

Impacts of Urban Development Pressure on Coastal Local Communities in Tanzania: A Case Study of Ununio, Kaole and Kilwa-Masoko Settlements

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Abstract: *The study examined the socio-economic and cultural impacts of urban development pressure on the lives of coastal local communities in Tanzania, in line with the implementation of basic Human Rights, and the National Land and Human Settlement Development Policy. It has suggested measures to manage or prevent the adverse impacts and enhance beneficial impacts. Social Impact Assessment (SIA) principles were employed to study the social, economic and cultural impacts of urban development pressure on coastal local communities of Kaole, Ununio and Kilwa-Masoko. Qualitative data was collected from 12 informants and 6 focus groups, while quantitative data was collected from 150 heads of household and their spouses using a semi-structured questionnaire. Data analysis was done using the SPSS computer software. It was found out that there were more negative impacts than positive ones. Positive impacts included; expanded market for goods, water supply, electric supply, presence of schools, and cultural harmonization. Negative impacts included: insecurity over land, depeasantisation, low incomes due to lack of integration into respective urban areas, food insecurity, poor access to sea resources, unfair compensation for loss of land, discrimination in urban planning and poor access to social services. These could be regarded as short term impacts. The vulnerability of local coastal people to poverty was the long term impact. It is recommended that land allocation processes should implement Human Rights and the National Land and Human Settlement Development Policy properly so as to bring more positive impacts.*

Key words: development pressure, urban development, implementing human rights in Tanzania, poverty alleviation in Tanzania, policies and development

INTRODUCTION

Coastal zones are often areas which face intensive pressures for development in terms of trade, marine transportation and construction of seaside bungalows and resorts. Local people along the famously known 'Swahili Corridor' (Horton, 1987) have been living in small and isolated communities and enjoyed a sense of belonging together and a degree of cultural unity associated with their land, natural resources and their environments for generations (Allen, 1993: 258). For centuries, the East African coastline has been of great importance to many families of artisanal fishermen and peasants that depended on it for their subsistence. Recently, coastal

communities have found their traditional way of life threatened by urban development, particularly, affluent property developers.

Coastal local communities have been facing pressure from foreign people as early as the 1st century A.D whereby sultans in the Middle-East started Slave Trade. Kaole, Kilwa-Masoko and Ununio were important trading centres. Slaves from east Africa were shipped to various Arabic countries where they worked as domestic or industrial labourers while others were transported to Zanzibar where they worked in clove plantations (Royal Navy, 2006). The trade intensified in east Africa in early Nineteenth Century when the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade was abolished but declined during the second half of the century, when it was abolished by European colonialists.

After the partitioning of east Africa towards the end of the Nineteenth Century, Tanganyika fell under German rule but the ten-mile coastal strip continued to be under the rule of the Sultan of Zanzibar until after the 1st World War (1918) when Germany was defeated and the whole of east Africa came under the domination of Britain. During the colonial period local people, particularly males were obliged to work as labourers in sisal plantations in order to acquire money for paying the head tax. Therefore, during the slave and colonial periods coastal local communities lost their freedom, lived under fear and hence, unable to struggle to improve their livelihoods.

The onset of independence in 1961 did not improve their livelihood either because no concerted efforts were taken to develop disadvantaged areas such as coastal communities and other former labour reserves such as Kigoma and Rukwa regions. The Villagisation Programme of early 1970s meant to stimulate development in rural areas also failed to achieve its objective since it was ill-planned and ended up concentrating people in specific areas. Its consequences on affected areas such as Ununio, Kaole and Kilwa- Masoko included land loss, famine, and deaths. The following is a brief of development pressures on the three case study areas.

Kaole is an ancient coastal village situated along the Indian Ocean about five kilometers from Bagamoyo town and about 70 kilometres north of Dar es Salaam. Kaole settlement was found by Arabs from Persia in the 13th century. Notable remains of their culture are the Kaole ruins which date to the period between 13th and 16th c. The ruins consist of two mosques and thirty tombs built of coral stones. The 13th c mosque is one of the oldest in East Africa. The second mosque and the tombs date to the 15th c. The Kaole ruins are one of the attractions for visitors who visit Bagamoyo (Utalii Travel and Safaris Ltd, 2009). Bagamoyo was also a slave trading centre in east Africa and its history starts at Kaole (Mwanatongoni, 2009). Recently, Bagamoyo town has expanded its boundaries to incorporate Kaole village. These developments have deprived the local people of Kaole land meant for their own subsistence.

Ununio is a typical coastal settlement with a beautiful sand beach. It is also rich in terrestrial and marine resources. This small coastal Swahili settlement, used to be an 'enclave' village by 1978. Ununio had a famous mythical well '*kisima cha mkong'ole*', numerous ancient cemeteries inscribed with Arabic *Kufih* writings, and traditional Swahili streets. The local people used to farm in the outskirts now famously known as Tegeta town area and even exported extra farm produce to Zanzibar. The village used to produce agricultural products such as tomatoes, onions, bananas, eggplants, water melons, pumpkins, and coconuts. Due to land expropriation, farming activities have ceased. A massive building transformation began in the 1980s when most of the land was surveyed for low density residential plots and tourism investments. The destruction of both tangible and intangible heritage occurred during this period of a momentous change. As marked by Mbonile and Kivelia (2007), this ancient village is in danger of becoming extinct. Currently, the village (now, a sub-ward) has no room for expansion as their land has been planned for urban development leaving them landless, impoverished and with disintegrated social fabric and culture. Land loss or displacement gradually leads to insecurity and unsustainable livelihoods.

Kilwa-Masoko, was a trading town from the 11th to 16th century AD. It was famous for the gold trade from Mwanamutapa empire in present Zimbabwe. Kilwa-Masoko also was a slave trade centre in the 19th century. Currently, subsistence agriculture is the most important economic activity involving 90% of the population. The majority of people in Kilwa district are engaged in artisanal fishing which is an important source of livelihood and income to fishermen. With the expansion of Kilwa-Masoko, since the 1970s, farm land and fishing grounds have shrank thereby affecting the livelihoods of local dwellers.

According to the Land Policy of Tanzania, (URT, 1997) all land in Tanzania is public land vested in the President as trustee on behalf of all citizens. The government through the Ministry of Lands and Human Settlement Development has the mandate to allocate land including coastal areas for specific land use such as low density housing development. In recent years, there has been encroachment on land owned by coastal local communities, which often has left them with inadequate land for their own economic survival. Allocation of land is sometimes done without consulting the local communities despite the fact that the land policy has to promote equitable distribution and access of land to all citizens and ensure that customary land rights of small holders are recognised (URT, 1997: 5, Lerise, 2000: 98). Moreover, land owners are under-compensated and these payments are often delayed (Lerise, 2000: 98, 113) while others are never compensated.

