

***IMPROVING URBAN POORS' ACCESS TO LAND
FOR URBAN AGRICULTURE IN KINONDONI
MUNICIPALITY, TANZANIA***

Research Report

by

the

Dar es Salaam Research Team

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This study was carried out in Kinondoni Municipal Council's six wards of which three were urban: Kawe, Mwnanyamala and Tandale, and other three were peri-urban: Bunju, Goba, and Kibamba.

Objectives of the study and methodology

The general objective of this study was to contribute to a better understanding of how the peri-urban resource-poor accessed land for (peri)-urban agriculture. It also sought to identify and recommend public policy interventions needed to improve access to land for (peri) urban agriculture by the urban resource poor. The specific objectives were:

1. To document and analyze formal and informal practices, strategies and means used by socially differentiated women and men accessed land for PUA;
2. To identify and analyze issues of public policy and legislation that constrained or enhanced the practice of (peri)-urban agriculture, particularly by the urban resource-poor;
3. To document and analyze strategies and procedures used to prevent, manage, and resolve conflicts and foster collaboration over access to land for PUA by the urban resource-poor;
4. To integrate/link the research on objectives 1, 2, 3, with:
 - a. Specific public policy interventions to improve access by the urban poor to land for PUA in Kinondoni municipality;
 - b. Other factors that may affect access to land for PUA by the resource-poor;
5. To contribute to filling gaps on gender aspects of and to the state of art and knowledge on access to land for PUA;
6. To self-monitor and document in-progress and final technical reports of those aspects or impacts (positive or negative, planned or not) which can be attributed, partially or in whole to this project in Kinondoni municipality.

The research protocol involved ten steps: a methodological workshop, a scoping workshop, designing and refining research instruments, pilot testing of instruments, main field data collection, focus group discussions, feedback workshop, draft report and revised report writing. The main field data collection involved a sample of 801 respondents who were interviewed, and three types of questionnaires were used for this study. The first set of questionnaire was designed for the urban resource-poor who practiced urban agriculture (hereafter referred to as UA). The second set of questionnaire was used for the urban poor who did not practice urban agriculture (hereafter referred to as non-UA). The third set of questionnaire was used to elicit information from the peri-urban poor who practiced agriculture in the peri-urban areas (hereafter referred to as RA). In all cases, both quantitative and qualitative information was gathered from the respondents in their households.

Key findings

On the issue of methods of acquiring land in KMC, a total of 417 respondents provided responses. Of these, 315 were from peri-urban areas and their responses indicated that methods of acquiring land in peri-urban areas included: purchasing (26.3%), inheriting (21.9%), bush clearing (18.4%), being granted land by the village government (13.0%), being given land by a relative (10.8), by a friend (10.5%) and being allocated land by the Ministry of Lands and Human Settlement Development (MLHSD) or Kinondoni Municipal Council (KMC) (0.6%) and others. In essence, the methods that the resource-poor farmers used to access land for agriculture can be group into three. First, was the informal, which included inheriting, bush clearing, given by relatives, given by friends and these accounted for 61.6 percent of the respondents. Second, was purchasing or buying, which accounted for 26.3 percent of respondents, while the third the formal, which included allocation of land by the village governments, and MLHSD or KMC,

which accounted for only 0.6 percent. Over two thirds of the respondents, therefore, used informal methods of accessing land for agriculture highlighting the importance of social capital.

This study found that respondents' income levels influenced the various methods that they used to access land for agriculture. Out of the 801 respondents, 311 (38.6%) gave their responses, of which 247 (79.4%), 27 (8.7%), 21 (6.8%), and 16 (5.1%) indicated that their monthly income from the informal sector was less than Tshs. 30,000 (US\$ 28.8), more than Tshs. 50,000 (US\$ 48), between Tshs. 30,000 to 40,000 (US\$ 28.8 to 38.5), and between Tshs. 40,001 to 50,000 (US\$ 38.5 to 48.1), respectively.

Furthermore, of the 480 RA resource-poor farmers, 284 (59.2%) indicated that they would charge an acre of land to fellow villagers at a mean price of Tshs. 1,012,000, a maximum of Tshs. 20,000,000 (US\$ 19,231), a minimum of 50,000 (US\$ 48) with a standard deviation of Tshs. 1,652,000 (US\$ 1,589). None of the resource-poor farmer would afford this kind of a price for an acre of land given their low monthly income.

Another way of explaining how the three types of the respondents (UA, non-UA, RA) accessed land for agriculture was to examine data based on the nine respondents' characteristics across the three methods they used to access land for agriculture. Cross-tabulated data showed that the three types of respondents used informal methods for accessing land for agriculture in varying proportions. The highest were the UA and RA respondents who on average, over two thirds (69%) and (61%) indicated that they used informal methods for accessing land for agriculture, respectively, compared to 47 percent for the non-UA.

Of the 137 UA who gave their responses on gender, 78 (57%) gave their opinions about the methods they used to access land for agriculture. And of these, 24 (31%) and 13 (17%) females and males indicated that they accessed land for agriculture through inheritance, respectively. All the informal methods of accessing land accounted for about 72 percent, indicating that they were superior over the formal methods. One thing to note was that most of the women accessed land for agriculture through inheritance than did males. This is probably due to matrilineal systems of passing over property practiced by the ethnic groups in the eastern zone.

Based on non-UA respondents' gender, the informal methods that both females and males commonly used to access land for agriculture accounted for about 66 percent, indicating that they were superior over the formal methods. Unlike the UA and non-UA respondents, 48 (15%) and 53 (11%) of males and females of the RA respondents indicated that they accessed land for agriculture by buying, respectively.

The study also found that in peri-urban areas, females and males equally indicated that they accessed land for agriculture through inheritance 35 (11%) for females and 34 (10.8%) for males. This data showed that there was gender equity in terms how land for agriculture was given to siblings in peri-urban areas of KMC. Based on RA respondents' gender, the informal methods for accessing land for agriculture, which included inheritance, bush clearing, given by friends, given by relatives accounted for about 53 percent than the formal methods.

Out of a total of 801 respondents, 790 (98.6%) gave their opinions about their awareness to land legislation for regulating access to land for agriculture in KMC. An analysis of the results showed that an overwhelming 774 (97.6%) of the respondents were not aware of any land legislation issued by the government or KMC for regulating access to land for agriculture in KMC.

The study also found that land conflicts in KMC peri-urban study wards were heightened partly by five main reasons: land scarcity setting in, proximity to the city of Dar es Salaam, the homogeneity of the ethnic tribes, the young Zaramo claims to the land, the socio-economic status of the resource-poor farmers. In the six study wards, it was found that there were five levels of conflicts and the lowest level of a land conflict was when a resource-poor farmer's family member had a conflict with another family member on a land issue.

In peri-urban wards the study found that there were two methods of settling land conflicts. These included the formal or official, and the informal or traditional methods. In KMC peri-urban areas, the formal method of settling land conflicts consisted of five levels: the ten-cell leader, village government leaders, ward executive officer, the primary court, and district court, and the commonly used ones were the first three.

