

DOWNLOAD PDF PERSPECTIVE ON URBAN LAND AND URBAN MANAGEMENT POLICIES IN SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA

Chapter 1 : Managing Urban Growth in Sub-Saharan Africa

Perspective on urban land and urban management policies in sub-Saharan Africa (English) Abstract. This paper addresses the problems of governance in municipalities in Africa.

Socio-economic problems facing cities in sub-Saharan Africa: Employment is particularly hard to find for unskilled rural migrants. Large numbers of school leavers of both rural and urban origin remain unemployed for many years after graduation. Some of these unemployed people find shelter with and depend on relatives. Others survive through engagement in the informal economy Obeng-Odoom This growing group becomes part of the urban poor. Urban poverty has many dimensions and causes. Its main characteristics are deprivation and exclusion. In the anonymous and impersonal setting of cities, poverty has dimensions of both material and psychological deprivation. The growing numbers of the urban poor find insecure shelter in overcrowded slums where lack of water and sanitation, electricity, employment, security and social inclusion are the norm Berger Other features of urban poverty include hunger, poor health due to nutritional deficiencies and unhealthy living conditions as well as limited access to school and health services. Survival has become the major concern of the urban poor. Women and children are often the most vulnerable. One consequence of escalating urban poverty is the growing number of street children in African cities. While some of these children have homes and families but survive by begging or casual work, many have been deserted or orphaned and have no alternative but to live on the street. Their survival is tremendously precarious, and, without schooling, they have little hope for any meaningful future and are extraordinarily vulnerable to abuse. For many, prostitution and crime are the only means to survive. In post-conflict countries street children are one of the most visible legacies of armed conflict. In particular, child soldiers, who are often alienated, traumatized and habituated into violence, present a daunting challenge Rakisits The growth and development of the informal or parallel economy has become an inseparable part of urbanisation in Sub-Saharan countries. Some estimates indicate that in the region, the informal economy and the opportunity it provides for employment will grow at an annual rate of 7 per cent whereas jobs created by the formal economy will likely only increase at a rate of 2 to 3 per cent per year Todaro The informal economy employs 60 per cent on average of the urban workforce in Sub-Saharan Africa, but it accounts for less than one quarter of the urban economic growth output. In countries such as the Democratic Republic of the Congo DRC , it may provide urban employment for as much as 80 per cent of the workforce. The International Labor Organization ILO reported in June that 3 to 4 million Zimbabweans earned their living through informal sector employment, supporting another 5 million, while the formal sector employed about 1. Productivity in the informal economy is low, and a considerable proportion of the urban workforce employed in the sector represents disguised unemployment. Other distinguishing features of the informal economy include: Women are active participants in the informal economy. In some instances, poor women who lack other employment opportunities often resort to operating as commercial sex workers, exposing themselves to danger of disease, abuse and otherwise exacerbating their vulnerability. The growth and development of the informal or parallel economy has become an inseparable part of urbanisation in Sub-Saharan African countries today. Furthermore, regardless of the large number of participants, it does not generate the levels of income, investment or public revenues needed to address the problems faced by most cities. The realities of the informal economy mean that many municipal authorities are faced with a dilemma regarding informal economic actors. While they recognize that informal sector activities are the only means of livelihood for many of the urban poor, local governments are often also concerned about the contribution of such activities to other urban problems. As a result, their response has been to either largely ignore the informal sector or to resort to periodic campaigns targeting their activities. Rising crime and human insecurity Cities all over the world are plagued by both random and organised criminal operations, and Africa is no exception. Ensuring public security and enforcing the rule of law is one of the key urban governance challenges facing African