This study examined the socio-economic and cultural impacts of urban development pressure on the lives of coastal local communities in Tanzania in line with the implementation of basic Human Rights, and the National Land and Human Settlement Development Policy. It explored the extent to which land policy strategies were being implemented in coastal settlements of Ununio, Kilwa-Masoko and Kaole (Figure 1), by applying the human rights approach to development,

particularly, aspects of people's participation, non-discrimination, empowerment and state accountability. Specifically, the study sought to: (i) examine the socio-economic and cultural impacts of the implementation of land allocation policies for urban development on coastal local communities of Ununio, Kaole and Kilwa-Masoko; (ii) to identify established plans and programmes meant to avoid or manage the adverse impacts of urban development pressure in the study areas and to (iii) suggest viable strategies for maintenance, empowerment and integration of local communities of Ununio, Kaole and Kilwa-Masoko into respective urban areas.



LOCATION OF KAOLE, UNUNIO AND KILWA MASOKO IN TANZANIA

Figure 1: Location of Kaole, Ununio and Kilwa Masoko settlements

Source: Illustrated by Ngowi, A in March 2010

METHODOLOGY

The socio-economic and cultural impacts of urban development pressure on coastal local communities in Tanzania were assessed using a case study of three local coastal communities namely: Ununio, Kaole, and Kilwa-Masoko using a human rights approach. The approach involves the application of human rights in development analysis and planning. It seeks to ground human development on human rights for reducing poverty and violent conflict by abiding to norms of human rights particularly, equality and non-discrimination (Tomas, 2005).

The sample coastal communities were experiencing urban development pressure differently. Ununio was fully urbanised while Kilwa- Masoko was still expanding and Kaole has just started experiencing the impacts of urban development pressure. Therefore, proper implementation of land policies could help to avoid negative impacts in Kaole.

The Social Impact Assessment (SIA) techniques were employed to evaluate the social, economic and cultural impacts of development pressure on local people in the study communities. As a methodology, SIA is used to assess the social impacts of planned interventions or events, and to develop strategies for the management of those impacts (IAIA: 2003: 2-3).

Research Design

Both qualitative and quantitative approaches were employed for collecting and analysing data. Purposeful choice of three sample settlements was done. After that, systematic sampling was also done to get a sample of 50 households from each sample settlement. The total sample consisted of 150 households. The heads of household were the target population for interview. Where the head of household was male, the spouse was also interviewed in order to establish gender differential impacts. Two focus groups were conducted in each sample community; one for females and another for males including fishermen. There were six focus groups in total. The focus groups consisted of ten people each to enhance interaction (Robinson, 1998: 418). Twelve local key informants aged 65 years and above (four from each community) who had lived in the sample coastal communities since 1960s were also interviewed independently in order to get their experiences about land use changes over time.

Data Sources and Data Collection Methods

Primary qualitative data was obtained from Focus Group Discussions, key informants and open ended questions from the questionnaire. Participatory transect walks were also conducted with informants to assess land use changes along the coast, while physical observation was done by the chief investigator assisted by two research assistants to determine land use and housing condition.

Quantitative data was collected by the researcher through a household survey using a semi-structured questionnaire particularly on income, and expenditure. Part A of the questionnaire was administered with the heads of household and part B with the spouse in the sample communities. Remote sensing and Geographic Information System techniques were also applied to determine land use changes, changes in vegetation cover, during the past 28 years (1980-2007). Data sources for GIS included: aerial photographs for 1980, 1997 and 2000; topographic maps of the three settlements and Landsat satellite Images (Landsat TM 1990, Landsat TM 2007).

Secondary data was obtained from documents obtained from the Ministry of Natural Resources and the Ministry of Lands and Human Settlement Development, libraries, NGOs, the web and the village/sub-ward government.

Data Analysis

The researcher transcribed focus group discussions from the audio tapes to produce a summary of findings which were presented descriptively to verify responses from the questionnaire. Data from the questionnaires were coded and entered into the computer using the Scientific Package for Social Scientists (SPSS). Cross tabulation was done to find out frequencies of respondents with regard to economic, social and cultural impacts of urban development pressure on them. Findings from the household survey were supplemented with data from informants and Focus Group Discussions. The socio-economic and cultural impacts of urban development pressure were assessed in line with the implementation of the National Land and Human Settlement Development Policy and human rights to ascertain state accountability to local people.

Landsat images were analysed to show land use and vegetation cover changes for the past 28 years. Changes detection analysis was conducted using overlays generated from GIS land-use/ cover maps plus timeline data provided by local people to reveal their perception. Land-use changes were studied at three time series: 1980s; 1990s and 2000s to reflect different land use/ policies implemented during these periods.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Assessment of the quantitative and qualitative findings was done to determine the extent to which the land policy and human rights were being implemented.

Impact of the Implementation of the Land Development Policy

For the past three decades, the population growth rate of many towns in Tanzania has been growing at an average of 6 to 10 per cent per annum. Existing towns have expanded; transforming rural settlements and incorporating them into townships (URT, 1997:25). Surveying of new plots has taken place on land held under customary land rights particularly, in peri-urban areas. Customary land rights in these areas are presumed to be renounced following government declaration of planning in such areas. No legal procedures are instituted to formally end the customary land rights before the land is reallocated for urban development (URT, 1997:27). Thus the main impact of the implementation of the Tanzania Land and Human Settlement Development Policy was loss of land on part of the local communities.

Encroachment on village land is against the Tanzania land policy of limiting loss of agricultural land to urban growth and emphasise on intensive use of urban land. The policy stipulates that the land rights of peri-urban dwellers will be fully recognised and rights of occupancy protected following declaration of planning areas (URT, 1997: 25, 26). Nonetheless, customary rights were not being protected in the study areas. This act is contrary to the International Labour Organization's Convention (No 169) of 1989 concerning the protection of indigenous and other tribal populations. Part II Article 14 provides in part that:

“The rights of ownership and possession of the peoples concerned over the lands which they traditionally occupy shall be recognised... measures shall be taken in appropriate cases to safeguard the right of the peoples concerned to use lands to which they have traditionally had access for their subsistence and traditional activities....” (ILO, 1989).

That means such right should not arbitrarily be extinguished. In addition, Article 13(2) of the same convention is against foreigners taking land belonging to these populations (*ibid*).

Economic Impact of Urban Development

The household survey results have illustrated that the immediate economic impact of urban development on local people was loss of land. In the sample communities of Kaole, Ununio and Kilwa-Masoko former agricultural land had been from time to time surveyed and allocated to urban development. Consequently, two thirds (66%) of local households did not own land for cultivation (refer Table 1). The remaining one third of the people, who still held some arable land, controlled it away from the urban boundaries. Analysis revealed that, about half of the arable land under local people’s control was of small size ranging from 1-2 acres. The other half controlled relatively bigger portions of land ranging from 3 -7 or more acres. This implies that although these communities have been absorbed into respective urban areas (Kaole into Bagamoyo town, Ununio into Dar es Salaam city and Mnazi Mmoja village (in the northern periphery of the town) into Kilwa-Masoko), about one third of the people were still living a semi-rural type of life.