There are six policy recommendations emanating from this study. 1.. KMC in collaboration with other government departments, NGOs and community based organizations should initiate educational programmes to the resource-poor farmers on land legislations and policy issues, land conflicts and how to resolve them, surveying, titling and registration of their lands, how to get loans using title deed as collaterals, and refraining from selling land and initiating sustainable income sources. 2. In (peri)-urban areas, KMC in collaboration with other institutions (i.e. Banks, NGOs, government departments) should initiate programmes that could give loans to the resource-poor farmers. 3. In urban areas, KMC in collaboration with MLHSD should survey and temporarily allocate the open spaces, vedges, and valleys to the resource-poor farmers so that they can use the land for agriculture. 4. In peri-urban areas, KMC/MLHSD in collaboration with the village governments should enact bylaws limiting the size of land that a resource-poor farmer could sell out to people coming from outside the village. 5. In urban areas, using the existing leadership ladder, KMC in collaboration with the Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security should initiate 'urban agriculture farmers producer groups'. 6. In (peri)-urban areas, KMC in collaboration with MLHSD, and the village governments, should enact bylaws that would compel village governments to allocate half of their agricultural land to women and ensure that such land is properly surveyed, titled and registered in the names of women.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

DFID	Department of International Development of United Kingdom
EPM	Environmental Planning and Management
GTZ	Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit—Germany Technical Cooperation
HBS	Household Budget Survey
IDRC	International Development Research Centre of Canada
ILO	International Labour Organization
KMC	Kinondoni Municipal Council (or Kinondoni District)
M.Sc.	Master of Science degree
MAC	Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives (Tanzania)
MAFS	Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security (Tanzania)
MLHSD	Ministry of Lands and Human Settlement Development
NCDP	National Coconut Development Programme
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organizations
NIGP	National Income Generating Programme
non-UA	A resource-poor urban dweller not practicing urban agriculture
NPES	The National Poverty Eradication Strategy
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
PUA	(Peri) urban agriculture
RA	A resource-poor peri-urban dweller practicing agriculture
SCP-TZ	Sustainable Cities Programme of Tanzania
SDP	Sustainable Dar es Salaam Programme
SES	Socio-economic Status
SUA	Sokoine University of Agriculture
SUDP	Sustainable Dar es Salaam Project
TAS	Tanzania Assistance Strategy
UA	Urban agriculture
UCLAS	University College of Lands and Architectural Studies
UDSM	University of Dar es Salaam
URT	United Republic of Tanzania
UVPP	Urban Vegetable Promotion Project
VEO	Village Extension Officer
WEO	Ward Executive Officer

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This is an introductory chapter, which sheds light on the importance of examining access to land for urban agriculture by the (peri) urban poor in Kinondoni municipality. This chapter has five sections. Section one gives the background of the study, and section two discusses the research problem of the study followed by section three, which discusses the significance of the research. Section four charts out the research objectives, outlines the research questions and the research hypotheses.

1.1 Background

Land is a critical resource for (peri) urban agriculture (PUA). However, urban residents, particularly the poor ones, often do not secure access to land, which makes it risky for them to invest time and resources in agriculture. In Tanzania, people of all socioeconomic status (SES) undertake (peri) urban agriculture everywhere in towns and cities. In Tanzanian towns and cities, urban agriculture includes the raising of crops and livestock. Generally, both crops and livestock are raised in the intra-urban (on-plot and off-plot) and in peri-urban (fringe) areas. Several studies on urban agriculture show that the practice of urban agriculture in most Tanzanian cities mainly is for poverty alleviation and provision of food (Mlozi, 1996; Sawio, 1993). Urban dwellers' real income decline is a paramount reason for the increase of (peri) urban agriculture. Studies show that the decline of people's real income is severe among people in medium-high and low quality housing areas.

Gockowski *et al.* (2000) advance four principal impacts of PUA on the livelihoods of the urban and peri-urban poor, which are reflected in Kinondoni municipality. First, is the commercial production of peri-urban commodities, which provides employment and income. Second, is the subsistence-oriented agriculture, which augment household food supply and employs underemployed land labour. Third, is the marketing of the peri-and urban agriculture products i.e., in Kinondoni municipality, the marketing of fresh leafy vegetables-*Amaranthus spp.* fourth, is the consumption of the peri-and urban agriculture products by the poor. Another impact of PUA is the utilization of land that would have otherwise remained idle and unproductive.

Recent studies on urbanization in Africa recognize the growing need and importance of the urban informal sector, particularly the urban and peri-urban residents. However, there has not been a corresponding thrust to examine the impact of these changes on land use, particularly at the rural-urban fringe and on vacant lots within the built-up areas (Briggs and Mwamfupe, 2000; Mwamfupe, 1994). Agricultural land use in the peri-urban zone of Kinondoni municipality shows a pattern in which extensive forms of farming such as cashew nut and sisal farming have given way to more intensive land use. These include residential and other forms of farming particularly food crop cultivation, which include maize, cassava, and fruits.

The peri-urban zone of Kinondoni municipality, like elsewhere in many parts of Tanzania, has evolved from a basically rural character to an interface where rural and urban systems of land use co-exist. As most rural areas fall under customary systems, this peri-urban area in Kinondoni municipality also has two systems. On the one hand, a bigger part of this land is owned under the customary tenure system and on the other, land held under the rights of occupancy system is increasing (Mwamfupe and Kivelia, 2001). Under the right of occupancy system land is held for use, and as long as it is used, the occupier retains control over it. Holders of land under this system are provided with long-term certificate of occupancy and enjoy the security of tenure

guaranteed under the Land Ordinance. For this reason, this land tenure is superior to the customary tenure. The expansion of Kinondoni municipality is taking place on land that is mainly held under customary land rights. Consequently, as rural areas are being urbanized, or as they fall under direct urban influence, peri-urban lands under customary occupation become engulfed within planning areas limiting further the (peri) poor access to land for agriculture.

(Peri) and urban farmers in Tanzania now span the whole income spectra. They include senior government officials and companies, and retired senior government officials, college/university professors who raise crossbred cows and chickens in fancy neighbourhoods. Yet, there are low-income earners both in the informal and formal employment sector employment who mainly grow vegetables such as spinach, *Amaranthus spp.*, tomatoes, and eggplants on home gardens and on raised beds along roadsides, open space, and ravines. PUA is an essential activity providing employment and supplementing sources of food. It operates as an informal sector activity employing a wide cross section of the city population (Tripp, 1990; URT, 1991). It also protects (conserves) the environment in the form of planting of trees and flowers, if well practiced, as well as being a recreational activity.

The peri-urban zone of Kinondoni municipality is now characterized by a variable land use. Growing land uses differences in smallholder farmers' perceptions. This is also reflected in different smallholder farmers' perceptions and particular form of land market and acquisition is emerging. For instance, Mwamfupe and Kivelia (2001) surveyed 150 landholders in peri-urban Dar es Salaam owning a total of 225 plots, varying in size from 0.25 to over 6 acres. Many of the respondents with more than one plot reported to have acquired them at different time-periods and through different methods. Analysis of the means by which the different plots were acquired affirmed the pre-dominance of the customary tenure systems in these peri-urban areas. The first three methods, namely inheritance, allocation by village governments and bush clearance, all fall in the category of customary methods. These accounted for 66% of all the plots. The remaining 34% were obtained through purchase and hiring, methods that are more or less in conflict with the customary tenure systems.

