act of 2006 enacted to empower women;
- Some seats in the Council are reserved for women, hence women constitute 49% of Council members; and
- Land Act of 2010 also gives women rights to own land.

4.2 Decentralisation and Strengthening of Local Authorities (540 words)

Lesotho does not have a long history of stable, democratically elected local government system, with the first District Councils elected in 1959 but abolished in 1968. The second local authority in the form of Maseru City Council was instituted in 1989 under the Urban Government Act 1983. The enactment of the Local Government Act 1997 culminated in the first local government elections in 2005 that ushered in the institution of 3 levels of local authority structures: 128 Community Councils for rural and urban areas, 10 District Councils, and 1 Municipal Council for Maseru, the capital. The next elections of 2011, resulted in the institution of revised levels of councils in the form of 10 District Councils, 1 Municipal Council, 11 Urban Councils, and 64 Community Councils, described in the National Decentralisation Policy for Lesotho (2014) as follows:

- **District Councils:** constituted by councillors indirectly elected through electoral colleges comprising members of community and urban councils within the district. Council resolutions are implemented by the District Council Secretary (DCS) who acts as the head of the Council Secretariat and Chief Executive Officer in the District.
- **Municipal Councils:** are constituted by councillors representing wards within an urban area categorised as a municipality. Presently, Maseru City is the only one legally declared as such.
- **Urban Councils:** legally declared urban councils consist of the following: Botha-Bothe, Hlotse, Teya-teyaneng, Mafeteng, Mohale'sHoek, Quthing, Qacha's Nek, Mokhotlong, Thaba-Tseka, Maputsoe and Semonkong. With the exception of Maputsoe and Semonkong, the rest of the councils serve as seats of district headquarters. They are constituted by councillors representing wards within each declared urban area.

- **Community Councils:** they are constituted by councillors elected to represent electoral divisions of the declared council area together with 2 chiefs elected/nominated by other chiefs to represent them in the said council.

The Local Government Act (1997) provides for a total of 27 functions earmarked for urban councils under the First Schedule of the Local Government Act 1997 while the community councils have 7 in the Second Schedule. Such earmarked functions were never meant to be exercised all at once, but to be delegated to such structures progressively in line with improvement in implementation capacity. As of the end of 2014, the MCC fully exercises 14 out of 27 functions, with 4 exercised partially and 9 outstanding. Other urban areas fully exercise 10, with 6 carried out partially and 11 outstanding. Community Councils fully exercise 5 of their 7 functions. Outstanding functions require empowerment and resourcing (technical capacity, resources and guiding framework to deliver services to citizens) by the Central Government.

The Decentralisation Policy (2014) has been developed with the stated overall purpose of deepening and sustaining grassroots-based democratic governance and promoting equitable local development by enhancing citizen participation and strengthening the local government system, while maintaining effective functional and mutual accountable linkages between central and local government entities.

Specific objectives are given as follows:

- Increase citizens' access to public services;
- Ensure quality and accountable service delivery at local levels;
- Increase participation of citizens and non-state organisations in governance and service delivery;
- Promote equitable economic development;
- Promote livelihood and economic security;
- Enhance local autonomy by ensuring that local government institutions are sustainably capacitated and organised with a strong collective voice; and
- Promote the preservation of national values, identity and unity by re-positioning and empowering the chieftainship and other traditional institutions.

Regarding financial aspects of decentralisation, the Decentralisation Policy acknowledges that for local authorities to be effective, they require adequate and predictable flow of income. It recognises the existing main challenges as those of:

- Inadequate Funding from Central Government, which requires urgent addressing;
- Weak Public Financial Management and Accountability Systems existing in the local councils and proper budgeting and public expenditure and accounting system are urgently required; and

- Low local revenue generation existing in the local councils and requires addressing with amongst others incentives to maximise local revenue collection (fees, fines, rents, market dues, pound and grazing fees, etc.).

According to the NSDP, significant progress has been made in the transfer of responsibility from national to local institutions but the process is still on-going. Technical staff has been transferred from national agencies to the councils to enable them to perform their mandates. In parallel, there has been de-concentration of several functions from national agencies to the office of the District Administrator (DA) as the representative of central government at the district level. Technical staff is responsible to the DA administratively and on professional matters to their line ministries.

The NSDP proposes that in order to reach objectives of decentralisation more effectively, it is important to address the following issues: improvement of local capacity for planning, budget management, underemployment of staff due to limited resources for operational expenses; poor service delivery due to limited resources and capacity of the DA's office and local councils; and lack of consensus among all stakeholders on policy direction and vision for decentralisation, including fiscal decentralisation and the role of chiefs.

Current status of issues around the Decentralisation Policy, identified by members of the public as noteworthy, includes the following:

- All required local government structures are seen as formally in place;
- Regular Local government elections have been taking place successfully as scheduled in 2005 and 2011, and the next ones are scheduled for 2016;
- Local authority councils now possess road construction machinery for mostly rudimentary roads; and
- Required local government office spaces from which to launch local development activities and bring services to the communities are steadily being provided by Government,
- Nevertheless, devolution of power is too slow e.g. councils as yet have no power over finances and employees.

4.3 Improving Participation and Human Rights in Urban Development (540 words)

Participation in urban development in Lesotho is quite recent, starting in earnest with the enactment of the Local Government Act 1997, whose implementation in 2005 ushered in the first mass participation of Basotho in local development.

The Policy states that decentralisation is expected to promote participatory democratic governance including political stability; human rights and security, livelihood improvement and equitable local development, amongst others⁴². Specific participation related statements in the policy include the following:

⁴²Ibid

- **Citizens' Participation in and control over service delivery** where GoL undertakes to ensure that besides regular local government elections, citizens are empowered with information, knowledge and confidence to demand services and hold their local leaders and other service providers accountable.
- **Inadequate participation of civil society** where GoL undertakes to facilitate the NGOs, FBOs, and CBOs to participate and contribute more effectively to the national and local development processes, and aligning their programmes to those of the local authorities.
- **Enhance citizens' empowerment and participation** where GoL undertakes to enable citizens to demand quality services and actively participate in governance and service delivery activities, and take responsibility for their own development.
- **Strategic Framework for Participatory and Integrated Planning** where GoL undertakes to ensure that all development planning is integrated, participatory, evidence-based, and focused on addressing citizens' priority needs, taking into account the national strategic priorities and local specific needs and priorities, and all national plans reflect local priorities and are linked to local development plans.
- **Civic Education Programs to enhance Citizens' Empowerment and Accountability** where GoL undertakes to promote holistic civic education to ensure that citizens knowledgeable about their roles, responsibilities and rights, and are able to participate in local and national development activities, and hold service providers accountable.

The NSDP has incorporated the issues of decentralisation with the following plan proposals for implementation, by undertaking to:

- Promote participation of all sections of society, including disadvantaged groups such as youth, women and people with disabilities, in decision-making processes;
- Introduce leadership training programmes for different sections of society;
- Establish effective social dialogue mechanisms; and
- Promote cultural events and other mechanisms for cultural preservation as a way of promoting social cohesion.

Issues of participation of older persons and the youth in particular have been covered under Sections 1.3 to 1.5 of this report.

4.4 Enhancing Urban Safety and Security *(540 words)*

The Lesotho Second State of the Environment Report for 2002⁴³ reported on the status of crime and safety in detail in the context of it being a proxy for the level of safety and security and hence one of the main indicators of the achieved quality of life. It noted the crime wave related to property as having remained largely constant over the previous 5 years. The most prevalent crime had been common theft followed by house breaking. Stock theft had increased moderately since 1996 to 2000. The numbers of offences against persons had remained essentially the same over the same reporting period, with similar trends to those committed against property. It observed however that common assault had been the highest crime committed by inhabitants of Lesotho, displaying an increase over the preceding 5 years.

⁴³GOL, Lesotho Second State of the Environment Report for 2002

In relation to safety aspects related to traffic, the report noted significant increase in the number of vehicles on the roads, and so had road accidents, with most accidents occurring in Maseru, Leribe and Berea, which had the highest number of vehicles respectively. Unsatisfactory conditions of roads also contributed to a high rate of road accidents. Geographically, the lowlands had more vehicles than the highlands and thus more road accidents. These accidents were also related to the age group of drivers, with the worst offenders being in the age group of middle age (30 to 40 years), followed by that of the young (20 to 30 years) and the last being that of adults (40 to 50 years)

The NSDP 2012/13-2016/17 acknowledges that the rule of law, equitable access and efficient administration of justice are prerequisites for human rights protection and sustainable social and economic development. Some crimes are increasing such as cash heists, burglary, organised theft of vehicles and livestock, and the police fail to respond promptly to reported crimes, make relatively few arrests, and convictions are even fewer.⁴⁴ Consequently, communities resort to extra-judicial killings. Poor performance of the police is attributed mainly to: understaffing, poor access to basic tools, equipment and transport, limited technical capacity, corruption, poor accountability and oversight. There is also need to improve gender balance in the police service. Several laws are outdated, while there is limited capacity for drafting bills.