Table 1: Agricultural Land Owned by a Household by Community of Residence

Name of Community	Amount of Agricultural land owned					Total (%)
	None	1-2 acres	3-4 acres	5-6 acres	More than 7 acres	
Kaole	28 (18.7%)	14(9.3%)	6(4.0%)	2(1.3%)	0(0.0%)	50(33.3)
Ununio	46(30.6%)	2(1.3%)	0(0.0%)	1(0.7%)	1(0.7%)	50(33.3)
Kilwa-Masoko	25(16.7%)	8(5.3%)	8(5.3%)	3(2.0%)	6(4.0%)	50(33.3)
Total	99 (66.0 %)	24 (16.0%)	14(9.3.0%)	6(4.0%)	7 (4.7)%	150(100.0)

Source: This Survey, October to December 2008

Only Ununio was fully urbanised. Due to this anomaly, each community member had devised his/her own means of survival. For example, some young men in Ununio were employed as security guards or worked in the construction industry while some women sold food.

Low income was another economic impact related to loss of means of subsistence; land and access to sea resources. This emanated from the fact that majority of households depended on primary subsistence activities demonstrated by 81 % of them which depended on small scale fishing, crop raising and poultry or operated

small businesses for their livelihood. Focus group respondents attributed this to lack or shortage of capital because there were no credit schemes in the sample communities. Consequently, local people obtained low yields and low incomes. It was found out that majority (71%) of households had an income of not more than Tsh.100,000 (\$77) per month, only a quarter (25%) of them earned a satisfactory income between Tsh 101,000 and 200,000 (\$77-154). This means that about 95% of households in the three communities experienced abject poverty. Thus, urban development as a strategy for poverty reduction had not led to significant improvement in local people's incomes in the study area.

This implies that Article 24 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) which provides for the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and wellbeing of individuals and their families (Brownlie, 2002: 195; Peter, 1997: 35; UNO, 1948) was not well implemented. Moreover, Article 1 (3) of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) which requires states to promote the realization of the right to self-determination and Article 2 (1) of the same document which directs states to use to the maximum their available resources for achieving full realization of the rights, were not adequately implemented since there were limited opportunities open to community members.

Depeasantisation of the local people was an additional economic impact arising from lack of access to land resources by local people. This situation forced them to get involved in casual wage labour for survival. Some of those who lost land were working as labourers or security guards in the construction industry. A good number of women were doing small businesses especially selling food in kiosks. Only few people were employed in the formal sector. This could be attributed to low level of education, skills and financial capital among residents in these communities.

Another economic impact was that local people had lost economic control over resources, thus unable to profoundly improve their standard of living. In Kaole village leadership expressed categorically about economic control that:

“people are not in control of the means of production. Many people farm rented land and many fishermen use rented boats and fishing nets. So, many people have a dependent economy which is not sustainable”.

The main problem which is evident in the above quotation is lack of capital because peoples' incomes were very low. Since opportunities to better themselves were lacking, more than half (56.7%) of the heads of household did not see or envisage any personal positive impacts of urban development. Only 43.3% thought urban development had helped to improve their economy and created income generating opportunities.

Similarly, three quarters (76%) of wives viewed urban development as not beneficial to them. Only a quarter (24%) of the wives perceived urban development

as socially and economically beneficial. Benefits included a wider market for their products, improved social services such as water supply and health facilities.

Economic Impact of Urban Development on Kilwa- Masoko

The town of Kilwa-Masoko has been growing since the 1970s. The main contributing factors for urban growth have been rural-urban migration, natural growth and sprawl. In order to accommodate the growth the government has been declaring land for urban development from time to time. It can be discerned from Figure 2 and 3 that settled area (urbanised land) in the town has been expanding while cultivated and bush land has been shrinking overtime. In 1981 the settled urban area covered only 127 hectares while in 1995 it had increased to 206 hectares. This took place at the expense of cultivated and bush lands. Between 1981 and 1995 cultivated land was reduced to almost a third from 919 hectares to 310 hectares while bush land declined to about half, from 1,033 to 654 hectares during the same period. These land use changes were also rightly noted by elderly informants who observed that urban development had taken place in Mnazi Mmoja, Miina, Kilwa-Pwani and Ngome areas. However, informants claimed that the local people were not involved in the planning process and while some local people were compensated, others were not. This entails that local people were being deprived the right to participation. Lack or inadequate compensation to victims of land alienation could be regarded as discrimination and a breach of the Tanzania land policies and human rights as explained below.

The National land policy statement emphasizes that compensation should be paid fairly and promptly. If not paid on time, interest at market rate would be charged (URT, 1997: 18). This policy statement was not adequately implemented. In addition, the Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention 169, 1989; provides land rights to indigenous people in Articles 14 to 16. Article 16 (2), focuses on indigenous people whose land is alienated. It states in part that:

“Where the relocation of these peoples is considered necessary as an exceptional measure, such relocation shall take place only with their free and informed consent...”

Paragraph 5 of the same Article further elaborates that:

“Persons thus relocated shall be fully compensated for any resulting loss or injury”. (ILO, 1989).

Accordingly, the government of Tanzania by taking land from local people without compensation, went against Article 30 of Universal Declaration of Human Rights which prohibits any state to perform any act aimed at the destruction of any of the rights and freedoms set in the declaration ([UNO](#), 1948).

It was evident from data collected from the study area that land allocation guidelines were not adhered to. There were elements of corruption and lack of participation by local people in urban governance. One informant from Kilwa-Masoko had this to say:

“I do not own land now. My land was taken by government about two years back (2006) but I have not been compensated. The government appropriates land without involving those who own it under customary law... In some instances land officers force local people to sell land...”

Economic Impact of Urban Development on Kaole Community

Kaole village was incorporated into Bagamoyo town in 2006. Most of its agricultural land was surveyed for residential purposes. This act has reduced drastically land available for Kaole community. Figure 4 and 5 show the extent to which land under cultivation and grasslands has been reduced in size while settled land has increased almost twice as much. For example, settled land in 1995 was only 126 hectares and by 2007 it had expanded to 253 hectares; an increase of about 200%. All this was a result of planned interventions.

The incorporation of Kaole into Bagamoyo town has limited land available for expansion. Focus group discussions with men in Kaole community claimed that many of them no longer owned farm land and similar to those in Kilwa-Masoko, they had not been fairly compensated. Moreover, fishermen could not fish because they were prohibited to use fishing nets of small size, a situation which affected their food security and income.