Several studies (Kironde, 1998; Mlozi, 1997a; Mwamfupe and Kivelia, 2001) and observations show that many (peri)-urban dwellers undertaking PUA loose or let away their land for the purpose of urban development, mainly for residential use. Urbanisation has been a major process in the peri-urban zone, with far reaching effects on urban expansion, which can both be beneficial and harmful. In general, urban expansion has in some cases led to better utilization of land and in others not. There is a drift of labour force from the peri-urban zone and the more remote rural areas into urban centres, which is among the effects of urbanization. These changes however, create both opportunities and problems for PUA. It can be argued that the peri-urban zone is being intensified with other activities, especially urban residential and industrial development. In response to urban pressure, the peri-urban zone of Kinondoni municipality has experienced considerable land use changes. Due to the growth of urban population and the expansion of city functions, there has been an increase in demand for both land and food (Mwamfupe, 1994). These recent developments have impacted negatively on the (peri) urban poor in terms of accessing land for agriculture. For instance, land has become expensive for those wishing to buy it, while those who have it have been tempted to sell it to meet the skyrocketing prices of consumer and non-consumer goods.

It is becoming increasingly clear that there is considerable under-utilized land both physical and human in Kinondoni municipality and these must be put to efficient and rational use (Mlozi, 1997b; Sawio, 1993). Urban space, as a natural resource when made to operate with other elements such as time, leisure, or daily food requirements could generate quite other series of

utility values. The demand and rational use of urban space for short cycle cropping market gardening or intensive small livestock development may transform the outlook of our towns. The question is, should small-scale intensive agriculture, which uses land that cannot be built be promoted or not?

The spatial concentration of demands in urban areas and the increased standards of living that have often been linked to urbanization, encourage farmers to produce for the urban market. A peri-urban location gives farmers a location advantage in marketing their products directly to consumers in urban areas. This practice is also observed along major roads in Kinondoni municipality where low-income urban dwellers have gardens on road reserves in which vegetables are grown for sale to passers-by (Mlozi, 1998).

PUA is not limited to crops. In rich residential areas of Kinondoni municipality, cross-bred cows are raised for milk production, cow boys often brought from up-country regions such as Dodoma and Iringa herd animals on roadside verges, stream banks, parks and private yards. Grazing helps to maintain (cut grass) the roadsides and parks, but it may result into overgrazing as studies have shown (Mlozi and Hella, 2001; Mvena *et al.*, 1991). It is becoming increasingly acceptable that the informal sector is vital for the survival of rapidly urbanizing countries. There is a need therefore for urban planners and local authorities to recognize and legislate PUA so that it becomes an integral part of the urban economy and physical landscape. It is also the duty of researchers, educators, curriculum developers and urban designers to promote the awareness that PUA is a potential economic activity that can make towns efficient, self-reliant and sustainable.

However, PUA is controversial and sometimes has been criticized as being non-hygienic and unsuitable for urban areas. Livestock rearing in the city was illegal in the 1960s, but gained acceptance under policy changes enacted in the 1980s. Grazing of local breeds of cattle, goats and sheep on public land at the city fringes has almethods been practiced in Dar es Salaam. The major challenge to PUA and its future in Kinondoni municipality and other towns is its sustainability as an efficient long-term source of food and wealth although it is confronted with the problem of land tenure, which is uncertain in unplanned areas. For PUA to prosper and for the urbanites to enjoy its acclaimed benefits, studies are needed on land policy issues and how town councils and planners can harmonize their plans to include PUA in the future urban master plans.

1.2 Research Problem

City expansion, which can be described as either in-fill or extension threaten PUA practices--the (peri) urban poor capacity to access land for agriculture is increasingly diminished. Many (peri)-urban dwellers undertaking PUA are loosing away their land for the purpose of urban development, mainly for residential use. Urban demand for land has in many places led to the loss of access a rise in land prices around many cities (Bills, 1991). Currently, in Kinondoni municipality there are several methods in which the (peri) urban poor gain access to land for (peri) agriculture. These have over many years been formal and informal, and the majority of the poor have used the informal means to gain land. But there is limited data and results based on comparable research on which to assess the means of accessing land for (peri) agriculture by the poor. Furthermore, this study was set to identify and assess factors that constrained the (peri) poor access to land for urban agriculture. This was carried out to assess the informal and formal rules and strategies used by (peri) urban poor in Kinondoni municipality to access land for agriculture.

Although, agricultural production is the backbone (i.e. in rural areas) of the Tanzanian economy, PUA has somehow been theoretically legitimized as a proper land use in towns and cities. There

really has been no serious support given to (peri) urban farmers to enable them to have access to land and other resources. Instead, the urban land has been seen primarily as a resource for urban business, household residences and industry. This study, therefore, sought to understand how enabling or constraining the existing framework for (peri) urban agriculture was on accessing land for the activity. The research identified the appropriate institutional arrangements and support systems (village, ward, and municipal, government) to accommodate (peri) urban agriculture for its effectiveness, safety, and its sustainability in order to produce food for the urban poor.

This research examined issues of land ownership and tenure transfers and future land markets both informal and formal. There are three modes of land ownership in urban areas: person claims to own land because he/she was the first to settle there; allocated land by the municipal council or village government; got land through many other informal means. In the (peri)-urban areas, individuals carry out more informal land transactions of buying and selling land than their urban counterparts. However, this is viewed as illegal by the Kinondoni municipal authority.

This research examined this aspect with a view of understanding issues around land ownership and whether they enabled or constrained (peri) urban agriculture, especially for the (peri)-urban poor whom land was mostly the only resource they owned. This research also clearly mapped out land ownership structures, key territorial issues and formal and informal land markets, and land conflicts. Understanding the gender dimensions of linkages in the political economy was also an important research aspect for (peri) urban agriculture. Here the research incorporated gender variables to examine their interplay with other variables, and methods used to resolve land conflicts in accessing land and how successful these were.

1.3 Significance of the Research

With respect to PUA, there are some salient issues emerging. First, it is widely accepted now that PUA has a potential role to play in ensuring food security for the urban poor. (Peri) urban agriculture has become an important activity through which families in (peri) urban areas have adopted as a coping strategy in response to Economic Structural Adjustment programmes in order to sustain their livelihoods. PUA also contributes to better family nutrition that would not have been possible if the family purchased all its food requirements from the market.

For instance, crops and livestock that (peri) urban families raise have helped them attain food self-sufficiency and reduce costs of food purchases hence freeing their budgets for other household needs (building houses, paying for children's school fees, paying for medical bills). However, little has been done to tap this PUA potential. This research, therefore, addressed the kinds of institutional, legal and policy issues that were needed to ensure that the poor experience few constraints in accessing land for PUA.

Second, peri-urban zone of Kinondoni municipality is undergoing rapid changes. For instance, in the 1970s, the peri-urban of Kinondoni municipality was neglected and its agriculture was viewed as a survival strategy for the urban poor. The 1980s and 1990s have experienced some changes in the character of PUA. These changes have been prompted by the adoption of market-driven economic policies. Peri-urban areas are highly contested spaces and this creates conflicts between different stakeholders over access to land and other land uses other than agriculture such as increased demand for land for residential and commercial development. However, the extent to which these developments had impact on the (peri)-urban poor to access land for agriculture is less known, thus the rationale for this study.