During the plan period, it is proposed to:

- Strengthen capacity (quality and quantity) and conditions of service and up-root corruption in the Police Service;
- Identify options to accelerate training of police and National Security forces to deal effectively with crime and national security threats;
- Enhance and formalise community policing models;
- Strengthen coordination and collaboration between institutions for law and order and national security;
- Enhance the justice system to be more equitable, effective and efficient;
- Facilitate the smooth operation of the commercial court and training of judicial personnel;
- Facilitate the establishment of small claims court;
- Improve the local courts infrastructure and service;
- Strengthen the legal aid system by reviewing the current legal frameworks with the objective of improving protection for vulnerable groups, building capacity of staff and assessing the options for decentralising legal aid services so that indigent Basotho have access to justice;
- Promote and build capacity to implement alternative dispute resolution mechanisms, thereby reducing the backlog of cases in higher courts;
- Review legal training system/ programmes to improve quality and relevance; and
- Enhance legal drafting capacity. (NSDP p 134)

The public, for its part, has currently noted the following with respect to the enhancing of urban safety and security:

- Establishment of local crime prevention clubs in the communities;
- There are street lights, including high-mast ones, that are working efficiently; and
- Increasing numbers of visible police officers in urban areas enhances safety.

⁴⁴GOL, National Strategic Development Plan 2012/13-2016/17

4.5 Improving Social Inclusion and Equity (540 words)

The NSDP 2012/13-2016/17 considers that vulnerability in Lesotho is demonstrated by the high rates of poverty, HIV and AIDS and unemployment (NSDP pp 124-125). The government is thus currently implementing several major programmes to tackle the situation, including the provision of the old age pension to people who are over 70 years, the school feeding programme, bursaries for orphans and vulnerable children, food and cash for work, food aid, social assistance for people with disability and the Orphaned and Vulnerable Children (OVCs). The 2006 Census indicated that there were 221,000 orphans, and about 70,000 people were living with disabilities. The Plan's primary goal is then to prevent and reduce the economic and social vulnerabilities of the most disadvantaged and socially excluded segment of the society, and to that end it suggests the development of a social protection system that promotes prevention and reduction of exposure and enhances coordinated management of risks⁴⁵. It accordingly proposes to undertake the following:

- Consolidate and improve efficiency of social protection systems and enhance coverage of selected interventions ;
- Increase capacity of able bodied persons to deal with vulnerability ;
- Improve work safety and ease job search;
- Increase capacity for disaster risk management at household, community and national level by among others, considering establishment of a Disaster Risk Management and Climate Change Fund;
- Consolidate and improve efficiency of social protection systems and enhance coverage of selected interventions;
- Increase capacity of able bodied persons to deal with vulnerability; and
- Improve work safety and ease job search.

The public, on the other hand, has noted the following achievements relating to 'Improving Social Inclusion and Equity' :

- Existence of non-discriminatory laws such as those relating to married persons and the Land Act 2010;
- Older persons form core part of public gatherings and development plan participants; and
- Elderly women actively participate in local government elections.

4.6 Challenges Experienced and Lessons Learnt in these Areas (730 words)

Improving Urban Legislation

Identified legislations begin with the Lesotho Constitution, the Land Act 2010, the Local Government Act of 1997 and the Environment Act 2008 which, being quite recent, require full implementation before considering any improvements, while others such as the Valuation and Rating Act 1980, Town and Country Planning Act 1980, Public Health Order 1970 and Sanitary Services and Waste Removal Regulations 1972 all require updating to align them with the current challenges.

Of foremost concern to the public regarding legislative improvement, issues currently include the following:

⁴⁵ Ibid

- Existing local government related laws need to be reviewed to align them to current challenges with focus on the management of: pastures, forests, and resource mobilization;
- Most of existing laws lack supporting policies (except Local Government Act 1997 with its Decentralisation Policy of 2014) and the challenge should be to provide such policies, by-laws and regulations in order to help guide effective implementation of legal provisions;
- Urban and rural councils do not have any financial powers as yet, hence they are unable to fully discharge their mandate;
- Devolution of powers through the Local Government Act 1997 to the local authorities still to be realised on the ground;
- It is a challenge to provide adequate training for councillors as well as local authority personnel to enable them to effectively discharge their mandates;
- Another challenge concerns the councillors' complain that they are not adequately remunerated for the job they do;
- Different political party affiliations of councillors hamper harmony and consensus in decision making;
- Women's rights require to be respected, especially with the Legal Capacity of Married Persons Act (2006) in place;
- It is a challenge that election of candidates into local government structures does not take into consideration any qualifications or competencies;
- The courts of law continue to pass judgements but sentences do not seem to provide no deterrence of offences;
- Chieftainship Law and Local Government Law contradict each other especially on issues of land allocation; and
- Inheritance law has to be reviewed to cater for all members of the family and not just focus on the eldest sons, but should align with the Land Act 2010 and the Legal Capacity of Married Persons Act (2006).

Decentralisation

Decentralization and local authorities are still a new phenomenon in Lesotho. The Local Government Act 1997(as amended) , was only implemented in 2005. Further, the Decentralization Policy 2014 is a newly created instrument to guide the devolution of power from central government to local authority structures. The NSDP, as the government's key action plan, presents the challenge as being that of addressing improvement of local capacity for planning, budget management, underemployment of staff due to limited resources, poor service delivery due to limited resources and capacity of local councils, fiscal decentralization and harmonization with the chieftainship. These are considered adequate and the challenge lies with effective implementation before additional issues could be considered.

Of foremost concerns to the public regarding 'Decentralisation and Strengthening of Local Authorities', issues currently include the following:

- The challenge is for the central government to devolve powers expeditiously as people are starting to show impatience with respect to delivery of services;
- Another challenge is lack of funds required to enable local government structures to implement development programmes;

- Another challenge is in the Chieftainship Act of 1968 clashing with the Local Government Act of 1997 on issues of land allocation and this requires resolving; and
- Party political differences among local Councillors cause conflict and therefore hamper progress.

Improving Participation and Human Rights in Urban Development

The issues of ‘Improving Participation and Human Rights in Urban Development’ are in-built in the Decentralisation Policy and the Local Government Act (1997) policy instruments, and hence effective implementation would address them.

Urban Safety and Security

The NSDP provides government’s action plans on the issues of urban safety and security, which are deemed adequate and the challenge lies in the effective implementation of the plans before additional issues could be added.

Nevertheless, of foremost concerns to the public regarding ‘enhancing urban safety and security’ issues relate to the following:

- People enjoy security when basic human rights are not violated;
- OVCs should be protected;
- There is some backing-up for some support-groups;
- While street lights have been installed, their area coverage is poor and most of them are not in working order;
- Illegal mining/ exploitation of natural resources such as sand, sandstone, quarry and forests remain a challenge;
- Crime prevention clubs do not have the necessary equipment;
- Crime prevention clubs do not have meals and other allowances while on search assignments;
- Police response to requests for support is slow, putting crime prevention club members at risk;
- Means to fuel police vehicles should be improved;
- Courts of law delay to make rulings over cases presented to them;
- There is a serious shortage of judges at the local courts; and
- The non-payment of compensation of witnesses delays the processing of cases.

Social Inclusion and Equity

The NSDP already provides government’s action plans on the issues of improving social inclusion and equity and these are adequate for current state capacity to meet the effective implementation challenges of the plans.

Nevertheless, of foremost concerns to the public regarding ‘Improving Social Inclusion and Equity’ issues currently include the following:

- There is currently poor communication and lack of coordination of activities between the central government and the local authorities;
- There is a need for community members to be educated about their roles in urban governance through workshops, campaigns and public gatherings; and

- There is poor follow-up on issues discussed between the dwellers and the officers responsible for the implementation of plans.

4.7 Future Challenges and Issues in These Areas That could be Addressed by a New Urban Agenda (730 words)

Improving Urban Legislation

There are pieces of legislation requiring improvements while others just require effective implementation. Effective implementation of existing laws is more important and urgent than bringing up new ones, and this calls for provision of supporting policies where they do not exist. Thus the new urban agenda should focus on providing such policies, by-laws and regulations in order to guide effective implementation of legal provisions. These need to be produced timeously for incorporation into the next National Strategic Development Plan (2017/18 – 2022/23).

Decentralisation and Strengthening of Local Authorities

The NSDP identifies the challenge as requirement to address the following issues: improvement of local capacity for planning, budget management, underemployment of staff due to limited resources, poor service delivery due to limited resources and capacity of local councils, fiscal decentralisation and harmonisation with chieftainship. The strategy still lies with effective implementation before additional measures could be added. The new urban agenda for Lesotho has to be developed for implementation through the next National Strategic Development Plan (2017/18 – 2022/23).

Improving Participation and Human Rights in Urban Development

The issues are in-built in the Decentralisation Policy and the Local Government Act (1997), and hence effective implementation of decentralization automatically addresses them. The new urban agenda should focus on effective policy implementation while also evaluating the present and developing the next National Strategic Development Plan (2017/18 – 2022/23).

Urban Safety and Security

The NSDP already provides government's action plans on the issues, beefed up by the Decentralisation Policy. Thus the new urban agenda should focus on effective implementation of the plans, evaluation of current plan to draw lessons and use them and any new information for incorporation in the next National Strategic Development Plan (2017/18 – 2022/23).

Social Inclusion and Equity

The issues have been covered in the current NSDP (2012/13-2016/17) and hence should be under implementation, which means the new urban agenda should focus on effective implementation, evaluation of the current plan to draw lessons, and preparation of the next National Strategic Development Plan (2017/18 – 2022/23).