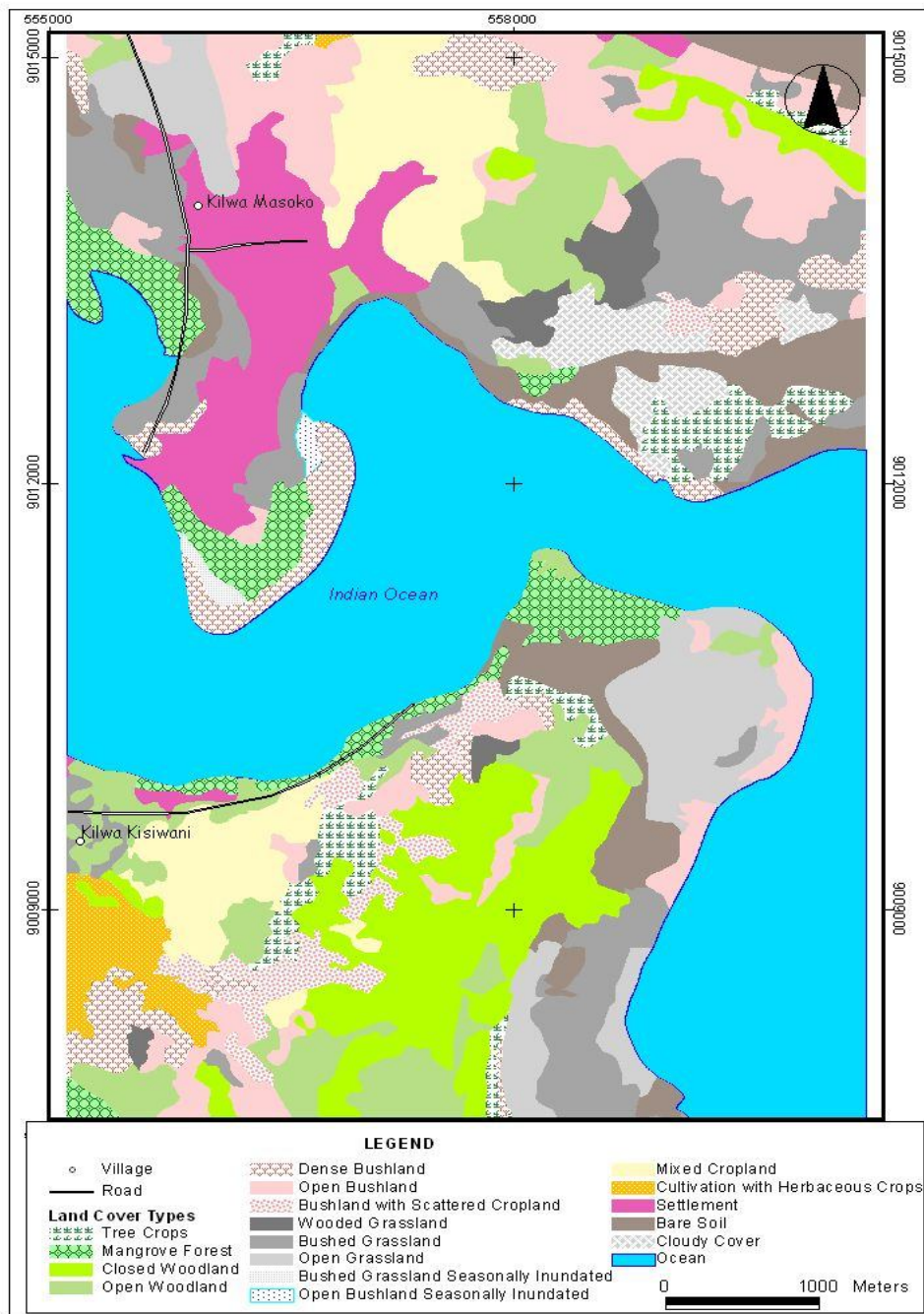


Figure 2: Land Use in Kilwa-Masoko Town in 1981
Source: Drawn by Olipa Simon, June 2010