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countries. In many instances, crime and violence act as a significant deterrent to investment and in some cities large areas have become literally ungovernable. Although provision of security is one of the fundamental responsibilities of the state, this aspect has not always received sufficient political attention. Prior to democratisation, the protection of citizens was not a high priority for the majority of authoritarian governments. Over the years, the incidences of crime and the degree of violence have increased tremendously in a number of African cities. Crime and violence increasingly accompany deprivation Kessides Therefore, the general problems of poverty and social exclusion within urban areas, extreme weaknesses of national police and justice systems and absence of trust between communities and local governments compound the challenge of increasing insecurity. Many cities experience a wide range of criminal activities ranging from the petty to the armed and organized. Theft is the most common crime, but some criminal gangs have graduated to drug trafficking and money laundering. Crime is also facilitated by the anonymous character of the big city, and by such institutional weaknesses as poor pay and inadequate training of police, and by deficiencies in essential infrastructure such as streetlights. Women, the elderly and the weak are easy victims of all kinds of crime. Urban insecurity is, however, not limited to these vulnerable groups. Insecurity is widespread and felt by a high proportion of citizens. In response to the growing threat of armed robbery and the inability of the police to provide adequate protection, relatively well-to-do individuals and many businesses are engaging private security firms. In some cities, citizens are organising themselves into neighborhood self-protection groups, and in extreme cases, as vigilantes. These vigilante groups and private security firms sometimes replace the law and authority of government agencies both at the municipal and national levels. In addition to the direct effects of insecurity on people, crime and insecurity hamper new investment and expansion of existing business. In order for African cities to be able to attract new investment and retain existing businesses, it is imperative that crime be combated, and overall safety and public security be restored. Infrastructure and services Amidst widespread threat of crime, many of the urban poor are forced to live in situations of extreme human insecurity, sheltered in informal settlements usually on the outskirts of cities, as a result of the shortage of affordable housing. Cognizant of the fact that these settlements are usually illegal, the official response has often been to try to destroy them or force inhabitants to leave. This operation began in the capital, Harare, but quickly developed into a deliberate nationwide campaign, destroying what the government termed illegal vending sites, structures and other informal business premises and homes, resulting in the displacement of hundreds of people UN-HABITAT The operation involved the bulldozing, smashing and burning of structures housing thousands of poor urban dwellers. This example must be understood within the broader context of the urbanisation crisis in Africa. The social, economic and political circumstances in which the operation took place were not specific to Zimbabwe. They share many common aspects with historical and present trends of the rapid and chaotic urbanisation occurring in many African countries and cities Obeng-Odoom To maximise the benefits of urban life, as well as to minimize the adverse effects of living in close proximity to and in slums, adequate and efficient essential services must be assured. Urban planning must determine the appropriate separation of residential from industrial quarters. It must also incorporate infrastructure for transport, communication, and other essential utilities including the supply of electricity, water, and the disposal of sewage and other waste. On the social side, municipalities need to provide facilities for various levels of education and health services. While some services such as telecommunications and utilities may be more efficiently provided by private enterprises, social services in particular will continue to be the responsibility of public authorities. In theory, the concentration of urban settlements should make it more economical and feasible to provide all these essential services. In practice however, due to financial limitations and capacity constraints, most African cities are incapable of providing basic services to their citizens. Responsibility for some of these services is either shared or exclusively the preserve of central governments. Problems of inadequacy, inefficiency and deterioration of services are rampant. With regard to transport, communications and other utilities, the gap between demand and supply is widening in many cities. Existing facilities are poorly maintained, and investments in expanded service delivery are constrained by lack