Third, the full potential of (peri) urban agriculture has not been fully realized due to several reasons, the principal one being lack of access to resources especially by the (peri) urban poor. There is also lack of information on strategies, methods, approaches and tools that can be used by the government, municipalities, village governments, and the (peri) urban poor themselves to improve productivity and maximize benefits from (peri) urban agriculture. The problem that has led to the absence of an enabling framework for accessing land for (peri) urban agriculture, and the problems faced in improving productivity and maximizing benefits from (peri) urban agriculture have been the paucity of information. This is especially true on the part of planners, extension agents, municipalities, politicians, and other decision makers on issues that include how to facilitate the (peri) urban dwellers to gain access to land for agriculture. This research, therefore, provides this information that will play an important role in facilitating the creation of an enabling environment for (peri) urban agriculture and in improving productivity.

In Kinondoni municipality, good and reliable information is critical at every level for effective improvement of (peri) urban agriculture. Information is needed by households and communities within the urban environment currently engaged in (peri) urban agriculture. It is needed by delivery agencies that provide services and inputs to (peri) urban farmers. Information is also needed by those who are involved in settlement improvement in the government. It is also needed in order to develop an effective and coordinated strategy of the actors involved in (peri) urban agriculture.

Overtime, (peri) urban agriculture has increasingly become political rather than a technical one, and politicians need this information to make sound judgments. We are convinced that this information will help motivate reformers to make the right decisions regarding accessing land to the (peri) urban poor for agriculture in Kinondoni municipality. This research has facilitated an understanding of the means by which the (peri) urban resource poor in Kinondoni municipality gain access to land for agriculture as a strategy in poverty reduction.

1.4 Research Objectives

1.4.1 General objective

The general objective of this study was to contribute to a better understanding of how the urban poor access land for (peri)-urban agriculture. It also sought to identify and recommend public policy interventions needed to improve access to land for (peri) urban agriculture by the urban resource poor.

1.4.2 Specific objectives

1. To document and analyze formal and informal practices, strategies and means used by socially differentiated women and men to access land for PUA;
2. To identify and analyze issues of public policy and legislation that constrained or enhanced the practice of (peri)-urban agriculture, particularly by the urban resource-poor;
3. To document and analyze strategies and procedures used to prevent, manage, and resolve conflicts and foster collaboration over access to land for PUA by the urban resource-poor;
4. To integrate/link the research on objectives 1, 2, 3, with:
 - a. Specific public policy interventions to improve access by the urban poor to land for PUA in Kinondoni Municipality;
 - b. Other factors that may affect access to land for PUA by the resource-poor;
5. To contribute to filling gaps on gender aspects and to the state of art and knowledge on access to land for PUA;
6. To self-monitor and document in-progress and final technical reports of those aspects or impacts (positive or negative, planned or not) which can be attributed partially or in whole to this project in Kinondoni municipality.

1.5 Research Questions

The salient research questions of this study were as follows.

1. What were the existing systems and mechanisms or options by which different social groups accessed land for (peri) urban agriculture?
2. Which systems and mechanisms facilitated the best access to land for (peri) urban poor and why?
3. How can the systems and mechanisms be enhanced to improve accessibility of land for (peri) urban agriculture to the (peri) urban poor?
4. How have these systems and mechanisms or options differentially affected access to land for (peri) urban by either men or women?
5. What are the existing legal and policy frameworks for accessing private or public land for (peri) by the (peri) urban resource poor and how have these changed with the development of the practice?
6. How have these frameworks affected access to land for (peri) urban agriculture by the (peri) urban poor at different stages of development of the practice?
7. Which frameworks have positively or negatively influenced accessibility of land for (peri) urban poor and why?
8. What were the main types of conflicts over access of land for the different (peri) urban activities by the (peri) poor and why?
9. What methods were used to resolve these conflicts and how successful were they?
10. What were the cases of good or bad practice in Kinondoni municipality that had affected access to land for urban agriculture by the urban poor?
11. What were the elements that have made the case(s) a success or failure and how can the good aspects of the case(s) be improved, replicated or adopted in other cities?
12. What were the threats to the incorporation of the good elements into the Kinondoni municipal land use planning process and how can these be overcome?
13. How have the mechanisms for accessing land for urban agricultural for the urban poor differently affected men and women in their quest for accessing land for various types of urban agricultural activities?
14. How has the legal/policy framework affected access to land for various forms of urban agriculture activities by men and women?
15. What is needed to redress the gender imbalances over access to land for (peri) urban agriculture by the (peri) urban poor?

1.6 Research Hypotheses

- 1.6.1 The best form of access to land for (peri) urban agriculture for the urban poor is guaranteed where access mechanisms offer some form of security to tenure for use of the land by both men and women.
- 1.6.2 The legal and policy framework for accessing land for (peri) urban agriculture by the (peri) urban poor has lagged behind requirements or needs of the African cities in terms of recognizing (peri) urban agriculture as an emerging land use activity.
- 1.6.3 The role of the various actors has positively changed over time to facilitate better access to land for (peri) urban agriculture by the (peri) urban poor with the increased institutionalization of the practice.

1.7 Summary

This chapter was an introductory one, which sheds light on the importance of examining access to land for urban agriculture by the (peri) urban poor in Kinondoni municipality. This chapter has five sections. Section one gave the background of the study, and section two discussed the research problem of the study followed by section three, which discussed the significance of the

research. Section four charted out the research objectives, outlined the research questions and the research hypotheses.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This section partly answers objectives 1, 2 and 4. Objective 1 of the research sought to document and analyze formal and informal practices, strategies and means used by socially differentiated women and men to access land for PUA. Objective 2 sought to identify and analyze issues of public policy and legislation that constrained or enhanced the practice of peri-urban agriculture, particularly the urban resource poor. Objective 4 sought to integrate/link research with objectives 1, 2 and 3 of the research. To achieve this the chapter is divided into eight sections. Section one provides an overview of urban agriculture followed by a discussion of PUA in Tanzania with reference to KMC. Section three and four examine the land legislation in Tanzania highlighting the relevant ones for PUA. The social capital theory is discussed in section five followed by an extensive discussion on poverty. Poverty is examined for Dar es Salaam and Kinondoni municipality in section six and planned efforts to alleviate it. Lastly, the chapter displays a conceptual framework of factors residing at four levels that limit the (peri)-urban poor to access land for agriculture in Kinondoni municipality. These factors are nested with the Tanzanian socio-political, economic, and cultural milieu, and are further manifested at four levels: the government, municipal council, village and the individual farmer.

2.1 Overview of Urban Agriculture (UA)

Access means the ability of the (peri) urban resource-poor to get land for agriculture in their specific localities. Access and usability of land for urban agriculture has been and will continue to be a contentious issue in peri-urban areas of most Third World countries for four main reasons. First, the mere fact most urban authorities in developing countries cannot provide formal employment for most of the urban dwellers. Second, the increasing poor people poverty who are forced to go into peri-urban areas and undertake agriculture to produce own food and sell some. Third, increasing decay of most urban areas making it more attractive for urban dwellers to engage in urban agriculture, especially in open spaces. Fourth, lack of facilitative, innovative and supportive policies for UA (as most are regulatory in nature).