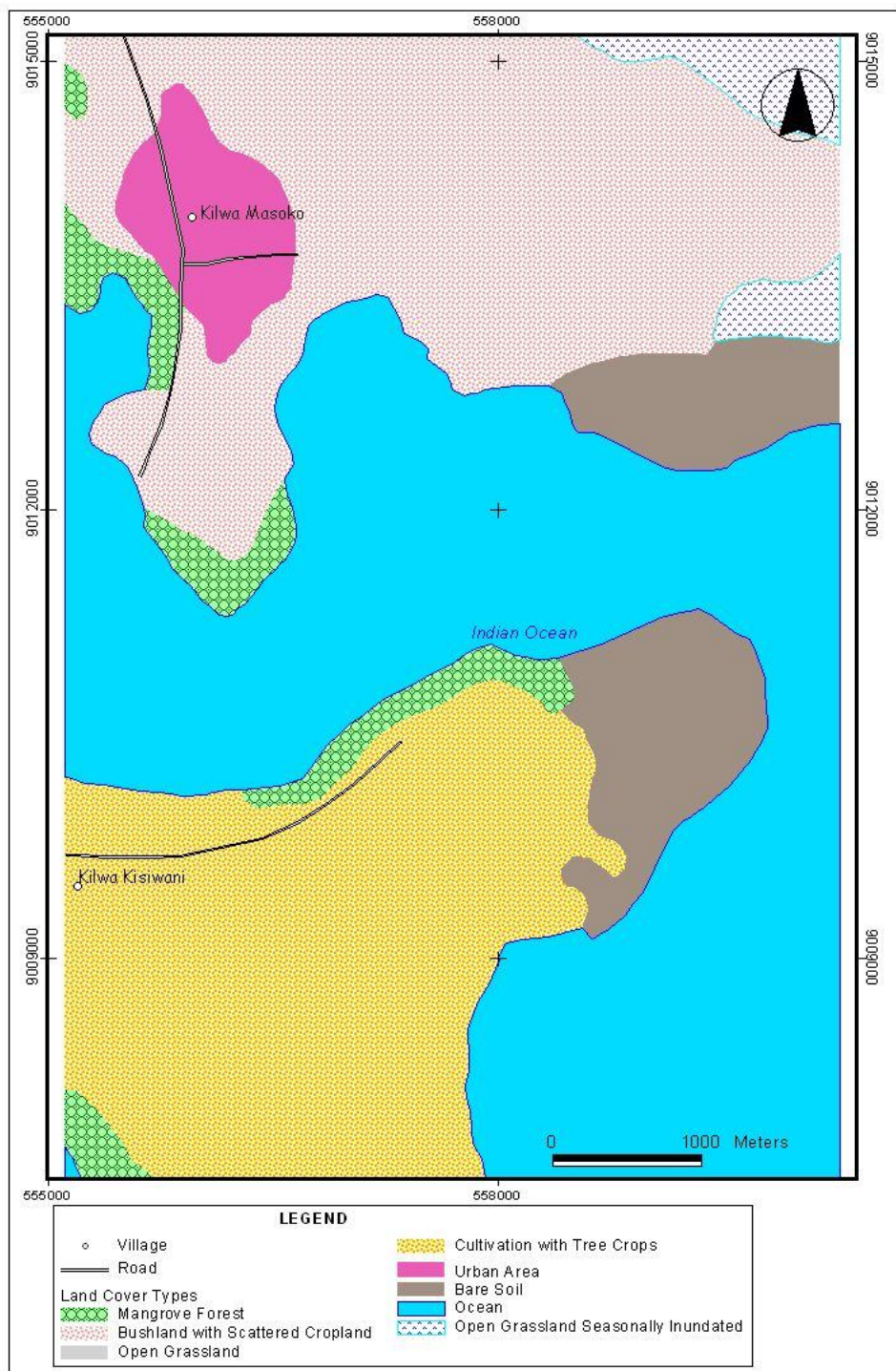


Figure 3: Land Use in Kilwa-Masoko Town in 1995

Source: Drawn by Olipa Simon

Economic Impact of Urban Development on Ununio Community

Local people in Ununio had lost most of their land to the expansion of Dar es Salaam city. There had been land use changes in 1988 when Blocks G, F and B were surveyed for low density plots. Again in 1994, Block A Boko including Ununio village was surveyed for residential plots. The consequence of those developments had been landlessness for most of Ununio residents. Similar to Kilwa-Masoko and Kaole, sub-ward leadership revealed that the community was neither consulted nor involved in deciding land allocation for new uses.

Land use changes in Ununio from 1981 to 2007 can be seen from Figure 6 and 7. It is evident from the maps that most of the former farm and bush land in Ununio had been converted into settlement area. While settled area occupied only 31 hectares in 1981, by 2007 it had expanded to 837 hectares. With time farmland had to give way to surveyed plots in 2000s. Thus, in 2007 there were no farms in Ununio other than a few scattered coconut and palm trees.

In brief, in all the three sample communities, land allocation processes were problematic and there was not fair compensation paid in time to its former occupants under customary rights. This is contrary to the Tanzania land policy (URT, 2007: 18). The policy directs that the rights of citizens in land shall not be taken away without due process of law. It adds that, consultation and consent of a Village Council will be required whenever appropriation of village lands become necessary (URT, 1997: 9). It was apparent from data obtained from focus groups and informants that this consent was never sought and government notice for developing a certain area was simply issued without considering people's land interests.