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of financing. As a result, traffic congestion, inadequate public transport, crumbling roads, intermittent and unreliable electricity, poor telecommunications and insufficient water supply are becoming the norm rather than the exception, even in affluent areas of cities. In some cities, bribery has become commonplace as a means to forestall arbitrary interruption of utility services Newsday In general, lack of adequate infrastructure ranks high among the most basic impediments to economic growth in most Sub-Saharan African countries United Nations However, poor infrastructure in cities affects the economic performance of the private sector as well as the living conditions of citizens. The increase of slums means that hundreds of thousands of people live in appalling housing structures and without facilities like sewerage, electricity, water or paved roads World Bank For example, in Harare the influx of people exerted mounting pressure on the Harare Municipality for the supply of amenities such as housing, clinics, transport, health facilities and water and sewage infrastructure. The shortage of housing compelled impoverished urban arrivals to construct illegal shelters leading to increasing shanty dwellings in the city Colquhoun Emblematic of these challenges are other cities such as Lagos, Nairobi, Kumasi, Maputo and Luanda, amongst others. The continuance of rural habits by large numbers of people unaccustomed to living in an urban environment, together with lack of maintenance, has further contributed to the decay of physical infrastructure in cities. This has undermined overall human security and the attainment of sustainable development. The picture with respect to social services is not much different. The high rate of growth of urban settlements has had many consequences for social services such as education, health and care for the poor and elderly. In many countries, governments have been unable to cope with the rising demand for social services. The basic cause of this inability is often the disparity between the growth of the urban population and the availability of public resources. In some countries, the consequences of this mismatch have been exacerbated by policy choices, which give low priority to the social sectors as compared to other areas of public expenditure, including national security. In most instances, funds are lacking for new investments in schools and medical facilities. Often, sufficient funds are not allocated for the necessary maintenance and running of existing facilities. The overall result is overcrowded classrooms, lack of educational materials, poorly trained and poorly paid teachers, and lack of medicines and other medical supplies. The quality of service continues to decline in many countries, further exacerbating the breakdown of social capital and overall human security. Furthermore, the HIV-AIDS epidemic increases health expenditures at the individual, municipal and national levels, thereby diverting resources that could have been used for industrial investment. Social services are further affected as many health personnel, teachers and students comprise a significant proportion of those who are infected and dying in increasing numbers. Additionally, many of these professionals enjoy extended leave or give up work to care for the infected family members. HIV-AIDS is a major killer, reducing life expectancy, leaving orphans and generally eroding traditional mechanisms of social protection. It is also reducing productivity and incomes, hence affecting overall sustainable economic development capability. Prospects and opportunities There exist many opportunities for countries in Sub-Saharan Africa to strengthen service delivery and thereby redress the challenge of human insecurity. Developing employment options High rates of unemployment and limited economic opportunities have created a potentially explosive social problem in many African cities, especially given the particularly high levels of youth unemployment Eguavoen As a consequence, generating economic growth and employment have become development imperatives for urban areas throughout the continent. To accomplish this will require significant expansion of the formal private sector, which remains underdeveloped in most African countries. It will also require the encouragement and facilitation of much higher levels of private investment.

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Chapter 2 : Perspective on Urban Land and Urban Management Policies in Sub-Saharan Africa

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Select this link to see the table of contents for this issue. Select this link to order this issue of ATF. Efforts to deal with these problems, however, have been handicapped by a real failure to understand their nature and possible remedies. Conventional wisdom views the people of this region as highly irresponsible toward the environment and looks to the international community to save them from themselves. Yet, there is no conclusive evidence that Africans have been particularly oblivious to the quality of the environment, nor has the international community shown any genuine concern for it until recently. Clearly, protecting the environment of Sub-Saharan Africa is an issue that needs to be examined more carefully and incorporated into an overall strategy of sustainable economic development. Formulating such a strategy will not be easy: In the closing years of the 20th century, virtually every country in this region is slipping on almost every index of development. The heady post-independence period of the 1950s and early 1960s, when development was considered simply a matter of following a plan formulated by Western experts, has now been succeeded by a time of fiscal crises and international marginalization. The region now finds itself afflicted the consequences of inappropriate policies, as well as by almost endemic political instability, an inability to manage its economies effectively, and an increasingly hostile external economic milieu. As simple survival has become more problematical, it has become increasingly difficult to avoid overexploiting natural resources and degrading the environment. Analysts are now concerned that this will compromise the prospects for sustainable development in the near future. This will permit a detailed investigation of the environmental problems caused by humans in both rural and urban areas, along with a suggestive comparison between those problems and ones caused solely by nature. It will then be possible to look at the question of environmental protection in terms of sustainable development in the region and to suggest the roles that the state and international assistance ought to play. The present situation offers an important opportunity to redirect development strategy in ways that will not only improve the social and economic well-being of people in this region but also enhance the quality of the environment in which they live. Factors Predisposing to Environmental Degradation Three factors strongly increase the threat of environmental degradation in sub-Saharan Africa: Throughout the region, the end of the colonial period saw a tremendous expansion of social services, especially in the areas of education and health care. This led to a sharp decline in infant mortality and to a rapid increase in population. During the last 25 years, annual growth rates of 2. An increase of this magnitude within a relatively short time span implies a rising proportion of children in the population and thus a heavier burden on those who must care for them. This has led to mass migration to the cities particularly by adult males and other efforts to supplement family income through non-farm employment. As a result, there has been less time for farm work, and more labor-saving but environmentally harmful shortcuts are being taken. In forested areas, for instance, cleared land is used continuously, even though allowing it to lie fallow from time to time would result in greater productivity and less degradation. In dryland regions, cultivation has been extended into marginal lands that are more easily cleared and cultivated. Turning to the second factor, countries in sub-Saharan Africa incurred large foreign debts in their efforts to industrialize and to provide their rapidly growing populations with modern social services. Most of these loans have been long-term ones from official sources and on concessional terms; as the need for borrowing has become more urgent, however, countries have turned increasingly to private, short-term loans at market rates. High dependence on the export of primary products left sub-Saharan African countries vulnerable to the long decline of commodity prices that began in the 1970s. For some countries the decline has been even more pronounced. Between 1970 and 1980, the total external debt rose from 27 percent to 97 percent of gross national product and from 97 percent to percent of exports. This has entailed not