It is important that we define the terms used in this study. According to Mubvami *et al.* (2003:1-3) terms such as availability and accessibility are defined as follows: Availability refers to the existence of land that can be utilized for urban agriculture, in the short, medium- or long-term, while accessibility refers to the opportunity for actual use of available land by nearby households or groups, taking into account administrative procedures and conflict resolution mechanisms.

Furthermore, defining UA is problematic because of the varying contexts in which it takes place, the land involved, and the people undertaking it. For instance, "Tinker (1994: x) defines PUA as the growing of food crops and fruits and also the raising of animals, poultry, fish, bees, rabbits, snakes, guinea pigs, or other stock considered edible locally." Smit *et al.* (1996: 1) give a broad definition "as an industry that produces processes, and markets food and fuel... on land and water dispersed throughout the urban and peri-urban area....." Yet, Mougeot (1994:1) defines UA as the "production of food and nonfood plant and tree crops and animal husbandry (livestock, fowl, fish, and so forth), both within (intra-) and fringing (peri-) built-up urban areas. Still, others have defined UA "as the raising of animals such as dairy cattle, poultry, pigs and goats, and growing of vegetables and field crops in areas designated urban by the United Republic of Tanzania under

the Town and Country Planning (Ordinance CAP. 378 of 1956 revised in 1991” (Mlozi, 1995a). The aforementioned definitions show that UA is diverse, omnipresent, thriving, and sometimes a profitable activity in cities all over the world, both for low- and high-income people (Deelstra, 1987; Gutman, 1987; Kleer, 1987; Yeung, 1988; Bills, 1991; Smit and Nasr, 1992; van der Blik, 1992; Bohrt, 1993; Gardner, 1994; Smit *et al.*, 1996; Cosgrove, 1998; Foeken and Mwangi, 1998; Quon, 1999 and Bakker *et al.*, 2000). PUA activities vary enormously, both within and between countries, as well as throughout urban SES.

UA is practiced for different reasons and purposes in developed countries than in developing countries. Studies suggest that wide ranges of people are engaged in UA for different social, economic and cultural reasons (Wade, 1987; Freeman, 1991; Mlozi *et al.*, 1992; Smit and Nasr, 1992; Dialo, 1993; Ebziabher *et al.*, 1994). A decade ago, O’Connor (1983) perceived PUA to be an important part of small-scale enterprises. For instance, in Africa, UA is for food, economic survival and is practised everywhere (Khoury-Dagher, 1986; Ngwa Nebasina, 1987; Rakodi, 1988; Gbadegesin, 1991; Freeman, 1991; Drakakis-Smith, 1992; Mlozi *et al.*, 1992; Mlozi, 1995a, 1995b, 1996, 1999; Maxwell and Zziwa, 1992; Rogerson, 1993; Drakakis-Smith *et al.*, 1995; Mbiba, 1994; Binns and Lynch, 1998). Farming in urban and peri-urban areas in contemporary African cities takes a variety of forms reflecting land access, water availability, and the potential for bringing land into the production process (Ellis and Sumberg, 1998).

2.1.1 UA researches in Dar es Salaam

This section reviews major urban agriculture (UA) studies carried out in the city of Dar es Salaam and whether they considered the aspect of access to land for peri-urban agriculture by the resource-poor. The importance of small-scale (UA) in Tanzania towns cannot be overemphasized. Vorlauffer (Vorlauffer 1973 quoted by Streiffeler, 1987), observed that 18.6 percent of the households in 1967 did agriculture In Dar es Salaam, Tanzania. In Buguruni and Manzese wards of Dar es salaam city only about 40 percent of the low income people who left formal employment in the 1980s went into urban farming (Tripp, 1990). As time went on, UA in Dar es Salaam changed to include people of high, quasi-medium and medium SES. Tripp found that “urban farming after the 1970s was markedly different from the small garden plots that had characterized much of the UA in the city up to this time” (p.70). Since the 1980s, research on (UA) in Tanzanian towns has grown and become an occupation of researchers from several disciplines. This has been in response to understand UA and hence provide practical solutions to an activity that most urban dwellers, especially the poor undertake for several reasons. There is a growing literature to show that the practice is increasing, especially as a survival strategy for the urban resource poor.

The first major UA research in Tanzania was initiated in 1986 with generous financial support from the International Development Research Centre (IDRC) of Canada. The title of the study was called *Urban Agriculture in Tanzania: A Study of Six Towns*. The research surveyed 1,780 urban farmers and its major objective was to obtain a detailed overview of the existing urban food-producing activities including livestock production in six towns namely Dar es Salaam, Dodoma, Kilosa, Makambako, Mbeya, and Morogoro. Among its findings, the researchers revealed that UA was an integral part of the urban economy. And, that “to many urban residents, UA including livestock production constituted a disproportionately much larger share of the household economy” (Mvena *et al.*, 1991:12). The study also found that UA activities constituted economic enterprises most of which had lucrative economic returns to the extent that revenue from such ventures was not necessarily used for subsistence; rather it was reinvested in other projects such as land or building houses. However, the study did not attempt to examine how the urban dwellers including the urban resource-poor accessed land for UA.

Mtweve (1987) randomly surveyed 40 pig keepers in Dar es Salaam as a Special Project paper towards a B.Sc. degree program at Sokoine University of Agriculture (SUA) titled *The Major Bottlenecks Faced by Smallholder Pig Producers in the Areas Surrounding Dar es salaam*. The study found that both the intensive (confinement) and the semi-intensive systems of pig raising were practiced by the surveyed farmers, and that feed availability, capital, marketing of pigs were major problems limiting the enterprise among most farmers. Other studies of UA done in the city include those of Bongole (1988), Shauri (1989), and Tukaye (1990). All studies point to the fact that UA is an important source of money and food. Mans (1994) writes that “in urban centers, economic growth and the explosion of informal sector business activities have improved income and consumption” (pp. 407-408). Since the mid 1980s, after following the policy of liberalization, several small businesses have sprang up and were operated by individuals and groups of people (the informal sector) to support UA.

Two research-cum-farmer oriented projects existed in the city of Dar es Salaam specializing in vegetable production were STOAS (1995-2003) and Urban Vegetable Promotion Project (UVPP) (1993-2002). STOAS which was an acronym for Foundation for the Development of Agriculture, Education and Training was a jointly funded project by the Government of the Netherlands and the Tanzania National Income Generating Programme (NIGP). STOAS objectives included improving nutritional status of urban dwellers through increasing availability of vegetables and fruits, training and encouraging women in producing vegetables, fruits, and flowers. The project largely worked with urban farmers who raise fast growing leafy vegetables on small scale and these included *Amaranthus spp*, okra, sweet and hot pepper, Chinese cabbage onions and cucumber (Lulandala, 1999).

Another project was the UVPP financed by the Germany’s GTZ (Deutsche Gellschaft fur Technische Zusammenarbeit-Germany Technical Cooperation) which sought in conjunction with the Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security (MAFS) agricultural extension service to develop appropriate technologies for UA production through working directly with small holder vegetable farmers. Since the project’s inception in 1993 it has helped in promoting the acceptance of urban vegetable production, helped to identify green areas for inner city vegetable and fruit production, making more efficient use of water, encouraged composting, and trained agricultural extension officers, with particular reference to UA.

