THE UNITED REPULIC OF TANZANIA

MINISTRY OF LANDS, HOUSING AND HUMAN SETTLEMENTS DEVELOPMENT



HABITAT III NATIONAL REPORT TANZANIA

FINAL REPORT

Prepared by:

The Ministry of Lands, Housing and Human Settlements Development on Behalf of The United Republic of Tanzania

July, 2016

Preface

Tanzania implemented extensive policy, legislative and structural reforms taken and taken several other measures to fulfil her commitments to the Habitat II Agenda. Yet achieving the objectives of "shelter for all" and "sustainable human settlements in an urbanizing world" has remained elusive, due to financial and human resource limitations of the urban authorities and rapid urbanization. Lack of access to affordable housing, finance, land and services has resulted in most of the urban growing in the form of informal settlements. Tanzania is therefore faced with the daunting task of rolling over the unfinished Habitat II Agenda objectives into the Habitat III process.

Data for the Habitat III national report was collected from many source – primary and secondary – including an Urban Dwellers Survey, conducted in 2015, in five urban areas selected to represent the geographical spread and diversity of Tanzania's urban settlements, namely:

- 1) Dar es Salaam: The primate city, in the east coast zone;
- 2) Mwanza: An intermediate city in the Lake Zone;
- 3) Dodoma: A municipality in the Central Zone and Tanzania's nominal capital;
- 4) Kyela: A flood prone district town in the southern zone; and
- 5) Mererani: A Non-administrative mining township located in the northern zone.

Those who participated in this survey were deliberately selected to represent the entire social and economic milieu of Tanzania's urban settlements. A questionnaire containing 71 questions which sought to explore key issues of concern to the urban dwellers, the challenges, opportunities and their opinions on what could be the main priorities for the new urban agenda was administered to 339 respondents, 60.2% were male and 39.8% female as shown below:

Age in Years	20-29	30-39	40-49	50-60	Above 60	Total
Count	44	145	77	64	9	339
Percentage	13.0%	42.8%	22.7%	18.9%	2.7%	100.0%
Level of		Adult		Vocational		Total
education	Primary	education	Secondary	training	University	Total
Count	52	5	70	51	161	339
Percentage	15.3%	1.5%	20.6%	15.0%	47.5%	100.0%
Status of employment			Self			
		Employed	employed	Retired	Unemployed	Total
Count		200	91	18	30	339
Percentage		59.0%	26.8%	5.3%	8.8%	100.0%

Source: Field surveys, 2015

This report reviews implementation of Habitat II national commitments, identifies key challenges and proposes interventions during the New Urban Agenda

framework. The Ministry of Lands, Housing and Human Settlements Development (MLHHSD) in collaboration Association of Local Authorities of Tanzania (ALAT) commissioned the report. Habitat Agenda Partners organised under the framework of the 1996 Habitat II Conference and a National Habitat Committee of 15 members representing central and local government authorities and representatives from the non-state sectors, provided guidance to the research team. Dr. Yamungu Kayandabila, the Permanent Secretary supervised preparation of this report assisted by Dr. Moses Kusiluka, Deputy Permanent Secretary, Prof. John M. Lupala, Director of Town and Rural Planning and Mr. Michael Mwalukasa, Director for Housing, Mr. John M. Lubuva, the national consultant led a multi-disciplinary team of experts through the research and report drafting process. Team members comprised:

- 1) Prof. Esnati Osinde Chaggu: Public Health Engineer;
- 2) Dr. Dorothea Deus: Data Analysis Expert;
- 3) Dr. Tatu Limbumba: Housing Expert;
- 4) Dr. Wilfred G. Kazaura: Transport Planner;
- 5) Mr. Linus Shao: Urban Planner;
- 6) Mr. Edward Kihunrwa: Environmental Expert;
- 7) Mr. Joel Shimba: Urban Finance Expert;
- 8) Mr. Thomas Kilale: Urban Economist; and
- 9) Ms. Gift Mchomvu who replaced Mr. Alfred Mwenisogole, the Urban Sociologist and Community Development Expert

The research team worked closely with the following members of the Technical Committee of the MLHHSD:

- 1) Mrs. Sarah A. Kyessi: Assistant Director Settlements Regularisation;
- 2) Mr. Pius P. Tesha: Assistant Director Housing Policy;
- 3) Mr. Smiton B. Ijukaine: Principal Town Planner;
- 4) Mrs. Sada S. Isaac: Principal Town Planner;
- 5) Mr. Justin Shoo: Principal Town Planner;
- 6) Mrs Lidya C Bagenda: Principal Town Planner;
- 7) Mr. Baltazar N. Summari: Senior Town Planner

Many other individuals assisted with organising and coordinating the urban dwellers interviews and consultation meetings in the study areas including:

- 1) Mr. Alfred Mbyopyo: Senior Town Planner, Ilala M. C., Dar es Salaam;
- 2) Ms. Juliana Letara: Municipal Town Planning Officer, Kinondoni M. C., Dar es Salaam;
- 3) Mr. Rwegasira D. Kayemamu: Town Planner I/C Temeke M. C., Dar es Salaam;
- 4) Mr. Sasi Soro: Municipal Town Planning Officer at Dodoma M. C.;
- 5) Mr. Hilal Hamis Iddi: District Town Planning Officer, Kyela District Council;
- 6) Mr. Raphael Chao: Township Executive Officer, Mererani Township Authority, Manyara Region; and
- 7) Maduhu Kazi Town Planner Mwanza City Council.

The MLHSSD and research team are indebted to the urban dwellers for participating in the national and local stakeholders' meetings, and interviews.

John Mocho Lubuva National Consultant, Tanzania

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Prefa	се	ii
I. U	Jrban Demographic Issues	1
1.	Managing rapid urbanization	1
2.	Managing rural-urban linkages	2
3.	Addressing urban youth needs	3
4.	Responding to needs of the aged	4
5.	Integrating gender in urban development	5
6.	Challenges experienced and lessons learnt	
7.	Future challenges to address in the New Urban Agenda	
II I	Land and Urban Planning	12
8.	Ensuring sustainable urban planning and environmental design	
9.	Improving urban land management and addressing urban sprawl	13
10.	0 I I	
11.	Urban mobility challenges	15
12.	Improving technical capacity to plan and manage cities	19
13.		
14.	Future challenges and issues to address in the New Urban Agenda	23
III En	vironment and Urbanization	
15.	Addressing climate change	25
16.		
17.	5 5	
18.		
19.	0 1	
20.	5	
	ban Governance and Legislation	
21.	Improving urban legislation	
22.	0 0	
23.		
24.		
25.	Improving social inclusion and equity	
26.	Challenges, experienced and lessons learnt	
27.	Future challenges and issues to address in the New Urban Agenda	
	ban Economy	
28.		
29.		
30.		
31.	5 ,	
32.		
33.	0 / I	
34.	5 6	
	ousing and Basic Services	
35.	Slum upgrading and prevention	53

36. Improving access to adequate housing	55
37. Ensuring sustainable access to safe drinking water	55
38. Ensuring sustainable access to basic sanitation and drainage	57
39. Improving access to clean domestic energy	58
40. Improving access to sustainable means of transport	59
41. Challenges experienced and lessons learnt in these areas	60
42. Future challenges to address in the New Urban Agenda	
VII. Urban Indicators	
Bibliography	
Annexure	
Annex 1: Submission procedure	
Annex 2: National Report Submission Letter	
Annex 3: Monitoring and Reporting	75
List of figures	_
Figure 1: Support to elders	5
Figure 2: Challenges associated with rural - urban migration	7
Figure 3: Application of policy and bylaws in managing city expansion	8
Figure 4: Availability of textbooks in primary and secondary schools in Tanzania	ı9
Figure 5: Secondary School Examination Results 1998 - 2012	9
Figure 6: Proposed intervention to mitigate impacts of rural urban migration	10
Figure 7: Future interventions to assist elder people	11
Figure 8: Interventions to improve participation of women and vulnerable grou development processes	•
Figure 9: Participation in urban planning and implementation	12
Figure 10: Image of one of the roads in Dar es Salaam before and after upgradi	ng14
Figure 11: Condition of Classified Road Network	16
Figure 12: Distance to work place	17
Figure 13: Average time to work place	17
Figure 14: Daily Mobility Modal Share in African Cities (%)	18
Figure 15: Mode of travel to work	18
Figure 16: Transport challenges experienced by urban dwellers	22
Figure 17: Pedestrians and cyclists sharing road space with motor vehicles in Da	ar es Salaam23
Figure 18: Type of Climate Change Impact experienced by urban dwellers	26

Figure 19 Types of disasters affecting urban residents in Tanzania	26
Figure 20: Annual vehicle increase in Tanzania: 2000 - 2012	28
Figure 21: Image of a traffic jam at one of the road intersection in Dar es Salaam	29
Figure 22: Summary of cause, types and impacts of air pollution	30
Figure 23: Views of urban dwellers on sources of air pollution	30
Figure 24: Innovative cooking stoves introduced for all income groups	31
Figure 25: Proposed interventions to reduce Climate Change	34
Figure 26: Proposed measures to reduce and prevent disasters	34
Figure 27: Proposed strategies to reduce traffic congestion	35
Figure 28: Proposed strategies to control urban air pollution	36
Figure 29: Main areas of human rights violations	39
Figure 30: Major causes of urban insecurity	40
Figure 31: Measures to enhance human rights	44
Figure 32: Proposed measures to enhance safety and security	45
Figure 33: Proposed interventions to assist the elderly	45
Figure 34: Revenue projections for 2013/14	47
Figure 35: Total employment in the formal sector, 2006-2014	50
Figure 36: Strategies to improve council revenue	53
Figure 37: Percent of urban households living in informal areas in selected towns in Tanzania	53
Figure 38: Sources of household water supply	57
Figure 39: Percentage Distribution of Households by type of toilet	57
Figure 40: Liquid waste management systems in urban area	58
Figure 41: Map of Dar es Salaam showing the BRT system	60
List of Tables	

Table 1: Infrastructure upgrading in Dar es Salaam city: 2004-2011	14
Table 2: Summary of WSSAs regulated	56
Table 3: Access to clean domestic energy in urban areas	58

Abbreviations and Acronyms

AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome		
ALAT	Association of Local Authorities of Tanzania		
ВОТ	Bank of Tanzania		
CBO	Community-Based Organization		
CC	Climate Change		
CDR	Council Development Report		
CEDAW	Convention on Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women		
CFR	Council Financial Report		
CIUP	Community Infrastructure Upgrading Programme		
CSO	Civil Society Organisation		
DART	Dar es Salaam Rapid Transit		
D-by-D	Decentralization by Devolution		
EIA	Environmental Impact Assessment		
FBO	Faith Based Organisation		
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment		
FGM	Female Genital mutilation		
GBV	Gender Based Violence		
GFS	Government Financial Statistics		
GNHR	Guidelines for Preparation of National Habitat III Reports		
GRB	Gender Responsive Budgeting		
HAPs	Habitat Agenda Partners		
HIV	Human Immuno-deficiency Virus		
ICT	Information and Communication Technology		
IEC	Information, Education and Communication		
IFMS	Integrated Financial Management System		
IPSAS	International Public Sector Accounting Standards		
JAICA	Japan International Cooperation Agency		
LED	Local Economic Development		
LFI	Local Finance Initiative		
LGA	Local Government Authority		
LGCDG	Local Government Capital Development Grant		

LGRCIS	Local Government Revenue Collection System
LGDG	Local Government Development Grant
LGRP	Local Government Reform Programme
LGTP	Local Government Transport Programme
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MEF	Mwananchi Empowerment Fund
MLHHSD	Ministry of Lands, Housing and Human Settlements Development
MMRs	Maternal Mortality Rates
MOID	Ministry of Infrastructure Development
NACP	National Aids Control Programme
NBS	National Bureau of Statistics
NEMA	National Environment Management Act
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NHC	National Housing Corporation
NHCT	National Habitat Committee - Tanzania
NLUPC	National Land Use Planning Commission
NSGRP	National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty
OVC	Orphans and Vulnerable Children
PMO-RALG	Prime Minister's Office-Regional Administration and Local Government
PPP	Public Private Partnership
PWDs REA	People with Disabilities Rural Electrification Project
SDP	Sustainable Dar es Salaam Project
SELF	Small Entrepreneurs Loan Facility
SIDO	Small Scale Industrial Development Organisation
SMEs	Small and Medium Enterprises
SOSPA	Sexual Offences Special Provisions Act
SPILL	Strategic Plan for the Implementation of Land Laws
SUDF	Strategic Urban Development Plan
TACAIDS	Tanzania Commission for AIDS
TANESCO	Tanzania National Electricity Supply Company

TANROADS	Tanzania Roads Agency
TAWLA	Tanzanian Women Lawyers' Association
ТС	Technical Committee
TDHS	Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey
TDV	Tanzania Development Vision
TIC	Tanzania Investment Centre
ТМА	Tanzania Meteorological Agency
TOD	Transit Oriented Developments
ToR	Terms of Reference
TSCP	Tanzania Strategic Cities Programme
TSIP	Transport Sector Investment Plan
TZS	Tanzania Shillings
UN	United Nation
UNAIDS	United Nation Programme on HIV/AIDS
UNCCD	United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNFCCC	United Nation Framework Convention on Climate Change
UNFPA	United Nations Fund for Population Activities
UN-HABITAT	United Nations Centre for Human Settlements
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNIDO	United Nations Industrial Development Organization
UNPHA	United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS
URT	United Republic of Tanzania
VTTP	Village Travel and Transport Programme
WMO	World Meteorological Organization

NATIONAL HABITAT REPORT TANZANIA

I. Urban Demographic Issues

1. Managing rapid urbanization

Tanzania is committed to a people-centred development of human settlements, broadly classified into urban settlements, scattered agricultural villages and sparsely populated pastoral villages (URT 2013). Prime Minister's Office, Regional Administration and Local Government (PMORALG) classify urban settlements into 5 cities, 18 municipalities, 4 towns and more than 300 small towns. Two challenges have been observed with respect to classification and designation of urban settlements in Tanzania: First is the presence of many rural trading centres not yet designated as urban settlements that are growing rapidly but in a haphazard manner, which are likely to develop into informal cities of tomorrow. Second is the lack of common criteria among government organs to designate and classify urban and rural settlements. A research study found that the Ministry of Lands, Housing and Human Settlements Development (MLHHSD) and the National Bureau of Statistics also designate and classify urban settlements each using different criteria (Muzzini E. and Lindeboom W. 2008).¹

Urbanisation in Tanzania is relatively low at 29.1% in 2012, up from 5.7% in 1967. The growth rate is about 5.2% per annum (URT 2006). Urban population is growing rapidly, and Tanzania cities are among the highly populated cities in Africa (URT 2013). Tanzania's urban population is expected to reach 50% of the total national by 2030. This growth, which is largely fuelled by high rates of rural-urban migration, occurs in the form of densification of the major cities, lateral expansion of informal settlements and growth of rural trading centres. A survey conducted in 2015 reveals that 61.4% of the urban dwellers migrated from rural areas against 38.6% who have borne in urban areas.

The Local Government (District Authorities) Act and Local Government (Urban Authorities) Act of 1982 assign responsibilities for providing basic public services, maintaining peace, and order, managing and regulating land development to local government authorities (LGAs). Urban authorities have legal powers to prepare general and detailed urban plans, allocate building land and enforce development control measures. Rapid urban population growth stretches beyond limits, the ability of urban authorities that are poorly funded, to meet the ever-growing needs for planned and serviced land. The result is evident in the chaotic, sprawling urban growth patterns revealed for today, that make it costly to build and maintain infrastructure, raise the costs of travel and create traffic congestion.

Tanzania adopted the Urban Environmental Management Planning approach, implemented the Sustainable Cities and Urban Safety Programmes, which had a great impact on urban planning and management in the country. The government introduced a new Human Settlements Development Policy in 2000 and enacted a new Urban Planning Act in 2007

¹ According to Muzzini and Lindeboom, while PMORALG uses administrative and political criteria, MLHHSD uses a settlement approach and the NBS, a statistical approach.

that advocates compact development. In collaboration with urban authorities and other stakeholders, the government has implemented several urban infrastructure and settlement upgrading projects aimed at improving urban transportation, access to water and sanitation services, particularly in the informal settlements, which accommodate about 62.5% of Tanzania's urban population. A new urban management policy that will streamline roles of LGAs in managing sustainable urban development is under preparation and the government is also decongesting land management and urban planning responsibilities from the Ministry of Lands, Housing and Human Settlements Development by establishing eight zonal offices to deal with urban planning and approval processes.

2. Managing rural-urban linkages

In Tanzania, the rural and urban economies are interrelated, and normally complemented each other. Strong rural-urban linkages are very essential to promote income growth jobs creation and sustainable national development. Conspicuously, different stakeholders in different study areas expressed their concerns on the importance of addressing rural and urban issues considerably.

The government has realised that infrastructure, trade, market and non-market institutions are vital for the national economic growth. Establishment of market infrastructure in strategic urban areas has facilitated the trade movements from rural to urban areas and vice-verse. The flow of people, goods, money and information drives economic activities, transport and other communication infrastructure to be established in facilitating rural-urban linkages. About 70% of Tanzania's mainland population lives in rural areas, but urban settlements together with rural trading centres are growing very fast. In most cases, urban transport supply is very high compared with transportation infrastructure provided in rural areas.

Roads cater for most of the transport needs of rural and urban areas. Rail and water transport are performing poorly due to dilapidated infrastructure, shortages of equipment and finance, and poor management, and air travel has remained unaffordable for the majority of Tanzanians. Pipelines play an important role in transporting crude oil from Dar es Salaam to Ndola in Zambia (1,750 km) and gas from Songo-Songo Island to Dar es Salaam (232 km); however, the pipeline system does not cover other parts of the country.

The road network in Tanzania is about 86,472 kilometres. The Ministry of Infrastructure Development (MOID) classifies roads into trunk roads (12,787 km) and regional roads (20,226 km) managed by TANROADS; and district roads (53,461 km), collector roads (26,221 km) and feeder roads (21,191 km) managed by the LGAs Until 1997, two thirds (62.7%) of Tanzania's roads (84,930 km) were in poor condition against 12.8%, which were in good condition (Kumar, A. 2002). In 2010 the Government initiated the Tanzania Strategic Cities Programme (TSCP) to improve urban infrastructure including roads in seven strategic cities. By 31st October 2015 total of 141 km of non-rural roads had been rehabilitated or constructed to paved standard (WB, 2015).

Tanzania adopted principles of the Road Management Initiative (RMI) to improve road maintenance and financing since 1987. The Road Tolls Act of 1998 established the Road Fund from the fuel levy as well as the Road Fund Board (RFB). The Tanzania National Roads Agency (TANROADS) was established in 2000, primarily to procure and manage road contracts and advise the government to regulate road standards. The Ministry of Works (MoW) was restructured to focus on policy formulation, strategic planning and regulatory functions (Kumar, A. 2002).

Tanzania implemented the Road Sector Development Programme (2002 – 2012) that reduced roads in poor conditions from 49% to 10% and increased roads in good conditions form 14% to 58%. Although the emphasis on trunk roads may be justifiable as they carry most of the heavy traffic, facilitating inter-regional and international trade, regional and local roads are equally important for connecting rural centres and production areas to urban markets.

Tanzania formulated a National Transportation Policy in 2003 and guidelines for integrating urban, peri-urban and rural development planning. It also established an Implementation Strategy for 2011 to 2025 and initiated the Local Government Transport Programme (LGTP) and Transport Sector Investment Programme (TSIP) that aimed at implementing the National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP) for the transportation targets.

3. Addressing urban youth needs

Youth aged 15 – 35 constituted 66.4% of Tanzania's labour force of 23,466,616 people aged 15-64 who make up 52.2% of the total population (URT 2013b). According to the integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS) 2006, unemployment is higher among persons below 35 years of age. Those aged 18-34 years face the most effect of unemployment rate that encompasses 13% females and 10% males. Similarly, among youth (15-24 years) unemployment is higher for females at 15.4% than males at 14.3%. This high rate is calling attention for the government and other stakeholders to prepare well-targeted policies and programmes that address youth unemployment (Nangale, G. 2012).

The government formulated the Youth Development Policy, 1996 and National Employment Policy, 1997 to address unemployment now standing at 13.4% among young people aged 15 – 24 (Katebalirwe T. D. 2014). Recognising the link between economic growth, poverty, reduction and labour market performance, government is collaborating with key stakeholders to strengthen coordination of the labour market institutions, design and implement job creation programmes, facilitate access to financial support for youth, women and other vulnerable groups, provide skills training and counselling, and regularly review labour and employment laws to ensure gender parity. About 61.7% of respondents in this study confirmed to be aware about youth development projects implemented by the government in their localities and 38.3% claimed not being aware.

Tanzania adopted the Universal Primary Education policy in the 1970s that abolished school fees to enable all children access basic education. It also implemented other

education programmes aimed at achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) including:

- 1) The Education Sector Development Programme (ESD) of 1997: to achieve objectives of the 1995 Education and Training Policy (ETP), for 'increased enrolment, equitable access, improved quality and operational efficiency';
- 2) Primary Education Development Programme (PEDP): Increased primary school enrolment by 25.4% from 6,562,772 to 8,231,913 and NER from 88.5 to 89.7 over 10 years from 2003 to 2013. The transition rate to Form I rose from 39.1% in 2004 to 59.5% in 2012 (PMORALG 2005);
- 3) Secondary Education Development Programme (PEDP): alongside the government decision to build at least one community owned and managed secondary school in each ward: Secondary school enrolment shot up by more than 267% from 345,441 in 2003 to 1,804,056 in 2013 (PMORALG 2015); and
- 4) Liberalizing higher education, allowing private sector participation: increasing the number of universities and higher learning institutions in Tanzania from only two in the early 1990s, to over 48 in 2015² and university enrolment from 49,967 in 2006 (TCU, 2012) to 218,959 in 2013/2014.³

Parliament enacted the Higher Education Students Loans Board Act No. 9 of 2004 amended in Act No. 9 of 2007 to disburse loans to eligible and needy Tanzanian students attending advanced diplomas and degree studies at accredited higher learning institutions in and outside the country and to collect repayments on the loans. A study by Veronica R. Nyahende (2013) reveals an increase of women student enrolments since introduction of student's loans programme. The board enables students from poor families to access funds for higher education in Tanzania.