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only a drastic compression of imports and a sharp devaluation of national currencies but also the retrenchment of a sizable portion of the wage- and salary-earning population. As living conditions deteriorated, more people turned to survival agriculture, both in urban and rural areas. At the same time, sharply rising prices for imported energy products forced many families to fall back on wood and charcoal for their domestic energy needs. Clearly, these developments put acute strain on the environment everywhere in the region. The performance of most African governments in implementing the reforms necessary to turn their economies around has also been a source of serious concern. The international community spent the years immediately following independence rationalizing and sometimes applauding the necessity for authoritarian one-party or military rule. In most countries, this has led to a high level of political instability and social alienation that has impaired both development efforts and environmental protection. There is a growing realization that economic reforms cannot be achieved without a much greater degree of decentralization and democratization in the political process. There is no question that poverty has become widespread. The World Bank estimates that between 1980 and 1990, the number of persons living below the poverty line will rise from 100 million to 150 million. For neo-Malthusians, this poverty stems directly from overpopulation; in their view, the two will inevitably lead to an increase in land fragmentation, over-utilization of agricultural and grazing land, more frequent famines, lower life expectancy, and considerable environmental degradation. In their view, population growth can promote more intensive agricultural practices and induce more favorable attitudes toward technological and organizational innovation that will not only increase productivity but improve environmental quality as well. First, over the period 1960 to 1980, this region lost a large part of its population to internecine warfare and the slave trade. As a result, by 1980 the region was more sparsely populated than it had been earlier. This is not to imply that there is no cause for concern about the environment in sub-Saharan Africa. The Potential For Sustainable Development Three points stand out clearly from this review of environmental challenges in the rapidly growing but poor countries of sub-Saharan Africa. Nowhere is this last point more true than in the attempt to explain environmental degradation in terms of population growth. This Malthusian argument depends on there being a "carrying capacity" beyond which the environment will inevitably suffer. But as already pointed out, in most of sub-Saharan Africa the population density is relatively low. Furthermore, some prime agricultural lands are clearly "undersettled," while areas less suited to agriculture are densely populated. A recent study of the relationships among population growth and density, the intensification of agriculture, and the implications for sustainability offers some useful insights on this issue. In all of these areas, the study found that "contrary to much conventional wisdom that portrays the African smallholders as wrecking their physical resources, particularly in the face of land-intensive conditions. Contrary to conventional wisdom, detailed field investigations in Nigeria have found that the rising demand for fuelwood has not led to greater deforestation or desertification. Far from "overcutting their trees," farmers have been maintaining their tree stocks by planting and by protecting spontaneous seedlings. The area studied showed "2. These have only occurred under three special circumstances, however: Indeed, decreases in well-being indicated by reduced food availability are attributable not to rapid population growth but to the persistence of customary land tenure arrangements, misguided macroeconomic policies, and inadequate infrastructure. According to the World Commission on Environment and Development, chaired by Gro Harlem Brundtland in 1987, sustainable development is "a process of change in which the exploitation of resources, the direction of investments, the orientation of technological development, and institutional change are in harmony emphasis added and enhance both current and future potential to meet human needs and aspirations. Colonialism attempted to shift the economies of these countries from a precapitalist mode of production based largely on kinship relations into a global capitalist mode based on "commoditized" factors of production whose prices were subject to the forces of supply and demand in a self-regulating market. Though praiseworthy in many ways, these efforts failed signally in the one major area where they could have made a real difference: By and large, colonial administrators left the traditional patterns intact, thus introducing a major contradiction into the development process. While capitalism requires well-established individual property rights, most smallholders in sub-Saharan Africa have