In 1990/91, a study was carried out in the city’s urban areas, and found that 55 percent of the households were engaged in informal sector activities including UA and that UA represented 5 percent of the informal sector enterprises (United Republic of Tanzania (URT), 1991). Out of 315,958 people employed in the informal sector, 17,866 (5.7 percent) worked in UA (growing crops, keeping livestock). The 1988 Tanzanian Population Census for Dar es Salaam’s urban areas also showed that 5.7 percent of the respondents were cultivators, 0.9 percent were mixed farmers, and less than 1 percent (0.3) were agriculture workers by occupation. Furthermore, the study indicated that there were 10,228 UA enterprises. Some of those enterprises would have been of crops, but most would have been of diary cattle, a kind of farming that since 1985 had tremendously increased. This study too did not attempt to examine how the urban dwellers, with special attention to the urban resource-poor accessed land for agriculture.

UA received an international recognition when in 1992, the United Nations Development Programme in conjunction with HABITAT chose Dar es Salaam city as the pilot site for its Sustainable Cities Programme (SCP-TZ) and carried out a project called the Sustainable Dar es Salaam Project (SDP). Its overall aim was to strengthen the capacity of the city authority (then

the Dar es Salaam City Council) to plan and manage the growth and development of the city in partnership with interested groups of stakeholders, including public, private and civil-society organizations (Mwalusanya, 2000). In 1992, the city consultation group identified nine environmental issues that SDP was to address, and UA was one of the major environmental issues. Thereafter, an UA working group was formed to deal with the development and management of UA in relation to recreational areas, open space, hazardous areas and the greenbelts. Within the SDP, the UA working group was concerned with the broad policy and structural issues that constrained UA. Some of the key issues included: 1. Insufficient consideration of UA by relevant government departments; 2. Neglect of small urban livestock keepers and crop growers contribution in the urban economy; 3. Failure by relevant authorities to designate and allocate land for UA; 4. Land tenure issues for UA; 5. Conflicts between different land uses and UA over water. The project unlike its predecessors provided temporary permits to the urban resource-poor to use the open spaces, road reserves, and ravines.

In 1993, Mlozi (1997) carried out an UA study in the city of Dar es Salaam co-funded by IDRC and SUA and its main objective was to explain reasons for raising dairy cattle by 33 ethnic groups in the city. The study found that of the 14,721 dairy cattle, 13,031 livestock keepers kept 88.5%, 1,171 people kept 8.0%, and 519 persons kept 3.5% dairy cattle in the urban wards of Kinondoni, Ilala and Temeke Districts, respectively. The study also found that in all urban wards, most dairy cattle, 12,228 (83%) were raised in the low and quasi-medium density areas, suggesting that people of the higher and quasi-medium socioeconomic (SES) kept the most dairy cattle. Furthermore, the study found that of the 6,469 dairy cattle that 981 members of the identified ethnic groups raised, 5,358 (82.8%) were raised in urban wards of KMC and 325 (33%) members of the Chagga ethnic group alone raised 2,308 (43%) of the dairy cattle. Here each person raised an average of nine dairy cattle.

Sawio's (1993) study of 260 non-random urban agriculturalists in three wards in KMC, Dar es Salaam is also relevant. The study examined UA and land-use changes in the city. About 49 percent of the respondents said that UA directly provided them with between 20 and 30 percent of their household food (subsistence) supply. About 67 percent of the respondents said that these activities gave them an income that was greater than their regular salaries. Practitioners also included better off households, and UA contributed to their household food supply. The study found that, UA activities in the city had increased greatly in recent years, a trend that worried the City Council. For instance, Sawio found that in the city in 1980, 44 percent of low-income earners had farms, but by 1987, 70 percent of the heads of households were engaged in some farming in livestock husbandry. The implications of Sawio's study highlighted three assumptions that: urban farmers were not socially marginal; UA has increased in Dar es Salaam and the way it operated could be explained by the "logic of survival;" and UA made a significant contribution to the well-being of many Dar es Salaam residents. A Ph.D. study of Mwamfupe (1994) titled *Changes in Agricultural Land Use in the peri-Urban zone of Dar es Salaam, Tanzania* has also contributed to our understanding of land use dynamics.

Furthermore, Mlozi (1995) carried out an UA study for a Ph.D. award, which was funded by IDRC of Canada in the city of Dar es Salaam by surveying 29 urban farmers and 27 public officials. The study was titled *Information and the Problems of UA in Tanzania: Intentions and Realizations*. The broad question of the study was to explain the persistence of UA in Dar es Salaam in the light of its evident damaging effects on the urban environment. Mlozi (1995) found that explaining the persistence of UA in spite of its evident damage to the environment was not a simple matter. It involved consideration of socioeconomic and political factors at least at four levels: government, ministry, city council, and individual. The study found that in the

interplay of these factors, the individual who continued to do UA was responding not only to his or her own (largely economic) motivation, but also to a web of other factors. Principal among these factors were poor economic climate, government policies, which encourage agriculture as a means of coping with declining economic standards. The study, among others, concluded that UA was there to stay

In 1995, Tesha (1996) surveyed 80 extension workers and urban farmers in the city of Dar es Salaam for an M.Sc. degree award from SUA entitled *An Assessment of Extension Workers' Needs for UA: The Case of Dar es Salaam Region*. The main objective of the study was to investigate the extension agents' and urban farmers' needs for UA in the city of Dar es salaam. Tesha found that there was lack of adequate government policies on UA—for instance, there were bylaws for regulating the raising of livestock but not for crop cultivation, and that extension agents and urban farmers were not aware of these bylaws, which were sources of conflicts with the urban authorities. The study recommended to re-train urban extension workers and urban farmers on UA legislation and that KMC should enact appropriate bylaws.

In 1997/98 Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives (MAC) Statistical Unit (MAC, 1999) together with the National Bureau of Statistics of the Planning Commission carried out an UA Survey funded by the Government of Tanzania titled the *Dar es Salaam UA Survey*. The study found that of the 5,006 cattle in Dar es Salaam areas, 2,315 (46.3%), 2,005 (40%), 684 (13.7%) were in Temeke, Kinondoni, and Ilala urban areas, respectively. The study found that most of the Dar es Salaam livestock keepers preferred to raise dairy cattle, i.e., 4,668 dairy cattle were kept representing 93.2% of total cattle raised. The study found that there were no indigenous cattle in Ilala and Kinondoni, but 230 (4.6%) were found in Temeke urban areas. The highest number of cows per household was found in Kinondoni followed by Temeke. The survey indicated that 3,701 goats were raised in Dar es Salaam urban areas, of which 1,491 (40.2%), 1,157 (31.3%), and 1,053 (28.5%) were found in Temeke, Kinondoni, and Ilala urban Districts, respectively. Most people preferred to keep indigenous goats—3,644 (98.5%) and of these only 49 (1.3%) goats were dairy goats. The survey also found that 184,370, 96,297, and 40,376 of the birds raised in urban areas were improved broilers, improved layers, and indigenous chickens, respectively. Only 1,467 pigs were raised in the urban areas.