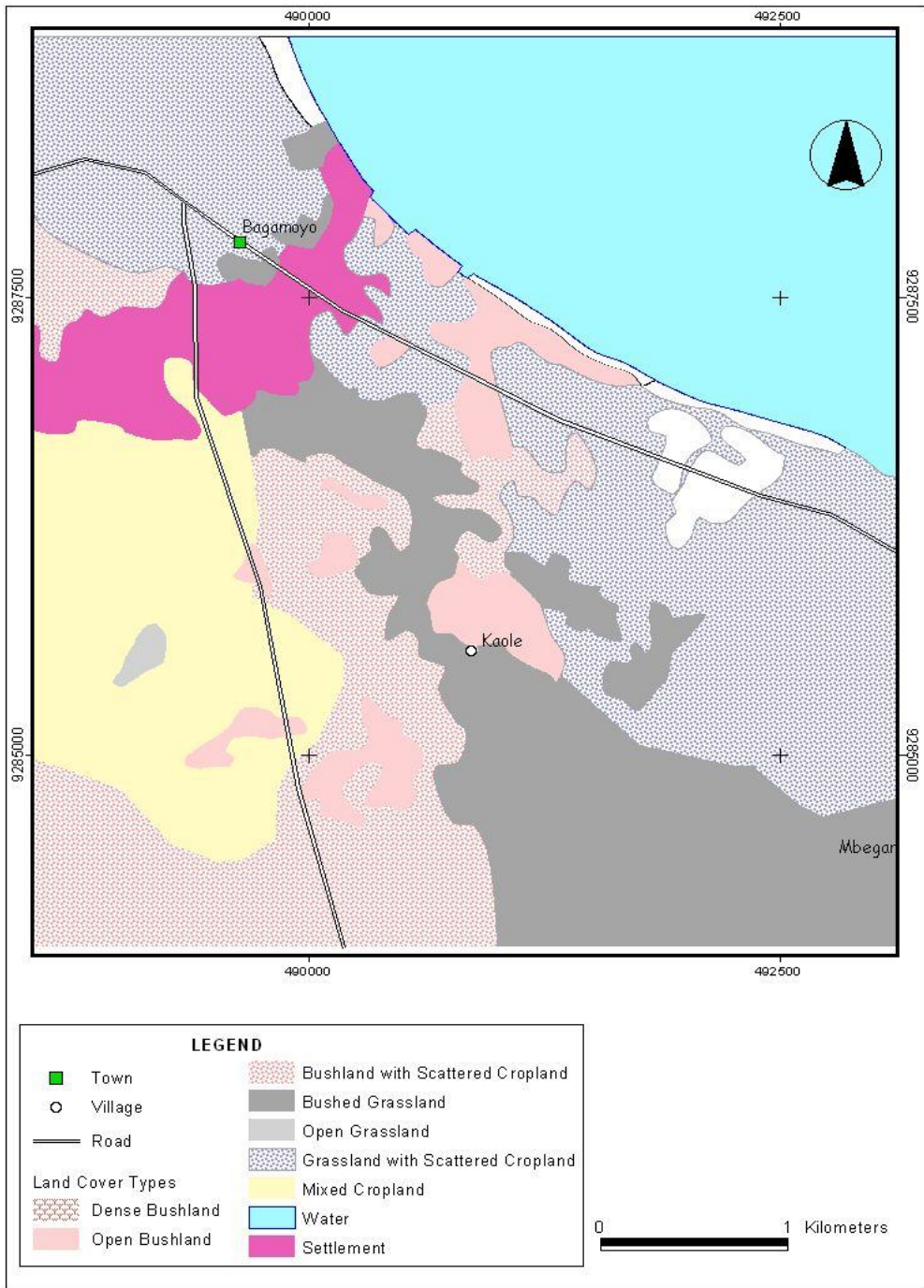


Figure 4: Land Use in Kaole near Bagamoyo Town in 1995

Source: Drawn by Olipa Simon, June 2010

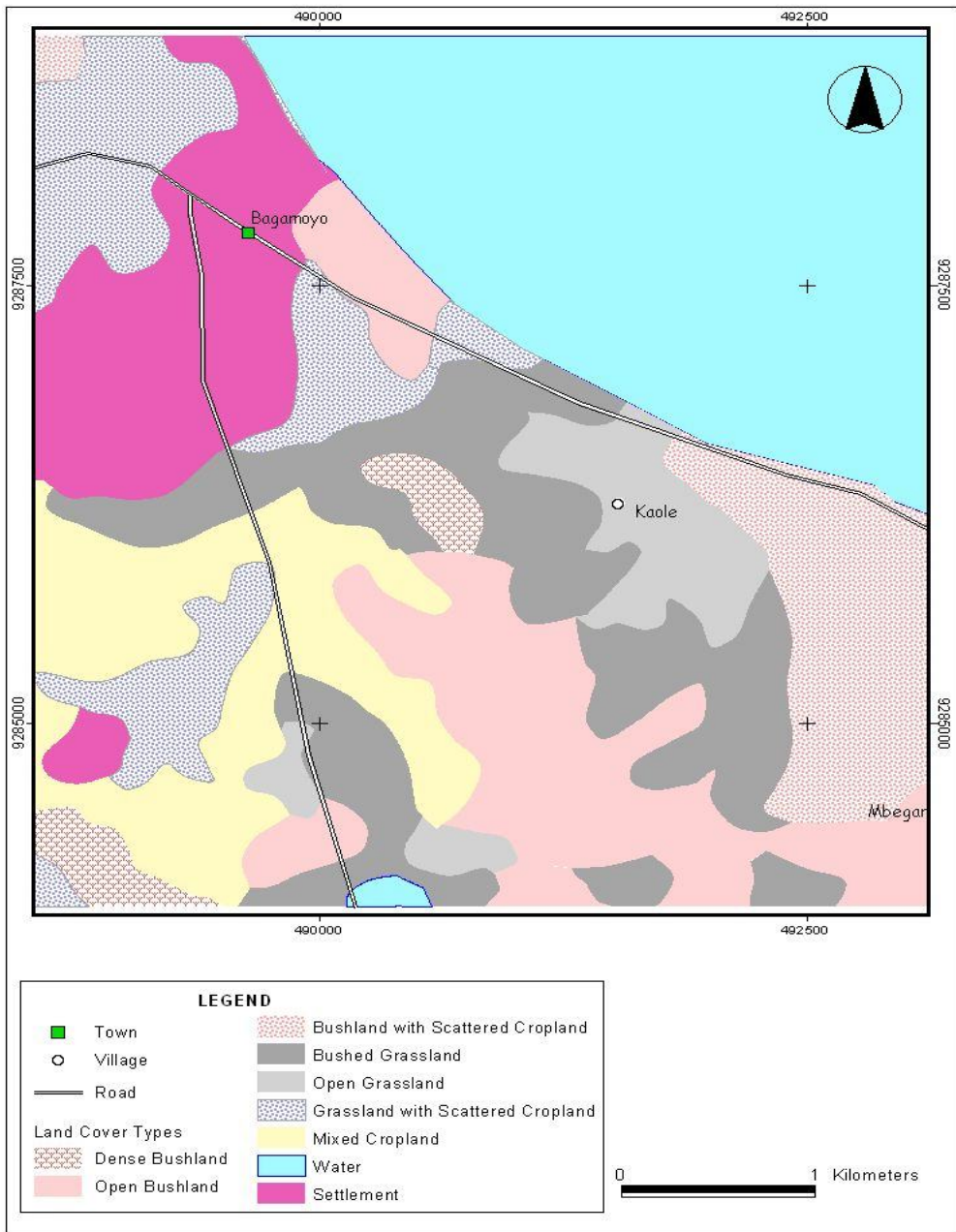


Figure 5: Land Use in Kaole in 2007
Source: Drawn by Olipa Simon, June 2010

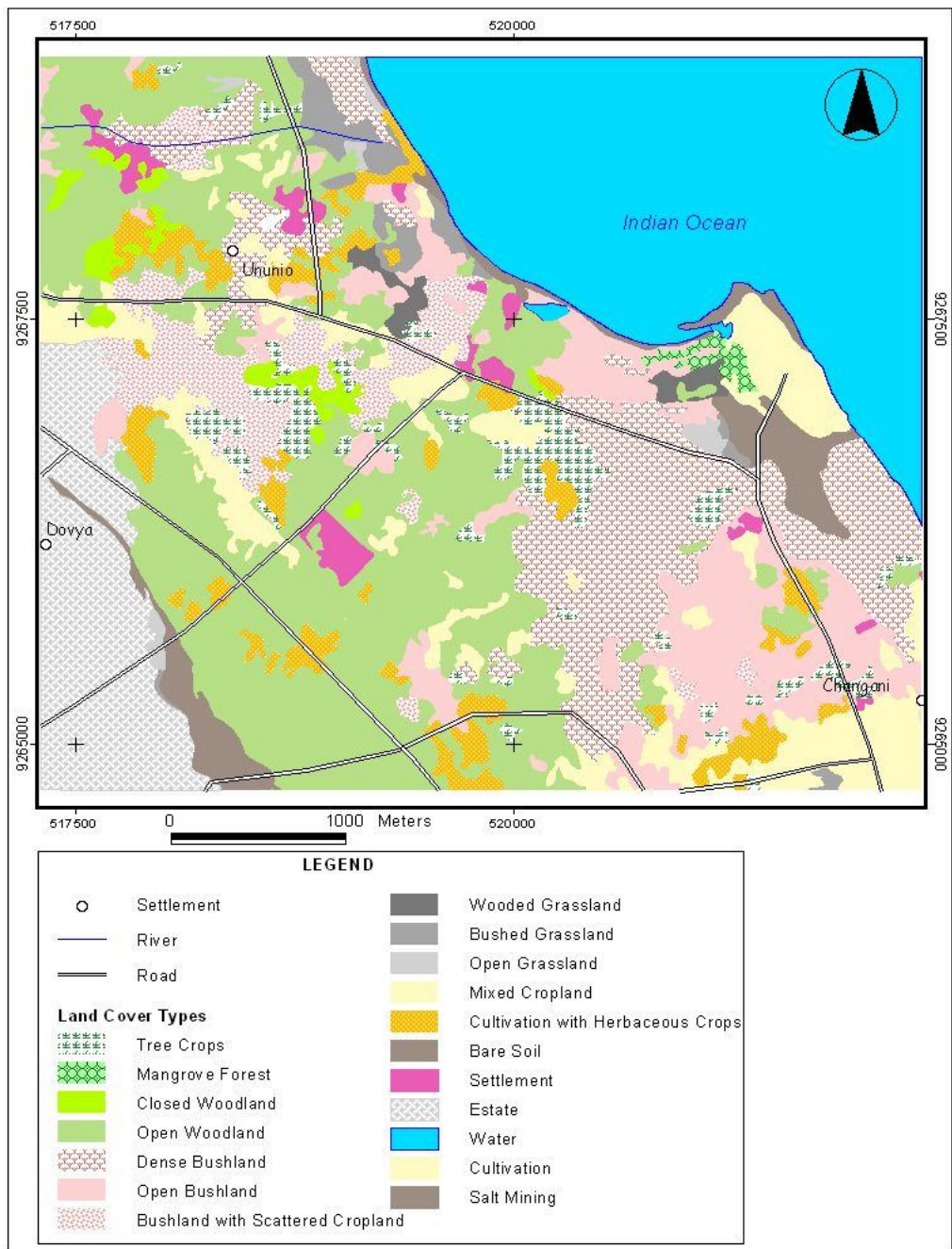


Figure 6: Land Use in Ununio in 1981
Source: Illustrated by Olipa Simon, June 2010