5.0 URBAN ECONOMY: ISSUES AND CHALLENGES FOR A NEW URBAN AGENDA

5.1 Improving Municipal/Local Finance (540 words)

The Decentralisation Policy (2014) recognises financial responsibility as a core component of decentralisation, and that local authorities require adequate and predictable flow of income to be effective. However, local authorities face the following challenges:

- **Inadequate Funding** where financial transfers to local councils have been around M179 to M229 million during the period 2007/08 – 2012/13, which is (2-5%) of national recurrent budget and (60%) of MoLGC's budget.
- **Weak Public Financial Management and Accountability Systems** whereby local councils' financial management is still manual, which GoL regards as being below the 'required threshold for public expenditure'.
- **Low local revenue generation** whereby local councils collect hardly any revenue currently, with some collecting no more than M5, 000 a year – just enough to pay one councillor's allowances for one month.

The GoL intends to undertake measures for inter-governmental fiscal transfers for more efficient implementation of service delivery, while maintaining strict fiscal and public financial management discipline, accompanied by strong systems and procedures to assure effective, efficient, transparent and accountable planning, budgeting, public expenditure management, and accountability at all levels of the decentralised service delivery⁴⁶.

The Valuation and Rating Act 1980 provides for a system of valuation and rating of property to raise revenue to finance public services and connected purposes within their jurisdictions. The Local Government Act of 1997 (sections 47-63 and section 85(2)) confers financial powers on the local authorities with specific controls and management stipulated in its Financial Regulations. The budgeting and auditing systems are stipulated in the Act (Section 61(1) and Section 63 respectively) and in Financial Regulations (Part 20 and the "First Schedule").

Since its establishment in 1989, the MCC had been expected to achieve financial sustainability within a few years, leaving the Central Government to support capital projects. However, this never materialized due to the Council's failure to raise the required revenue. Rapid urban growth has exacerbated the situation, manifesting in failure to maintain the standard of services, particularly in the areas of road infrastructure and drainage systems, sanitation, solid waste management, street lighting, management of informal street vendors and informal settlements, amongst others.

Of the 27 functions to be exercised by municipalities under the Local Government Act of 1997, the MCC currently fully exercises 14, with 4 exercised partially and 9 outstanding. Power to levy rates is contained in section 56 (1) of the Act. Currently, MCC's major source of revenue is property rates collected from less than a quarter of the city's settlements (Maseru West, Hoohlo, Matsoatlareng, Thibella, Stadium Area, Maseru East, Cathedral Area, Mohalalitoe, Khubetsoana (LEHCOOP only) Katlehong, Lower Thetsane, Hillsvie, and Arrival Centre)⁴⁷.

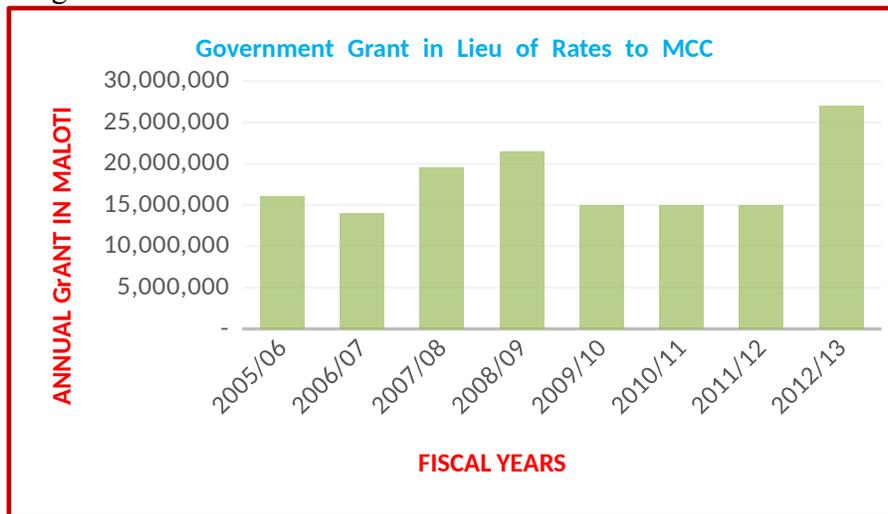
46MLGCPA, National Decentralisation Policy for Lesotho, February 2014

47MCC, Payment of Property Rates by the Government of Lesotho, 2013

The most valuable of properties in the above areas belong to the Government of Lesotho, and the Council is unable to collect full rates here as the Government decided decades ago to pay it a ‘grant in lieu of rates’, amounting to less than a quarter of the due amount.

MCC’s ‘Grant in lieu of Rates’ has always come in the form of ‘subvention’ from the Central Government. In the last 8 years, the MCC ‘grant in lieu of rates’ amounts fluctuated between M15,000,000 and 27,000,000 from 2005/2006 to 2012/2013 as illustrated in figure 6 below.

Figure 6: Annual Government Grants to MCC 2005/6 - 2012/13



13.

The overall GoL property value within the MCC area in 1999 stood at M9,647,165,645.00 as per the valuation that was carried out by Oxbow Property Consultants. This means that GoL ought to be duly paying the MCC in the order of M **192 943 312.90** per year as property tax since 1999⁴⁸.

Currently, the ‘grant in lieu of rates’ only caters for the recurrent budget - specifically staff/personnel costs as the MCC finances the rest from its own revenue collections, with the Government regularly funding some of the required capital budget (on ad hoc basis).

Out of the current debtors from the valuation roll, only (10%) are actually paying rates and the main reasons for that could be explained as follows:

- Out-dated valuation roll;
- Financial Billing System lacking in enforcement as the MCC does not have effective sanctions to apply on defaulters; or
- Staff shortage.⁴⁹

The MCC require revenue to fund various municipal services such as were envisaged in the MCC capital programme for Financial Year 2013/14. These included the following priorities:

- Implementation of the City cleanliness programme including garbage collection, eradication of illegal dumps, street sweeping. This priority area is estimated to cost M 5,000,000 per year;

48⁴⁸Ibid

49⁴⁹Ibid

- Improvement of roads and drainage infrastructure in the peri-urban areas. The estimated cost for maintaining gravel roads in the 13 MCC wards at 3km/ward totals M6,000,000, and this excludes areas of ongoing roads construction or reconstruction, mostly in the peri-urban areas;
- Street lights along the main roads and high mast lights in unplanned settlements: the Council is tasked with paying for the whole urban street lighting at a cost of M5, 000,000/year, as well as urban road upgrading program that includes new street lights provision. The Council has to also provide security in the form of high rise mast lighting in areas lacking infrastructure. Estimated cost for 5 high mast lights is M8,800,000;
- Improvement of City Parks;
- Street Naming; and
- Development of an Environmental Management Plan.

The Municipality recognizes that today's competitive economic climate compels municipalities to explore alternative revenue sources and it intends pursuing this through its Strategic Plan⁵⁰

Members of the public noted the financial issues related to the MCC and other urban councils as follows:

- Property rates collection needs to be expanded beyond 13 localities in Maseru but this is to be accompanied by expanded provision of services, especially roads, street lighting and garbage collection;
- Municipal fees such as parking, building permits, health, recreation, land fees, waste management are normally charged to the users;
- Leasing and sub-leasing of properties including land is a possible investment avenue and source of rental revenue;
- Urban residents are provided with the following services at a cost: toilets, including portable ones, hire of chairs, tents and utensils; abattoir, permits, open markets, community halls and grazing pastures;
- Central government pays grants to the local government structures;
- All funds collected for services by ministries/departments/agencies go to central government and do not benefit the local government structures;
- Councils should immediately be allowed some autonomy in the mobilisation and utilization of the funds they mobilise ; and
- The grants allocated are too little to meet the needs of the local authorities, and to make it worse, these grants are delivered late in the financial year.

5.2 Strengthening and Improving Access to Housing Finance (540 words)

Access to housing finance in Lesotho ceased being a policy priority in the 1990s when large scale housing projects, as well as comprehensive upgrading of informal settlements ceased .The Lesotho Building Finance Corporation was merged with Lesotho Bank. The Agricultural Development Bank was liquidated and the Lesotho Bank was privatised to form the present-day Standard Lesotho Bank. The consequence was that by 2000, there was no longer any indigenous bank or housing finance institutions in Lesotho. Housing finance only came from commercial banks, which meted such

⁵⁰MCC, Strategic Plan (2013-2016) Jan. 2014

stringent loan access conditions that only the highest income earners could afford. The majority of residents were hence excluded, but since formal financing had hitherto never been provided on any significant scale, the residents continued to provide their housing using their own resources.

The National Report on the Review and Appraisal of the Implementation of the Habitat Agenda (2001) reported that “in Lesotho, the majority of households acquire shelter through informal, self-help initiatives”⁵¹. It observed that a “relatively small number of households can access mortgage loans within the set household income” threshold.

The “Cities without slums Programme: Situational Analysis” report for UN Habitat by MoLGC in 2005 showed that banks in Lesotho require applicants for financing to provide “a valid passport or form of identification, income payslip or proof of income statement, letter of confirmation from employer,”⁵² lease title, architectural plan of the house with building permit, and quotations from 3 building contractors, from which the financing institution would choose one. The house should be insured through and the owner be covered with a life-cover insurance. The building contractor also has to insure his building materials. All loans can be repaid at the rate of (17%) per annum on a 20 year mortgage period.