The HIV and AIDS prevalence for adults aged 15-49 in Mainland Tanzania declined from 7.0% in 2002 to 5.3% in 2012 (URT, THMS 2012). The youth account for 70% of all infections, however, many of them also fall victim to drug abuse. Government has implemented a comprehensive multi-stakeholder HIV and AIDS intervention programme led by LGAs to provide health care, treatment and anti-retroviral drugs (ARVs) since October 2004. It also provides psychosocial support to those affected by HIV and AIDS, and assist HIV and AIDS related orphans and vulnerable children. It has established methadone clinics to treat heroin addiction.

4. Responding to needs of the aged

In 2012, about 5.6% of Tanzanians in the mainland were elder person (60 years and above), and 78.5% of elders live in rural areas. In 1996, the elderly aged 65 years and above constituted a low 2% of the national population. The number of elders is expected to triple, reaching 8.3 million or 10% of the population by 2050. It is only 3.2% of the elders that are on pension and the majority (70.8%) depend on support of family and relatives. Figure 1 shows few elders receive any support from government (13%), NGOs (9.7%) and religious institutions (6.5%).

² http://www.tcu.go.tz/index.php/register-of-universities

³ http://www.tcu.go.tz/images/pdf/Enrolment%202005_2015.pdf

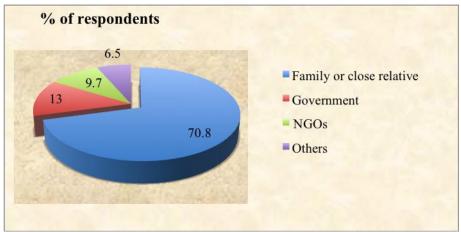


Figure 1: Support to elders

Source: Field surveys, 2015

Commonly, elders are recognised as a source of information, knowledge and experience. In Tanzania traditional societies, elders are respected as custodians of customs and traditions, assigned the role as advisers, mediators and providers of child care service. Young people are required to take responsibilities for providing basic needs to elders that include food, shelter, clothing and protection. Weakening of traditional ties has greatly affected the lives of the majority of older people.

Tanzania is signatory to the Universal Declaration of Human rights which asserts the rights of everyone "to a standard of living adequate for the health and wellbeing including food, clothing, housing, medical care and necessary social services". The government passed a national Ageing Policy in 2003 to ensure older people are recognized and equally provided opportunities to participate in development activities. It also passed the National Policy on Disability in 2004, which in part, addresses some of the challenges faced by elder people.

In the financial year 2012/2013, government allocated funds to support vulnerable persons including the elderly, who are also entitled to free medical services in public health facilities but only 15% accessed free medical services in 2007. Findings from the Urban Dwellers survey, 2015 indicated low impact of government policy and programmes on the welfare of the elders. It is only 13% of respondents reported that elders received health assistance from government.

The United Republic of Tanzania ranked very low (91 out of 96 nations) for poor elderly services (HelpAge International 2015). Consistently, urban dwellers survey in 2015 indicated low level of satisfaction with services to elders in Tanzania, whereby elderly safety is 51%, civic freedom is 57% and access to public transport is 37%.

5. Integrating gender in urban development

Gender perceptions on assignment of roles and recognition of the rights of female and male in the society vary across cultures and locations. Customary norms and tradition in most of societies in Tanzania discriminate women. In response, Tanzania formulated the Women and Gender in Development Policy, 2000 focusing on gender mainstreaming, women's ownership of property and participation in decision-making. It has set quotas for women representation in formal decision-making organs and initiated Gender Responsive Budgeting (GRB). Parliament amended the Land Act 1999 in 2004 to guarantee women's access to land and their right to spousal property. The Employment and Labour Relations Act, 2004 guarantees women's equality to employment opportunities. Government in collaboration with Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) is waging an intensive anti-Female Genital Mutilation (FGM) crusade.

Government established a Women's desks in police stations, enabling victims to file cases of gender-based violence (GBV) in privacy. Victims can also choose to deal with female officers exclusively. The courts of law recognise GBV as grounds for divorce no law in Tanzania specifically addresses domestic violence, which remains largely under-reported, on account of stigma and pressure of family and the community to remain silent. Thus GBV persists often silently, as revealed in the study areas in 2005, that 33% of married women suffered violence at the hands of their partner in the previous 12 months. The Social Institution Gender Index 2014 reveals the majority of people consider it justified under certain circumstances, for a husband/partner beating his wife/partner. Rape also remains a serious problem despite stiff penalties imposed in the Sexual Offences Special Provisions Act (SOSPA) 1998.

Restrictions on freedom of movement and lack of independent decision are a common form of domestic discrimination that many married women face in Tanzania. Interviewed for the 2010 TDHS, about 48.9% of married women aged 15-49 said their husbands made the final decision as to whether or not they could visit family. While Female Genital Mutilation (FGM) may no longer be acceptable in many areas, some communities continue the practice, particularly on women aged above 18 whom the law does not protect. Besides, stakeholders observed in a consultation meeting held in 2015 that the majority of women and other vulnerable groups do not participate effectively in community development projects.

Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) have been highly effective in promoting gender parity in Tanzania Kivulini Women's Rights Organization for example, launched a program in 4 districts of Mwanza region, has trained 100 paralegals, who offer crucial legal advice, assist with legal proceedings, make referrals to other legal professionals and provide reconciliation support to people living in rural areas, who would otherwise not have access to any legal help. In the first cycle of the two-year programme, the organisation has produced 100 paralegals, 60 of them men and 40 women. The training takes 25 days only. Benefiting communities have been empowered, in particular women who have become more aware of their rights and more proactive in taking action against GBV. Other activities of the organisation are described the case studies report, which is attached to this report.

The 2011-12 Tanzania HIV/AIDS and Malaria Indicator Survey shows HIV prevalence was 6.3% for women in Mainland Tanzania compared to 3.9% for men (URT, 2014a). Women aged 23-24 were also twice as likely to be living with HIV as men of the same age. Tanzania's Maternal Mortality Rate remains high at about 410 deaths per 100,000 live

births, having declined by 55% between 1990 and 2013. Globally, maternal mortality declined by nearly 44% over the past 25 years, to about 216 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2015⁴. The lifetime risk of maternal death is 1 in 44 and Tanzania is classified as making progress towards attaining the MDG targets on maternal health.

Having signed the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child and the OAU Charter on the Rights of Children, Tanzania formulated the Child Development Policy 1996, enacted and reviewed laws aimed at promoting and protecting the rights and interests of children, prepared and implemented the National Programme of Action concerning child survival, protection and development. The Sexual Offences Special Provisions Act (SOSPA) 1998 protects children against sexual abuse.

6. Challenges experienced and lessons learnt

Urbanization in Tanzania faces many challenges associated with high rates of rural-urban migration. Those identified by urban dwellers in a survey conducted in 2015 include rapid urban growth for which the urban local authorities are unable to address deficiencies in infrastructure and services, economic hardships and unemployment among urban dwellers as shown in (See Figure 2).

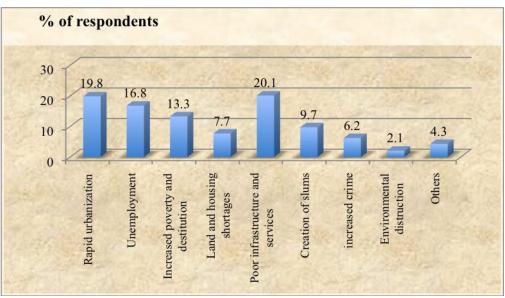


Figure 2: Challenges associated with rural - urban migration

Source: Field surveys, 2015

Methodological issues of inter-census changes of boundary and varying definitions of what is urban, which affect estimations of urban population growth rates and projections aside, all urban settlements including the rural trading centres, are growing in a haphazard manner, representing a potential time bomb of squalid cities of huge proportions in the future. Of the urban dwellers interviewed in the 2015 survey, 47.8% observed that

⁴ <u>http://www.mamaye.org/en/evidence/trends-maternal-mortality</u>

application of policy and bye-laws in managing city expansion was weak against 10.5% who felt that urban expansion is governed by policy and bylaws (Figure 3).

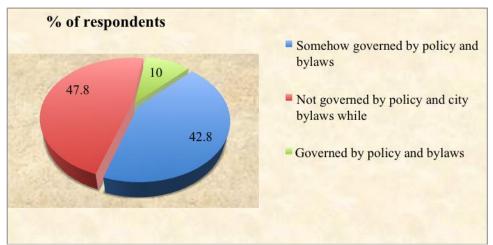


Figure 3: Application of policy and bylaws in managing city expansion

Source: Field surveys, 2015

Inadequate institutional and human capacity to plan, implement and effectively manage mobility systems that are efficient and accessible in both urban and rural areas remains a challenge (SSATP, 2013), as does the poor transportation infrastructure connecting centres of production to local, national and international markets.

Infrastructure deficiencies, institutional constraints and trade barriers affect rural-urban synergy, as well as cross border trade, which is also affected by delays at border posts, retarding economic development. Multi-stakeholder committees formed to remove cross border road barriers have received little support. Maritime transport is encumbered by outdated facilities in the ports and congestion of containers at the Dar es Salaam port. Capacity of airports and airstrips remains low and the costs of domestic and regional air travel are high. Pipeline transport has a very limited coverage.

Strategies to address youth unemployment so far have had little impacts and outreach especially to young women drug addicts remains low. Most of the youth also suffer low quality of education due to poor infrastructure and shortages of qualified teachers, books and other facilities in the public schools (Figure 4 and Figure 5). The drop out rates are unacceptably high is 30% for primary and 20% for secondary schools.

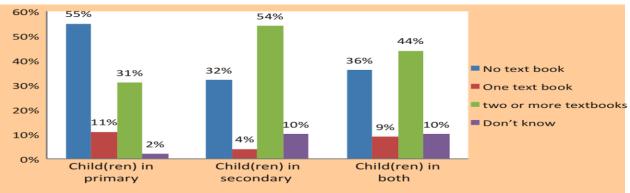


Figure 4: Availability of textbooks in primary and secondary schools in Tanzania

Source: http://twaweza.org/uploads/files/SzWENBrief2-FINAL.pdf

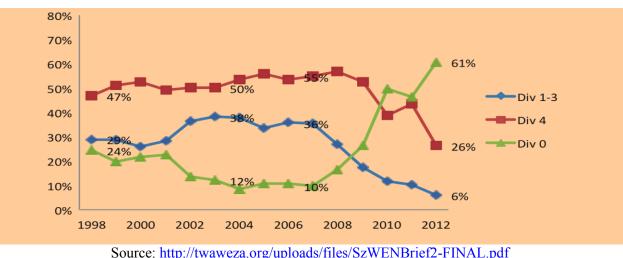


Figure 5: Secondary School Examination Results 1998 - 2012

Tanzania's elder people face challenges of poverty, inadequate health care, lack of pensions and lack of opportunities to participate decisions that affect them and national development. Tangible benefits to the elderly from government programmes are scant. Only 15% of elders accessed free medical services in 2007. As a result, they face premature death from curable diseases. Women in Tanzania are more heavily burdened with HIV and AIDS than men. They face relatively high rates of maternal mortality, school drop outs for girls, marital rape, human trafficking and marriage of girls as young as 15. Besides, gender discrimination intensifies during old age for women who are isolated, segregated against and subjected to violence and death. Police reports for example recorded 2,585 women killed in 8 regions on accusations of witchcraft between 2004 and 2009.

7. Future challenges to address in the New Urban Agenda

Urban dwellers interviewed in 2015 proposed improving urban infrastructure, livelihood and employment opportunities in rural areas alongside enhancing the capacity of the LGAs to manage rapid urbanization as key priorities in the future Urban Agenda. Essential as good planning is essential for sustainable urbanisation, planning alone however goo it may be, will not guarantee sustainable urbanization unless resources are made available to implement the plans. Government will therefore increase the resources allocations to support urban planning and encourage urban authorities to link land rent and property with infrastructure development and public services.

Reversing trends in youth unemployment and increasing labour productivity should be addressed in the new urban agenda. Other priorities include setting the minimum age of marriage for girls at 18 years and allowing re-entry of schoolgirls affected by pregnancies. All elders should also have access some form of social security.

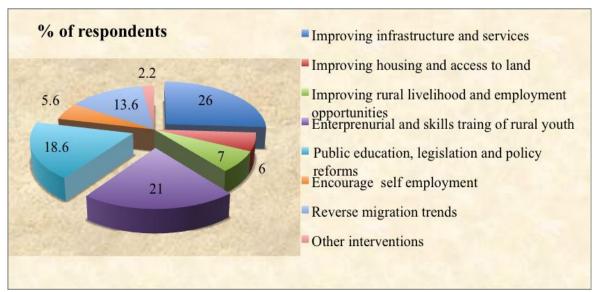


Figure 6: Proposed intervention to mitigate impacts of rural urban migration

Source: Field surveys, 2015

Improving rural-urban linkages will require strengthening of institutions, integrating market accessibility of products and upgrading the regional and local road networks, making it imperative to reorient resource allocation to improve connectivity between areas of production and markets (ADB, 2013) and take measures to attract private sector participation in developing and managing some components of trans-national roads, rail and port infrastructure. Urban dwellers interviewed in 2015 identified five priority actions shown in Figure 7.

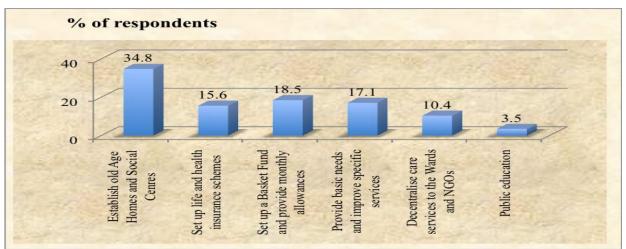
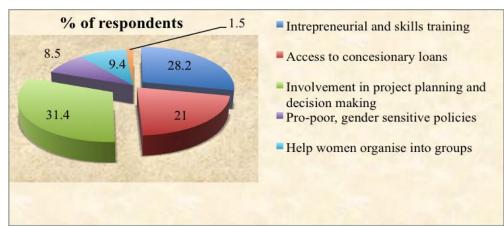


Figure 7: Future interventions to assist elder people

Source: Field surveys, 2015

Urban dwellers interviewed in 2015 proposed involving women and other vulnerable groups in planning and decision making (31.4%), providing them entrepreneurship and skills training (28.2%) and enabling them access concessionary loans (21%) as priorities in the new urban agenda (See Figure 8). Government will review the legislation to protect women of all age groups against FGM, strengthen public education to stop extrajudicial killing of elder women and enhance capacity of grassroots women's and men's groups to advocate for change of attitudes towards discriminatory norms and beliefs. In collaboration with CSOs, increase access to paralegal services.

Figure 8: Interventions to improve participation of women and vulnerable groups in community development processes



Source: Field surveys, 2015

Government will build the capacity of LGAs and strengthen institutional frameworks to improve management of urbanization and human settlements, enhancing good urban governance, and strengthening urban development financing, adopting new technologies including the 'green' and 'smart' city planning approaches should take priority in the New Urban Agenda.

II Land and Urban Planning

8. Ensuring sustainable urban planning and environmental design

Tanzania's Vision 2025 articulates a clear vision of spatial planning that integrates with social and economic development, protects the environment and satisfies the need for security, efficiency, aesthetics and social justice. Tanzania enacted the Land Act and Village Land Act in 1999, and the Land Disputes Courts Act in 2002, pursuant to the new National Land Policy of 1995. Subsequent to the Land Disputes Courts Act of 2002 the government in collaboration with respective local authorities had by 2013, opened District Land and Housing Tribunals in 40 out of 132 districts in Tanzania.

Within the Habitat II Agenda framework on sustainable urbanization, Tanzania made commitments to regularization and control proliferation of informal urban settlements. The National Human Settlements Development Policy (NHSDP) was passed in 2000. The NHSDP aims to achieve 'orderly, efficient, healthy, safe and secure, aesthetic and sustainable human settlements'. With regards to urban development, the key policy objectives are to promote compact urban forms, establish satellite towns to accommodate urban growth, strengthen rural-urban linkages, develop safe and efficient urban transport systems and ensure participatory urban and village land use planning. A review of the National Human Settlements Development Policy has been initiated, that will create focus on "Smart" and "Green" growth of inclusive cities.

The Government enacted the Urban Planning Act and the Land Use Planning Act of year 2007, both articulating the mechanisms for participatory planning and protection of the environment to ensure sustainable development. In practice, however, participation in urban planning remains illusive. While 43.7% of the respondents to the Urban Dwellers Survey, 2015 expressed a desire to participate fully in planning; it is only 16.2% who reported having participated in all stages. One third of them did not participate at all (Figure 9). The government is translating planning laws from English to Kiswahili, the National Language. The Village Land Act, its regulations and the Land Use Planning Regulations are already translated into Kiswahili.

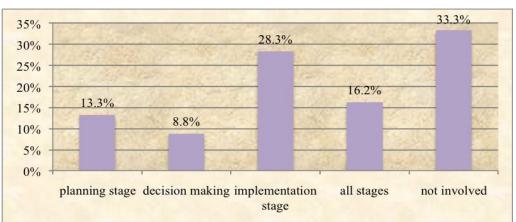


Figure 9: Participation in urban planning and implementation

Source: Field surveys, 2015

Poor management of information and data constrains sustainable urban development in Tanzania. Government launched a Strategic Plan for the Implementation of Land Laws (SPILL) in 2003 to disseminate legislations on environmental laws during implementation of the Habitat II Agenda (URT 1996). The SPILL process clarified roles and responsibilities of various actors and established land registries at the district and village levels. Government is also translating the planning laws from English to Kiswahili. In 2009 some leaflets explaining parts of the Urban Planning Act in simple language were distributed to the districts but the exercise stalled for lack of funds.

9. Improving urban land management and addressing urban sprawl

Urban planning has for long lagged behind urban growth, while access to land for urban housing and security of tenure have for long been contentious in Tanzania, exacerbated by rapid urban population increases, leading to proliferation of informal settlements. Progress has been made towards achieving objectives of the National Land Policy, 1995 to promote property development by improving procedures for land titling, tenure, acquisition, pricing and divestment, taxation and incentives. The Urban Dwellers Survey, 2015 revealed that 62.5% of urban population live in informal settlements against 37.5% who live in planned areas. Most urban dwellers build and live in informal settlements because it is easier and cheaper to obtain land and rents are lower than in planned areas. Inheritance is another factor that counted 5.3% of the respondents, whereas 3.8% are those living proximity to workplaces. Other factor sited by respondents is to live close to relative, this factor counted 9.1% of the interviewees.

In collaboration with LGAs, the MLHHSD is preparing general planning schemes for regional cities and municipalities and interim land use plans for small towns and growth centres. Currently, urban master plans are in preparation for four out of five cities, and six out of 18 municipalities. On the other hand, out of ten district towns, only three are in preparation of interim land use plans and seven of the thirteen township authorities are in preparation land use plans. There are more than 300 settlements with urban characteristics in the country but have no legal schemes to guide their development. Completion of city and municipal master plans will cover about 33% while small towns and growth centres will cover 30%.

Tanzania has implemented several projects that aim to prevent further growth of informal settlements and urban sprawl. In 2002, the MLHHSD in collaboration with the three Municipalities of Dar es Salaam launched a pilot project 'Twenty Thousand Plots Project' that produced 40,000 plots for residential purposes in Dar es Salaam. Similar projects have been implemented in Mwanza producing 10,000 plots, Mbeya 2,390 plots, Morogoro, 2,700 plots Bagamoyo 3,000 plots and Kibaha 58,590 plots. The project was scaled up to other urban settlements in the country, which could take loans from a Plot Development Revolving Fund (PDRF) established by MLHSD and other financial institutions and execute similar projects.

Dar es Salaam City Council initiated the Community Infrastructure Upgrading Programme (CIUP) in 2004 and by 2011. About 1,000 ha of informal settlements in 31 communities of Dar es Salaam were upgraded. As presented in Table 2, about 420,000 urban dwellers benefitted from access to improved infrastructure.

SN	Type of infrastructure	Amount
1.	Bituminous roads	16.72 km
2.	Gravel roads	97.20 km
3.	Footpaths	33.03 km
4.	Storm water drains	161.13 km
5.	Main drains km	10.23 km
6.	Solid waste containers	70
7.	Water kiosks	43
8.	Streetlights	2972 poles
9.	Box culverts	16
10.	Pipe culverts	492

Table 1: Infrastructure upgrading in Dar es Salaam city: 2004-2011

Source: Mazwile, M. 2013

The CIUP projects improved mobility and access to community facilities, reduced flooding, and improved sanitation and health conditions. Economic benefits include a rise in property values, employment generation and growth of business opportunities. The CIUP approach was replicated at Kwanjeka settlement in Tanga and city of Tanzania.

Figure 10: Image of one of the roads in Dar es Salaam before and after upgrading



Source: Mazwile, M. 2013

A National Programme for Regularization and Prevention of Unplanned Settlements 2013 – 2023 was initiated to complement then CIUP. By 2014, 274,039 property rights were identified in Dar es Salaam and 102,959 residential licenses were issued. In addition to enhancing security of tenure, LGAs and the government benefited from collection of property and land related taxes. Guided by Sections 56 - 60 of the Urban Planning Act 2007, urban authorities are implementing similar projects in Tanga, Mwanza, Dodoma, Moshi, Morogoro, Arusha, and Iringa, Njombe, Babati, Tunduma and Tabora.

10. Enhancing urban and peri-urban food production

Urban agriculture has been practiced in Tanzania for decades as a strategy to reduce poverty, create employment and ensure sustainability as a supplementary source of food to urban dwellers at affordable prices. Urban agriculture also adds to urban greenery and helps reduce air pollution, however, if its practice is not appropriate, urban agriculture can be a source for environmental degradation, pollution and health hazards (Mlozi, 1997; Sawio, 1998; Mvena, 1999; Foeken, 2005). Cultivation and animal keeping is mostly done in residential neighbourhoods, along streams, on road reserves and in open spaces, but is not fully utilized.