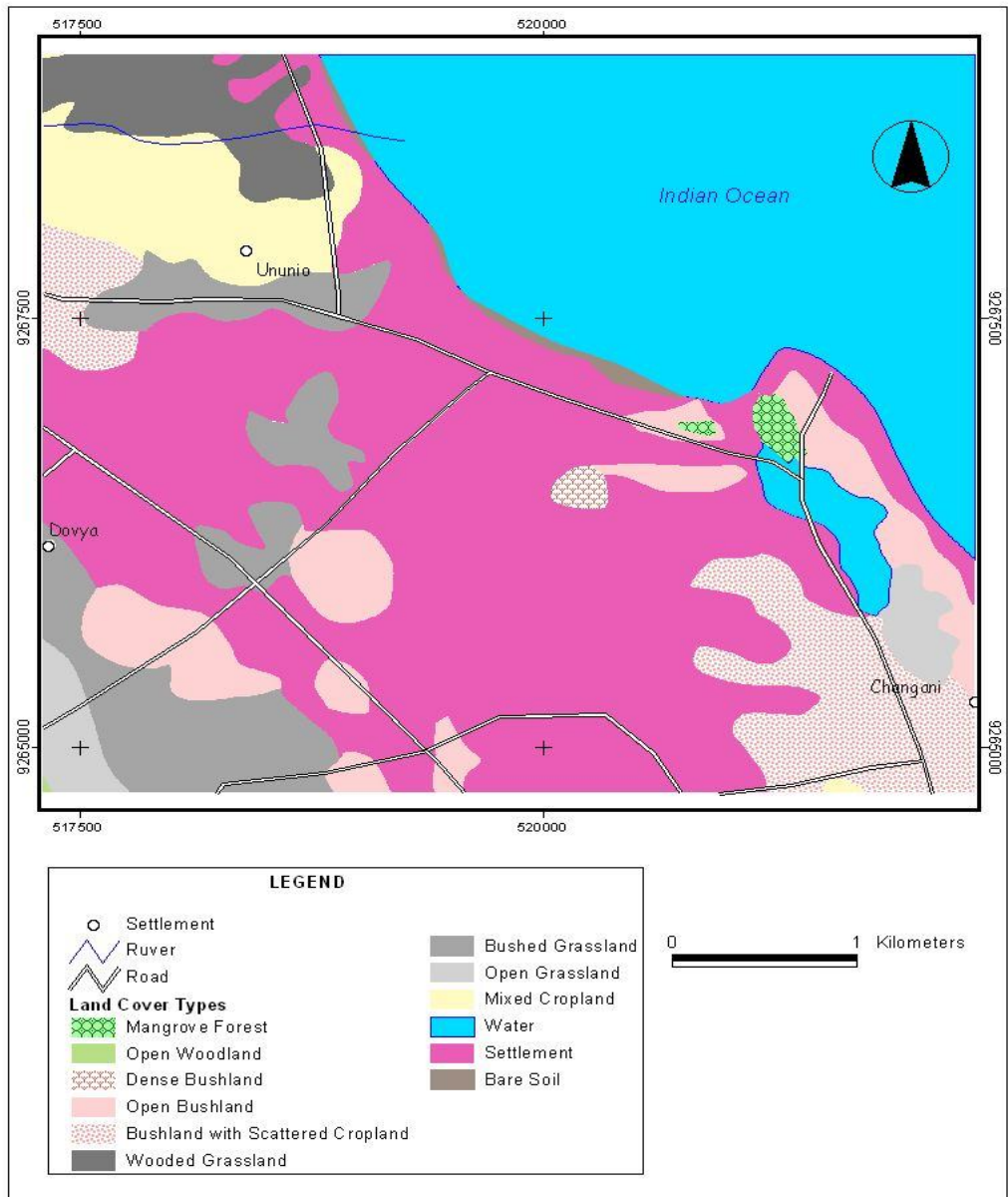


Figure 7: Land Use in Ununio in 2007
 (Source: Illustrated by Olipa Simon, June 2010)

Note: The whole coastline was settled by 2007

The same land policy clearly stipulates that, although urbanization is inevitable and desirable for the development in Tanzania, the impacts of uncontrolled expansion of towns, particularly the encroachment upon productive rural agricultural and pasture

land are not desirable (Ibid, p 25). However, many towns, in Dare es Salaam, Bagamoyo and Kilwa-Masoko inclusive, have continued to develop laterally encroaching on arable land rather than developing vertically. The implication of this is that principles of transparency, accountability, equality and non-discrimination were not adequately enforced in land allocation processes.

Social Impact of Urban Development

The National Development Vision 2025 envisages having a well-educated and learning society since a skilled and knowledgeable human capital is vital for sustainable development (URT, 1999b: 2-5). Moreover, Article 13 of the International Covenant on Economic Social and Cultural Rights provides for a right to education (Brownlie, 2002: 201; LHRC, 2008: 52). Results show that formal education attainment in the study area was very low. About two third of the heads of household had attained primary education and one fifth had no formal education. Only 6.6% of them had secondary education. None in the sample had attained tertiary education. Similarly, more than three quarters (85%) of wives had 4-7 years of primary education while only 10% of them had no formal education. Low level of formal education affects contraception acceptance. This could partly explain the high fertility rates observed in the sample communities, where 41.4% of the households had four or more living children. The low level of formal education achievement among the respondents could have profound affects on their access to both formal-sector and self-employment and hence income.

Food insecurity was another social impact resulting from urban development pressure. After losing means of subsistence, poor households due to low income could not afford to buy sufficient food, and about three quarters (78%) of households involved in crop cultivation were unable to produce enough food for their own consumption. This situation could hamper the ability to escape the poverty trap and hence unable to reduce absolute poverty by 50% by 2010 and eradicate it by 2025 (URT, 1998b: 20-28).

Low incomes also affected local people's access to adequate shelter. Despite the fact that more than three quarters (80.0%) of the heads of household were living in their own houses and only one fifth (20.0%) lived in rented premises, an assessment of houses by observation revealed that close to three quarters (73.3%) of the houses were sub-standard. Very good and good houses made up only a quarter (26.3%) of houses. Many poor and very poor houses had walls made of poles and mud, thatched with grass (coconut palm leaves) and had earthen floors. Most of the sub-standard houses were found in Kaole community (see Table 2 and Figure 8). This could be attributed to the fact that people in the community had very low incomes and thus unable to buy better building materials.