Sumberg (1997) carried out a study titled *Policy, Milk and the Dar es Salaam Peri-urban Zone: A New Future for an Old Development Theme*. This study was funded by the Department of International Development (DFID) of the United Kingdom, and the study found that despite a variety of policy approaches and initiatives, providing the city with milk continued to be a problematic. The use of peri-urban zone for dairy production was one of several recurring themes, however, even with an expanding market there had been relatively little development of commercial dairying in this zone. The study recommended that policy and development initiatives along these lines must specially consider the relative suitability of the peri-urban zone vis-à-vis the production of specific commodities as well as potential market opportunities. Sumberg recommended that those interested in promoting peri-UA as an element of more sustainable cities cannot afford to take a narrow view that ignores agro-ecological, economic and regional realities.

Another study by Sumberg (1998) was titled *Poultry Production in and Around Dar es Salaam, Tanzania: Competition and Complementarity*. This study was funded by United Kingdom Department for International Development Livestock Production Research Programme. The study inventoried functional feed mills and hatcheries, surveyed 46 poultry feed retailers in four wards in and around the city, 188 customers of three feed agents, 62 poultry producers, and feed

chemical analysts. The study found that the industry was dominated by a very small number of large, integrated firms, with one firm alone supplying upwards of 70 percent of all poultry feed. There were also other smaller firms, which were more or less integrated, and a large number of relatively small-scale egg and broiler producers--about 30 percent. Women were heavily involved in poultry production. The study found that because of lower than expected survival percentages and egg productivity, many financial benefits of poultry production for many producers were limited. The study found that many of the producers frequently stopped production for a period because of lack of money and short supply of day old chicks. The study recommended that small producers should move to integrate their operations--however, capital was a constraint. However, synergistic benefits supported the poultry industry such as manure went to intensive *Amaranthus spp.* Growers--reinforcing its continuation. Sumberg (1998) saw no potential for using small-scale poultry production in urban and peri-urban areas for development intervention focused on poverty alleviation because of the relatively low capital cost and marginal profitability of egg and broiler production.

In a recent study, Mlozi and Hella (2001) randomly surveyed 191 livestock keepers in Dar es Salaam (102), Mbeya (48) and Morogoro (41) municipalities. The Tanzania Commission for Science and Technology funded the study titled *Urban Animal Agriculture: Linkage Between Poverty Alleviation and Damage on the Urban Environment*". The main objective of the study was to investigate the linkage between poverty and environmental damage that urban animal agriculture engendered on the urban environment. The first H₀₁: of the study which stated that there was no relationship between undertaking of urban animal agriculture and poverty alleviation was untenable because 62 percent of the respondents indicated that they raised livestock in the three towns to alleviate poverty. Findings of this study conformed with those of Bongole (1988), Mvena *et al.* (1991), Mlozi *et al.* (1992), Mlozi (1995a), Sawio (1993) who found that most of the urban dwellers raised livestock in urban areas to earn extra money and hence alleviate poverty. The study recommended, among other things, that the government together with local authorities should develop appropriate policies for regulating urban animal agriculture with a view to upholding its sustainability.

Kironde (1998) carried out a study on how the resource-poor access land for various uses in Kawe, Vingunguti (in Ilala District) and Tandika (in Temeke District) by surveying 462 people. The study found that nearly 74 percent of the respondents had no land. When land ownership was disaggregated on a gender basis, the study found no significant differences between men and women. Furthermore, the study found that the problem of access to land was much more serious among those born outside of Dar es Salaam. Furthermore, the study found that in 88 percent of the cases where respondents owned land they considered it to be owned by other family members as well. And, most of the respondents who had land did not get it from the official system, and that most respondent did not access land because of its high price.

A common feature which runs through all the UA studies done in Tanzania, especially in Dar es Salaam is their neglect of land ownership and land tenure all of which affect land accessibility for PUA. However, of these studies it is only two the SDP project and Kironde's (1998) which attempted to address the issue of land accessibility especially on the issues mentioned above. Furthermore, these two studies did not focus specifically on the peri-urban resource-poor UA practitioners. This study has attempted to investigate the issue of land accessibility its various aspects as described in its objectives.

2.2 (Peri)-Urban Agriculture (PUA) in Tanzania

PUA is as old as the African towns themselves. History tells us that during the colonial times, people of African decent farmed in the towns' peri-urban zones to produce their own food, especially those who came from far away regions. Today the practice is rife in most towns' peri-urban areas in which land is traded off to urban dwellers and in some cases it has become an important commodity. Deriving a precise definition of peri-urban agriculture is somewhat difficult. Urban and peri-urban agriculture can be a continuum in space and time when the cities grow. The peri-urban area is characterized by strong urban influences and demand, easy access to markets, services and other inputs, but relative shortage of land and risks from pollution and urban growth (Drechsel *et al.*, 1999 cited in NRI/UST, 1997).

In Dar es Salaam, Jacobi *et al.* (2000:261) defines PUA as "any activity, which takes place at the fringes of the continuously built-up areas. The peri-urban area has scattered homesteads, but is not as dense as the urban area. A change from rural to urban [*agriculture*] activities can be observed, and the peri-urban area acts as a corridor between the urban and rural areas". Furthermore, Mougeot (2000:6) summarized the definitions of PUA by saying that ". . . peri-urban locations are in close contact with rural areas and tend to undergo, over a given period of time, more dramatic agricultural changes than do locations in more central and built-up parts of the city". The Tanzania Land Act of 1999 defines a peri-urban area as an area which is within a radius of ten kilometres outside the boundary of an urban or semi-built up area or within any large radius of a town, which may be prescribed in respect of any particular urban area by the Minister (URT, 1999).

What we see in the periphery of Dar es Salaam city or KMC confirms the model earlier on described by Von Thunen in 1986. He hypothesized that farm products would be grown in a series of concentric zones outward from the central market city. For instance, In Dar es Salaam, perishable crops such as *Amaranthus spp.*, tomatoes, spinach or those that are high yielding, are usually grown nearest to the city because of readily accessible farmland that is in great demand and, therefore, quite expensive. He further concluded that livestock production would be raised farther away--this is the other way around in Dar es Salaam. However, "since transport costs to the city increase with distance, there comes a point beyond which it is uneconomical to grow food for the urban centre" (Drechsel *et al.*, 1999).

Gockowski *et al.* (2000) advances four principal impacts of PUA on the livelihoods of the urban and peri-urban poor, which are relevant in KMC. First, is the commercial production of peri-urban commodities, which provides employment and income. Second, is the subsistence-oriented agriculture, which augment household food supply and employs underemployed labour land. Third, is the marketing of the peri-and urban agriculture products i.e., in KMC the marketing of fresh leafy vegetables—*Amaranthus spp.* Fourth, is the consumption of the peri-and urban agriculture products by the poor. Also, the impact is the utilization of land (i.e. land) that would have remained idle and unproductive.

Depending on the culture of the population and their habits, the preferred crops grown in peri-urban areas can vary. In Dar es Salaam peri-urban areas field crops grown include maize, plantains, cassava, citrus, and coconuts, chewing cane, plantains, sweet potatoes and varieties of vegetables. Livestock raised mostly include cattle, goats, chicken and ducks. One notable thing of the peri urban areas is the heterogeneity of the agricultural activities carried out by the people. Although most peri-urban areas form a ring around and are within city, farmers face many problems such as lack of developed infrastructure, theft, lack of credit, and lack of government policies.

The next section examines accessing land for agriculture in the peri-urban areas of KMC.