The NSDP 2012/13-2016/17 recognises that it is important to improve access to finance or promote housing and property development solutions that enable households and entrepreneurs to own or rent at acceptable terms, regularise and/or enforce laws for property rental markets, especially to ensure safety and order; improve access to basic services such as water, sanitation, roads, education and health services especially in rural areas; and provide access to recreational facilities and other services. It further says vulnerable groups including those in slums/squatter settlements, the elderly and orphaned and vulnerable children (OVCs) and the poor need to be assisted to live in decent dwellings including increasing security of tenure. It also notes that property can serve as collateral for households seeking financial assistance to establish business ventures which can help alleviate poverty. In this way, the housing sector has potential to increase decent job creation in both construction and materials production. This potential has been demonstrated by recent developments of commercial and housing estates by the private sector in the capital, Maseru.

The NSDP then seeks to undertake the following:

- Facilitate access to housing finance by designing instruments for different segments of the market and developing a housing development resource mobilisation strategy;
- Facilitate acquisition of land parcels for housing development and well developed land/housing market;
- Evaluate and empower public housing development agencies and explore ways of increasing private participation in housing development;
- Regularise the housing market;
- Identify and implement cost effective housing solutions for industrial workers to reduce cost of living and commute.

⁵¹GOL, National Report on the Review and Appraisal of the Implementation of the Habitat Agenda (Istanbul +5), February 2001

⁵²MLGCPA, Cities without slums Programme: Situational Analysis, UN Habitat, 2005

The expressed public perception regarding the current state of access to housing finance situation in Lesotho revealed the following points:

- Issuance of leases on a large scale (over 55,000 in 2011 to 2013) under the newly established Land Administration Authority including through the regularisation of sites in informal settlements will provide the loan security banks require and thus increase access to finance;
- There is a promising but limited issuing of housing finance loans, offered directly or indirectly through guarantees to banks or mortgage subsidies - to some staff members of major companies and public institutions;
- Private banks are starting to make it possible for general middle income people to start accessing housing loans with less and less stringent loan conditions but numbers are still very limited;
- Informal micro-finance entities are starting to appear and assist lower income members to access housing finance; and
- Nevertheless more and more householders proceed to somehow build their own houses.

5.3 Creating Decent Jobs and Livelihoods (540 words)

The GoL has been facilitating industrial development through investment incentives such as provision of industrial infrastructure through the Lesotho National Development Corporation (LNDC) with its Investment Promotion Centre for attracting Foreign Direct Investment (FDI), which facilitates creation of an enabling investment environment in Lesotho⁵³. The GoL has also developed an overarching Private Public Partnership (PPP) policy, which is yet to be adopted and this should increase creation of decent jobs.

The NSDP acknowledges that business activity tends to cluster in core production and transport hubs where the Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises (MSMEs), and the informal sector normally develop linkages alongside large firms by offering goods and services needed by those firms and workers, thus raising household incomes by creating better paying and more secure employment in the urban private sector. Thus the NSDP will institute investment climate reforms in areas where the poor are located, and also facilitate the growth of MSMEs, including expansion of the textiles and clothing hub as well as increasing exports. It will also upgrade textile and clothing curriculum at skills development centres and at technical and vocational training centres; develop industrial clusters to diversify products and develop integrated supply chains; and increase local participation in manufacturing.

The Decentralisation Policy also reinforces the ‘creation of decent jobs and livelihoods’ at the local authority level through advocacy for Local Economic Development (LED) strategy, through the following strategic actions

- Support to local governments to explore and map local economic endowments and development potentials, and formulation of comprehensive local economic development (LED) strategies, programs and action plans;
- Investment in local development infrastructure (including roads and markets) to expand local livelihoods and economic development opportunities;

⁵³GOL, Lesotho Second State of the Environment Report for 2002

- Promotion of public-private partnerships (PPPs) to attract private capital investments, and establish mechanisms to support simple PPPs that benefit local poor people (with special attention to youth and women);
- Promotion of productive rural and urban land use practices by identifying and zoning areas for different functions, including urban development /expansion on the basis of biophysical and socio-economic suitability and technical feasibility;
- Establishment of a special fiscal and technical support mechanism to address the special or unique needs of urban areas, especially in areas of infrastructure, physical planning, housing, technology, water management and revenue management;
- Formulation of an urban development strategy with emphasis on ensuring that all urban areas are established based on known potential and provided with essential infrastructure and other amenities to attract capital and resource inflows; and match service delivery with demand; and
- Formulation of strategy for settlement re -organisation to promote organised settlements in line with the long term goals of access to basic services and formulate appropriate guidelines /regulations for buildings.

City dwellers participating in the consultative workshops noted the following in relation to creating decent jobs.

- Efforts have been made to facilitate the establishment of industries, shops, small scale businesses and facilities for street vendors;
- Public institutions outsource catering services, which benefit local entrepreneurs, especially women;
- Local authorities provide land at significant pace for establishment and construction of residential, commercial, industrial and institutional buildings;
- Some local authorities are also starting to invite or attract investors;
- Construction companies create some temporary local employment and further purchase local materials, which promote the local economy;
- Some access to micro loans for starting or establishing businesses is starting to emerge;and
- Cooperatives within the localities are being encouraged or promoted.

The citizens further observed that grants made to councils by central government are not only limited, but are also released too late to be a factor in addressing the needs of local authorities. Meanwhile, all funds collected for services go to the central government and do not benefit local authorities. The city dwellers thus proposed that councils be allowed to raise and keep locally generated revenues. They also advocated for harmonization of laws that would create conducive environment for investment, including easing access to financing for business in order to promote local economic development.

5.4 Supporting Local Economic Development (540 words)

The NSDP 2012/13-2016/2017 places significant importance to investment climate reforms in areas where the poor are located. For its part, the Decentralization Policy advocates for adoption of Local Economic Development (LED) strategies for direct impact on the creation of decent jobs and livelihoods. Specific policy framework, laws and regulations to provide guidelines for the LED policy however do not exist yet. A thorough study that draws from international best practices will be

necessary for developing the LED strategy. The study would provide a foundation for a national framework and guidelines. Central to the effectiveness of the envisaged LED strategy should be sustainable exploitation of the local resource potential and engagement with the local leadership as well as support to local entrepreneurs to stimulate their investment appetite.

GOL is committed, through the Decentralization Policy, to promote local economic development aimed at harnessing the local potential through enhancing the leadership capacity of local authorities, nurturing and promoting local entrepreneurs to become more vibrant and innovative, and the development of appropriate modern support infrastructure in all districts and selected localities. GOL specifically undertakes to gazette districts, municipalities and localities as economic development zones and enable the local authorities to mobilize and attract private entrepreneurs to their localities to help transform their local economies. GOL will furthermore work with local authorities and private sector actors to ensure that economic development activities promoted in their areas have a strategic and sustainable positive effect on the national economy, and significantly benefit local people through job creation, markets for their products, technological diffusion /transfer, triggering creation of alternative livelihood opportunities and other positive values.

The commitment by the GOL to re-organize settlements introduces a significant policy breakthrough in that it places urban development at the centre of service delivery and development, which adds significant content and impetus to the local economic development agenda. Also central to the strategy will be reliance on the local leadership to champion the process and facilitate in matters pertaining to local decisions, public participation and land related issues.

Issues on LED strategy and job creation in the context of decentralization as raised by citizens included the following:

- Establishment of industries, provision of shops, other businesses, small scale businesses and provision of facilities for street vendors are positive indicators;
- Public institutions outsource certain services from local entrepreneurs;
- Local authorities provide land at significant pace for establishment and construction of residential, commercial, industrial and institutional buildings. Some local authorities are also starting to invite or attract investors;
- Construction companies create some temporary local employment and further buy local materials - which promotes the local economy;
- Some access to micro loans/ capital for starting or establishing businesses are starting to appear;
- Cooperatives within the localities are being encouraged or promoted;
- Promotion of PPP projects between government and private sector will generate local development;
- The grants allocated to councils are too little to meet the needs of the local authorities, and these grants are delivered late in the financial year;
- All funds collected for services go to the central government and do not benefit the local government structures, hence councils should be allowed some autonomy in the mobilisation and use of local funds;
- There is a need to harmonise laws that enable a conducive environment for investing;
- There is need to ease access to finance to establish business to promote urban economic growth;

- Local government authorities should generate their own income by amongst others, charging for extraction of gravel, river sand, sandstone and crush-stone, as well as other locally available and valuable natural resources;
- Investors should be encouraged to invest in all districts, especially the mountain districts;
- Most of the jobs on offer do not provide living wages; and
- Delays in effecting payments once people had performed outsourced jobs disrupts small businesses.

5.5 Integration of Urban Economy into National Development Policy (540 words)

The Decentralisation Policy provides for coordination as well as ‘Integration of Urban Economy into National Development Policy’. The National Development Policy through the current NSDP 2012/13-2016/17 acknowledges and supports decentralisation while the Decentralisation Policy (2014) itself, coming out later, is based on the NSDP. The two therefore, reinforce each other.

Since the NSDP is national in character, and coordinates all public sector plans, it recognises that such plans are implemented on the ground, where issues of settlements and decentralisation are articulated. The NSDP also acknowledges that urbanisation brings more citizens closer to centres of employment as well as to basic services such as schools, clinics and utilities. It recognises that the per capita cost of providing infrastructure is less in urban areas than in rural areas due to geography, population or economies of scale, hence in urban areas, particularly when well-planned, government can do more by providing for more citizens with less capital outlay.