The NHSDP 2000 promotes urban agriculture as an economic activity that provides income and a reliable source of food supplies for urban households. It calls for designating suitable land for urban agriculture within planning areas and granting legal rights to agricultural land holdings. Defining it as "the carrying-out of plant and animal husbandry activities within statutory townships boundaries", the government enacted a set of guidelines on urban agriculture under the Urban Farming Regulations, 1992. In practice, general planning schemes designate peri-urban areas not yet ripe for agriculture land. This means that land for urban agriculture is not protected, and is being replaced or changed to residential, commercial, instructional and other urban developments. Urban authorities have enacted by-laws to protect the agricultural lands, but this by-law is rampantly flouted because of laxity in law enforcement.

The field surveys of 2015 show that about 39.8% of urban dwellers are engaged in urban agriculture. Out of them, 72.2% produce fruits and vegetables, 9.7% engaged in animal husbandry and the rest produce food crops (15.6%) and flowers (2.4%). Urban agriculture is constrained by shortage of labour, capital, transport, land shortage, weather and diseases among others (Mvena S. S. K. 1999). About 50% of respondents reported the lack of capital as a major constraint, followed by deficiency of transport especially in larger cities where agricultural land is located far from residential neighbourhoods.

11. Urban mobility challenges

Poor roads impose high costs to the economy. At the launch of LGTP in 2008, about 20,000 - 30,000 km (35.3% -53%) of the district roads amounting to 56,625 kilometres were reportedly unable to provide reliable accessibility during rainy seasons. Urban roads constitute 11% of the district roads. Overall, Tanzania has a low road density of about 98 metres per sq. km, and paved roads constitute only about 8% of all roads. District and urban roads are crucial for day-to-day mobility but he overall road condition is only 35% good and 65% poor. The status of district roads is the worst. Roads in good condition are about 24% and paved roads below 1%, (Figure 11).

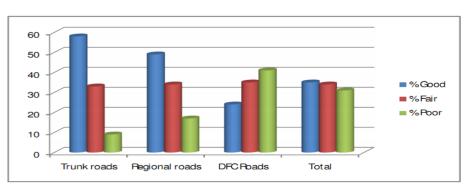


Figure 11: Condition of Classified Road Network

Private, individually owned second-hand mini buses of carrying capacity between 25 and 34 passengers known as '*dala-dalas*' dominate the in urban public transport services in Tanzania. Stiff competition between operators and the drivers attempts to maximize the number of trips per day. The *dala-dala* services are characterised by excessive speeding, overloading and extending working hours per day, which leads to road accidents (Rizzo, 2002, 2011). On the other hand, bad behaviour of drivers is largely attributed by unfavourable terms of employment and low salaries.

According to Traffic Police accidents records, 1,800 *dala-dala* were involved in traffic accidents in Dar es Salaam in 2008. The most significant causes of these accidents were driving mistakes (Lizárraga, C. et al. 2014). Also a study of traffic accidents in Dar es Salaam conducted in 2011 implicated the higher accident rates to the mini-buses, (*dala-dala*), which resulted into adult and children injuries, (Zimmerman, K et all; 2011).

"It is also estimated that urban transportation problem (sic), especially traffic jams eat up 20 percent of annual profit of most businesses. Dar es Salaam Rapid Transit (DART) indicates that about 4 billion Tanzania Shillings lost every day in the city due to challenges associated with urban transportation. Road traffic accidents (RTAs) in Tanzania cities are estimated on average to cause about 3400 deaths per annum and 20000 serious injuries" *Msigwa, R.E. 2013.*

"The Dar es Salaam Road Safety Board, Mr. Elifathili Mgonja, said that 302 people died in 276 road accidents in Dar es Salaam between the periods of January through June 2013 alone. Tanzania Regional Commissioner of Dar es Salaam, Mr. Jordan Rugimbana, said that statistics show that 25 percent of people who die from road traffic accidents in Tanzania are children" *Philemon, S. and Lugenge,* J. 2013.

Implementation of the Dar es Salaam Rapid Transit (DART) system is expected to improve public transport services in the city. Responsibilities for managing the trunk road network,

Source: TANROADS 2013

designing and implement Bus Rapid Transit (BRT) Systems, managing traffic and the licensing the *dala-dalas* are centralised in government departments and agencies (DSM City Council et al., 2010). Investment in new roads and other infrastructure including upgrading and expansion of existing infrastructure under the Local Government Support Project is in progress in other cities and municipalities of Tanzania, which is expected to ease urban public transport.

Most urban dwellers (41.9%) live more than 5 km away from their work places and 23.3% of them, travel 30 minutes or less to work (See Figure 12). About 64.3% of employees travel between 30 minutes and 2 hours, whereas, 12.4% travel beyond two hours, some of them taking more than 5 hours (Figure 13). The long hours of travel caused by long travel distances, severe traffic congestion, traffic jams and inefficient public transport compels results in the working population wasting many productive man-hours on transit from home to work and back.

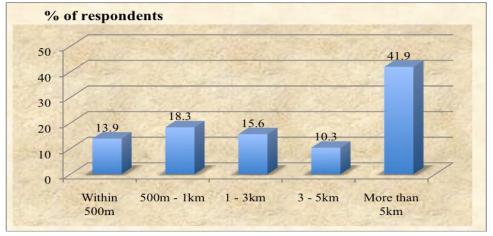
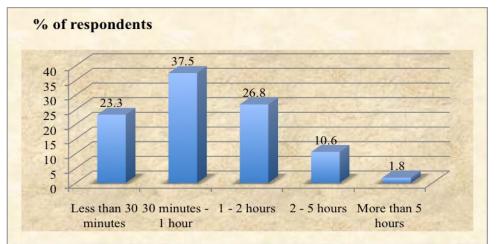


Figure 12: Distance to work place

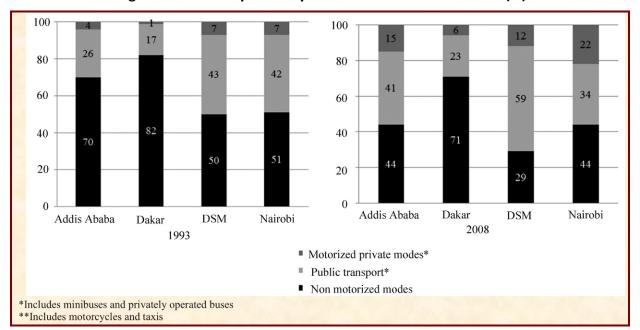
Source: Field Survey 2015

Figure 13: Average time to work place



Source: Field Survey, 2015

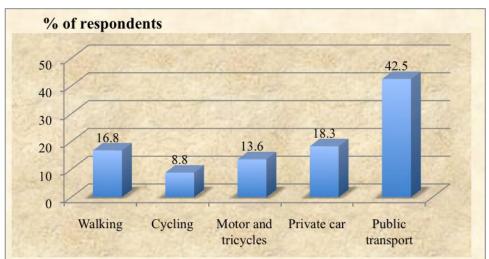
The modal distribution of mobility in Dar es Salaam has been changing over time. Between 1993 and 2008, journeys by foot or by bicycle dropped from 50% to 29%. Journeys by public transport increased from 43% to 59% (Figure 14).

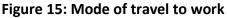




Source: Lizárraga C. et al, 2014

Interviews conducted in 2015 (See Figure 15) reveal that use of public transport declined from 59% in 2008 to 42.5%, while use of private modes of travel has more than doubled from 12% in 2008 to 31.9% due to increased car ownership and use of hired motor cycles (*Boda Boda*) and tri-cycles (*Bajaj*).





Source: Field survey 2015

Non-motorised modes of travel declined from 29% in 2009 to 25.6% in 2015 because street traders (*Wamachinga*) increasingly occupy pavements in the city centre, at bus stations and intersections of the main roads, forcing pedestrians to share road space with motorised traffic and bicycles become at the risk of injury or death. Dar es Salaam City has a transport master plan, which aims at improving mobility.

12. Improving technical capacity to plan and manage cities

Tanzania has been implementing a decentralization program since 1999, which transferred responsibilities for public services delivery, urban planning and design to the LGAs, to facilitate stakeholder participation in planning and implementation processes. Inadequate awareness among the urban dwellers however, is a key constraint to effective participation of communities in planning.

The Government enacted a Town Planners Registration Act, 2007 and established the Town Planners Registration Board to exercise oversight on professional practice and conduct of registered planners in order to enhance professionalism. By 2014, a total of 238 Town Planners have been registered. A quick-win survey done by the Department of Urban Planning in 2008 revealed that the country had a shortfall of 74% of qualified town planners, mainly because LGAs have no authority to hire technical personnel. The recruitment policy compels LGAs to obtain approval of the President's Office, Civil Service Department, which approval is granted only if the funds for salaries have been included in the national budget, which often is not the case. Some of the district councils are unable to retain professional planners and most of the others have employed only one Town Planner. Besides, lands and urban planning are not in the priority list of sectors that are allocated grants in the central government budget, which is a major setback to planning and plan implementation at the local level. Currently, the most qualified and experienced planners in public service are centralized in the MLHHSD.

The MLHHSD in collaboration with PMO - RALG has for the past 20 years issued the following directives and guidelines to the LGAs to improve technical and professional practice, enhance efficiency, transparency and community participation in planning:

- 1) Guidelines for the preparation of general and detailed schemes of 2008;
- 2) Town Planning and Space Standards Regulations GN.157 of 1997;
- 3) Urban Farming Regulation GN. 215 of 2001;
- 4) Technical Instructions for Change of Use and Sub division of Plots;
- 5) Guidelines for planning of small islands of 2012;
- 6) Urban Development Control Guidelines GN. 242 of 2008;

The government is amending the Urban Planning Act of 2007 to strengthen enforcement and decentralise more planning powers to the LGAs in order to enhance community and stakeholders' participation in the planning process. The ultimate goal is to empower communities to plan for their areas and participate more effectively in the preparation of general planning schemes and in the development processes of their cities. The role of planning experts is being redefined to assume responsibilities of providing technical guidance, coordination, monitoring and evaluation of urban planning activities and implementation of the urban plans. Government has drafted new planning regulations pending submission to parliament.

Since 2000, LGAs have been participating in the preparation of policies and legislation, through the Association of Local Authorities of Tanzania (ALAT)⁵. Preparation of plans is a mandatory responsibility of the LGAs. The Ministry of Lands, Hosing and Human Settlements Development (MLHHSD) is responsible of approving all plans. In practice however, planning is currently a collaborative effort of LGAs and MLHHSD, the latter intervening when the LGAS need more skilled manpower to discharge their urban planning responsibilities. Technical equipment including satellite images, aerial maps, survey equipment material and vehicles are expensive, and few LGA can afford them without assistance from the central government or donor funding.

13. Challenges in land and urban planning

Disorderly urban growth, unguided growth of many villages into small towns and the proliferation of informal settlements attributed to rapid urbanization in the context of inability of urban authorities to provide planned and serviced land ahead of development is a major challenge to sustainable urbanization in Tanzania. Despite the government commitment to increase resource availability to the human settlements development sector, the management of planned urban development in Tanzania continues to be constrained by financial, staff and equipment shortages. The majority of urban dwellers interviewed in 2015 (74.1%) believed that the urban authorities are ill equipped in terms of human capacity and technical equipment to properly manage planned urban development against 15.9% only, who held the view that planning activities are supported with sufficient resources while 10% reported not knowing the resource capacities of the LGAs.

The government commitment to strengthen the institutional framework for coordinating human settlement development in the Habitat II framework has not been fully realised. Institutions at the local government level remain fragmented especially as public utility agencies report to parent ministries in the central government, undermining the ability of LGAs to coordinate planned development in their jurisdictions. Due to lack of coordination utility agencies have supplied services to settlements built in hazardous areas, contrary to byelaws and directives of LGAs.

On the other hand, hundreds of rural trading centre are now growing rapidly without any form of planning pose. These centers are likely to degenerate into slum cities of tomorrow. A building law that could apply to all urban and rural areas needs to be introduced in order to minimize the level of informality in village centers and emerging towns.

Upgrading and regularization of informal settlements are costly, time consuming and often hampered by meager resources both human and technical in the Local Authorities. Besides, they focus narrowly on improving infrastructure and protecting existing developments without consolidating the land parcels. As a result, most access roads remain narrow, the

⁵ Other stakeholders in the private sector and civil society are also involved in policy formulation and legislation processes and their inputs are taken into consideration

parcels of land invariably small and the upgraded areas lack of in many amenities including open spaces and many social services. Often, the upgraded infrastructure especially the open ditch drainage channels and sewers are poorly constructed, lack connectivity and the maintenance is poor and irregularly.

The land acquisition process for planning and surveying under Public Private - Partnership arrangements takes too long. In some cases, the slow pace of provision of infrastructure causes delays in commencement of development of the surveyed plots. At the same time some of the more financially capable urban dwellers abuse the project by speculating the surveyed plots.

Projects for delivery of land for various uses as well as upgrading and regularization programmes are constrained by many hurdles. Occupancy audits and the assessment of land values that have to be conducted in the field require time, resources and skills. Upgrading and regularization projects must be preceded by public education and creating awareness, because knowledge and consent of residents about such initiatives is fundamental to their success. It is often difficult for community members to have a common understanding of the matters involved and even more difficult to obtain consensus. There is therefore occasional resistance by land holders within unplanned communities or in areas for new development that delay or halt land surveying and data collection processes and implementation of upgrading projects.

Because they are closest to the people, grassroots leaders could be play a key role monitoring implementation of planning schemes and projects at the local level but they have limited knowledge of land management, urban planning and design. The public has little knowledge on the laws and regulations governing urban development and cannot foresee environmental and social problems that could arise from poor planning. Although community participation is mandatory, planning reports are written in English, a language spoken by few urban dwellers.

Unlike the Land Use Planning Act, which establishes planning organs at the ward and village levels, the Urban Planning Act only recognises the Minister and LGAs as planning authorities. No planning organs are established at the grass roots level.

The government appears to have lost impetus on programmes to disseminate planning information and legislation that to enable community participation in planning for lack of funds. With regards to urban agriculture, field studies conducted in 2015 and Mvena's study of 1999 indicated shortage of markets as major constraint to urban agriculture.

Planning and design for public transport infrastructure has a narrow focus on the rush hour traffic, ignoring non-work oriented travel needs. Women, children, the elderly and disabled are often subjected to various forms of disrespect from the *dala-dala* crew including abusive and insulting language and harassment when they board or alight. School children who pay reduced fares sanctioned by regulations, but not offset by public subsidy face the brunt of abuse in the public transport system (Sumatra 2011, UN-Habitat 2009). Moreover, a substantial part of the population have to walk long distances daily to work or school and back home because they cannot afford the high costs of the liberalized public transport (Diaz Olvera et al., 2010). The Habitat II commitment to enhance institutional and human capacity to plan, implement and managed effective and efficient mobility systems that would be accessible to both urban and rural populations has not born fruit (SSATP, 2013).

The Field Survey, 2015 (See Figure 16) revealed that most urban dwellers consider traffic jams (47.8%) and poor road conditions (35.4%) to be the main challenges in urban transport. Public transport services are unreliable and unsafe, ignoring non-work oriented travel and needs of women, children, disabled and elders. There are no safe and convenient facilities for non-motorised transport in Tanzania as pedestrians and cyclist share the same road space with motorized traffic (Figure 17). Despite efforts to decentralise public service delivery to the LGAs, urban authorities are not fully mandated to manage mobility systems, as most the public transport roads and projects like the BRT are managed and regulated by central government agencies.

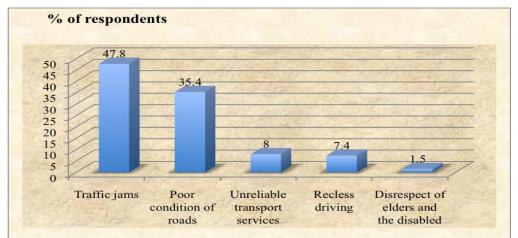


Figure 16: Transport challenges experienced by urban dwellers

Source: Field survey 2015

Figure 17: Pedestrians and cyclists sharing road space with motor vehicles in Dar es Salaam



Source: WBCSD, 2007

14. Future challenges and issues to address in the New Urban Agenda

Urban population growth (especially in major cities like Dar es Salaam) and sprawling urban forms lead to loss of rich agricultural land surrounding the cities, in particular along major roads. Dar es Salaam for example, is likely to merge with Kibaha, Bagamoyo, Kisarawe and Mkuranga districts, forming a conurbation in the near future. The policy objective of compact urban forms has to be translated into reality including planning for mixed land use communities to bring work places closer to residential areas and reduce transport costs, in particular for the low income earners who depend solely on public transport services. A new metropolitan approach to urban management will need to be introduced in the new urban agenda.

Government will amend and strengthen enforcement of land taxation laws in particular with regards to vacant land to stop ongoing land hoarding and speculation on surveyed plots. Government will establish a national land development fund to enable urban authorities to deliver planned and serviced land to developers. Diversity, both social and economic is what makes cites both dynamic and exciting places to live in. Government will therefore make regulations to guide private sector participation in the delivery of planned and surveyed urban land and issue guidelines to the urban authorities to ensure inclusive access to land by all sections of society, including the urban poor, so that cities continue to be livable, economically viable and socially tenable.

Given the limited human resources capacity to manage planned development, the government will enact a building law that will apply to both urban and rural areas with simplified building regulations, which can be enforced by non-professionals; undertake a

nationwide public awareness and education campaign on the new legislation and empower grass-roots leaders to enforce it.

A shift in policy on intergovernmental fiscal relations is necessary for urban local authorities to have adequate resources to meet urban planning needs, infrastructure development and service delivery responsibilities and dependence on central government transfers. Expanding the LGAs revenue base is considered a key priority in the New Urban Agenda. At the same time, resolute action is required to make villages attractive for people to live in and reduce the high rate of rural-urban migration.

Public awareness campaigns on land and urban planning laws, rules and regulations need to be enhanced. Upgrading and regularization of informal settlement ought to go in-hand with enforcement of planning laws and building regulation to avert further illegal developments. The scope of upgrading and regularisation projects must be expanded to include consolidation and pooling of land parcels and create adequate land for infrastructure, community facilities and other public amenities. Most informal settlements occupy strategic prime locations where land and property values are potentially high enough to attract private sector interest. Creating appropriate regulatory and financing mechanisms for private sector participation in informal settlement upgrading and redevelopment should be a priority in the New Urban Agenda.

Government will ensure that LGAs designate land for urban agriculture, improve access to markets and ensure urban agriculture is practiced in an environmentally safe manner. The LGAs should protect agricultural land from loss to urban construction activities by incorporating sustainable use of prime agricultural land in the long-term urban land use plans to enable urban dwellers enjoy the multiple benefits accrued from urban agriculture such as support to food security for urban dwellers, job creation, income generation and urban greenery for the cleaning of air in congested cities.

The government will amend Urban Planning Act to create planning organs at the subcouncil levels. At the same time it will enhance the capacity of the Town Planners' Registration Board to strengthen its watchdog role in regulating the practice and conduct of planners.

The majority of urban dwellers interviewed in 2015 (51.3%) suggested that challenges to urban agriculture could be overcome if loans or grants to finance modern farm equipment were to be made available, while 21.5% proposed improving access to extension services. Others proposed improving agricultural methods, ensuring access to land and markets, and enhancing research and training. In collaboration with other stakeholders Government, will assist LGAs recruit and retain qualified Urban Planners at the council and ward levels, as well as increasing the amount of financial resources available to the LGAs for land management and urban planning as a matter of priority in the New Urban Agenda. In particular, the government will review the structure of the Plot Development Revolving Fund to enable LGAs receive higher or equal amount of the proceeds from land rent, which they can use to support urban planning and improve land management activities.

III Environment and Urbanization

15. Addressing climate change

The International Community has made several agreements aimed at reducing climate change effects, the most recent was concluded on December 14th 2015 at the World Climate Summit 2015 in Paris, reviving the international commitment to reversing the effects of climate change, targeting decarbonisation of businesses by policy makers, investors and the business community; and adopting green energy sources including wind energy, facilitating an increase in ambition without being prescriptive for countries. Tanzania has ratified several protocols on Environmental Protection including the CBD, (1996), CCD, (1994), UNFCCC, 1996, Kyoto Protocol to the UNFCCC (2002), RAMSAR, CITES, Trans boundary Movements and Hazardous Wastes, POPs, Montreal Protocol, Vienna Convention and the Cartagena Protocol.

Since 1996, Tanzania has developed a comprehensive set of policies to address climate change including TDV 2025, NSGRP, National Environmental Policy (1997), the Forest Policy (1998), which seeks to integrate biodiversity values into forest management, the Land Policy (1995), Energy Policy, Agriculture and Livestock Policy (1997) all supported by relevant legislation. Tanzania passed the Environmental Management Act 2004, which mandates the Division of Environment in the Vice President's Office (VPO) with the responsibility to coordinate all climate change issues, including adaptation and mitigation. The government established a National Climate Change Steering Committee (NCCSC) and a National Climate Change Technical Committee (NCCTC) to guide the implementation of climate change related activities. The government has developed national adaptive capacity by conducting research on environment and climate change, sensitizing leaders, public awareness; and mainstreamed climate change issues into national policies, institutional programmes and plans.

Consistent with the UNFCCC objectives, Tanzania is addressing the drivers of deforestation and forest degradation (REDD+) for reducing emissions and increasing storage of CO2 to mitigate climate change and its impacts through sustainable forest management. Developed in a participatory manner in 2009, the National Framework for REDD adopted a legal framework that supports participatory forest management (PFM), including Community Based Forest Management (CBFM), which has proved to be effective in enabling regeneration of natural forest and Joint Forest Management (JFM). It enables sharing of management responsibilities of state owned forests (1,780,000 ha by 2008) and the returns between the national or local government and the communities adjacent to the forest. The National REDD+ Strategy is implemented through the NCCTC, the semiautonomous National Carbon Monitoring Centre (NCMC), Regional Administrative Secretariats and District Environmental Committees established in the LGAs under the Environmental Management Act, 2004. Implementation of REDD+ activities is aligned with implementation of forest management policies and enforcement of relevant legislation.