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no such rights, even though they have long-standing rights to the use of communal land. Smallholders thus have no "economic assets" in the conventional sense of the term. When one considers the heavy investment that went into producing the polders of the Netherlands or the wheatlands of North America, the disability under which African farmers labor becomes readily apparent. Consequently, much as colonial and post-colonial governments tried to make farmers more market oriented, the fact that one of their major inputs lies outside the market system has always limited the success of this effort. In many cases, farmers have chosen simply to "opt out" of the system, especially now that governments make little attempt to ensure that they receive fair prices for their output. Other aspects of the macroeconomic policies pursued by most African governments simply served to deepen the poverty under which the majority of their rural populations labored and exacerbated the negative impact of their activities on the environment. The Roles of the State and International Assistance It is clear that the environmental challenges in sub-Saharan Africa are more complex than the simple model linking environmental degradation to population growth and inappropriate macroeconomic policies indicates. Because of this complexity, no easy solutions are available. The state can play an important role in promoting sustainable development and improving the environment. By setting the correct investment priorities, it can provide needed infrastructure, services, education. In urban areas, it should focus on providing safe water, collecting and disposing solid waste, and improving the physical layout of congested areas; in the rural areas, it should focus on health, education, and basic sanitation. Regulatory measures, however, may be more important than public investment. For example, setting strict standards for indoor air pollution when most people cannot afford less-polluting energy sources simply makes enforcement impossible. Regulatory measures should also aim to remove those distortions in the economy that tend to penalize producers or promote overconsumption. Important examples include underpricing agricultural commodities and subsidizing public goods and services, both of which favor the urban population. Such distortions, of course, are partly responsible for the economic collapse of many countries in sub-Saharan Africa. Conservation measures have been important in protecting most natural resources from excessive use or degradation. Through its power of eminent domain, the state has been able to set aside sizable tracts of land to protect watersheds, prevent soil erosion, allow natural regeneration to take place, and preserve habitats, species, and biodiversity. In , there were public reserves or parks in sub-Saharan Africa, totaling Simply setting land aside, however, does not mean being able to manage it properly. Many governments in the region lack the staff or financial resources to administer their protected areas, much less invest in new ones. Innovative strategies, such as involving private groups and non governmental organizations, are being considered and may provide another option for conservation management. Such groups are believed to be better able to raise funds to purchase land, to support conservation activities in existing parks and reserves, to incorporate the local population in management decisions, and to negotiate land-use disputes within and between communities. Important as public investment, regulation, and conservation are, however, it is institutional development that offers the most hope for alleviating poverty and protecting the environment. Three aspects of institutional development are paramount: Decentralization and democratization must go down to the community level and must entail not only giving people a voice in decisions but also ensuring that they can raise the revenue necessary to translate their desires into reality. This will promote transparency and accountability in government and foster a proprietary interest in the quality of the environment. The importance of expanding property rights was made clear earlier. Although it is often claimed that land tenure in sub-Saharan Africa is so complex that nothing can be done about it, it is difficult to believe that meaningful reforms cannot be introduced. The most serious mistake that many governments made was to resort to nationalization. When land and water have been nationalized and sound management practices disturbed, the environmental consequences have often been severe. In the process, they have accumulated valuable information that should be incorporated into a formal analyses of sustainable development. This is necessary to correct the hallowed but mistaken notions of conventional wisdom and to give governments in the region better appreciation of the causes and effects of environmental damage as well as the costs and benefits of

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different policy options. In this regard, independent commissions provide a useful way for governments to draw on technical expertise both within and outside of their countries; they can also be instrumental in bringing the results of advanced research to bear on local problems. As mentioned earlier, current knowledge of the ecology of tropical forests and grasslands is still rudimentary. Given the shortage of funds and trained personnel in most sub-Saharan African countries, this is an area where bilateral and multilateral assistance could make a real difference. The Convention on Biological Diversity, signed by countries at the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development UNCED in Rio de Janeiro, is correct in insisting that tropical countries be compensated for protecting biological diversity from which others benefit. If such compensation became the order of the day, some of it should be used to finance further study of tropical ecosystems. Poor countries in sub-Saharan Africa could also use international assistance in reforming their environmental laws and in selecting optimal strategies for environmental management.