The NSDP predicts that the urban population will grow by (20%) over the next 10 years, and the NSDP itself is geared towards accelerating the trend towards more urbanization as business activity tends to cluster in core production and transport hubs. The Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises (MSMEs), including the informal sector normally develop linkages alongside large firms by offering goods and services that firms and workers need. To address the challenges associated with unplanned urbanisation, GOL requires effective planning policies and institutions so as to ensure that the urbanization benefits are realised and risks mitigated⁵⁴. With respect to infrastructural requirements, the plan prioritises improvements in transport, power, water and sanitation, as echoed in the Decentralisation Policy.

5.6 Challenges Experienced and Lessons Learnt in these Areas (730 words)

Improving municipal/local finance

The NSDP and the Decentralization Policy converge on the imperative for effective implementation of policy on improving municipal/local finance which is predicated on adequate financing. The issues have been raised under both ‘improving municipal/local finance’ and under ‘strengthening and improving access to housing finance’.

Strengthening and improving access to housing finance

Issues of ‘Strengthening and improving access to housing finance’ have been shown to be deficient in Lesotho due to lack of local financing institutions and absence of large-scale state sponsored

⁵⁴GOL, National Strategic Development Plan 2012/13-2016/17

housing schemes, especially to the lower income groups. People have been used to building their own houses with their own means that it has become a way of life. State intervention would require creativity to change this culture in a significant way and to enhance rather than constrain housing provision in Lesotho with stringent terms and conditions. Furthermore, the NSDP, as an embodiment of the government's action plan on the housing finance issue, has not addressed the financing issue, hence no state intervention proposals, no resources allocation. Thus the challenge with housing finance is that it must first be recognised as a priority worth pursuing. Accordingly, the government will study the issue, draw a plan, and then implement it in the context of the next plan NSDP(2017/18 – 2022/23). Current private sector initiatives with real estate developments have encountered low demand as a consequence of relatively low salaries of potential house purchasers.

As for the current public concerns regarding the issues of 'improving municipal/local finance' and on 'strengthening and improving access to housing finance', these could be summarised as follows:

- There is too much complication and red tape in the path of accessing housing finance;
- There is need to adjust financing conditions to local standards to accommodate various earning levels of the locals as the current thresh-holds are not realistic;
- Attitudes need to change as culturally, a house is not seen as an investment but as an asset for permanent ownership;
- Affordability is a challenge as some households fail to pay back loans for various reasons;
- Required documentation for accessing loans is difficult to provide by many households;
- Bank branches in smaller towns do not offer similar financing services to those offered in Maseru, and thus placing the small town household at a disadvantage; and
- Households continue to build their own houses without any assistance from the banks as some conditions set by the banks, including high interest rates, are hard to meet.

Creating decent jobs and livelihoods

The issues of 'creating decent jobs and livelihoods' in the human settlements context have not been directly addressed in the Decentralisation Policy. There is broad mention of decentralisation, urbanisation, infrastructure provision and exploitation of local resources in partnership with private sector in both the Decentralisation Policy and the NSDP, but no programmes nor framework exist. To the extent that issues are still at the policy or concept level, both the Decentralisation Policy and the NSDP have proposals that require to be effectively implemented to support 'creating decent jobs and livelihoods' on the ground. Also continuing to pose a challenge, as pointed out by private sector partners, is political common ground to achieve stability, which is critical for promoting investment. Another challenge has been the lack of skilled personnel with the necessary industry exposure, the absence of which causes developers to import foreign labour at the expense of developing local capacity.

Issues raised by citizens participating in the dialogue on 'creating decent jobs and livelihoods':

- Operationalisation of a one-stop-shop is a step in the right direction regarding company registration, related services and creation of businesses by the private sector;
- Clear policies required to address or promote urban economy;
- Pro-poor policies required, including addressing the need for accessing micro-financing;

- Sustainability of cooperatives is still a challenge i.e. there is general failure to sustain community co-operatives;
- Attracting investors is not an easy task, and the rate at which investors commit to urban areas other than Maseru City requires boosting up;
- Lack of open and serviced land for new business development presents a challenge, and furthermore people still continue to sell urban and peri-urban area sites illegally;
- Foreign investors tend to repatriate their profits back to their home countries rather than re-investing them locally;
- Public sector interface related cases of corrupt practices are increasing, and furthermore, crime and theft are on the rise;
- Catering companies provide services under very stringent conditions, making sustainability difficult; and
- Employees' rights and welfare are not protected and factory workers work in unsafe areas and receive low wages because policies aimed at attracting investments do not also cater for the welfare and safety of employees.

Supporting Local Economic Development

Local Authorities will not be able to assume leadership in supporting Local Economic Development because they do not have financial strength to translate their plans into action. They raise little and keep no monies. The grants they get from central government come too little, too late. As already alluded to, a concrete policy and regulatory framework needs to be developed to guide and support the LED strategy but to be effective, the exercise will need to observe the much anticipated re – alignment of the human settlements sector.

Integration of the urban economy into national development policy

The Decentralisation Policy and the NSDP converge on the need for effective measures to implement strategies related to integration of the urban economy into the national economy as articulated in the two policy instruments. Key in implementation will be the creation of a conducive environment for participation by the private sector, both institutional and regulatory, including invoking Private Public Partnerships.

Citizens' concerns over the issue of 'Integration of the urban economy into national development policy' have included the following:

- The citizens had no knowledge of laws , policies and regulations that provided for direction with regard to the growth of the urban economy;
- There is need for harmonization of laws, policies and regulations that affect LED and a conducive environment for investing;
- Councils need to be empowered over finances and employees to exercise their mandates regarding promotion of the urban economy;
- Government should assist councils, especially those in the highlands, to entice investors to their areas;
- Foreign investors should be encouraged to reinvest their profits locally instead of taking them back to their home countries;

- There is lack of pro-poor policies, including the difficulty in accessing micro-financing for establishment of businesses and promotion of urban economic growth;
- It is important to encourage the use of PPPs to help improve the urban economy;
- There is short supply of local expertise required to expand sustainable jobs; and
- Local government authorities should generate their own income by charging for extraction of local minerals such as river-sand, sand-stone mining, gravel for road building, crush-stone for general construction, and use the funds for infrastructure provision.

5.7 Future Challenges and Issues in These Areas That could be Addressed by a New Urban Agenda (730 words)

Improving municipal/local finance

Both the Decentralization Policy and the NSDP raise issues including lack of resources, an issue that in turn constrains effective implementation. While the NSDP does offer some remedial action under its current programmes, the New Urban Agenda should be to scale up the implementation effectiveness as well as to help focus on accelerated implementation rate, evaluation of impact and drawing lessons for the next NSDP.

Strengthening and improving access to housing finance

General lack of local financing institutions as well as lack of large-scale public provision of housing projects - especially to the lower income groups, all serve to underscore the deficiency of state intervention in the housing sector. People have always built their own houses and formal banks have been financing only a negligible number for high income earners. The new urban agenda therefore has to start at the point where state intervention would need to come up with large-scale housing provision projects, especially for the lower income groups as was the case prior to 1990, together with related financing mechanisms. People have always built houses through their own means, and that should be improved rather than ignored. The above should be planned for incorporation into the next National Strategic Development Plan 2017/18 – 2022/23. Also important is the overall improvement of the economy for more jobs and improved incomes.

Creating decent jobs and livelihoods

The issues of ‘creating decent jobs and livelihoods’ in the human settlements context have not been directly addressed in both the Decentralisation Policy and the NSDP. This means that the new urban agenda’s task should start by carrying out planning studies for ‘creating decent jobs and livelihoods’ for inclusion in the next NSDP 2017/18 – 2022/23. However, private sector partners to the dialogue raised the need for improving access to land and finance to accelerate creation of decent jobs, particularly through infrastructure development.

Integration of the urban economy into national development policy

Both the Decentralisation Policy (2014) and the NSDP 2012/13-2016/17 address the issue of ‘Integration of the urban economy into national development policy’ in detail. The two are intertwined, as the Decentralisation Policy was developed at the start of implementation of the NSDP. Accelerated and effective implementation of both the Plan and the Policy constitutes the subject of the new urban agenda, accompanied by evaluation of performance to draw lessons for NSDP 2017/18-2022/23.

Supporting Local Economic Development

The Decentralization Policy (2014) has set the agenda with broad parameters of action by central government on the one hand and local authorities on the other. The central government is tasked with identifying and harmonising all policies and laws that would facilitate the creation of conducive environment for local investment. Central government is further expected to integrate the local economic development strategy programmes with the urbanisation and settlement re-organization policy that it has set for itself. The government has committed itself to promoting and fast tracking development of towns and small urban centres, which are to be used as engines of economic growth, service delivery and industrial and commercial hubs. At the same time, central government will need to free local authorities to unleash their leadership and knowledge of their local areas to lead the local economic development agenda. The central government will provide external resources such as infrastructure and technological innovation, while local councils will be empowered to implement the programme. Government will create an environment that will facilitate collaboration between it, local authorities and the private sector. The New Urban Agenda should therefore reinforce the inherent cohesion and synergy between the NSDP and the Decentralization Policy for sustainable urbanisation.

6.0 HOUSING AND BASIC SERVICES: ISSUES AND CHALLENGES FOR A NEW URBAN AGENDA

6.1 Slum Upgrading and Prevention (540 words)

Lesotho's landscape faces environmental degradation, severe soil erosion, harsh climatic conditions and progressive desertification where available agricultural and forest land is being degraded and slowly depleted⁵⁵. This has limited activity in the agricultural sector and contributed to the exceedingly high rural to urban migration levels as people are unable to derive sustainable livelihoods from the rural and agricultural sector. Coupled with natural population increase in urban areas, rural to urban migration has contributed to the high population growth and urbanisation rates in urban centres around Lesotho, particularly in Maseru, the capital, and other urban centres situated in the lowlands. These are the places where slum settlements phenomena have manifested most.