Settlements in Tanzania are strongly influenced by the environment and by access to natural resources. Tanzania's laws and building standards thus seek to create harmony

with the environment by promoting designs for comfortable, environmentally efficient housing and sustainable human settlements characterised by good air quality; energy and water efficiency; and planting that provide green lungs or food security. To the urban communities of Tanzania however, the adverse impacts of climate change is a reality as 92.9% of urban dwellers interviewed in 2015 indicated experiencing various forms of climate change impacts (Figure 18), against 7.1% who reported being unaware of the impacts.

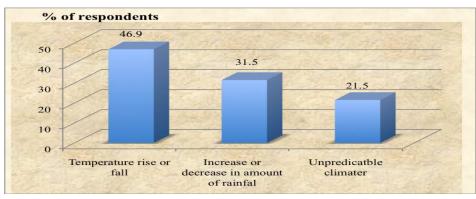
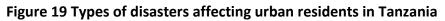
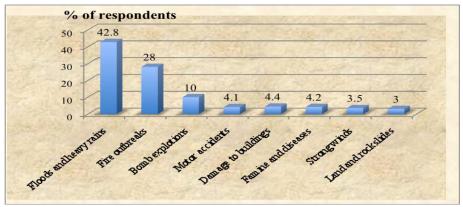


Figure 18: Type of Climate Change Impact experienced by urban dwellers

16. Disaster risk reduction

Findings from the Urban Dwellers Survey, 2015 indicate that 62.5% of residents in Tanzania's urban settlements⁶ live in informal settlements, some occupying hazardous land prone to various disasters including pollution, flooding and landslides. The majority of them are poor and survive on less than 1 US \$ a day, furthermore the informal settlements lack in adequate infrastructure and services, exacerbating vulnerability to disasters. Up to 83.3% of urban dwellers interviewed in 2015 (Figure 19) have experienced some kind of a disaster including floods (39.1%) and fire outbreaks (31.5%).





Source: Source: Field surveys, 2015

Source: Field surveys, 2015

⁶ The proportion is higher for Dar es Salaam (75%) and in the other large cities

Disaster Risk Reduction is a multi-sector responsibility dependent on the coordination of many institutions implementing disaster management plans, which encompass a wide range of activities including, but not limited to disaster prevention, mitigation, preparedness, vulnerability reduction and climate change adaptation. Tanzania formulated a National Disaster Policy 2004, supported by other national policies like the National Land Policy 1995, National Human Settlements Policy 2000 and the Environment Policy 1997. The main objectives of the policies are to ensure safe livelihoods, minimise interruptions to socio-economic development and facilitate reconstruction programmes of affected communities. The policies are supported by the Disaster Relief Act 1990, The Environment Management Act (EMA) 2004 and the Food Security Act. Sector Legislations have similarly been structured to complement the Disaster Management Act. In the Industrial Regulations and the Traffic and Transport Sector Regulations all incorporate provisions for risk management.

Tanzania has strengthened institutions, mechanisms and capacities to build resilience to hazards at all levels including the community level Government established an institutional framework comprising the Tanzania National Disaster Relief Committee (TANDREC), which is chaired by PS PMO with members drawn from the Tanzania Meteorology Agency (TMA), Food Security Department, Fire and Rescue Force. The Disaster Management Department coordinates disaster policy and interventions across the nation. Plans are underway to establish regional and district Disaster Management Committees to facilitate reduction of risk from hazards and enhance capabilities for local resource mobilization, allocation and accountability throughout the Country.

In addition to raising public awareness on disaster risks such as building on hazardous land, the Disaster Management Committee provides training to Councillors and Ward Development Committees on disaster management to enhance their decision making capacity and ability to sustain community livelihoods against hazards and disaster impacts. Such training includes learning from local best practices, based on Indigenous Knowledge Systems especially in designing human settlements, training of government and community level functionaries and volunteers as well as designing and incorporating disaster management content in education and school curricula. The National Land Use Planning Commission (NLUPC) and LGAs incorporate risk management in their land use planning and informal settlements upgrading projects but cities in Tanzania continue facing high risks from disaster.

17. Reducing traffic congestion

Traffic congestion remains a critical concern to 77.9% of urban dwellers interviewed in 2015. Mrema, (2011) attributes traffic congestion to rapid urban population growth and increasing number of vehicles, by about one million in 12 years, from about 440,000 in 2000 to 1,440,000 in 2012 (Figure 20), due to the importation of cheap used vehicles.

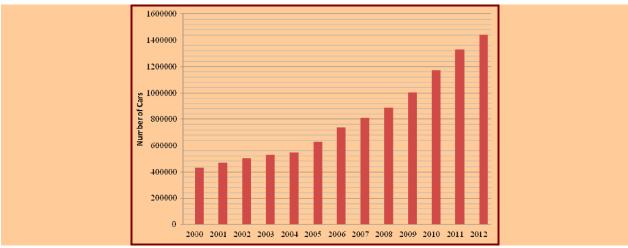


Figure 20: Annual vehicle increase in Tanzania: 2000 - 2012

Source: Mrema, G.D. (2011)

Data available in the Tanzania Revenue Authority (TRA) indicates the growth rates of vehicles reached 10% in 2012. Annual growth rates for Dar es Salaam city averaged 8% over the past 20 years compared to 2% for the other urban areas (Msigwa2013). Other factors that contribute to traffic congestion include:

- 1) Inadequate, narrow and predominantly unpaved roads with poorly maintained surface conditions;
- 2) Poor design of intersections that constrain traffic flow in most urban roads;
- Inadequate and poorly maintained storm water drainage infrastructure often blocked with refuse, resulting in frequent flooding that slows down traffic movement;
- 4) Encroachment on road reserves with illegally built structures hindering smooth traffic flow;
- 5) Lack of walkways and bicycle-ways forcing vehicles to share road space with pedestrians, cyclists and push carts slowing down traffic with increased risk to accidents;
- 6) Lack of reliable and convenient alternative modes of transport and poor, unsafe and inefficient public transport that lacks in customer-care;
- 7) Large number of old and poorly maintained vehicles on urban roads;
- 8) Poor traffic attitudes and non-enforcement of traffic rules and by-laws partly due to corruption;
- 9) Weak legislation, public policies and management tools to address traffic congestion and emissions;
- 10)Poor coordination in land development and investments within the city resulting into concentration of most key investments in few areas of cities, mainly in the city centres; and
- 11)Lack of long term, visionary planning, ineffective management and poor implementation of urban master plans, development policies and strategies.

Figure 21: Image of a traffic jam at one of the road intersection in Dar es Salaam



Source: Kombe, G. J. 2009

Traffic congestion exacerbates noise and air pollution, the latter from increased emission of Carbon Dioxide (CO2), Carbon Monoxide (CO) and other greenhouse gases that contribute to Global Warming. Mrema (2011) and Katala (Date not provided) identify the following other adverse effects of traffic congestion:

- 1) Traffic jams and queuing, low speed, longer trip times and more frequent accidents;
- 2) Health risks of exposure to air and noise pollution; stress, anxiety and frustration leading to road rage
- 3) Constraints on active transport like walking and cycling;
- 4) Inability to forecast travel time accurately and wastage of time of motorists and passengers, which may result in lost business and reduced productivity. Increased fuel consumption and wear and tear on vehicles owing to idling in traffic, frequent acceleration and braking, leading to more frequent repairs and replacements;
- 5) Interference with passage of emergency vehicles;
- 6) Negative spill over effects from congested main arteries to secondary roads and side streets as alternative routes are attempted (rat running), which disrupts neighborhood amenity.

Since 1996, the government has invested a considerable amount of resources in upgrading and improving both trunk and urban roads and this has helped reduce traffic congestion in some of the urban areas. Following a detailed traffic study, the government prepared a Transport Master Plan for Dar es Salaam City to year 2030, which among other solutions proposed the Bus Rapid Transit (BRT) project now under implementation.

18. Air Pollution

A growing problem in both rural and urban areas, air pollution adversely affects human health and wellbeing, vegetation including crops, wildlife, buildings, infrastructure and the world's climate in many ways. The quality of air in Tanzania's cities is progressively deteriorating due to high rates of urbanisation, motorisation and growth in economic activities. If left uncontrolled, is likely to impair national development and human survival (Kombe, 2009). Figure 22 illustrates the sources, types and impacts of air pollution.

man Activities	→ Emmission → Air	Pollution → Exposure	Impacts
Energy Motorised transport Agriculture Land management Industrialisation Urbanisation Mining operations	 Particulate matter Sulphur dioxide Nitrogen oxides Carbon monoxide Carbon dioxide Methane 	 People Animals Vegetation Man-made materials Soils Watershed 	 Premature deaths Reduced crop yields Acidification Eutrophication Reduction of biodiversity Impaired ecosystems services
operations	AmmoniaVolatile organic compounds		Costs

Figure 22: Summary of cause, types and impacts of air pollution

Source: Mbwambo, K. (Date not provided)

Interviewed in 2015 (See Figure 23) urban dwellers identified industrial, vehicular, mining gas and dust emission (50.2%), improper waste management (28.9%) and deforestation (18%) as the main sources of air pollution.

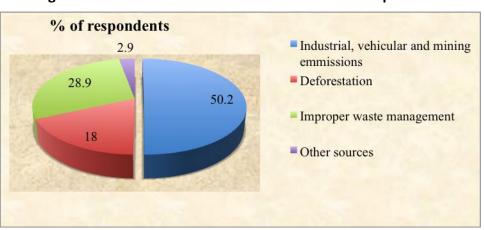


Figure 23: Views of urban dwellers on sources of air pollution

Source: Field surveys, 2015

Tanzania formulated the National Environmental Policy, 1997 consistent with Habitat II Agenda objectives. The policy defines a multi-sector environmental framework for preventing environmental degradation to ensure sustainable national development. Based on the principle that "every person living in Tanzania shall have a right to clean, safe and healthy environment" (URT 2004), Tanzania reformed her environmental laws, passing the National Environment Management Act (2004) that introduced new air quality control

regulations, air quality monitoring, management and control standards for all key sectors, Strategic Environmental and Social Assessments (SESAs) and Environmental Impact Assessments (EIAs) Regulations. Besides, Tanzania implemented several projects to reduce air pollution including:

- 1) Promoting cleaner production technologies and techniques by disseminating information, training, demonstration and assessments involving various more than 69 enterprises so far;
- 2) Air Quality Monitoring Capacity Building for Dar es Salaam City Council involving training and equipping six air quality monitoring stations;
- 3) Adopting the Urban Development and Environment Management Programme that raised understanding of Local Government Authorities in planning and integrating environmental management in their development plans;
- 4) On-going implementation of the Dar es Salaam Bus Rapid Transit (BRT) project to improve public transport services;
- 5) Phasing out of leaded fuel in 2005, promoting reduced sulphur fuel and natural gas in few vehicles and promoting use of natural gas industrial manufacturing. Sixteen manufacturing firms including one cement factory have switched to gas;
- 6) Introducing renewable energy sources including power generation from solid waste methane gas (since 2008), briquette making from rice husks and saw dust, improved cooking stoves to reduces indoor air pollution, sustainable bio-fuel and solar packaging for public schools, hospitals and prison facilities;
- 7) Formulating air quality Standards (See Annex 5).





Source: Mbwambo, K. (Date not provided)

Dar es Salaam city implemented the Strategic Urban Development Plan (1999-2010), a participatory environmental management approach to urban planning that had quality of air and urban transportation among the priority work areas in the Sustainable Dar es Salaam Project (SDP) (UN-habitat 2005).

19. Challenges experienced and lessons learnt

Despite the wide range of policies, strategies, programmes and plans to address climate change, Tanzania's institutional framework, mechanisms and capacities to build resilience to hazards remain weak at all levels, most particularly at the community level. Ironically, inadequate disaster preparedness often attributed to paucity of resources results into unnecessary costs of rehabilitation and reconstruction of disaster damages as well as impoverishment of the victims of disasters from delayed response and the long time it takes to recover from the impacts of a disaster.

Many institutions, public and private- are implementing projects that address the backlog in housing in Tanzania but the design of most buildings ignores environmental principles, contributing to climate change and other adverse environmental consequences High-rise buildings leads to intensive energy use due to the need for elevators and air conditioning systems. The fascination with imitative use of imported building materials meant for temperate climates, especially glass walling increases interior temperature while reflecting light that causes glare on the streets and adjacent properties as well as creating local heat islands. Besides, these projects exert pressure on already limited urban water supply, sewerage and drainage systems, in absence of infrastructure impact assessment studies. Furthermore, the ongoing construction of high-rise buildings in most cities is replacing old buildings rich in historical, cultural and architectural value.

Poor planning and lack of coordination result in failure to integrate disaster risk reduction into human settlement design and construction, exposing human settlements to vulnerability to consequence of natural and manmade disasters; manifested in:

- 1) Unregulated growth and expansion of urban settlements and predominance of informal settlements;
- 2) Increasing soil and beach erosion, rise in the sea level and shrinkage of small islands;
- 3) Deforestation, overdependence on charcoal as a source of energy for 94% of households, invasion of urban green structures, open spaces and loss of biodiversity;
- 4) Inadequate lifelines such as roads, bridges, storm water drains and sanitation as 85% of households use onsite sanitation facilities including pit latrines;
- 5) Frequent flooding especially in low lying informal housing areas resulting from inadequate drainage infrastructure, encroachment into urban river systems with housing, urban farming and sand mining; and
- 6) Unregulated informal economic activities with severe adverse impacts on the ecosystem.

Tanzania has not yet developed an efficient early-warning systems and the technical capacity to predict atmospheric changes or the fluctuations resulting from local air pollution is low. In addition, the human resource capacity and budget allocations are low, posing serious obstacles to effective intervention when disaster strikes.

Cities continue facing severe traffic congestion on account of poor alignment between the recently upgraded highways and systematic public transport improvements; the piecemeal

approach to transport planning and implementation and poor coordination of various infrastructure and services projects. Immediate and long-term strategies to address the challenges of the devolution of transport functions to the most appropriate level. Not much has been done to bring up shift in travel behaviour towards sustainable transport through Travel Demand Management Strategies.

The planning practice, infrastructure and road development laws, regulations and standards often address existing traffic challenges without making provisions for sufficient traffic lanes to cater for future population growth and increasing number of vehicles. The DART project for example could have included three to four lanes for ordinary traffic in each direction today when land reserve is available.

Progress towards meeting air pollution targets is slowed down by outdated industrial technology, lack of information and understanding of gasoline engine performance and inadequate retail infrastructure for unleaded gasoline. Enforcement of national policies, laws and programs is also weak and there are no local lead-exposure data to support policymaking or the setting of performance standards. Other barriers inhibiting mitigating indoor air pollution include:

- 1) Limited access to cleaner energy technologies;
- 2) Inadequate technical infrastructure, poor equipment and lack of systematic quantitative assessments of the magnitude of indoor air quality;
- 3) Weak public health policies, laws and regulations as well as low human and financial resource capacity;
- 4) Inadequate institutional coordination and collaboration leading to lack of common strategies;
- 5) Low level of public awareness on the air pollution and its adverse effects on human health and the environment; and
- 6) Rapid growth of the rural but especially urban population coupled with poor urban planning leading to congestion and further pollution of air.

20. Future challenges and issues to address in the New Urban Agenda

Climate change has significant impacts on the economies and social welfare of all nations including Tanzania. A well-resourced pro-poor adaptation agenda is necessary to overcome the impacts of Climate Change, which in Tanzania entails:

- 1) Reviewing macroeconomic policies to determine the extent to which these policies are enabling or undermining the adaptive capacity of the poor to climate change impacts;
- 2) Removing barriers for poverty reduction and resilience by adopting better agricultural practices, enhancing security of tenure and protecting resource rights including those of pastoral communities, especially in rural areas;
- 3) Building capacity of local level institution to implement climate change adaptation measures;
- 4) Enhancing rural-urban linkage in terms of environmental protection, food security, mobility, information and knowledge transfer; and

5) Improving access to information while providing a forum for local communities to engage with government and influence the national climate change agenda.

Developing a Climate Change Road Map to integrate mitigation and adaptation into development planning and budgeting at all levels, clarify sector roles and creating a multisector platform for climate change discourse in Tanzania shall feature high in the priorities in the New Urban Agenda. Urban dwellers proposed additional measures shown in Figure 25 and improve Disaster Management as shown in Figure 26.

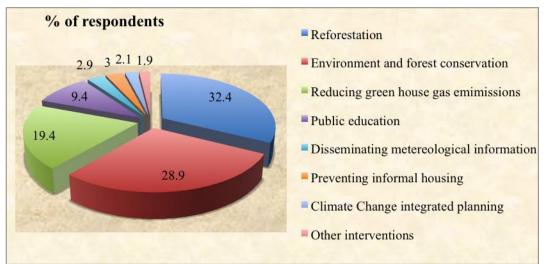


Figure 25: Proposed interventions to reduce Climate Change

Source: Field surveys, 2015

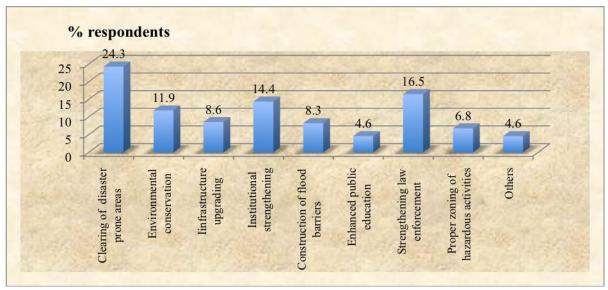


Figure 26: Proposed measures to reduce and prevent disasters

Source: Field surveys, 2015

Urban transport systems are sustainable when they facilitate efficient, effective, adequate and convenient mobility in a safe and environmentally acceptable manner; and when accessible to all users. In the case of Tanzania, the following actions should be accorded priority in the New Urban Agenda:

- 1) Redesigning parts of cities and road intersections to de-bottleneck traffic circulation;
- 2) Strengthening the regulatory regime, streamlining the organisational framework and improving coordination;
- 3) Improving public transport, introducing alternative travel modes, reviving transport sharing and car pooling practices, and providing safe walkways and bikeways;
- 4) Developing an Air Quality Management Strategy and Action Plan;
- 5) Promoting renewable energy, cleaner production and energy conservation technologies;
- 6) Rigorous enforcement of traffic laws, expansion of roads and other measures proposed by urban dwellers as shown in Figure 27; and
- 7) Adopting cleaner industrial and motor vehicle energy, appropriate zoning of industrial activities and improving waste management, also proposed by urban dwellers as shown in Figure 28.

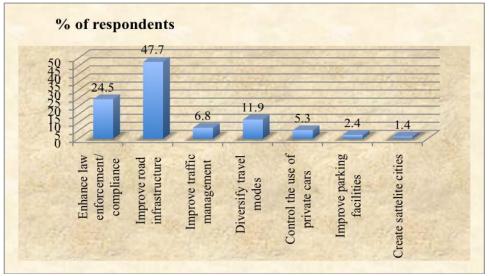


Figure 27: Proposed strategies to reduce traffic congestion

Source: Field surveys, 2015

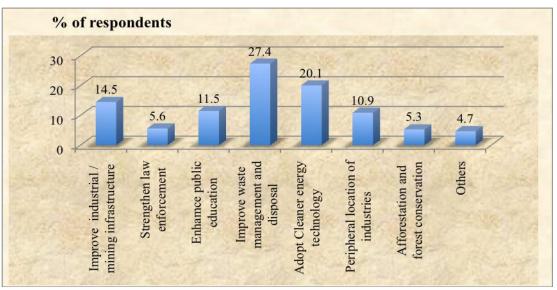


Figure 28: Proposed strategies to control urban air pollution

Source: Field surveys, 2015

IV. Urban Governance and Legislation

21. Improving urban legislation

Tanzania is a unitary state in which policies are set by national government and the laws passed by national parliament. Local governments implement national policies but they can make byelaws, acting within the limits of the principal legislations. Consistent with Habitat II Agenda objective on reforming the framework of urban legislations to enhance equal access to serviced land and affordable shelter for all (URT 1996), Tanzania formulated a National Human Settlements Development Policy (NHSDP) in 2000 to redress the deteriorating conditions of human settlements, promote sustainable human settlements development, ensure efficient use of resources, creation of employment and poverty reduction. Its main objectives are to ensure efficient use of resources, equal opportunities for a good quality of life and strike a balance between socio-economic and development and conservation of the environment.

Tanzania passed the Urban Planning Act No.8 and the Land Use Planning Act Cap 116⁷ in 2007 to secure efficient use of land resources, orderly and coherently planned growth of human settlements and effective involvement of community groups in human settlements planning and development. Section 11 (1-3) and Section 19 (1-3) and compel planning authorities to conduct public hearing on plans before approval. Landowners continue to enjoy the right to prepare detailed plans on their property, which they can submit them for adoption by the LGAs. The Town Planners (Registration) Act Cap 426 of 2007 established the Town Planners Registration Board, which regulates the conduct of professional planning in Tanzania. In the new legislation the minister responsible for urban planning

⁷ The Urban Planning Act and Land Use Planning Act replaced the pre-independence Town and Country Planning Ordinance Cap. 378 of 1956

remains the Planning Authority responsible for national policy and legislation and approval of plans. LGAs retain their role as Planning Authorities responsible for preparing, adopting and implementing urban plans; planning consent, building permits and performing other development control functions in their jurisdictions. The minister can appoint any other Planning Authority, such as the Capital Development Authority in Dodoma and the Kigamboni Development Authority in Dar es Salaam.

The Land Use Planning Act 2007, vests responsibilities for preparation of national and zonal land use plans, district framework plans and village land use plans on MLHHSD through the National Land Use Planning Commission (NLUPC), district and village councils respectively. The Minister can create any other land use planning authority. The Unit Titles Act, 2008 and Mortgage Financing Special Act 2008 were enacted to facilitate a robust housing market.

In fulfilment of Tanzania's commitment on decentralization, the government is amending the Urban Planning Act to concentration approving of plans to 8 offices established in the Dar es Salaam, Eastern, Northern, Central, Western, Southern Highlands, Southern and Lake Zones. The decentralisation is expected to increase efficiency the planning process and reduce cost to the LGAs and developers alike. Already the registration of titles is established in the Zonal Offices and the Land and Housing Tribunal are at District level. Surveys and Mapping Officers have been posted and the Valuation experts are being assigned to the zonal offices. The Housing Department is working on placing Housing Officers at the LGAs.