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Chapter 3 : The Urban Crisis in Sub-Saharan Africa: A Threat to Human Security and Sustainable Development

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Findings reports on ongoing operational, economic and sector work carried out by the World Bank and its member governments in the Africa Region. It is published periodically by the Africa Technical Department on behalf of the Region. This study, *Perspective on Urban Land and Urban Management policies in Sub-Saharan Africa*, proposes the need for a new perspective in looking at the problem of urban land management in the context of urban development in Sub-Saharan Africa. In cities of Sub-Saharan Africa, land transactions occur for residential home construction on a large scale, yet the State has developed little capacity for recording these transactions. Moreover, it is hardly able to issue and register titles to these land holdings, or to appropriate revenue for needed urban infrastructural development from these land assets. The problem can be resolved through a strategy of that capitalizes on institutions and processes of land management with which the population is familiar and to which it is likely to relate. The introductory chapter reviews the efforts of the World Bank in dealing with the urban land problem. It identifies three broad phases as far as Sub-Saharan Africa is concerned. The second was the period to about when the interest shifted to the need of the urban poor and low income groups to secure title to land in order to induce them to invest time and resources in improving their shelter. The third phase, which can roughly be dated as post, reflects the interest in "integrated" urban projects, and more recently, a serious concern with urban management. This study emphasizes how this recent concern makes the resolution of the urban land policy question more imperative than ever before. Chapter II examines the nature of the urban land policy question. It insists that if the question is properly posed, it will indicate that the issue is not whether land is being made available for urban purposes but rather whether the post-colonial states in Sub-Saharan Africa have developed the capabilities to ensure that land is properly brought to the urban land market. The chapter explores the historical background to the present situation. In the colonial period, the interests of European settlers and various strategies of domination made the administration shy away from the process of fully commoditizing and bringing land into the capital market system except for Europeans and Asians. In many colonial territories, even where the law allowed the registration of individual land holdings by Africans, the colonial administration neglected to uphold this law, primarily to deny Africans the rights to permanent residence in the city. Recognizing that traditional society had no prior experience to draw on for guidance in connection with the transformation being initiated through participation in the global capitalist system, African societies developed strategies for buying and selling land. This was particularly necessary to ensure that the large numbers of migrants to the city could provide themselves with necessary land on which to build their homes. The colonial and post-colonial State treated these adaptive reactions of society as aberrations. They described them as "customary," "informal," or "illegal," thereby excusing themselves from dealing with a process that accounts by far for the majority of land holdings in African cities. Chapter III investigates how these adaptive processes came about and suggests how the State can overcome them if its capabilities to manage the modern African city effectively are enhanced. It describes the structure of the pre-colonial and pre-industrial city in Africa and points out the importance of quarters, wards, and neighborhoods in ensuring effective participation in governance in those days. It indicates how, in spite of colonial indifference and disregard for this internal structure of African cities, the system survived and has continued to serve as an "informal" model for new suburban development. In the case of Greater Khartoum in the Sudan, for instance, the chapter illustrates how much this system has been used by urban residents to meet the needs for various services. Yet, because neither the colonial nor the post-colonial administration paid much attention to strengthening these neighborhood institutions, their potential has hardly been recognized for enhancing the effective management of the modern African city, including land management. The chapter suggests that decentralized institutions provide opportunity to service many vital purposes of urban administration including land management. It observes that the traditional land tenure