Table 2: General Assessment of Houses

Name of Community	General assessment of the house					Total
	Very good	Good	Satisfactory	Poor	Very poor	
KAOLE	4(2.7%)	5(3.3%)	11(7.3%)	16(10.7%)	14(9.3%)	50(33.3%)
UNUNIO	4(2.7%)	10(6.7%)	33(22.0%)	3(2.0%)	0(0.0%)	50(33.3%)
KILWA MASOKO	1(0.6%)	16(10.7%)	12(8.0%)	13(8.7%)	8(5.3%)	50(33.3%)
Total	9(6.0%)	31(20.7%)	56(37.30%)	32(21.3%)	22(14.7%)	150(100%)

Source: This Survey, October to December 2008

Generally there was poor access of households to good quality housing, education, adequate incomes and food. This means that, urban development has not significantly contributed to the social and economic development of local people in the study areas.

With regard to positive impacts, only a third (33.3%) of the heads of household viewed urban development as having resulted in social benefits such as improved participation in decision making, improved nutrition and infrastructure particularly in Ununio and Kilwa-Masoko as explained below.



Figure 8A Street in Kaole at the outskirts of Bagamoyo Town

Source: Photo taken by Researchers, November 2008

Social Impacts of Urban Development on Kaole Community

The village had important social services such as a primary school, a secondary school, a deep well for water supply with a pump, electricity supply and a maram road to Bagamoyo town. The road was in a poor condition. Kaole women talking in focus group discussions expressed that they did not see any social benefits from

urban development. They claimed that urban expansion into their area had contributed to food insecurity.

Social Impact of Urban Development on Ununio Community

Ununio was incorporated into Kinondoni Municipality in Dar es Salaam city since 2004. After most of the land was acquired by government for low density residential development, the local people were concentrated in a small area (about 200 square metres) where they were given high density plots. Consequently, the immediate negative social impact they experienced was population congestion.

The sub-ward had electricity supply, and a primary school which was poorly furnished. There was a shortage of desks, benches and text books. There was no secondary school. Nonetheless, there was reliable tap water supply in the sub-ward. However, due to the absence of public water points, households which had no water supply had to buy a bucket of 20 litres of water for 30/- (\$ 0.3) from those who had tap water. This means that access to adequate water depended on ones ability to pay for it. The majority who earned small incomes could not afford spending much money on water. This situation exposed them to sanitation hazards. Other social services present included a dispensary which was short of drugs most of the time and a modern fish market which during the survey was yet to be operational.

The road to the sub-ward (old Bagamoyo road) was not tarmarced, and not well maintained. There was no public transport. There were also no garbage collection services in the area. In effect, people did not experience the advantages of being incorporated into an urban place.

Social Impact of Urban Development on Kilwa-Masoko Community

Kilwa-Masoko was comparatively well paced in terms of social services than the other two communities of Ununio and Kaole. With the development of the town, it had electricity supply though inadequate, sufficient water supply, two primary schools, one secondary school, a health centre and a market. Kilwa-Masoko had also a tarmac road which connected the town to Dar- es Salaam, Lindi and Mtwara towns. Focus group discussions rightly commended the positive impact of the road. It had already started to bring positive results by making it possible for people to take less than ten hours to travel from Kilwa-Masoko to Dar es Salaam. In the past the same trip took several days. The state had been accountable by taking measures to solve the transport problem.

In spite of the situation expressed above, one key informant reported that urban development had led to the decline in the quality of life of local people because of wide spread unemployment. Another problem which was faced by coastal local people was general insecurity. They were worried about being unceremoniously moved out of their sacred places any time because the area had been surveyed and all the coastal land was being sold to tourist investors. This practice was going against Article 17 of the Unilateral Declaration of Human Rights which provides the right to own property.

The general impression gathered from various respondents was that many residents in these communities found it difficult to earn a living because their low incomes inhibited them from affording many social services.

Cultural Impact of Urban Development

Article 27 (1) of the UDHR provides everyone the right to participate in the cultural life of the community. Assessment done on both positive and negative cultural impacts of urban development in the study area showed that a significant percentage (42.7%) of heads of household perceived that there were positive cultural benefits arising from urban development. These included cultural integration, increased division of labour and a more harmonised community where cultural differences were less important. The rest (57.3%) thought that negative impacts were overwhelming. The most pressing impacts were development of deviant social behaviours such as drug abuse, the breaking of some taboos, widespread prostitution and general change of life style including feeding patterns and habits.

Programmes Addressing Socio-economic Problems of Coastal Communities

As part of the implementation of the National Integrated Coastal Environment Management Strategy which was established in 2003, an Integrated Coastal Management action plan was established to alleviate poverty in coastal districts of Tanzania.

Development Programmes in Bagamoyo District

In order to eliminate the use of illegal fishing gear, 26 fishing groups were facilitated to purchase environmentally friendly fishing facilities such as boats, nets and engines worth Tsh. 454 million (\$324,286). In addition, awareness creation on these issues at the district level among Section Heads and Councilors was done (NEMC, 2009). The problem of declining shrimp catch was addressed by the Marine Coastal Environmental Management Project (MACEMP) and the Fisheries Division by encouraging Collaborative Fisheries Management in seven villages and closing some reefs for stock replenishment. Moreover, trawling had been stalled to allow replenishment of stock. Unfortunately, Kaole and Ununio communities were yet to benefit from the project described above. The main reason given by an officer working with MANCEMP was shortage of funds because the project depended on donations.

Development Programmes in Kilwa-Masoko

In Kilwa-Masoko efforts were made to integrate local people in the tourism industry. The Tourism Division was encouraging ecotourism and cultural tourism. The MACEMP had empowered local people in Kilwa-Masoko by conducting a three-week training of youth, both male and female, in cookery (cookies and other bites), tour guiding, embroidery and customer care. The project trained a total of 87 youths.

CONCLUSIONS

Urban development pressure had caused more negative social, economic and cultural impacts than positive ones in the study areas. The customary land rights of local occupants were not protected when declaring land for urban development. The local people were not given the opportunity to participate in the planning of new areas of urban expansion. Some people lost land to urban development but got no compensation. As a consequence, land available to local communities had been declining in size over time due to urban development. Local people also felt insecure as any time they would be ordered to move out of their areas which they have occupied customarily for years.

This situation caused three-quarters of households to face food insecurity because they had been severed from their main means of subsistence; the land and the sea. Moreover, monthly incomes in about 95% of households were low, earning not more than 200,000/= thereby inhibiting them from affording quality social services such as drinking water and health and majority could not manage to build decent houses. Therefore, urban development had not helped to reduce poverty in the study areas. This was caused by non-observation of human rights norms in the implementation of the land policy guidelines for urban development. In order for urban development to bring positive impacts in the study areas, local people's interests and their rights should be recognized by the government. The government of Tanzania should implement Human Rights and the National Land and Human Settlement Development Policy guidelines properly.

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