22. Decentralization and strengthening of local authorities

Tanzania's two-tier system of government comprises the central and local governments, classified into Urban Authorities (city, municipal and town councils) and District Authorities with township authorities and village councils exist.⁸ Local Government Authorities (LGAs) are responsible for promoting social and economic development, providing basic public services and maintaining law and order. Consistent with the Habitat II Agenda on building capacity for good local governance, Tanzania embarked on reforming her local government system following the Policy Paper on Local Government Reforms, which the government developed in 1998 in response to poor performance of local governments but also fulfilling a constitutional requirement to transfer power and decision making authority to the people through democratically elected local governments.⁹ The Local Government Reform Programme (LGRP) aimed at redressing the following shortcomings:

- 1) Inappropriate legal framework, excessive controls of central government on local governments and poor intergovernmental;
- 2) Disparity between roles, functions, structures and capacities of LGAs;
- 3) Institutional weaknesses and poor relations between political leaders, technical staff and civil society organizations;

⁸ President's office Regional Administration and local Government - History of Local Government in Tanzania

⁹ Article 145 and Article 146 of the Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania

- 4) Severe financial constraints caused by poor sources of local revenue, inadequate central transfers, interference of central government agencies in local revenue collection and a lopsided budget allocations to recurrent expenditure at the expense of development expenditure and personal emoluments.
- 5) Centralized and fragmented management of local staff, shortages of technical personnel and low representation of women;
- 6) Limited capacity of central government institutions to support local governments.

Implementation of the LGRP was guided by a clear set of six objectives on good governance, restructuring, strengthening local government finance, human resource development, capacity building, and institutional and legal frameworks. By end of Phase I implementation f the LGRP in 2008, many of its objectives had been achieved. Responsibilities for local services including basic health and primary education services were transferred in full to LGAs and those for water supply, sanitation and roads partially decentralised. Restructured, the LGAs gained some autonomy and were able to deliver services in a more effective and efficient manner. They began operating in a more transparent, accountable and responding to citizen demands. Transfer of personnel management responsibilities to LGAs took place, which improved local staff accountability to the LGAs. Financial management System in the LGAs. New Codes of Conduct for local government staff and councillors, which enhanced good governance. The LGAs assumed a greater role on maintaining safety, security, law and order following legislative reforms, allowing them operate Auxiliary Police (AP) Units.

At the same time as the reforms were taking place in the LGAs changes were being introduced in the relations between the central government and LGAs. A more equitable, efficient, transparent and predictable formula-based grant allocation system was adopted and the government introduced a Local Government Capital Development Funds for LGAs to invest in infrastructure. Central government redefined its role to focus on policy and legislation and passed the Regional Administration Act (Act No. 19) of 1997 that created a lean Regional Secretariat, with responsibilities to support the LGAs. The 1982 Local Government Acts were similarly amended in 2000 to give effect to new, improved intergovernmental relations.

Clearly the impacts of these reforms on society across the nation were far reaching. For one, grass roots democracy was strengthened through the urban 'Mtaa' and rural 'Kitongoji' Committees and the village government structure. Research findings on the impact of LGRP reveal significant improvement in many aspects of local governance such as increased financial resources at the local level, increased electoral and civic participation, access to information, trust in local government, and reduced corruption. Research findings by Per Tidemand and Jamal Msami (2010) revealed more than three quarters of citizens (78%) interviewed in 2006 agreed "that local government reforms are helping to improve service delivery" up from 58% in 2003. The urban dwellers survey of 2015 confirmed the vast majority of respondents (67.3%) had knowledge of the decentralization programme, against 32.7%, who said they were not aware. Public Private Partnership (PPP) is a form of decentralisation that enables transfer of service delivery and infrastructure development responsibilities to the private sector. Tanzania formulated a Public Private Partnership (PPP) Policy in 2009 to attract private sector players to invest in public services and infrastructure, thus augmenting scarce public resources. Parliament passed the PPP Act in 2010 and PPP Regulations were made in 2011. Several LGAs have entered into PPP arrangements for refuse management, water supply and revenue collection but not yet for investment in infrastructure development. The Public Procurement Act (2011) was amended in 2014 to facilitate PPP arrangements.

23. Improving participation and human rights in urban development

Decentralization has enhanced the voice of citizens, enabling communities to participate in managing public services and resources through service user management committees and boards. Tanzania's Urban Planning Act has made public hearing mandatory before any plan is approved.

Tanzania's constitution guarantees access to justice for all citizens. Government has increased the number of judges and magistrates in service and improved judicial infrastructure and staff welfare. Consistent with the 1995 new national land policy, the land laws passed in 1999 were amended to safeguard and protect land tenure for women and other vulnerable groups. However, 51.9% of urban dwellers believe laws and urban development plans do not uphold human rights against 48.1% who think they do. Interviewed in 2015, the majority of urban dwellers (40.9%) reported human rights were most violated in matters of safety and security by the police and in the courts; in government owned medical facilities and other social services as shown in Figure 29.

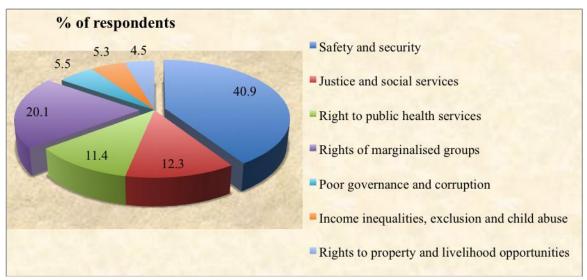
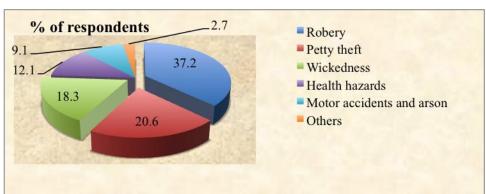


Figure 29: Main areas of human rights violations

Source: Field surveys, 2015

24. Enhancing urban safety and security

Urban dwellers interviewed in 2015 consider robbery, petty theft and wickedness - which is associated with extrajudicial killings of elder women and persons living with albinism on beliefs of witchcraft - as leading among causes of insecurity (Figure 30).





Source: Field surveys, 2015

Tanzania implemented the Safer Cities programme in Dar es Salaam which has mobilized communities in implementing local level crime prevention initiatives, including strengthening of the *'Sungusungu'* (Citizen Crime Prevention Patrol) groups, re-vitalisation of Ward Tribunals and establishment of the Auxiliary Police in the four Dar es Salaam LGAs, later rolled over to other LGAs in Tanzania guided by the Auxiliary Police Regulations (2009) and Auxiliary Police Scheme of Services (2011). It has also implemented safety audits and supported income-generating projects for groups at risk, especially the youth. The project contributed significantly towards enhancing safety in Dar es Salaam and was rolled out to nine other cities and towns¹⁰, which implemented local crime and violence prevention strategies based on lessons learnt from the Dar es Salaam experience. The Safer Cities approach focuses on three main areas of intervention:

- 1) Institutional prevention based on alternative forms of justice and law enforcement;
- 2) Planning, design and management of safer public and semi-public spaces; and
- 3) Social crime and violence prevention that aims at empowering marginalized groups, groups at risk or vulnerable groups.

Drawing on lessons learn from the Safer Cities Project, Tanzania developed a National Strategy for Urban Crime Prevention, 2008 to build safer communities, which the Tanzania Police Force is implementing, for example introducing community based policing (*Polisi Jamii*), a strategy that has led to improving relations between the police and community members who participate in joint patrols and provide information that helps the police to prevent crime or apprehend perpetrators has improved as a result.

¹⁰ The safer cities Project was replicated in Arusha, Bagamoyo, Dodoma, Mbeya, Mwanza, Moshi, Tanga, Morogoro and Iringa,

25. Improving social inclusion and equity

Tanzania is signatory to various United Nations disability instruments including the declaration on the Rights of People with Disabilities (1975), Convention on the right of the child (1989) and the Standard Rules on the Equalization of opportunities for Persons with Disabilities (1993). Tanzania has taken measures to address disability by implementing initiatives to eradicate debilitating childhood diseases such as polio, enacting disability legislations and, since 2002, documented data on disability in the National Population and Housing Census.

Since Independence in 1961, the Government through the Department of Social Welfare has been providing services to people with disabilities including provision of housing to the elderly without a comprehensive policy. Adoption of the National Policy on Disability (NPD) is the outcome of many years of consultations among stakeholders. The government also has established centres for youth in conflict with the laws in Dar es Salaam and Mbeya cities.

The government has adopted affirmative action at policy and legislative levels. Reservation of special seats for women improved gender representation in the political arena including the Parliament and local government councils. The Thirteenth Constitutional Amendment adopted in February 2000 inserted the word "gender" to prohibit discrimination. Government has since issued guidelines on incorporate gender issues into ministerial budget proposals and directed the village, wards and districts development committees to include a gender perspective in their social development plans and programmes. Workshops have been held on sensitisation and integration of gender considerations into regular government activities.

Recently the government enacted laws protecting disadvantaged/vulnerable groups in the society, including the Sexual Offences (Special Provision) Act 1998 that protects children and women against sexual abuse. The New Land Act 1999 and the Village Land Act 1999, forbid all cultural practices that prohibit women from owning land. This is important, as according to the 2012 Population and Housing Census, 70% of households in Tanzania owned land and 75% owned a house.

Tanzania's economy is dependent on agriculture (Blackden, C. M. and Rwebangira, M. 2004), which accounts for 25% of the GDP and 85% of exports employing nearly 80% of the workforce of whom 90% are women. Women constitute 51.3% of the population of Tanzania Mainland (NBS 2012); provide about 80% of labour force, especially in rural areas where they account for about 60% of food production. However, returns in this backbone sector have been very low and the environment does not allow women to own their own wealth (UN Date not provided; URT Date not provided). In recent years however, more women in Tanzania have become active in market-oriented activities to meet household cash needs.

Data from the Integrated Labour Force Survey, 2000/01 indicated that only 4 percent of women were in paid jobs, as compared with 10% of men. Women were the majority in agriculture (52% vs. 48%) and in trade 55% vs. 45%), while men predominated in

manufacturing, construction, transport, and finance. Moreover, women participation rates in entrepreneurship was lower than that of men and they also chose to operate primarily in retail, education and other service industries which are often perceived as being less important to economic development and growth (Kushoka, I. 2012). Some of the projects initiated by women never come to fruition due to discouragement from spouses, in fear of wives getting over exposed or dominating them if they get successful.

26. Challenges, experienced and lessons learnt

Tanzania's planning law prescribes detailed procedures for the preparation of urban plans, but is weak on the implementation aspects in particular with respect to financing the implementation of urban plans. Besides, Sections 60 and 61 of the Local Government (Urban Authorities), Act No.8 of 1982 assigns powers for land acquisition, assessment of compensation, approval of planning schemes and other function to the Minister responsible for local government, overlapping those conferred on the Minister responsible for urban planning in Section 59 (e) the Urban Planning Act.¹¹.

The legal provision for public hearing on urban plans does not yet guarantee adequate participation in planning nor does it empower communities and citizens to influence planning decisions. Inadequate public awareness and low level of knowledge in planning laws are among key factors limiting participation. Only 48.1% of urban dwellers interviewed in 2015 for example had knowledge of urban planning laws. Of the rest, 26.3% had no knowledge of the laws and 25.7% had only heard about them. Most of the respondents (73.5%) believe application of urban legislation is inadequate against 26.5% that consider it satisfactory, while 46.9% thought environmental cleanliness was most in wanting of improvement.

Tanzania appears to have lost the reform momentum of the 1998-2009 periods. Phase II of the LGRP stalled midway through implementation and the government has retracted on some of the reform gains, by for example re-centralising management of local government staff back to the Civil Service Department of the central government through the Public Service Act 2002 and Public Service Regulations 2003. Despite adopting the formula based allocation of central transfers, in practice the allocations are distorted by substantial deviations from the fiscal transfer formula (LGFR 2007).

The LGRP had a clear vision for decentralised delivery of services, but progress is hampered by a poor institutional set up and lack of coordination at the local level¹². Public sector reforms that preceded the LGRP had de-concentrated many local service delivery responsibilities to Service Regulatory Authorities, Government Executive Agencies or Service Delivery Boards, over which the LGAs have no control as these organs report to separate parent ministries in the central government and do not have to consult urban

¹¹ Because of overlapping ministerial powers the Dar es Salaam Strategic Urban Development Plan (SUDP) prepared by the City Council under Act No. 8 of 1982 that was not approved by the minister responsible for urban planning.

¹² Strengthening local level coordination was among the strategies identified during the Habitat II Agenda process remained unresolved

authorities in discharging their, at times contradicting local by-laws or development plans. The lack of coordination contributes to unplanned patterns of urban growth with large segments having little or no infrastructure and services.

Local autonomy has remained elusive in Tanzania, due to resistance to change by some central government officials who continue issuing directives to the LGAs, persistent central controls and over-dependence of the LGAs on central government transfers for revenue. The central government for example authorizes the allocation of village land to individuals in areas reserved for urban expansion without consultations with the LGAs. The Urban Dwellers Survey, 2015 reveals that 64.6% of the respondents consider the decentralization measures inadequate, against 36.4% who expressed satisfaction with decentralization. Safety and security stands out, seen by 49.8% of respondents as most wanting of decentralisation.

Safety and security are among key functions of LGAs spelt out in the constitution yet the Tanzania Police Force is centralized in the government and not all LGAs have established such units and the APs are not fully effective because of a negative public perception that rates them inferior to the national police force.

Safety and security including featured prominently among areas of human rights violation identified by 54.4% of urban dwellers. Other areas of concern were, police, hospitals, prisons, land ownership and compensation were also high in the (12.1%). Extrajudicial killings of elder women and people with albinism who also have their limbs cut off on witchcraft beliefs is one of the biggest challenges in respect of safety and should be among the top priorities in the New Urban Agenda. Widespread Youth unemployment, drug abuse and related crime remain among key challenges deserving priority in the New Urban Agenda. Incidences of large groups of organised criminal youth gangs meting out engaging in indiscriminate street violence and robbery.

Construction of many urban housing and public building projects ignores the special needs for access by people with physical disabilities. The few old peoples housing, that the government has provided is rundown and the practice appears not in keeping with Tanzania's culture, which assigns the responsibility for care of the elderly on family and relatives, an option not always guaranteed in the urban context.

27. Future challenges and issues to address in the New Urban Agenda

Many challenges identified in the Habitat II National Report (URT 1996) including the extremely low level of financing of urban planning activities in the LGAs persist, largely due to some weaknesses in the planning regulatory framework. Government is now committed to reforming the urban planning policy and regulatory framework as a priority in the New Urban Agenda for Tanzania in the following areas:

- 1) Amend the Executive Agencies Act, Cap.245 to improve coordination at the local level;
- 2) Amend the Urban Planning Act, 2007 to broaden the scope of public participation beyond public hearing;

- 3) Enact legislation to govern the pooling of land for readjustments during to facilitate redevelopment of informal settlements;
- 4) Amend the Land Act No. 4 of 1999 to re-introduce the principle of eminent domain to enable LGAs access land for public uses and planning purposes; and
- 5) Establish a mechanism for intergovernmental consultation and negotiation on national policy and fiscal matters affecting urban and other LGAs.

The government will continue implementing ongoing decentralisation of land and urban planning services from the Central government to the zones and later to the regional administrations and LGAs on a step-by-step basis as a priority in the New Urban Agenda. Tanzania acknowledges that active involvement of communities and partnership agreements between key public and private sector actors will be instrumental in meeting planning goals of the future but city authorities have to undertake the following:

- 1) Implement an Information, Education and Communication (IEC) programmes to create public awareness and encourage communities participation in planning;
- Encourage residents, the mass media and activists to utilize the master plan as a tool to challenge the LGAs to address planning issues perceived as detrimental to the city;
- 3) Obtain consensus of all stakeholders on all socio-economic and environmental plans.

Extrajudicial killings of elder women, murder and dismembering of people with albinism warrant priority in the New Urban Agenda for Tanzania. Figure 31 indicates that most of the urban dwellers (41.3%) propose safety and security as a priority among interventions to improve human rights.

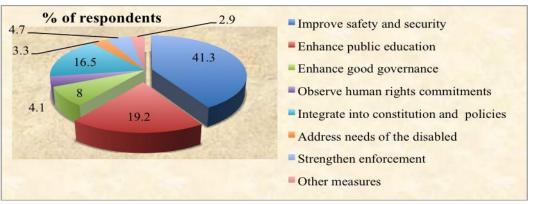


Figure 31: Measures to enhance human rights

Source: Field surveys, 2015

Most urban dwellers (23.6%) proposed that multi-stakeholder participation and enhancing public education (22.7) as key among several measures to improve safety and security as shown in Figure 32.

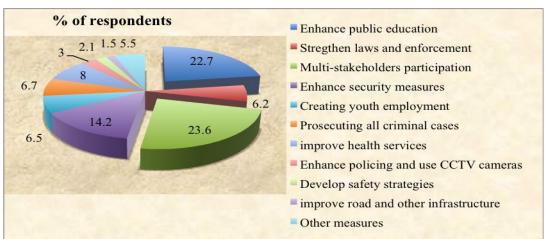


Figure 32: Proposed measures to enhance safety and security

Source: Field surveys, 2015

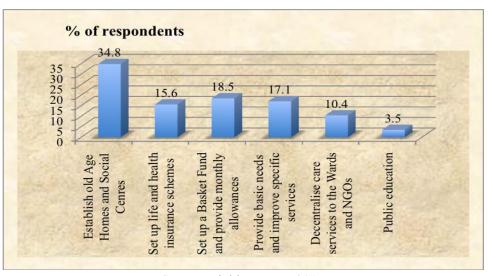


Figure 33: Proposed interventions to assist the elderly

Source: Field surveys, 2015

Success for many of the recommendations requires a strong system of local governments. It is imperative therefore that Tanzania revives the stalled decentralisation reforms with a renewed vigour to enhance efficient and effective service delivery, enable LGAs and subcouncil entities plan and allocate resources according to local priorities through participative processes and hold local staff accountable to them.

V. Urban Economy

28. Improving municipal/local finance

Tanzania's Local Government Reform Programme (LGRP) identified the strengthening of local government finance among its six main objectives¹³. The intention of government was to increase resources availability to LGAs by transfer of viable revenue sources to the LGAs and improvement in the system of intergovernmental transfers, expanding the parameters of freedom of LGAS in budgetary and operational decision-making including reallocation of expenditure. These reforms called for changes in the regulatory framework. The 1982 Local Government laws were thus amended through Act No 6 of 1999 to give effect to new central-local relations and provide for the decentralized management of finances, empowering LGAs to approve their own development plans and budgets (PMORALG 2010). Legislative changes had also been introduced in other spheres of the public finance sector, by for example enacting the Public Procurement Act.

Government adopted a formula based system of allocating grants that made intergovernmental transfers more efficient, equitable, transparent and predictable, and established an incentive based Local Government Capital Development Grant (LGCDG) to finance improvement, expansion and rehabilitation of infrastructure in the LGAs that introduced for the first time, a reliable mechanism for LGAs to finance infrastructure development and rehabilitation. The LGCDG has since evolved into a Local Government Development Grant (LGDG) System, which has become the primary modality for local development funding.

Consequent to these changes, resources of the LGAs increased substantially from TZS 4.8 billion in 2004/2005 to TZS 205.7 billion in 2012/13, mainly due to an increase in government transfers to about 90% of the total local government revenues. The number of LGAs qualifying for the LGCDG funds increased as did predictability of allocations of development funds to LGAs, resulting in improved planning and better access to local services. Application of EPICOR with all LGAs connected to the server in Dodoma reinforced oversight function for PMO – RALG to enable monitoring transactions of the LGAs. Local Authorities receive 91% of revenue from government transfers, while collecting only 9% of revenue from own sources. Concurrent functions receive 91.93% of the total Central Government Transfers.

Of the total national revenue of TZS 18.2 Trillion for year 2013/2014 (Figure 34), domestic revenue was 61%, LGA own sources 2%, General Budget Support 7%, Grants and Foreign Loans 15%, domestic borrowing 9%, and, external borrowing and non concessional loans 6%.

¹³ The 5 other output areas were good governance, restructuring, human resource development, capacity building, institutional and legal frameworks.

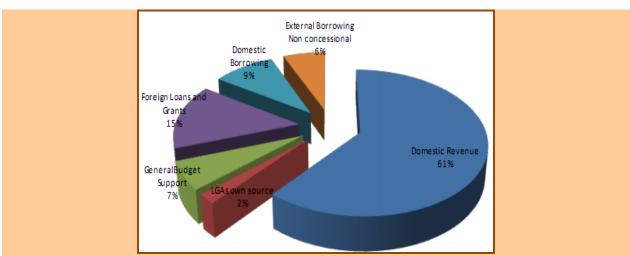


Figure 34: Revenue projections for 2013/14

Source: URT Ministry of Finance, Citizen Budget 2013/2014

The 1982 local government laws assign four broad categories of functions and responsibilities to the LGAs namely, concurrent, exclusive, local administration and delegated responsibilities. Exclusive functions and local administration are funded through own source revenue. While concurrent functions are funded both by central and local governments, financing of delegated functions is the responsibility of central government.

In harmony with the reforms, legislative changes and new intergovernmental transfer systems, government revised the Local Authority Financial Memorandum and Local Government Accounting Manual (LAAM) to ensure proper stewardship and accountability of LGAs. These changes were also responding to technological developments, namely implementation of the Integrated Financial Management System (IFMS), application of International Public Sector Accounting Standards (IPSAS), introduction of new Reporting tools - Plan Rep, Council Financial Report (CFR) and Council Development Report (CDR) formats - and the adoption of the Government Financial Statistics (GFS) coding system in budgeting and reporting (PO-RALG 2000).