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systems all over Africa are basically simple, having been predicated on kinship links. Complexity was introduced with the massive mobility of population, set in motion by colonialism and by the growth of a free market economy. This complexity is the product partly of the adaptive responses of African societies to the novel situation of rapid urbanization, and partly of various devices of colonial administration to exclude the Africans from having a permanent stake in living in the city. By the time of independence, freehold tenure had come to be seen as a European device to expropriate African land. Thus, although in all countries there had always been recognized land in the public domain and the right of the State to acquire more land for public purposes had never been challenged, it is remarkable that, especially between 1960 and 1980, as many as twenty countries of Sub-Saharan Africa accounting for nearly 75 percent of the total population of the region decided to nationalize their land and offer citizens only leasehold rights of varying duration. Nationalization, however, was largely a legislative measure and not one to expedite the issuance of appropriate titles even for those leaseholds. This development, to the extent that it tried to substitute administrative processes for allocation through the free market system to which the society was already responding, must, to that extent, be considered retrograde. Chapter V examines the various urban land management systems. The chapter reviews the traditional land management system in pre-colonial urban centers using the capital of the Basuto Kingdom as an example. The role of ward chiefs is strongly underscored as well as the clarity of traditional land policy objectives. The latter sought simply to ensure, to all families, access to land for residential, cultivation and grazing purposes. This clarity of policy goals contrasts sharply with the ambiguity and incoherence surrounding present land policies in most countries. The result is the difficulty in effectively managing urban land processes in most Sub-Saharan African countries. This explains the poor state of development of both geodetic and land surveys, the complete absence of cadastres in many cities, and the incomplete institutional development with respect to land titles and land registration. The provision of fiscal and legal cadastres for African cities must now be seen as a compelling necessity if the present confused situation is not to be perpetuated indefinitely. It is recognized that developing a cadastre is a time-consuming and costly task. A strategy, is therefore, presented for undertaking this task in stages. The first stage is the production of what has been called a "halfway" cadastre using relatively inexpensive modern methods such as large-scale aerial photography with microlight aircraft. Once this information from the "halfway" cadastre is ready, neighborhood organizations can be mobilized to help in expediting the process of listing the names of owners of particular plots. With time and more detailed survey, the provision of real title documents can then be planned. The impact of this informational "infrastructure" on the capacity of African cities to generate a significant proportion of the revenue they need to pay for their physical infrastructure and services should always be borne in mind. The example of self-reliant cities in Zimbabwe is instructive in this regard. Chapter VI considers the question of urban planning and urban land markets. It examines the factors likely to contribute to a continuous and increasing demand for urban land, and the problems impeding adequate land supply processes. These problems have resulted in the emergence of a dual land market system -- the formal and the informal-- creating considerable distortion in land values and prices. Little systematic information exists about land transactions in most cities, a fact which affects the effectiveness of supply. The role of urban planning departments in facilitating the supply of urban land is also discussed. The need to revise the outmoded legislation which established these urban management agencies in most African countries is stressed. Equally underlined is the need to enhance the capability of these agencies to supply, more expeditiously, serviced land for urban development. In this connection, the prospect of utilizing the current widespread practice of land nationalization is considered. A strategy based on a concept of "moments of transition" from rural to urban land is outlined as a way of facilitating the process. The involvement of private land development agencies and of private sector organizations is generally regarded as central to this strategy. The experience of the Republic of Korea based on the "land re-adjustment strategy" is described in brief as providing valuable lessons for African countries as to how cities can engage in a self-financing process of urban land development. In conclusion, Chapter VII examines the need for institutional development and

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technical assistance. Tasks include extensive legislative reforms, comprehensive and continuous bureaucratic record keeping, and wide-ranging administrative surveillance of the efficient operations of the free market. Each of these tasks provides ample opportunity for technical assistance without compromising the integrity of any government to make its own decisions. The chapter identifies seven broad areas of institutional development. Human resource development; Enhancement of neighborhood capabilities; The creation of the "half-way" cadastres; The development and implementation of strategies for transforming "half-way" cadastres into proper legal and fiscal cadastres; The strengthening of land titling and land registration departments; The strengthening of urban planning departments; The closer integration of private sector organizations into urban land development programs. The study ends by reiterating that the s are bound to witness a tremendous upsurge in the urbanization process in Africa. Whether the concomitant, dramatic expansion of African cities will take place in a more orderly and environmentally satisfactory manner is the challenge facing all countries in Sub-Saharan Africa as well as bilateral and multilateral agencies participating in the social and economic development of the region. Africa Technical Department Series.

Chapter 4 : The Environmental Challenges In Sub Saharan Africa

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