The operational definition of a slum that has been suggested by the UN-Habitat and recommended for international use is that a slum is 'an area that combines, to various extents, the following characteristics (restricted to the physical and legal characteristics of the settlement, and excluding the more difficult social dimensions):

- Inadequate access to safe water;
- Inadequate access to sanitation and other infrastructure;
- Poor structural quality of housing;
- Overcrowding; and
- Insecure residential status.⁵⁶

The UN-Habitat has estimated the urban slum population of Lesotho at (35.1%) of the urban population in 2005 or an estimated 162,000 slum inhabitant's⁵⁷. Slum settlements in Lesotho are, therefore, not a serious problem as they do not affect a large proportion of the urban population. Nevertheless, slum upgrading and prevention forms part of the development agenda of Lesotho towards meeting the strategic objectives of the Lesotho Vision 2020 and the NSDP (2012/13-2016/17).

Over (70%) of urban development, especially housing, occurs through unplanned informal subdivision of peri-urban agricultural land. This has resulted in the extensive areas of unplanned residential neighbourhoods that are lacking in basic services such as roads, water supply and sanitation. Upgrading projects that have occurred have invariably focused on some of these areas. However, major upgrading projects all predate 1996 and were mainly financed by the World Bank and Canadian CIDA. Such projects were found mostly in Maseru, the capital, with few more scattered in Teyateyaneng, Maputsoe and Mafeteng. In recent years, the Maseru City Council (MCC) has attempted small in-situ upgrading works through shifting of plot boundaries to make way for road access and other infrastructure in isolated peri-urban neighbourhoods, with no services

⁵⁵Global Facility for Disaster Reduction and Recovery (2010)

⁵⁶UN-Habitat (2003) *The Challenge of Slums: Global Report on Human Settlements 2003*. London: Earthscan.

⁵⁷<http://mirror.unhabitat.org/content.asp?cid=11359&catid=592&typeid=79>

provided. However, these have been reactive, ad hoc and non-programmatic interventions with no dedicated budget allocations by the council, hence very limited impact.

Lesotho joined the Participatory Slum Upgrading Programme (PSUP)⁵⁸ in 2012. This is a UN-Habitat initiative that was launched in 2008 with the overall purpose of contributing to the improvement of the living conditions of the urban poor and to the realisation of the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) 7 of ‘Ensuring Environmental Sustainability’. The most relevant focus is on Target C, which is ‘to halve by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation’, and on Target D, which is ‘to achieve a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers by 2020.’ Lesotho is currently in Phase I of the programme, which involves the preparation of city profiles for Maseru and two secondary towns of Maputsoe and Mafeteng. Phases II and III of the programme will entail action planning/programme formulation and project implementation respectively.

The prevention of slum development through forced eviction and demolition of informal settlements is not the norm in Lesotho, but has occurred in parts of Maseru city in the recent past. However, this has been limited and subsequently curtailed by court decisions in favour of the offenders.

6.2 Improving Access to Adequate Housing (540 words)

The site-and-services approach has been the most common housing service provision mechanism in Lesotho. The appropriate land authority would identify land that is considered suitable for the development of housing using predetermined criteria for land and beneficiary selection. However, this mode of housing delivery has been in small scales.

The Lesotho Housing and Land Development Corporation (LHLDC), which has a fairly broad mandate, is a major formal institution that is involved in the provision of serviced urban plots and some rental and owner-occupied housing units. However, the LHLDC’s housing delivery activities are limited in scale and mostly confined to the capital city, Maseru, and to a limited extent in Teyateyaneng, Hlotse, Mafeteng, Mohale’s Hoek and Quthing. Apart from the LHLDC, the Physical Planning Department (LSPP) under the Ministry of Local Government, Chieftainship and Parliamentary Affairs (MoLGC), also sometimes provide pre-planned housing plots (often without services). The Maseru Municipal Council is another entity that provides limited serviced plots within the jurisdiction of Maseru City. The Department of Housing designs policy to direct housing provision by different institutions including the Lesotho Housing and Land Development Corporation. The department has recently completed the national housing profile with assistance from UN Habitat. The profile is an important step towards the development of the National Housing Policy.

The bulk of urban housing in Lesotho is privately provided by owners and financed through individual savings. Current estimates show that private individuals (or households) provision of housing accounts for approximately (70%) of all housing, with the remainder divided between government, the LHLDC, private sector employers and a nascent private sector that currently caters exclusively for the super high-income earners in the capital city⁵⁹. The efforts of the private sector

⁵⁸ <http://unhabitat.org/initiatives-programmes/participatory-slum-upgrading/>

are curtailed by low salaries in the country. Therefore, the contribution to housing provision by formal institutions of government and the private sector has been minimal.

Recently, Habitat for Humanity Lesotho (HFHL), which began operations in 2001, has also provided some housing on a limited scale, including the upgrading of substandard housing for selected

vulnerable families and Orphaned and Vulnerable Children (OVCs), including sensitization on land

rights and inheritance⁶⁰.

6.3 Ensuring Sustainable Access to Safe Drinking Water (540 words)

Lesotho developed and adopted water and sanitation policy in 2007 (Lesotho Water and Sanitation Policy - LWSP). The policy aims to ensure access to sustainable supply of potable water and basic sanitation services to all Basotho. The specific objectives of the policy entail:

- To accelerate the delivery of water and sanitation services to all Basotho in line with national development goals;
- To promote increased investment in infrastructure development (reservoirs, conveyance structures, etc.) to meet the water demand in urban and rural areas for socio-economic development and for meeting basic consumption and hygiene needs;
- To devolve provision of water supply and sanitation services to relevant institutions at National, District and Community Council levels;
- To promote equity in access to water supply and sanitation services taking into account vulnerable and marginalized groups including women, girls and all those affected by HIV/AIDS; and
- To ensure that the tariffs charged by water and sanitation service providers cover the actual cost, including the capital costs as well as the cost of overheads, of providing water and sanitation services.

The availability of adequate and safe potable water in Lesotho's urban centres for domestic, commercial and industrial use is the responsibility of the Water and Sewage Company (WASCO) while for rural settlements it is the Department of Rural Water Supply (DRWS).

Access to safe drinking water is perhaps the single most impressive achievement in Lesotho to-date. The 1996 census reported that (62%) of Lesotho's population had access to improved water sources. This proportion had increased to (73.9%) according to the 2006 census. In the same census year (2006), (87.8%) of the urban population had access to improved water supplies. The Lesotho Demographic Health Survey of 2011 shows that (91.1%) of urban households had access to improved water sources. Improved water sources includes water provided by WASCO and connected to the house or on-plot standpipes, public standpipes, boreholes, protected wells or springs, and

rainwater collection. Reasonable access implies access to at least 20 litres per person per day from an

improved source within 1 kilometre of the dwelling⁶¹.

The WHO and UNICEF (2014) also show Lesotho with high proportion of both national and urban population with access to improved water supplies. At national level, (78%) of the population had access to improved water sources. By 2000, this proportion had increased to (79%) and was (81%) in

2012. For the urban population only, the WHO and UNICEF (2014) show that (93%) of the urban

population in Lesotho had access to improved water supply in 1990 through to 2012⁶².

However, about (15%) of peri-urban populations still have inadequate access to municipal water

services⁶³, and periodic water shortages as a result of draught or system breakdowns are not infrequent. These areas have since become an essential part of the policy focus countrywide. Projects such as the Lowlands Water Supply Project (LWSP) and its Water and Sanitation Services (WATSAN) component, the Urban and Peri-Urban Water Supply Project, and the Five Towns Water Supply and Sanitation Project, and Maseru Waste Water Project, are some of the projects embarked on to improve the urban water supply and access issues being experienced in Lesotho. The core of the Lowlands Water Supply Project is the Metolong Dam and Water Supply Programme that was launched in October 2011. The main objective of the programme is to ensure sustainable supply of clean water for domestic and industrial purposes to Maseru and the towns of Roma, Mazenod,

Morija and Teyateyaneng. The project comprises construction of the Metolong Dam, water treatment

plant and a downstream conveyance system⁶⁴.

6.4 Ensuring Sustainable Access to Basic Sanitation *(540 words)*

The Water and Sewerage Company (WASCO) is not only responsible for the supply of adequate potable water, but is also responsible for providing safe wastewater disposal services to domestic, commercial and industrial customers in Lesotho's urban centres. Solid waste is the responsibility of local councils.

A household is considered to have access to adequate sanitation if it has a human waste disposal system that is hygienically clean, in a good condition either in the form of a private toilet or a public toilet. Recent developments in Lesotho have seen an increase in the number of households with access to ventilated improved pit latrines which in some cases are mounted with a hand wash system that accompanies the latrine. In urban areas, there are direct connections to a public piped sewer; direct connections to a septic system over and above access to pour-flush latrines or ventilated improved pit latrines.