Phase 2 of the LGRP aimed at consolidating the LGCDG into the Local Government Development Grant System (2008-2013) by ensuring devolution of fiscal framework, which can provide the financial resources and incentives necessary to empower LGAs enhance public service delivery, socioeconomic development and poverty reduction at the local level. Implementation of phase II reforms stalled halfway during implementation

29. Strengthening and improving access to housing finance

Tanzania has for long had a weak housing finance and property market and nearly the entire urban housing stock has been built by individual households and not by established developers. As the vast majority of households do not have access to formal finance they depend a great deal on their own savings and informal financial sources to pay for the land,

building materials and labour they need for construction. As a result, most people build their houses incrementally over many years as resources become available¹⁴.

Since the early 1990s' however, the government has implemented financial sector reforms through liberalisation thus strengthening banking systems and enhancing stability of the financial sector. Parliament passed the Mortgage Finance Act, 2008 that established the Tanzania Mortgage Refinancing Company (TMRC), an institution charged with the responsibility to develop and promote the mortgage finance market, with an aim to enhance access to affordable long-term housing loans. Fourteen commercial banks have already subscribed to mortgage financing mechanism and the number is expected to increase as the fledgling housing finance market stabilizes. Banks currently offer a repayment period of up to 5 years especially to salaried employees holding stable jobs. Favourable financial sector policies have also encouraged establishment of a growing number of microfinance institutions including Cooperative Societies and NGOs and semiformal providers of financial services.

30. Supporting Local Economic Development

Local Economic Development (LED) is a powerful tool for reducing poverty that also helps bridge income disparities ensuring economic growth is translated into greater opportunities, empowerment and enhanced quality of life for all. Although Tanzania does not as yet have an explicit LED policy, it's history of socialism and self-reliance and the Local Government Reform Programme (LGRP) expanding mandates of Local Government Authorities (LGAs) for decision-making and control of resources, have combined to create a socio-economic conditions and an administrative infrastructure embedded in the grassroots, that is conducive to LED (Lubuva J. 2014). In collaboration with UNCDF for example, the government is implementing a Local Finance Initiative (LFI) Programme that promotes investments, which are transformative in the local economy by engaging with private sector financial institutions to finance Small and Medium Enterprise (SMEs) directly or through public private partnerships stands out among successful LED initiatives. Implemented in 9 regions including Dar es Salaam, the LFI programme stimulates the identification, development and financing of projects likely to have an impact on the local social economic environment and gender empowerment, including public service delivery ad infrastructure projects such as modern bus terminals and markets, rural electrification and other energy provision projects in both urban and rural areas. Implementation of these projects has created substantial employment and incomes in project areas (ESRF 2010, LFIT 2014) and the government in collaboration with LFI provided capacity building training to 642 LGA officials on LED approaches and financing.

Economic activities of the majority of Tanzanians especially in the urban areas take place outside of the formal economy, comprising a wide range of small scale unregistered activities operated by petty traders, artisans, craftsmen, individual professionals, farmers and other small-scale businesses. The number people engaged in the informal sector is

¹⁴ Source: FINSCOPE <u>http://www.housingfinanceafrica.org/wp-</u> content/uploads/2010/03/A2HF_Tanzania.pdf Accessed 25 May 2016

growing fast and their share to GDP is estimated to exceed 40%. Interventions to integrate the informal sector into the mainstream economy have been initiated. The Morogoro Engineering Cluster Initiative, a collaborative programme involving informal workshop operators, tinsmiths, Morogoro Municipal Council (MMC), the Vocational and Education Training Authority (VETA), Sokoine University of Agriculture and the Small Scale Industries Development Organisation (SIDO) to absorb the informal sector and gradually transformed it into the mainstream economic sectors in manufacturing and trade is one such example. The MMC role was to facilitate formal registration of 44 tinsmiths, while VETA conducted special courses to upgrade the skills of workers in the Cluster Initiative. Following this intervention, the annual turnover for the cluster rose from about USD 550,000 in 2005 to above USD 3 million in 2010 as a result (LEDNA ibid.). Arusha City Council transformed part of the informal economic activities, integrating LED activities in the environmental management strategies.

31. Creating Decent Jobs and Livelihoods

In the face of rapid urbanization, Tanzania continues to face high levels of unemployment, poor job quality and limited opportunities especially among women, the youth and people with disabilities (URT 2014, URT 1996). Tanzania has since the mid-1980s undertaken various economic policy reforms to economic growth, employment creation and better livelihoods. The government formulated the Small and Medium Enterprises Policy (URT 2003) and the National Employment Policy 2008, to implement these policies, government encouraged the establishment of community banks and micro-finance institutions including Savings and Credit Societies Cooperative to provide affordable loans to small and micro-enterprises, established Mwananchi Empowerment Fund (MEF) and Small Entrepreneurs Loan Facility (SELF), later transformed into a Microfinance Fund (SELF MF) to enhance access of the poor including the youth to microfinance (PMORALG 2014). Other government efforts include enacting building Vocational Training Centres in all regions with specific objectives of enhancing skills and competencies of the labour force. The government has established Export Processing Zones in Dar es Salaam and Bagamoyo, and introduced incentives through the Tanzania Investment Centre (TIC), to attract Foreign Direct Investment (FDI), which contributes to employment creation, increased tax revenue and improved local knowledge, skills and product quality. Between 2007 and 2011 a total of 392,835 new jobs were created from such investment projects (TIC Database).

Urban authorities also initiated several creative interventions to create decent jobs. Ilala, Kinondoni and Temeke municipal councils in Dar es Salaam for example, privatised street cleaning and primary collection of solid waste in low-income areas and informal settlements to stimulate the creation of new jobs for women and the youth groups, in collaboration with a local private sector partners. Similarly, Safer Cities Dar es Salaam project supported income-generating projects for groups in the City.

Partly due to these interventions, employment in the formal sector, which is more amenable to policy changes and the work conditions in which are more decent than in the informal sector, increased from 1,024,340 in 2005 to 2,141,351 in 2014 (Nangale, G. 2012). Persons with disability constituted 0.3% of total regular employees in 2013 (LFIT ibid.).

For the year 2011 and 2012, the proportion of total employment was higher in the private sector (63.1% in 2011 and 64.2 % in 2012) than in the public sector (36.9% in 2011 and 35.8% in 2012). The construction industry in particular is creating many jobs and absorbing a substantial number of unskilled workers. Jobs are also generated in the "downstream" enterprises that supply building materials, transport services, household fixtures and fittings. The informal economy has continued to be an important employment sector of last resort for many job seekers in urban areas. The sector exhibits a high degree of vibrancy in job creation but is constrained by low productivity, low level of technology and the use of rudimentary tools. The greater proportion of the informal sector is not taxed, resulting in the government losing 35-55% of total tax revenue (LEDNA 2011).

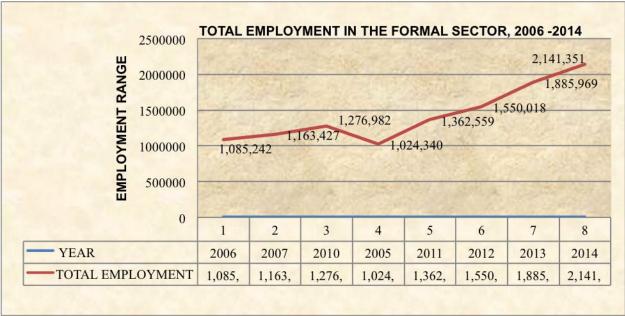


Figure 35: Total employment in the formal sector, 2006-2014

Source: nbs.go.tz May2015

32. Integration of the Urban Economy into National Development Policy

Urban areas are critical to Tanzania's economic growth and poverty reduction. They represent a tangible source of economic growth, accounting for more than half of Tanzania's GDP. Urban economic activities and the services that cities offer are vital for reducing poverty and creating a more equitable society. The urban sector creates immense opportunities for economic development of rural hinterlands, providing produce markets and enhancing the country's global competitiveness. Besides, 80% of the national revenues and just less than 60% of total local own-source revenues is generated in urban LGAs. Tax Revenues for 2013/14 show a tangible quantum increase from cities of Dar es Salaam, Mwanza and Arusha, whereby Dar es Salaam alone contributed 32.0% of total tax revenue (TRA 2014). Consequently, urban are the places where meaningful governance, planning, investments and institutional interventions can make a real difference to living conditions of Tanzania in the future.

Tanzania is implementing a Strategic Cities Project (TSCP) to improve urban infrastructure and services, strengthen urban institutional and implementation capacity that will have a spill of enhancing rural-urban linkages. Ongoing improvements of urban infrastructure including the Dar es Salaam Rapid Transit project (DART); upgrading of trunk roads linking between cities and the hinterlands, investment in rural electrification undertaken by the Rural Electrification Agency (REA) and other similar initiatives will also facilitate access to urban markets and enhance rural productivity, leading to faster economic growth and development (URT, 2003, ESRF, 2006). Other benefits associated with these investments include creation of jobs, increased property values, better flood control, better waste management and better urban environments. Improved performance in own-source revenue collection following launching of the Local Government Revenue Collection System (LGRCIS) has enabled the urban LGAs to provide better services, enhancing local, regional and national development.

33. Challenges, experiences and lessons learned in these areas

Local governments are severely underfunded and over-dependent on central government transfers as only 9% of the total LGAs revenue is from own revenue sources. Policy shifts and mid-budget priority changes in government often disrupt the government transfers, which are almost always delayed. Besides, budgets of the LGAs have little bearing on physical development plans of the council jurisdictions. Despite its advantages, the formula transfer mechanism favours district councils at the expense of urban authorities. Compared to the urban LGAs district (rural) LGAs receive a share of intergovernmental transfers higher than their population share by almost one fourth more in transfers per capita (Elisa M. and Wietze L. 2008).

Tanzania has a limited number of lending agencies, consisting of 14 commercial banks engaging in mortgage financing and interest rates of 18% or more is prohibitive for most of the population and the repayment period of 5 years too short for those especially in the low-income segment of the population. The poor majority of urban dwellers are excluded from the current mortgage financing facilities as they lack collateral, which is conditional to accessing a bank loan.

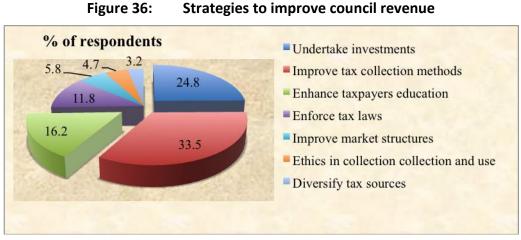
High unemployment of the youth is compounded by a fall in the quality of primary and secondary education while the lack of training on business skills, and inadequate credit facilities reduce the potential for self-employment as an unattractive environment in agricultural in the rural areas continues to drive the youth towards urban areas in large numbers. To be able to provide decent jobs to the growing labour force, Tanzania will have to overcome many barriers, including a mismatch between skills and demand on the labour market; shortage of investment capital and unaffordable loan conditions; low compliance to work environment standards, low coverage of social security and inadequate financing for rehabilitation and construction of new infrastructure that would support rapid economic growth. The informal sector presents huge challenges of its own to authorities. Incomes from informal activities are unknown and go untaxed as they operate without known mandates or guidance and suffer frequent harassment. Formalization of the sector may be desirable, but the capacity to implement and sustain poverty reduction through formal programmes remains low, especially at the local level.

34. Future challenges and issues to address in the New Urban Agenda

Tanzania needs to ensure equitable development, inclusive poverty reduction, reducing income disparities and bridging the urban - rural development gap as key priorities in the New Urban Agenda. To that effect emphasis should be laid on job creation, entrepreneurship development and the provision of basic services to all. These strategies are most effective when implemented at the local level, making it imperative to develop a strong system of autonomous local governments. Government needs to ensure LGAs have sufficient financial and human resource capacity to meet their service delivery and infrastructure development obligations by taking the following measures:

- 1) Provide specialised revenue management training and enable LGAs build and sustain managerial and operational capacity in ICT, accounting, finance, audit and enforcement;
- 2) Review existing legislation to enable LGAs introduce nonconventional revenue sources to finance increasing demands for public services, and infrastructure and increase public investments at the local level;
- 3) Assist LGAs to so that they become bankable institutions that can borrow from financial institutions and social security funds and introduce municipal bonds to finance long-term infrastructure projects;
- 4) Enhance the capacity of LGAs to manage public-Private Partnerships in infrastructure development and social service delivery;
- 5) Create an independent oversight committee to monitor and evaluate local government financing and project implementation;
- 6) Establish an Urban Planning and Development Fund to support urban planning and infrastructure development;
- 7) Review the national and local government budget guidelines to include urban planning and land management activities in the list of priority activities for allocation of grants in the inter-governmental fiscal transfer system; and
- 8) Amend the Local Government Finance Act to link revenues accruing from land and property tax and fees with infrastructure development and provision of public services.
- 9) Improve the formula-based system of allocating transfers to overcome regional disparities and ensure compliance of all government ministries, departments and agencies.

Interviewed in 2015 (See Figure 36), urban dwellers proposed a more active role for LGAs in promoting Local Economic Development the LGAs by engaging communities, local business entities and Civil Society Organisations; supporting private sector initiatives to create formal employment so as to reduce predominance of the informal economy, which is 60% not registered; and facilitate access of farmers and artisans to soft and affordable loans financial institutions or government. They advised the LGAs to invest in business ventures including real estate to increase non-tax revenues adopt Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) based techniques like the Electronic Fiscal Devices (EFD) and other electronic media such as MAXMALIPO and handset telemedia to enhance efficiency in revenue collection and data storage, and recommended taxpayer education.

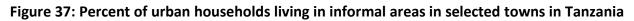


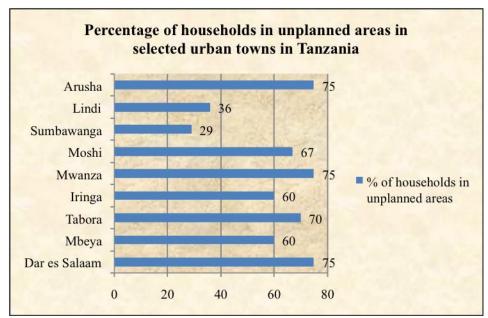
Source: Field surveys, 2015

VI. Housing and Basic Services

35. Slum upgrading and prevention

Rapid urbanisation in Tanzania amidst poverty and a large unmet demand for housing land has led to proliferation of overcrowded informal urban settlements lacking in basic services and secure tenure, often developed on hazardous land. As shown in Figure 37 more than 60% of population in most of the urban areas in Tanzania, live in the informal settlements.





Source: National Programme for Regularisation and Prevention of Unplanned Settlements in Tanzania, 2013 (MLHHSD)

Tanzania implemented the following strategies to improve the quality housing and access to planned, surveyed and serviced land for housing and other urban activities:

1) Adopting Environmental Planning and Management (EPM)

The Environmental Planning and Management approach was introduced to Tanzania in 1992, which is based on multi-stakeholder consultations and partnerships with local communities to prepare and implement local environmental management plans that address local priorities like flooding and indiscriminate waste disposal in housing areas.

2) Community Infrastructure Project (CIP)

Upgrading of infrastructure was among the main strategies interventions of the Environmental Planning and Management approach to improve living conditions in underserved areas. The CIP was first implemented in Hanna Nassif, an informal settlements in Dar es Salaam city in 2000, applying labour-based community contracting and management, the project contributed to resulting into substantial improvement of the physical environment resulting in a 50% decline in incidences of waterborne diseases within a short period of 5 years. The Hana Nassif experience inspired a participatory Community Infrastructure Project (CIP) to upgrade infrastructure in under-served areas, first Kijitonyama and Tabata communities in Dar es Salaam and later scaled-up to other municipalities of the country.

3) The Community Infrastructure Upgrading Programme (CIUP 2003-2012)

Lessons learnt from the CIP encouraged the government to implement a Community Infrastructure Upgrading Programme (CIUP) to upgrade infrastructure and services in unplanned settlements based on participation of local communities in planning, provision and management of the services. The programme was implemented in two phases from 2003 to 2008 and 2008 to 2012.

4) Unplanned Urban Settlements Regularisation Program (2004- to date)

In order to complement the CIUP programmes, the government introduced a property formalisation programme in 2004. The objective of the Comprehensive Urban Land Property Register for Economic Empowerment of Residents In Unplanned Settlements In Dar es Salaam aims at protecting security of tenure of property owners in informal settlements and control further densification, by identifying property boundaries, registration of the properties and issuing residential licenses, under Section 23 of the Land Act No.4, 1999. Urban authorities take the leading role implementing programme of which the ultimate goal is to upgrade all unplanned settlements by 2021, consistent with Target 11 of the Millennium Development Goal Number 7. To date 274,039 properties out of 420,000 were identified and by December 2015, a total of 105,000 owners had collected their licenses in Dar es Salaam, about. About 3% had used the residential certificates as collateral to access credit in financial institutions thus transforming their assets into productive capital in line with objectives of Tanzania's National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP). This initiative has been mainstreamed into the national level "Big Results Now" programme.

5) Promoting the role of the private sector delivering land for housing

Government has created room for the private sector to participate in land delivery. The Ministry of Lands, Housing and Human Settlements Development (MLHSSD) initiated the 20,000 Plots Project in 2002 in collaboration with local authorities, the private sector and utility service providers. About 40,000 plots have been sold in Dar es Salaam. The government set up a Plot Development Revolving Fund to enable local authorities access loans to finance the survey and servicing of land. The project has been replicated in Mwanza (10,000), Morogoro (2,700), Mbeya (2,390), Kibaha (500) and Bagamoyo (3,000), making a total of 58,590 plots. The initiative has contributed towards resolving the long-standing shortage of plots in major cities in the country.

36. Improving access to adequate housing

Private individual developers dominate in the delivery of urban housing, accounting for between 75% and 95% of the total housing stock in urban areas. In rural areas, practically all houses are self-built. Because they are built without professional advice, most of the self -built houses are of poor condition. Tanzania has however, taken several measures to facilitate access to housing and to planned, surveyed and serviced land for housing and other urban activities. The government re-established the Housing Development Department at the Ministry of Lands, Housing and Human Settlements Development in 2005, assigning it the responsibility to formulate a housing policy and legislation and to plan, monitor and exercise oversight on housing development in Tanzania. Parliament enacted the Unit Titles Act, 2008 and Mortgage Financing Special Act, 2008 to facilitate the housing market and thus increase access to adequate housing.

The Unit Titles Act passed by Parliament in 2008 stimulating mass housing production in Tanzania. The National Housing Corporation (NHC) and private estate developers are investing in high-rise apartment buildings targeting high-income segment of urban dwellers. Several public institutions are also investing in the housing market. The National Social Security Funds (NSSF) for example has built several houses for sale, assigning priority to its members. Similarly, the National Housing Corporation has accelerated its housing development programme, with a target to build 15,000 units by 2015 while the Tanzania Building Agency plans to build 10,000 houses and the Watumishi Housing Corporation 50,000 houses, targeting civil servants. Some NGOs like the WAT-Human Settlements Trust (WAT-HST) and Centre for Community Initiatives (CCI) are engaging in the production of houses, targeting low-income communities.

37. Ensuring sustainable access to safe drinking water

Increasing access to improved drinking water is one of the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) that Tanzania along with other nations worldwide has adopted (United Nations General Assembly, 2002 in TDHS, 2010). Since Habitat II resolutions of 1996, Tanzania has achieved significant progress in improving the policy framework on water and sanitation. It formulated the National Water Policy in 2002, the Health Policy in 2007, and the National Water Sector Development (NWSD). The government developed a Water Sector Development Strategy (2006-2015), which among other things aims at proper

management and equitable allocation of water resources to contribute effectively in the nation's poverty eradication efforts.

Tanzania has also implemented radical structural reforms to improve the management of water and sanitation services, which is now de-concentrated from the central government ministry to 18 Urban water Supply and Sanitation Authorities (WSSAs), allowed 'private sector participation' through commercialisation of the water services in urban areas and established the Energy and Water Utilities Regulatory Authority. As of January 2014 EWURA was regulating 130 autonomous Water Supply and Sanitation Authorities, which provide water supply and sanitation services in regional and district headquarters, small towns and those managing national projects, shown in Table 2. Local government authorities have been assigned the responsibility to support to Community Owned Water Supply Organizations (COWSOs), which manage water supply and sanitation facilities at the community level. Furthermore, the government introduced the Water Utilities Information System (MajIS) tool that EWURA applies to monitor monthly performance of WSSAs, whereby data and information are entered at the respective WSSAs headquarters and received by EWURA and the Ministry of Water on monthly basis.

No.	Type of Utilities	No.
1	Dar es Salaam Water and Sewerage Authority (DAWASA)	1
2	Dar es Salaam Water and Sewerage Corporation (DAWASCO)	1
3	Regional Water Supply and Sanitation Authorities (WSSAs)	23
4	District Water Supply and Sanitation Authorities	72
5	National Projects Water Authorities	8
6	Small Town Water Supply and Sanitation Authorities	25
	Total	130

As a result, Tanzania has achieved steady progress in improving access to clean water supply, which increased from 68% in 1999 to 73% in 2012 and 86% in 2015 for urban areas, compared to 68.6% among the rural population. More than 30% of the rural water supply schemes are however not functioning properly for lack of proper maintenance and only about 20% of schools have access to clean water within the school premises (MoEVT, 2015). Results of the urban dwellers survey of 2015 shown in Figure 38 revealed however, that only 71% of residents interviewed had regular access to clean water sources from individual connections, public kiosks and boreholes, while 29% relied on unimproved water sources including shallow wells. Water vendors supply water to about 21% of the respondents.

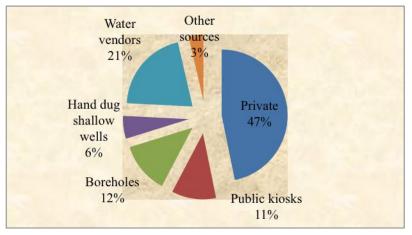


Figure 38: Sources of household water supply

Source: Fieldwork 2015

38. Ensuring sustainable access to basic sanitation and drainage

The National Water Policy, (2000) emphasises on the integration of water supply, sanitation and hygiene since diseases related to lack of safe water, poor sanitation and hygiene are a major cause of sickness and death in Tanzania. Connection to sewerage networks for urban areas was only 20% in 2012 (MoW, 2015), with 80% of the urban dwellers using on site sewage disposal facilities including pit-latrines (Figure 39). The urban dwellers survey (Figure 40) revealed that by 2015, central sewerage connection had risen to about 23.8%. Widespread use of pit-latrines - especially in informal and other high density housing areas - coupled with high water table in some of the cities, causes ground water pollution.

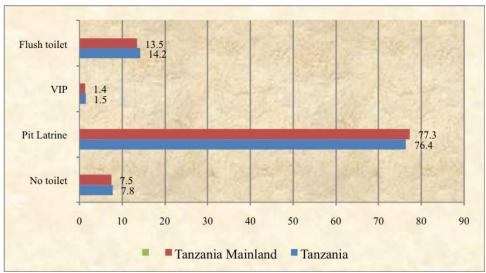


Figure 39: Percentage Distribution of Households by type of toilet

Source: Tanzania Population and Housing Census, 2012

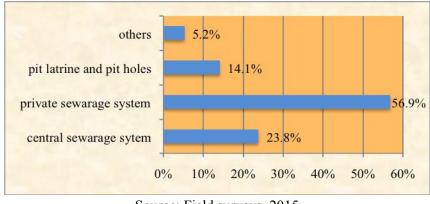


Figure 40: Liquid waste management systems in urban area

Tanzania is implementing a School Water, Sanitation and Hygiene programme (School-WASH 2008) to improve water and basic sanitation services in primary schools. Nevertheless, school hygiene remains a serious problem as only 38% of schools have an adequate number of latrines and less than 10% have functioning hand-washing facilities (MoEVT, 2015). The urban dwellers survey revealed that 41.5% use of open ditches and only 13.3% use closed ditches for drainage. The rest (45.2%), have no access to any drains at all.

The organisational structure for managing water and sanitation has also been revamped leading to de-concentration of service delivery functions from the national ministry to newly created Urban Water Supply and Sanitation Authorities. These reforms have led to improvements in access to and quality of services. The Water Sector Performance Report (2008) reveals for example, that service delivery has improved to about 65% satisfaction. Currently, the tracking or retrieval of a file or letters submitted by a client takes 10 to 20 minutes, compared to a day, a week or a month, in the past.

39. Improving access to clean domestic energy

As of 2012 about 15% of households in Tanzania were connected to electricity, with a very large disparity between urban and rural households in Mainland Tanzania (45% and 3%, respectively). The National Population and Housing Census (2012) revealed 21% of households in Tanzania were using electricity as the main source of energy for lighting. The proportion of households was higher in urban areas at 48.6 %. Kerosene was used for lighting in 42% of the households. Firewood (68.5%) and charcoal (25.7%) are the main sources of energy for cooking. In urban areas 61.8% of households reported using charcoal for cooking and only 6.9% uses other sources such as electricity and gas (Table 3).

Type of cooking fuel	% of Households
Electricity	3.8
LPG, natural gas, biogas	0.9
Kerosene	9.4
Total	14.1

Table 3: Access to clean domestic energy in urban areas

Source: Field surveys, 2015

The widespread use of solid fuels such as charcoal, wood, straw, shrubs, and grass for cooking and heating leads to high levels of indoor smoke, a complex mix of health-damaging pollutants that could increase the risk of contracting diseases. Consistent with the Tanzania National Energy Policy 2003, the government has establishment the Rural Energy Agency (REA) to facilitate availability of clean energy in rural areas. The government has implemented a nationwide campaign to encourage the use of gas and controlling gas prices through the Energy and Water utilities Regulatory Authority (EWURA) so that households in all income levels can afford it for cooking. The government has also reduced electricity connection fees.

40. Improving access to sustainable means of transport

The provision of urban transport services in Tanzania is dominated by the private individuals mainly operating mini-buses commonly known as 'dala-dalas', which account for 90% of the public transport market share, the rest (10%) being provided by public organisations (URT, 2012). *Dala-dala* services are not available to many suburbs for lack of passable roads. Other modes of public transport include private taxicabs, motor powered tricycles (*Bajaj*) and motorcycles (*Boda boda*). Of the population using public transport in Dar es Salaam city, 39% are workers, 29% housewives and 19% students (URT-UDMP, 2012).

Since Habitat II Tanzania has formulated the Transportation Policy 2003, implemented Public Private Partnership (PPP) in Transportation infrastructure development, maintenance and management and established the Surface and Marine Transport Regulatory Authority (SUMATRA) in 2004 to regulate private rail, road and maritime transport services. SUMATRA is responsible for licensing of the *Dala-dalas, Boda bodas* and Bajajs as well as exercising oversight on safety and operations. The Government has introduced the Bus Rapid Transit (BRT) in Dar es Salaam, a fast boat transport service on the Indian Ocean from Dar es Salaam city centre to Bagamoyo, and a fledgling city train to improve urban mobility. Phase I construction of the BRT network of 20.9 km on Morogoro, Kawawa North, Msimbazi Street and Kivukoni Front has been completed (Figure 41).

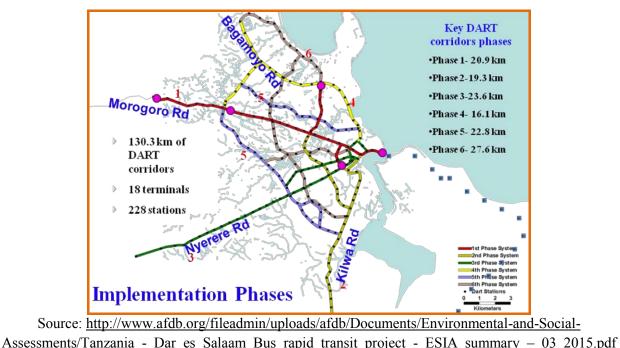


Figure 41: Map of Dar es Salaam showing the BRT system

Ongoing rehabilitation and construction of roads to bitumen standard is in progress in seven major cities and municipalities under the Tanzania Strategic Cities Project (TSCP), also expected to improve mobility in the project cities.

41. Challenges experienced and lessons learnt in these areas

Inadequate financial and human resources coupled with weak institutions and inability to apply appropriate technologies have constrained effort of the government to design, implement and sustain programmes to deliver serviced land for housing development, manage shelter improvement and inhibit the development and maintenance of infrastructure. Tanzania's Habitat II Agenda will focus on removing these constraints with specific focus on addressing the following challenges:

1) Proliferation of informal housing

Informal housing has continued to expand due to the slow pace of government to meet demand for planned and serviced housing land; weak enforcement of development control; low level of awareness among central and local government leaders on the critical contribution of sustainable land and housing to development; and high costs of land that exclude low income urban dwellers from accessing land in planned and surveyed areas. Mobilization of finances fro upgrading and formalisation from development partners, NGOs and institutions such as MKURABITA is sporadic and unsustainable. Consequently Tanzania has made little progress towards eliminating slums, slightly reducing the proportion of people living in informal settlements from 75% in 1996 to 62.5% in 2015. At this rate, it will take between 50 years and a century for Tanzania to eliminate informal settlements. The key lessons learnt from ongoing programmes and projects that it is critical

to involve those living in informal settlements during planning, implementation and management housing improvement projects.

2) Access to new housing and housing finance for medium and low-income segments

The entry of private sector into the housing market has reduced the supply gap but the challenge remains the private developers do not reach low-income households. While private developers are erecting many high-rise buildings, installation of the requisite infrastructure such as drainage and water supply is the responsibility of local governments and public utility agencies. There is little or no coordination among developers and service providers and the city and municipal managers. The evolving long-term mortgage housing finance instruments are out of reach of middle and low-income households, while the use of appropriate alternative and locally available building materials is still not popular among urban dwellers.

3) Access to clean water and sanitation

Many urban dwellers especially in the informal settlements and peri-urban areas do not yet have access to reliable and convenient portable water as rapid urban expansion pushes more urban dwellers outside the service areas. In all cities, the supply of water is generally intermittent and inadequate. Storm water drainage facilities are poor, exposing urban dwellers especially those occupying low-lying areas to frequent flooding when it rains. Poor solid waste management practices and unauthorised construction of buildings make matters worse, by causing blockage on the drainage channels. The limited coverage of central sewer systems and widespread use of pit latrines and other onsite sewerage systems pose a serious threat to public health from pollution of underground water resources especially as cities continue expanding alongside construction of high-rise building. Poor school sanitation and hygiene result into high incidences of illness, adversely affecting children's participation and performance, increasing absenteeism and dropout rate.

4) Access to clean energy sources

Most households in the urban areas continue using charcoal for cooking, which fuels the depletion of forests and pollutes the air. Electricity is not adequately available and too costly to low-income households, while the pace in adopting gas, as an alternative source of energy for cooking is too slow.

5) Poor transport services

In the absence of corporate public owned transport services, the individually owned *Dala-adala mini-buses* provide an important but chaotic service to urban dwellers, lacking in predictability, safety, comfort and convenience. Public transport services are concentrated in major arterial roads, which have better conditions and have higher concentration of passenger volumes. Not only does this cause congestion and reduced travel speed, it also means that other areas of cities do not benefit from the services. The BRT system in Dar es Salaam for example caters only for urban dwellers residing along the bus routes. It is not integrated with feeder lines and there are no interchange facilities to link the BRT routes to other public transport services such as the *dala-dalas*, which will continue to operate in the rest of the city. The urban dwellers survey conducted in 2015-revealed dissatisfaction with

the design and construction of the BRT lanes, which they feel ignored the needs of other motorised and especially non-motorised traffic. Parallel lanes for regular vehicles on the BRT routes have been narrowed below minimum standards for arterial roads and the configuration is not conducive to safe driving on account of sharp bends. Besides, no provisions were made for motor vehicles to cross from one side of the BRT route to the other over long stretches, disrupting community life along the BRT routes.

42. Future challenges to address in the New Urban Agenda

1) Slum upgrading and prevention

It is critical that future development of informal settlements and slums is controlled, if Tanzania is to eradicate slums in the next twenty years. The New Urban Agenda for Tanzania will focus on scaling up, upgrading and regularisation of informal settlements. The role of government will be to ensure availability of the requisite financial and human resources capacity to support infrastructure development in the local urban authorities. Government will establish a mechanism to finance regularisation and formalisation of unplanned settlements in a sustainable manner and support participation of the private sector in redeveloping informal settlements, which occupy high value urban land in partnership with property owners.

2) Improving access to adequate housing

The provision of adequate housing requires the collaborative action of many institutions and actors as well as policy reviews which an important element for the new urban agenda and this calls for concerted effort to support the growing interest of all potential actors including NGOs, CBOs and private companies in housing provision. The government will take measure to facilitate affordable housing by introducing as tax waivers to lower housing construction costs and support research and development on affordable alternative building materials. Greater effort will be directed towards timely availability of planned and serviced land in favourable locations that also support livelihood endeavours of poor people. LGAs will be encouraged to implement land supply schemes similar to the 20,000 plots using the Plot Development Revolving Fund set up by MLHHSD for LGAs to access and survey land for sale to prospective home builders. Much as home ownership is a noble ambition of most households, government will promote rental housing and provide incentives for private estate developers to invest in the rental housing.

3) Ensuring sustainable access to safe drinking water

Effort to improve access to and quantity of water in urban areas will continue during implementation of Habitat III Agenda. Much as application of the 'MajIS' tool has enhanced efficiency and effectiveness in data collection and reporting, there is need to improve the accessibility to data and information for monitoring, planning and decision making by disseminating information to all stakeholders. It will also be necessary in the New Urban Agenda to support effective management audits with the objective of analyzing, evaluating, reviewing and appraising the performance of all commercially operated water utilities.

4) Ensuring sustainable access to basic sanitation and drainage

The state of urban sanitation in Tanzania is far from satisfactory mainly because of widespread use of the pit latrine and other onsite wastewater management systems likely to pollute underground water resources as well as inadequate drainage infrastructure.

Priority in the New urban Agenda will focus on promoting use of alternative sanitation facilities such as Ventilated Improved Pit (VIP) latrines in place of the traditional pit latrines; adopting alternative onsite wastewater management such as improved manual pit emptying techniques; and expanding coverage of reticulated sewerage networks. Continued public health education and awareness creation will be critical to the success of these initiatives. The central and local governments will need to allocate more resources to build and maintain drainage infrastructure commensurate to new requirements imposed by climate change effects leading to flooding conditions, particularly on the low lying areas. Greater effort should be directed towards exploring alternative sustainable storm water management approaches such as landscape-based storm water management storm water minimisation through rainwater harvesting and or the development of green infrastructure.

5) Improving access to clean domestic energy

Recent discoveries and exploitation of natural gas presents an opportunity to promoting cleaner energy sources for industrial, transportation and domestic purposes shall be high in priorities for the New Urban Agenda. Government will support research on development of alternative energy resources and facilitate studies that identify opportunities and barriers to the use of alternative and renewable sources of energy.

6) Improving access to sustainable means of transport

Government will work towards ensuring equitable access to public transport, adopt transit oriented planning and development of centralities and attract private developers by relocating some of public activities to the centralities so as to reduce traffic congestion in urban centres. In the case of the Dar es Salaam BRT system, government improving on the design of to rectify current errors, develop a network of feeder routes and build intermodal facilities to set a good precedence to similar projects in the future.

VII. Urban Indicators

SN	Indicator	Value			Observations		
		1996	2006	2015			
1.	Percentage of people living in slums ¹⁵	75%	70%	62.5%	The Ministry of Lands Housing and Human Settlements Development estimate was about 69% in 2012 Source: Field surveys, 2015		
2.	Percentage of urban population with access to adequate housing			44.6%	Calculated from percentage of dwelling units in fair and good conditions, excluding those reported as overcrowded Source: BOT (2012) The Tanzania Housing Market Analysis		
3.	Percentage of people residing in urban areas with access to safe drinking water	70%	78%	86%	 Source: 1. National Habitat II Report 2. URT (2015) Housing condition, household amenities and assets monograph, 2012 Population and housing census, IV, 2015, 		
4.	Percentage of people residing in urban areas with adequate sanitation	22%		20%	Source: MoW, 2011Ministry of Water. Draft water sector status report, Dar es Salaam		
5.	Percentage of people residing in urban areas with access to regular waste collection	20%		50%	 Source: 1. National Habitat II Report 2. Ministry of Health and Social Welfare Routine supervision reports, 3. The Waste Management Strategic Plan and National Audit Report on Solid Waste Management 		
6.	Percentage of people residing in urban areas with access to clean domestic energy:						
6.1	Access to clean energy for lighting		25%	48.6%	Source: 1. Tidemand, P. and Msami J. (2010) 2. National Population and Housing Census, 2012		

¹⁵ Where slums are informal settlements. Source: National Programme for Regularization and Prevention of Unplanned Settlements 2012-2021, Ministry of Lands Housing and Human Settlements Development, 2012

Access to clean energy for cooking			8.1%	Percentage of households who use electricity and gas as the main
recess to crean energy for cooking			0.170	source for cooking
				Source: National Population and Housing Census, 2012
Demonstran of poorle residing in	150/		220/	Source: Source:
	13%		2290	1. National Habitat II Report
_				 National Habitat II Report Nkurunziza, A. 2014
transport				NB: In Dar es Salaam city 42% of the population has access to public.
				Transport. The average for the five cities only is 32%
Lovel of offective decontrolization f	an gugtair		n develo	
	NA	100%	100%	LGAs as well as private and civil sector stakeholders in the are
C				consulted in the process of formulating all national
0				NB: Until 2000 there was no national policy on urban issues and no
1996 to the present				new urban legislation was enacted until 2007
Percentage share of both income		18.6%	4.9%	Sources:
and expenditure allocated to local		-		1. Tidemand, P. and Msami J. (2010) ¹⁶
and regional governments from the		24.3%		2. PMO-RALG, 2011
national budget				3. National Accounts of Tanzania Mainland, 2001-2013
Percentage share of local	35%	7%	9%	Source:
authorities' expenditure financed				1. National Habitat II Report
from local revenue				2. Tidemand, P. and Msami J. (2010)
				3. PMO-RALG, 2011
Percentage of city, regional and	0%	14.8	44%	11 Regions of Arusha, Morogoro, Iringa, Njombe, Mbeya, Coast,
national authorities that have				Kilimanjaro, Tanga, Singida, Kigoma and Ruvuma out of 25 Regions
implemented urban policies				
supportive of local economic				
development and creation of decent				
jobs and livelihoods				
	Percentage of people residing in urban areas with access to public transport Level of effective decentralization f Percentage of policies and legislation on urban issues in whose formulation local and regional governments participated from 1996 to the present Percentage share of both income and expenditure allocated to local and regional governments from the national budget Percentage share of local authorities' expenditure financed from local revenue Percentage of city, regional and national authorities that have implemented urban policies supportive of local economic development and creation of decent	Percentage of people residing in urban areas with access to public transport15%Level of effective decentralization fercentage of policies and legislation on urban issues in whose formulation local and regional governments participated from 1996 to the presentNAPercentage share of both income and expenditure allocated to local and regional governments from the national budget35%Percentage share of local authorities' expenditure financed from local revenue0%Percentage of city, regional and national authorities that have implemented urban policies supportive of local economic development and creation of decent0%	Percentage of people residing in urban areas with access to public transport15%Level of effective decentralization15%Percentage of policies and legislation on urban issues in whose formulation local and regional governments participated from 1996 to the presentNA100%Percentage share of both income and expenditure allocated to local and regional governments from the national budget18.6%-Percentage share of local authorities' expenditure financed from local revenue35%7%Percentage of city, regional and national authorities that have implemented urban policies supportive of local economic development and creation of decent0%14.8	Percentage of people residing in urban areas with access to public transport15%22%Level of effective decentralization15%22%Percentage of policies and legislation on urban issues in whose formulation local and regional governments participated from 1996 to the presentNA100%Percentage share of both income and expenditure allocated to local and regional governments from the national budget18.6%4.9%Percentage share of local authorities' expenditure financed from local revenue35%7%9%Percentage of city, regional and national authorities that have implemented urban policies supportive of local economic development and creation of decent0%14.844%

¹⁶ The increase in proportion of money allocated to LGAs from 18.6% in 2005/06 to 24.3% in 2006/07 largely a result of increased numbers of teachers and their salaries.

10.	Percentage of city authorities that	0%	14.8%	58.3%	2006: Out of 17 urban councils, 11 were implementing safety and
	have adopted or implemented urban				security programmes
	safety and security policies or				2015: Out of 23 cities and municipalities, including 6 cities of Dar es
	strategies				Salaam, Arusha, Mbeya, Mwanza and Tanga, 7 municipalities of
					Dodoma, Ilala, Kinondoni, Morogoro, Moshi, Iringa and Temeke; and
					Bagamoyo town.
					Source: PMO-RALG, 2007 National Strategy on Prevention of Urban
					Crime in Tanzania
11.	Percentage of city authorities that	3.7%	14.8%	50%	13 of 26 urban authorities implemented the Urban Development and
	have been implemented plans and				Environmental Management Framework
	designs for sustainable and resilient				
	cities that are inclusive and respond				
	to urban population growth				
	adequately				
12.	Share of national gross domestic			43.1%	National Accounts of Tanzania Mainland, 2001-2013
	product (GDP) that is produced in				
	urban areas				
13.	Other urban – related data relevan	t to the na	tional rej	port	
1.	Percentage of inland revenue that is			3.5%	National Accounts of Tanzania Mainland, 2001-2013
	collected by local governments				

Bibliography

- 1) Agrawala, S. et al (Date not Available) Development and Climate Change in Tanzania: Focus on Mount Kilimanjaro
- 2) Blackden, C. M. and Rwebangira, M. (2004) Tanzania Strategic Country Gender Assessment. World Bank, June 30, 2004. Available at: http://siteresources.worldbank.org/EXTAFRREGTOPGENDER/Resources/TanzaniaSC GA.pdf. Accessed on 16th January 2013.
- 3) Cervero, R. and K. Kockelman (1997) 'Travel demand and the 3 Ds: Density, diversity, and design', Transportation Research D 2(3): 199–21
- 4) Dalkmann and Brannigan (2007) 'Sustainable Transport: A Sourcebook for Policy-makers in Developing Cities', Module 5e, Transport and Climate Change, GTZ
- 5) Diaz Olvera, L., Plat, D., & Pochet, P. (2003). Transportation conditions and access to services in a context of urban sprawl and deregulation. The case of Dar es Salaam. Transport Policy, 10 (4). As cited in Lizárraga C. et al, 2014 Advancing Towards Sustainable Urban Mobility in Dar es Salaam (Tanzania): A Swot Analysis. Africanology Volume 1, Issue 1, 2014. Available online at: http://as-journal.dcthink.org/index.php/as-journal/article/view/12/pdf_5 Last Accessed on 5th January 2016
- 6) Elisa M. and Wietze L. (2008) The Urban Transition in Tanzania: Building the Empirical Base for Policy Dialogue. International Bank for Reconstruction and Development /The World Bank 1818 H Street, N.W. Washington, D.C. 20433, U.S.A.
- 7) Ewing, R. and R. Cervero (2010) '*Travel and the built environment: A metaanalysis', Journal of the American Planning Association 76(3): 265–294*
- 8) ESRF (2010) Informal sector taxation in Tanzania TAKNET Policy Brief Series No.012, 2010
- 9) Foeken D (2005). Urban Agriculture in East Africa as A Tool for Poverty Reduction: A Legal and Policy Dilemma? ASC Working Paper, Netherlands. Available online at: <u>http://www.ascleiden.nl/pdf/workingpaper65.pdf</u> Last Accessed on 5th January 2016
- 10) HelpAge International 2015 Global AgeWatch Insight Report. Available online at: <u>http://reports.helpage.org/global-agewatch-index-2015-insight-report.pdf</u> Last Accessed on 2nd January 2015
- 11) Katala J. N. (Date not provided) the cost of traffic congestion and accidents to the economy in Tanzania. Available online at: http://iekenya.org/download/Jumbe%20N.Katala%20%5BThe%20cost%20of%20 traffic%20congestion.....%5DDART.pdf. Last Accessed 24th December 2015
- 12) Katebalirwe T. D. (2014) *Addressing Youth Unemployment Through TVET: Policy Perspective In Tanzania.* Paper Presented at the Vocational Education and Training (VET) Forum held at Naura Springs Hotel, in Arusha, Tanzania from 10 - 11 December, 2014
- 13) Kironde L. (2012) Urbanization in Tanzania: The Challenge of Planning, Access to and Use of Land, Paper presented at the Country Level Knowledge Network: 2012) Wednesday, 21st March 2012