In terms of access to sanitation or toilet facilities, significant improvements have been made over time. Whereas in 1986/7, about (20%) of households had pit latrines, this proportion had more than

doubled to (48%) in 1994/5.⁶⁵ The 2006 Census shows that at national level, (32%) of households used pit latrines while (23%) reported the use of ventilated improved pit latrines (VIPs) as their type of toilet facility. Households that used water-borne sewage (main and on-site) constituted only (3%) of all households in Lesotho. The LDHS survey of 2009 shows that (26.%) of urban households had access to improved toilet/latrine facility consisting of flush toilet to municipal sewer, septic tank or pit latrine, including improved pit latrines (VIPs). This proportion had marginally improved to (31.4%) in the LDS of 2011. Urban households connected to municipal sewers alone made up (2.7%) in 2009 and (3.8%) in 2011.

Measured in terms of provision of ventilated improved pit latrines (VIPs) only, improvements in urban sanitation coverage have been significant. While the 2009 LDHS showed (7.9%) of urban households as having access to VIPs, by 2011, the LDS showed that figure as having increased to

(18.2%),and in the CMS (2013) the figure further improved to (47%)⁶⁶. The Housing Profile Sample Survey (HPSS) of 2014 also reported significantly higher proportions of households using VIPs for the surveyed towns, especially in low income housing areas in Maseru at (51%). In Maseru, the HPSS reports showed the (2.5%) of households in poor neighbourhoods in Maseru as having access

to flush toilets connected to the municipal sewer compared to (26.4%) of their counterparts in middle

to high-income housing areas⁶⁷. In general few urban households have access to flush toilets.

The WHO and UNICEF (2014) also attest to the poor access to improved sanitation at both national and urban levels. At national level, (24%) of the population had access to improved water sources in 2000. By 2012, this proportion had increased to only (30%). In urban areas, the WHO and UNICEF

(2014) show that (35%) of urban population in Lesotho had access to improved water supply in

2000, and that by 2012, this proportion had increased to only (37%)⁶⁸.

Solid waste disposal is an area in which Lesotho failed to make any significant progress overtime despite the presence of relevant policies. There is very limited data on the quantities of urban solid waste produced although the various types of waste streams are known. For Maseru at least, evidence suggests that over (45%) of solid waste consists of glass bottles, followed by cardboard at about (25%), paper at about (18%) and cans and plastic at about (4%) each. About (3%) of all solid waste is generated by households; the rest comes from commercial and industrial activities. Over (75%) of the solid waste is managed by the households themselves, significantly through burning or

dumping within property boundaries. Only (10%) of urban solid waste is collected on regular bases

by urban authorities⁶⁹.

In the main, these figures show that urban sanitation remains a significant challenge in Lesotho. Only a small percentage of the urban population is connected to the municipal sewer services. Spillage from septic tanks, which is endemic, coupled with the high concentration of latrines, mean that contamination of groundwater is real possibility, which would endanger the health of households who depend on hand pumps for water.

6.5 Improving Access to Clean Domestic Energy *(540 words)*

The Lesotho Highlands Development Authority (LHDA)'s 72 megawatts Muela Hydro-electric power station is the main source of electricity for Lesotho. Power is sold solely to the Lesotho Electricity Company (LEC) which in turn supplies power to consumers. The balance from current demand of 132 MW is imported from Mozambique's Electricidade de Mozambique (EdM) and South Africa's Eskom. The Lesotho Vision 2020 energy target is to have at least (35%) of the population connected to electricity by 2015, and (40%) by 2020. To increase access to electricity, a Universal Access Fund (UAF) was established and enabling rules approved in 2011, meant to finance

electrification projects identified by the Ministry of Natural Resources⁷⁰. At present, only (20%) of

the population of Lesotho receives electricity. However, access to electricity is relatively high at

(45.5%) of urban households⁷¹, compared to the national coverage of (20%).

The terrain in Lesotho has more than (80%) of its territory lying above 1,800m above sea level and this makes the potential of wind energy production a real possibility. The GOL has endorsed the development of a wind farm in north-eastern Lesotho to generate wind energy for potential use in domestic, commercial and industrial purposes in the coming 15 years. The development of this wind farm is expected not only to have positive effects on Lesotho's carbon footprint (by potentially

reducing the use of biomass and other unclean energy sources) but it is also expected to have a

positive impact on the high unemployment levels in the country.⁷²

In the main, Lesotho has potential to generate about 6,000 megawatts of wind power; 4,000 megawatts of pumped storage energy and some 80 megawatts of conventional hydropower. This

makes Lesotho a significant role player in the green energy sector in the region at some future date,

including drastic reduction in imports of alternative sources of energy⁷³.

Most people in Lesotho (77%) use indigenous biomass fuels, such as shrubs, firewood, crop residue and animal waste as the main source of energy and the remaining (23%) is distributed between grid

electricity, imported liquefied petroleum gas (paraffin) and natural gas users⁷⁴.

6.6 Improving Access to Sustainable Means of Transport *(540 words)*

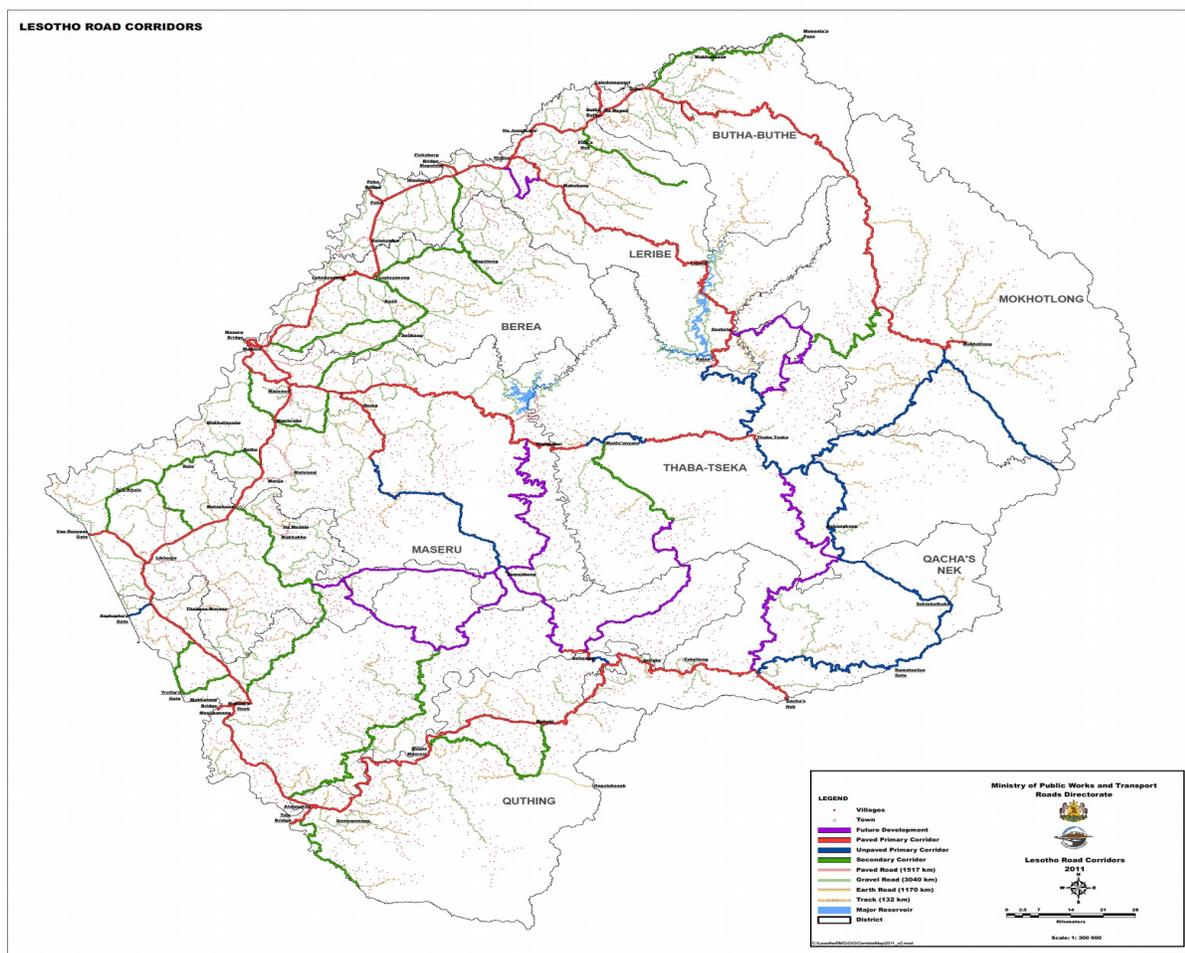
The Ministry of Public Works and Transport (MPWT) is responsible for developing a national road network that links the entire country, in addition to developing and maintaining inter-urban roads, bridges and footbridges. The Ministry of Local Government and the local councils are entrusted with upgrading and bituminising urban roads and bus terminals, as well as constructing hard gravel roads

that link communities within the districts⁷⁵.The local private sector has increasingly participated in the construction both urban and cross-country roads, which has supported the local economy.

Lesotho has one of the most difficult terrains in which to construct and maintain roads infrastructure. Two-thirds of the country is rugged mountain terrain that constitutes perpetual challenge to

expansion and maintenance of road infrastructure.⁷⁶ However, despite these geo-physical constraints, there has been significant progress towards construction of roads to link various parts of the country. It is estimated that Lesotho has in excess of 6,000km of roads, with between (16-18%) of them paved. A new South – Eastern Corridor Road has recently been constructed, opening up the south-eastern region of the country and creating a much shorter connecting route between Maseru and Qacha’s Nek, which reduces travel distance by a significant 140km. The road, running from Roma through Ramabanta, Semonkong and Ha Sekake, provides a much needed rural-urban linkage and public transport opportunity to communities residing in this area. Major bridges have also recently been constructed including Mohlapiso, Senqu, Senqunyane, Koma-Koma and Bethel, and a foot-bridge at Auplas. These bridges are a critical relief to local communities who have depended on hand-rowed boats to cross flooded rivers all along. Most border-posts with South Africa, which completely surrounds Lesotho, are connected by surfaced road.