- 14) Kombe, G. J. 2009 An overview of air pollution in urban areas of Tanzania. Paper Presented at the DART Project Launching Workshop Dar es Salaam, Tanzania. April 2009, Available at: http://www.unep.org/transport/pcfv/PDF/DART-OVERVIEWAIRPOLLUTION.pdf. Last Accessed on 27th December 2015.
- 15) Kumar, A. 2002 A Review of Road Sector Reforms in Tanzania. The Sub-Saharan Africa Transport Policy Program, Africa Region, the World Bank. April 2002. Available online at: http://www.ssatp.org/sites/ssatp/files/publications/SSATP-

DiscussionPapers/DP02.pdf Last accessed on 30th December 2015

- 16) Kushoka, K. (2012) Women Micro Entrepreneurs in Tanzania: Challenges And Opportunities. Available at: http://www.amazon.com/Women-Micro-Entrepreneurs-Tanzania-opportunities/dp/3659158526/ref=sr_1_2?s=books&ie=UTF8&qid= 1359044289&sr=1-2. Accessed on 16th January 2013
- 17) LEDNA (2011) The Importance of the Informal Economy for Local Economic Development (LED) in Africa Shared online by LEDNA Team 20.10.2011. Available online at: <u>http://ledna.org/documents/importance-informal-economy-localeconomic-development-led-africa</u>. Last accessed on 10th April 2015
- 18) LFIT (2014) Local Finance Initiative-for Tanzania-LFI-T. Annual Progress Report from July 2013 to June 2014, Dar es Salaam Tanzania, August 2014.
- 19) Lizárraga C, López-Castellano F and Manzanera-Ruiz R. 2014 Advancing Towards Sustainable Urban Mobility in Dar es Salaam (Tanzania): A Swot Analysis. Africanology Volume 1, Issue 1, 2014. Available online at: <u>http://asjournal.dcthink.org/index.php/as-journal/article/view/12/pdf 5</u> Last Accessed on 5th January 2016
- 20) Lubuva J. (2014) ALAT LED capacity building initiatives in the backdrop of a LED policy vacuum in Tanzania a case study, June 2014
- 21) Mazwile M. 2013 Community Infrastructure Upgrading Program (CIUP) -Local Action for Resilient Urban Infrastructures in Dar es Salaam. Paper presented at the The Local Climate Solutions for Africa 2013 Congress, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania - 31st October 2013. Available online at: <u>http://locs4africa.iclei.org/wpcontent/uploads/2013/11/Margareth-Mazwile-Community-Infrastructure-Upgrading-Program.pdf</u> Last Accessed on 6th January 2016
- 22) Mbwambo, K. (Date not provided) Impacts of air pollution and progress made by the region (East Africa) to reduce air pollution. Available online at: <u>http://www.unep.org/transport/pcfv/pdf/dart-impactsprogressinregion.pdf</u>. Last Accessed on 27th December 2015
- 23) Mlozi M (1997). Impacts of urban agriculture in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania. The Environmentalist 17(2): 115-124. As cited in Mkwela, H. S. 2014 Governance of agriculture in the cities of developing countries: Local leaders' perspectives. Journal of Geography and Regional Planning Vol. 7(3), pp. 36-46, May, 2014. Available online at: <u>http://academicjournals.org/journal/JGRP/article-full-textpdf/B013C3D44308</u> Last Accessed on 5th January 2016
- 24) Mrema, G. D. (2011) *Traffic Congestion in Tanzanian Major Cities. WHO World Health Organization*

25) Msigwa, R.E. 2013 Challenges Facing Urban Transportation in Tanzania. Available online at:

http://www.google.com/search?client=safari&rls=en&q=Trafic+Accidents+in+urban+Ta nzania&ie=UTF-8&oe=UTF-8. Last Accessed on 5th January 2016

- 26) Mvena S. S. K. 199 *The pat, present and future of urban agriculture in Tanzania* in Journal of Agricultural Economics and Development Vol.3 June (1999). Available online at: <u>http://www.tzonline.org/pdf/thepastpresentandfutureofurbanagriculture.pdf</u> Last Accessed on 4th January 2016
- 27) Nangale, G. 2012 The Role of The State In Economic Development: Employment Challenges In Eastern Africa – The Case Of Tanzania. A Country Paper Presentation at the Friedrich Ebert Stiftung (FES) Eastern African Conference on Employment Policies in Nairobi, Kenya. September 24 - 25, 2012. Available online at:

http://www.festanzania.org/files/fes/pdf/YLTP%20RegConf%20Presentations/Na ngale Tanzania.pdf. Accessed on 8th January 2016

- 28) Nkurunziza, A. 2014 Sustainable transport in Dar es Salaam: The potential for BRT and cycling from user perspectives
- 29) Nyahende, V. R. 2013 Study on the Success of Students' Loans in Financing Higher Education in Tanzania: Dongbei University of Finance and Economics, Dalian, China. 2013 Road Accidents, a Threat to Human Rights in Tanzania. Available online at: https://wewriteforrights.wordpress.com/2013/08/11/road-accidents-a-threat-to-

https://wewriteforrights.wordpress.com/2013/08/11/road-accidents-a-threat-tohuman-rights-in-tanzania/ Last accessed pn 13 February 2016

- 30) Okoye O (Date not provided) Power Africa Initiative; Scaling-Up The Partnership On Powering Africa Kurt Lonsway Director OIC, Energy, Environnement And Climate Change Department <u>K.Lonsway@Afdb.Org</u>
- 31) PMORALG 2015 Prime Minister's Office, Regional Administration and Local Government. Basic Education Statistics Tanzania (BEST). Available online at: http://www.pmoralg.go.tz/noticeboard/tangazo-1023-20141229-Basic-Education-Statistics-BEST/FINAL-NATIONAL-27-MAY-2014.pdf Last accessed on 31 Decembe 2015
- 32) PMORALG (2014) Prime Minister's Office, National Economic Empowerment Council, 2014. Available online at: www; uwezeshaji.go.tz. Last Accessed 10th April 2015
- 33) PMORALG (2014.a) Prime Minister's Office Regional Administration and Local Government, The Review of the LGDG Operational Guide, LGAs Assessment Manual and Development of M & E Framework for LGDG System – 10th April 2014
- 34) PMORALG (2010) Prime Minister's Office Regional Administration and Local Government – Local Authority Financial Memorandum 2010
- 35) PMO-RALG, 2007 Prime Minister's Office Regional Administration and Local Government, National Strategy on Prevention of Urban Crime in Tanzania. Available online at: <u>http://unhabitat.org/books/national-strategy-on-urban-crimeprevention-in-tanzania/</u>. Last Accessed on 9th January 2016
- 36) Rodrigue (2013). 'The geography of transport systems', New York, 3rd edition
- 37) Sawio C (1998). Cities Feeding People Initiatives-Managing Urban Agriculture in Dar es Salaam City. IDRC. Canada. As cited in Mkwela, H. S. 2014

Governance of agriculture in the cities of developing countries: Local leaders' perspectives. Journal of Geography and Regional Planning Vol. 7(3), pp. 36-46, May, 2014. Available online at: <u>http://academicjournals.org/journal/JGRP/article-full-text-pdf/B013C3D44308</u> Last Accessed on 5th January 2016

- 38) Sarzin Z and Raich U. (2012) Financing the Urban Expansion in Tanzania, January 2012, No. 14
- 39) SSATP-Africa Transport Policy Program, 2013
- 40) Sumatra (2011) Study on user needs and management of public transport services in Dar es Salaam. Dar es Salaam: Available online at: <u>http://www.sumatra.or.tz/index.php/component/docman/cat view/17-studies?Itemid=234</u> Last accessed on 5th January 2016
- 41) TCU 2012 Tanzania Commission for Universities. Enrolment trend in Universities and University Colleges. Retrieved fromhttp://www.tcu.go.tz/index.php/student-register as cited in Mpehongwa G. 2014 Career Choices of University Students in Tanzania and Their Implications for Vision 2025 in International Journal of Humanities and Social Science Vol. 4 No. 5; March 2014 Available online at:

http://www.ijhssnet.com/journals/Vol 4 No 5 March 2014/28.pdf Last Accessed on 3rd January 2016

- 42) THMIS, 2013 Tanzania HIV and Malaria Indicator Survey 2011 2012. Tanzania Commission for AIDS, Dar es Salaam. March 2013. Available online at: <u>http://www.tacaids.go.tz/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=139:cu</u> <u>rrent-status-of-hiv-and-aids&catid=31:hiv-and-aids-information-&Itemid=159</u> Last Accessed 1 January 2016
- 43) The Environmental Policy 1997,
- 44) The Land Act 1995;
- 45) Tidemand, P. and Msami J. (2010) The Impact of Local Government reforms in Tanzania 1998-2008.' Special Paper 10/1, Dar es Salaam, REPOA. Available on line at: <u>http://www.repoa.or.tz/documents/10-1 SP lr.pdf</u> Last Accessed 17th February 2016
- 46) UNCDF (2014) Local Finance Initiative Tanzania- LFI-T; Annual Progress Report, July 2013-June 2014; Dar es Salaam, Tanzania, August 2014
- 47) UNFCCC (2007) Climate Change: Impacts, Vulnerability and Adaptation in Developing Countries. Climate change Secretariat. UNFCCC. Bonn.
- 48) UN Habitat (2013) 'Planning and Design for Sustainable Urban Mobility' Global Report on Human Settlements 2013
- 49) UN Habitat (2010) United Nations Human Settlements Programme. Sustainable mobility in African cities. Nairobi: UN-Habitat/UITP. As cited in Lizárraga C. et al, 2014 Advancing Towards Sustainable Urban Mobility in Dar es Salaam (Tanzania): A Swot Analysis. Africanology Volume 1, Issue 1, 2014. Available online at: http://as-journal.dcthink.org/index.php/as-journal/article/view/12/pdf_5 Last Accessed on 5th January 2016
- 50) UN (Date not provided) United Nations in Tanzania. Economic growth: Challenges and opportunities http://tz.one.un.org/index.php/what-wedo/economic-growth?showall=1&limitstart= Accessed on 16th January 2013

- 51) UNDP (2004) Meeting the Climate Challenge Sustaining Livelihoods: Lessons for the Future
- 52) URT (2015) Housing condition, household amenities and assets monograph, 2012 Population and housing census, IV, 2015, National Bureau of Statistics
- 53) URT (2015.a) United Republic Of Tanzania, Ministry of Finance, Government Budget for Financial Year 2014/15. Citizens' Budget Edition
- 54) URT (2014) United Republic of Tanzania. Basic Facts and Figures on Human Settlements, 2012 Tanzania Mainland-June 2014
- 55) URT (2014a) United Republic of Tanzania. National HIV and AIDS Response report 2013 - Tanzania Mainland. TACAIDS, April 2004
- 56) URT (2013) Document of the twenty-third special session of the General Assembly- Beijing +10. Beijing +10 Women 2005. Accessed 17th January 2013
- 57) URT (2013.a) State of the Tanzania Economy President's Office, Planning Commission 25th November 2013 J.K Nyerere Conference Centre, DSM, L. Rutasitara Deputy Executive Secretary (Macro economy), President's Office-Planning Commission, Dar es Salaam
- 58) URT (2012) The Urban Development and Management Policy, PMO-RALG
- 59) URT (2012a) United Republic of Tanzania. Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP). Primary Education Development Programme III (2012-2016). Education Sector Development Committee, July 2012. Available online at: http://www.tenmet.org/Droop/Docs/PEDPIII/PEDP%20III%202012-2016.pdf Last accessed on 31 December 2015
- 60) URT (2011) United Republic of Tanzania, Social and Cultural Rights in relation to the Combined initial, second and third periodic report of the E/C.12/TZA/1-3 Pre-Sessional Working Group, 47th Session, 5-9 December 2011 Submitted by HelpAge International, September 2011
- 61) URT (2005) United Republic of Tanzania. Country report on the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action and the Outcome
- 62) URT (2004) 'Tanzania Environmental Management Act, 2004' 3/3 Law, Environment and Development Journal (2007), p. 290 Available at http://www.lead-journal.org/content/07290.pdf
- 63) URT (2003) United Republic of Tanzania. The National Social Security Policy. Ministry of Labour, Youth Development and Sports, January 2003
- 64) URT (2003.a) United Republic of Tanzania; Small and Medium Enterprise Development Policy; Ministry of Industries and Trade, Dar es Salaam; April 2003. Available on line at: http://www.egov.go.tz/egov_uploads/documents/SME-Development-Policy_en.pdf Last Accessed on 31 December 2015
- 65) URT (2000) Presidents Office Regional Administration and Local Government – Legal Framework for implementation of Government Policy on decentralization by Devolution
- 66) URT (1996) United Republic of Tanzania; National report o human Settlements Development in Tanzania. April 1996. Available on line at: http://unhabitat.org/wp-content/uploads/National%20Reports/TANZANIA.pdf Last Accessed on 11th February 2016

- 67) URT (Date not provided) United Republic of Tanzania, National Strategy on Urban Crime Prevention Strategy; PMORALG
- 68) URT (Date not provided) Tanzania National Web site Available at: http://www.tanzania.go.tz/gender.html. Accessed 16th January 2013
- 69) WB (2015) The World Bank. Tanzania Strategic Cities Project (P111153): Public Disclosure Copy. Available on line at:
- 70) http://www.google.com/search?client=safari&rls=en&q=Tanzania+Strategic +Cities+Implementation+Progress+Report+2015&ie=UTF-8&oe=UTF-8. Last accessed on 15th February 2016
- 71) WBCSD (2007) The World Business Council for Sustainable Development. Mobility as a Driver for Economic Development: Tanzania Case Study. Available online at http://oldwww.wbcsd.org/DocRoot/qeHtgXoYTfIPIPSAWMx4/tanzania-casestudy-final.pdf Last Accessed on 7th January 2016
- 72) YBI (2014) Youth Entrepreneurship Intervention Feasibility Project for Youth Business International (YBI): 'Strengthening youth entrepreneurship support in Tanzania' Phase 1 Understanding YBI's Approach and Analysis of Youth Entrepreneurship Support in Tanzania, May 2014
- 73) Zimmerman, K. Mzige, A.; Kibatala P. L.; Museru, L. M. and Guerrero, A (2011) Road traffic injury incidence and crash characteristics in Dar es Salaam: A population Based study. In Accident Analysis and Prevention Journal. March 2011. Available on line at: http://global.surgery.ucsf.edu/media/7825571/Zimmerman-2011.pdf Last accessed on 13February 2016

Annexure

Annex 1: Submission procedure

Procedure to submit the National Report for the United Nations Conference on Housing and Sustainable Urban Development (HABITAT III)

With regards to the official submission of the Habitat III National Reports, Member States are kindly requested to consider the following:

// Member States are encouraged to submit their Habitat III National Report prior to the second session of the Preparatory Committee to be held in Nairobi from 14 to 16 April 2015.

// In case you previously submitted a draft National Report, or any other kind of interim report, you might want to state it clearly by informing the Habitat III Secretariat, and sending the final Habitat III National Report.

// All National Reports will be considered received only if submitted directly to the Habitat III Secretariat by e-mail to <u>habitat3secretariat@un.org</u>, and as a hard copy sent to the address below:

Habitat III Secretariat UN Conference on Housing and Sustainable Urban Development

> Two United Nations Plaza Room DC2-0979 New York, NY, 10017 U.S.A.

// Once submitted, the Habitat III Secretariat will acknowledge reception through a note verbale, as well as an official letter of confirmation sent to the designated focal point by e-mail.

// In cases where National Reports are prepared in Arabic, Chinese, French, Spanish and Russian, an English translation of the report should also be submitted together with the copy of the report in the original language.

// Submission of the National Report should be accompanied by the signed form attached as Annex 2, stating that the National Report can be available online for a wider audience and the information provided in the National Report can be used as necessary in any official document prepared by the Habitat III Secretariat in the framework of the preparatory process towards the Conference.





Annex 2: National Report Submission Letter

This is to confirm that the United Republic of Tanzania is submitting its Final Habitat III National Report prepared for the United Nations Conference on Housing and Sustainable Urban Development in English.

Once submitted, the Habitat III National Report will be published online and deposited in the United Nations archives. The provided data is available to be used to substantiate as necessary for any official document prepared by the Habitat III Secretariat in the framework of the preparatory process towards the Conference. With below signature, consent is given.

For all technical matters related to the final National Report submitted, the Habitat III Secretariat should be contacting the designated focal point Prof. John M. Lupala, Director for Urban and Rural Planning, Ministry of Lands, Housing and Human Settlements Development. by e-mail: <u>lupalajohn@yahoo.com</u> or a telephone number +255754522379.

Dupah J

_____ Prof. John M. Lupala_____

(Signature of the Member State Representative)

Annex 3: Monitoring and Reporting

Habitat III preparatory process

In order to document and facilitate the analysis of the process of country contributions towards Habitat III, Member States are kindly invited to provide information on the questions listed below:

Questionnaire

1. While Governments have the primary responsibility for reporting, it is important to promote dialogue and consensus among all stakeholders. Was a National Habitat Committee (re)established, and if yes, when and by which government agency was initiated.

The National Habitat Committee was Re-established; the list was drawn in March, 2015 and members were official notified. The Ministry of Lands, Housing and Human Settlements Development steered this process.

- 2. If a National Habitat Committee was (re)established, kindly provide information on its members of such a committee indicating full name/position/organization and if available email addresses.
 - 1) A National Habitat Committee has been proposed in collaboration with members of the Technical Committee, comprising the following members:
 - i. Director of Urban Planning MLHHSD;
 - ii. Director of Housing MLHHSD;
 - iii. Commissioner for Lands MLHHSD;
 - iv. Director of Surveys and Mapping MLHHSD
 - v. Director of Information Communication Technology MLHHSD
 - vi. Registrar of Titles MLHHSD;
 - vii. Director of Policy and Planning MLHHSD;
 - viii. Director of Urban Development PMO-RALG;
 - ix. Director of Local Government PMO-RALG;
 - x. Director Dar es Salaam City Council;
 - xi. Director Kinondoni Municipal Council;
 - xii. Director Ilala Municipal Council;
 - xiii. Director Temeke Municipal Council;
 - xiv. Director of Environment Ministry of State in the Vice President's Office Union Affairs and Environment;
 - xv. Commissioner for Budgets Ministry of Finance and Planning;

xvi. Director General - National Environment Management Council;
xvii. Head Department of Urban and Regional Planning - Ardhi University;
xviii. Representative from University of Dar es Salaam
xix. Representative from - Ministry of Heath, Community Development, Gender, Seniors and Children;
xx. Director General - National Housing and Building Research Agency;
xxi. Director General - National Bureau of Statistics;
xxii. Chief Executive Officer - Tanzania Investment Centre;
xxiii. Chief Executive .-WAT -Human Settlements Trust;
Names and Contact addresses will be availed later.

3. If a National Habitat Committee was not (re)established, kindly describe circumstances that led to such a case and if applicable provide information on alternative process used to prepare the report.

Refer to explanation in No. 2 above

4. If a National Habitat Committee was (re)established, kindly provide information on meetings, workshops and other events held in order to review, discuss and/or support with information the preparation of the Habitat III National Report. Indicate type of event and objective, date, participants (full name/position/organization) and specific outcomes. [In case of any media coverage of such events, kindly provide links or attach scanned print media coverage].

The Draft National Habitat III Report was discussed in a stakeholders meeting held on 2nd April, 2015 at The Courtyard Protea Hotel in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania, where participants were able to give their views and additional information to complement the report. Thematic groups were formed to allow in-depth review of the sections of the report. The comments given by the stakeholders have been incorporated in this report. The First Draft was widely circulated to various stakeholders to seek their views also it was discussed by the National Steering Committee in a meeting held at the Ministry of Lands Housing and Human Settlements on 19th February 2016. Their views and comments were also incorporated in the report.

5. Kindly provide information on the author(s) of the National Report, If contracted for such a task, kindly provide information of the source of funding, including information on the support received, if any, from the Habitat III Secretariat, UN agencies and/or programmes including funding, technical support, advisory services, and other.

The Author of the National Habitat III Report is Mr. John Mocho Lubuva as Lead Consultant, working with other Nine Thematic Experts listed below.						
(i) Urban Planner – Mr. Linus Shao: MSc. Degree with 36 years experience;						
(i) Housing Expert - Dr. Tatu Limbumba: PhD with 28 years experience;						
(ii) Transport Planner – Dr. Wilfred G. Kazaura: PhD with 8 years experience;						
(iii) Environmental Expert - Mr. Edward Kihunrwa: MA Degree with 40 years experience;						
(iv) Urban Finance Expert – Mr. Joel Shimba: National Accountancy Diploma (NAD) with 49 years experience;						
(v) Urban Economist - Mr. Anthony Kilale: BA Degree with 30 years experience;						
(vi) Public Health Engineer - Prof. Esnati Osinde Chaggu: PhD with 32 years experience;						
(vii) Sociologist/Community Development Experts:						
(viii) Mr. Alfred Mwenisogole- BA Degree and 32 years experience;						
Other supporting staff were:						
(i) Ms. Gift Mchomvu - BA Degree with 5 years experience; and						
(ii) Dr. Dorothea Deus - PhD with 10 years experience - Data Analyst						
He was contracted by the Ministry of Lands, Housing and Human Settlements Development.						
The consultancy was funded by The Government of the United Republic of Tanzania.						

6. If the final National Habitat III Report was submitted, kindly provide information on its nationwide dissemination.

The final report, was completed and disseminated to all stakeholders countrywide.

7. Kindly provide information on validation of data and analysis used for the National Report. Was it discussed and or validated in a National Urban Forum or similar other public forum?

The Draft Report and Data therein was validated in the stakeholders meeting held on 2nd April 2015 at The Courtyard Hotel Protea in Dar es Salaam and again at the National Steering Committee meeting held at the Ministry of Lands Housing and Human Settlements on 19th February 2016.

Thank you for your collaboration. Kindly submit filled form to habitat3secretariat@un.org