Map 2: Lesotho Road Network with South-Eastern Corridor Connector Road.



Source: Traffic Department – Lesotho

In recent years the number of paved roads around and within urban areas has also increased appreciably due in part to revenues from the Lesotho Road Fund (LRF), which was initially

established as the Road Relief Fund by Finance Legal Notice No 179 of December 1995. The purpose of the Fund is to:

- Finance routine and periodic maintenance of all roads in Lesotho, including those under the Ministry of Public Works and Transport and the Ministry of Local Government, Chieftainship and Parliamentary Affairs
- On a cost-share basis, finance urban council roads and unclassified roads under the jurisdiction of councils; and

- Finance road maintenance, rehabilitation, upgrading and new road networks and road safety

projects.⁷⁷

A Roads Directorate was established in 2010 through the Roads Directorate Act 2010, under the Ministry of Public Works and Transport. The Directorate is semi-autonomous authority that oversees the roles of the Department of Rural Roads (DRR) and the Roads Branch, both located under the Ministry. The main functions of the Roads Directorate include:

- Implementation of government policy on roads related issues;
- Planning, design and implementation of all roads programmes; and

- Preparation of strategic road network development plans.⁷⁸

As indicated under section 3.3, public transport is dominated by buses, mini-buses (15-seaters), and cab taxis (locally known as 4+1s), and is operated by the private sector. The cab taxis work best within the bounds of the CBD and for reaching parts of towns where mini-bus taxis are unable to reach because cabs carry fewer passengers and are, therefore, able to provide a mode of travel that is more convenient than mini-bus taxis. The private vehicle is the least accessible mode of transport for regular travellers, owing to the high cost of acquisition, regular maintenance, fuel and other associated costs. The government also operates the Lesotho Freight and Bus Services Corporation, which focuses mostly on the un-serviced transport routes.

As at March 2015, there were 2 897 (4+1) cabs in the country, (49.3%) of which were in Maseru and (50.7%) in the other towns. Maseru further had 1 365 (15 seater) mini-buses. Overall passenger capacity for all towns was 32 063 and 26 187 for Maseru, or (81.67%) for Maseru and (18.33%) for all other towns together. Measured in terms of share of commuter passenger capacity as percentage of urban population, using the 2006 census figures, and on application of current passenger vehicle levels, Maseru could move (13.4%) of the city population compared to (1.08%) of the urban population served in Hlotse, as the lowest service level, followed by (1.16%) for Berea, (2.54%) for Thaba-Tseka, (2.68%) for Mokhotlong, (2.78%) for Mophale'shoek, (2.8%) for Mafeteng, (4.09%) for Botha-Bothe, (4.15%) for Qacha'snek and (4.5%) for Quthing. These figures show close correlation between the share of passenger capacity and the share of passenger capacity as share of urban population.

As intimated above, the creation of the Road Fund has led to increased intra-urban and inter-urban road networks. These have equally opened up opportunities for extension of public transport services into previously un-serviced peri-urban areas. However, some people still travel long distances to reach the nearest paved road with a service. Similarly, Lesotho towns are small and the majority of people are poor. Therefore, significant numbers of people walk to and from work on a daily basis.

6.7 Challenges Experienced and Lessons Learnt in these Areas (740 words)

Formal agencies of government and private sector entities provide very limited amount of housing and serviced sites, reaching very few people. The majority of households access housing through their own personal savings and predominantly through the informal sector, and without financial intervention. This exerts negatively on the growth of private sector growth. Most departments within the MoLGC have overlapping mandates in terms of housing, for example, both the MCC and the LHLDC initiate and develop their own site-and-services schemes without coordination. This is a challenge facing all housing provision services. This points to the need for, amongst others, a complete review of the human settlements sector, with a view to fostering synergy, coherence and effectiveness.

Although the actual magnitude of the contribution of the private (informal) sector in housing delivery is a matter for speculation, its role in housing delivery has been substantial. The challenge is how to come up with measures to ensure and enhance its continued participation in urban housing delivery.

As indicated earlier, government intervention efforts were frozen from the early 1990s when large-scale provision of housing and slum upgrading projects were discontinued and local housing

financing institutions abolished, leaving the affected population to fend for themselves in terms of providing their own housing. The overall government development policy as reflected in the NSDP 2012/13-2016/17 has not addressed the housing issues clearly, which implies little likelihood of resource allocation. Therefore, government's challenge is to conduct the necessary studies to inform the next National Strategic Development Plan 2017/18 – 2022/23.

With respect to settlements upgrading with infrastructure provision, the conventional upgrading programmes, as stated above, pre-date early 1990s. Subsequent upgrading projects efforts have been inadequate, focusing on assisting local residents to open up sufficient road access space only, with services often coming, if at all, long after this has taken place. This approach has occurred mainly in Maseru, through the efforts of the Maseru City Council. However, the projects have been ad hoc and poorly financed as the budget for urban local authorities is still significantly small. An in-situ upgrading and regularisation initiative was carried out by the UDS in Mokhotlong, similar to the MCC technique but different in that resources were in place to construct access roads, so that the project could, inspired and reinforced by public participation, deliver on its commitment. The site in question now relishes water reticulation, street lighting and a regular garbage collection service.

Access to water is the only area where significant progress has been made, with over 90% of urban households in Lesotho having access to improved sources of drinking water. However, access to basic sanitation remains a significant challenge, especially in urban areas where most households rely on un-improved sanitation services. Septic tanks are not regularly emptied and, combined with prevalence of unimproved pit latrines, the risk is high of contaminating ground water sources on which significant minorities of urban households depend. Disposal of both water and solid waste also remain significant challenges in all urban areas.

Significant improvements in terms of access to clean energy sources has also occurred in urban areas, where more than (45%) of households have access to electricity in their homes compared to less than (10%) a decade ago. Nevertheless, many households still rely on biomass fuel, bottled gas and paraffin, and it is a challenge to significantly improve the situation.

Although generally available, public transport services are poorly operated and managed and access to unplanned peri-urban areas remains a significant challenge. As indicated earlier under the 'Reducing Traffic Congestion' section 3.3, due to the unplanned and difficult to access urban settlements, especially in Maseru, traffic challenges affect in equal measure, all traffic modes: pedestrians, private and public transport vehicles. Existing infrastructure is inadequate, generating chaotic, dangerous and unsafe interaction. Current improvement efforts focus mainly on roads for vehicular traffic, leaving pedestrians vulnerable to all hazards, and hence challenging the government and local authorities to come up with balanced approach. Through the current NSDP 2012/13-2016/17, provisions regarding transport (see 'Reducing Traffic Congestion' section 3.3) require effective implementation, while concurrently planning for the next NSDP 2017/18 – 2022/23.

6.8 Future Challenges and Issues in These Areas That could be Addressed by a New Urban Agenda (780 words)

The preceding section has shown that state intervention in housing has been deficient, with the current National Strategic Development Plan 2012/13-2016/17 generally ignoring the sector, and

hence the challenge faced by government will be first to recognise access to housing as a priority, followed by required planning studies whose outcome will inform the next National Strategic Development Plan 2017/18 – 2022/23.

The studies should include a review of the current institutional framework relating to the human settlements sector to ensure it is aligned to the aspirations of the National Vision, the NSDP and commitments of the Decentralisation Policy, including giving sufficient practical support to capacity-building towards settlement upgrading and service provision, especially sanitation and drainage, and expanded site and services combined with novel approaches to urban land development. This requires an institutional set-up that is geared towards research and policy-formulation.

Furthermore, since people have always built their own houses with formal banks financing only a negligible number for high income earners, the new urban agenda has to straddle the approach of introducing the state sponsorship of large scale or mass housing provision projects accompanied by financing mechanisms, with the approach of improvising on or enhancing people's ongoing self-housing efforts, through settlements upgrading combined with tenure regularisation and affordable financing mechanisms, etc. Private sector contractors felt that government should monitor adherence to standards by informal contractors lest they put the formal contractors out of the market, to the detriment of safety standards. All the above should be planned and those plans incorporated into the next National Strategic Development Plan 2017/18 – 2022/23.

As for 'Improving Access to Sustainable Means of Transport' section 6.6, together with issues raised in the earlier section on 'Reducing Traffic Congestion' section 3.3, which indicated that Lesotho is on the throes of traffic and public transport challenges, the new urban agenda should focus on the measures of transportation planning with public transport access in particular, that includes related infrastructure provision. The current NSDP (2012/13-2016/17) has not fully addressed that need, hence the new plan of 2017/18 – 2022/23 should give it priority. Comparison of passenger vehicle figures for Maseru and the other urban centres as well as the weighing of those figures against the urban population indicate a relatively high supply level for Maseru, which indicates that a risk exists for under-utilization of the facility while an opportunity also exists for a more rationalised transportation planning.

The private sector partners emphasised that overall, government should take its leadership role in development and not allow politics to dominate, if the country's economy should grow.

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