2.2.1 Peri-urban agriculture (PUA) in KMC

Recent studies on urbanization in Africa acknowledge the growing need and importance of the urban informal sector, particularly urban and peri-urban residents. However, there has not been a corresponding thrust to examine the impact of these changes on land use, particularly at the rural-urban fringe and on vacant lots within the built-up areas (Briggs and Mwamfupe, 2000; Mwamfupe, 1994). Agricultural land use in the peri-urban zone of KMC shows a pattern in which extensive forms of farming such as cashew nut and sisal farming have given way to more intensive land use. These include residential and other forms of farming particularly food crop cultivation, which include maize, cassava, and fruits.

The peri-urban zone of KMC, as elsewhere in many parts of Tanzania, has evolved from a basically rural character to an interface where rural and urban systems of land use co-exist. As most rural areas fall under customary systems, these peri-urban areas in KMC also both have both systems although a statutory tenure system is emerging as well. As such, peri-urban land in the district as elsewhere is held under two systems of tenure. While a bigger part of this land is owned under the customary tenure system, land held under the rights of occupancy system is increasing (Mwamfupe and Kivelia, 2001). Like in other rural areas, the customary systems of peri-urban land ownership in KMC is mostly vested in a corporate body-tribe, clan or family – which is conterminous with the community.

Given the historical and cultural backdrops of land ownership, the expansion of KMC is taking place on land that is mainly held under customary land rights. As rural areas become urbanized, or fall under direct urban influence, peri-urban lands under customary occupation is incorporated in urban development plans. Thus, apart from the customary tenure, there is also land held under the rights of occupancy. Perhaps it is in the peri-urban areas where one finds very sharp conflicts between the two tenure systems (Mwamfupe and Kivelia, 2001). Under the right of occupancy system land is held for use as long as it is used, the occupier retains control over it. Holders of land under this system are provided with long-term certificate of occupancy and enjoy the security of tenure guaranteed under the Land Ordinance.

For this reason, this land tenure is superior to the customary tenure. Olofin and Tanko (2003) complement by saying that “once an individual used a particular piece of land, he had the right of occupancy that excluded any other member of the community in Kano, Nigeria. The land would revert to the community only when the individual ceased to use it” (p.10). According to Obuobie *et al.* (2003:15) two complex systems exist in Accra, Ghana. In these systems, in both formal and informal, the urban and peri-urban resource-poor farmers access land for agriculture. In Divo, Ivory Coast, access to land for agriculture has been the main discriminating factor between migrants and locals, with devastating implications for the life of individual town dwellers (Idelson, 2003:18).

In KMC, more people undertake PUA today than before due to economic hardships, making it the only source of income for most of the resource-poor who also practice it as a way to get food and subsidize income (Mlozi, 1996; Sawio, 1993). Peri- and urban farmers in Tanzania now span the whole income spectra. They include senior officials in the government, companies, and retired senior government officials, college/university professors who raise crossbred cows and chickens. Yet, there are low-income earners both in the informal and formal sector who mainly grow vegetables such as spinach, *Amaranthus spp.*, tomatoes, and eggplants on home gardens

and on raised beds along roadsides, open spaces, and ravines. PUA is an essential activity providing employment and supplementing sources of food. It also protects (conserves) the environment in the form of planting of trees and flowers, if well practiced, as well as being and is a recreational activity.

In KMC, large amount of non-built up area (both within the built up and at the fringe) has been eaten up by construction activities especially for residential use. We are currently, seeing an emerging land market form for land acquisition in the peri-urban areas. A land market is defined as a framework through which seekers of land for various uses can acquire it for its development into required uses, which can either be open or state controlled land. By open land marketing we mean transacting in land without undue restrictions especially from the state. In open land marketing, unlike in state controlled and marketing the vendors and buyers or their agency determine the prices (Mwamfupe and Kivelia, 2001).

Accessing land in peri-urban areas for agriculture by the (peri) urban resource-poor has increasingly been problematic. For instance, Mwamfupe and Kivelia (2001) surveyed 150 landholders in peri-urban Dar es Salaam owning a total of 225 plots, varying in size from 0.25 to over 6 acres. Many of the respondents with more than one plot reported to have acquired them at different time-periods and through different methods. An analysis of the means by which the different plots were acquired affirmed the pre-dominance of the customary tenure systems in these peri-urban areas (Table 2.1). The first three methods, namely inheritance, allocation by village governments and bush clearance, fall in the category of customary methods. These accounted for 66% of all the plots. The remaining 34% were obtained through purchase and hiring, methods that are more or less in conflict with the customary tenure systems.

Table 2.1. Methods of land acquisition in peri-urban Dar es Salaam (N=150).

Method of acquisition	Boko (n=88)	Kibamba (n=72)	Chamazi (n=65)	All plots (n=225)
Inheritance	54.5	19.5	47.7	41.3
Allocation by village	23.9	22.2	29.2	24.9
Bush clearing	3.4	6.9	9.3	6.2
Purchase	15.9	44.4	13.8	24.4
Hired	2.3	7.0	0.0	3.1
Total %	100	100	100	100

Source: Mwamfupe and Kivelia (2001); n=number of plots

It is important to note that the traditional methods (inheritance, allocation by village and bush clearance) were more pronounced in Boko and Chamazi villages, whereas purchases and hiring were frequent more evident in Kibamba. In Goba Ward, land ownership appeared skewed as most of the urban elite owned land perhaps bought in the 1970s and 1980s. Land selling continued unabated, which led to further land sub-division. In the process, the peri-urban poor who owned land were being displaced and those who remained owned tiny pieces of land, perhaps measuring about half an acre. But, compared with the resource-poor farmers of Kampala, Uganda, it has been observed that that most of the peri-urban resource-poor of Kampala accessed land through customary tenancy on privately owned land, a form of land tenure unique to Baganda known as *bibanja* (plots) on mailoland (Kiguli *et al.*, 2003:11). Due to these observations, the peri-urban poor of Dar es Salaam were probably better off in terms of using various methods for accessing land for agriculture than their counterparts in Kampala.

During the field survey for this study, the resource-poor farmers voiced resentment against the elite owning land in their areas. One resource-poor farmer in Kulangwa village in Goba ward said that he disliked the elite buying land in their areas. Another farmer of the Sukuma ethnicity complained that many elite of the Chagga ethnic group owned large tracks of land in Kulangwa village. In addition, observations showed that most of the urban elite were re-selling part or the entire farms to other urban dwellers most of whom built houses and established small farms. Yet, evidence in the studied wards showed that the impetus of land care in peri-urban areas shown in the 1970s and 1980s had almost declined as most farms' soils appeared infertile. Crops were not cared for and the common orange trees were not pruned, tree crops produced poor yields, and most of the farms that urban dwellers owned had coconut trees--thanks to the GTZ sponsored NCDP of the 1990s.

The peri urban resource-poor faced many difficulties in accessing land for agriculture, i.e. prohibitive high cost of land. For instance, one peri-urban resource-poor in Kulangwa village in Goba ward said that a hectare of land was sold for Tshs. 1.5 to 2.5 million (US\$ 1,442 to 2,404) depending on whether there were crops on it--such as coconuts and/or citrus trees (see Appendix Table A10). On a positive note, observations revealed that the peri-urban farms offered jobs as guards and/or farm workers to most of the resource-poor in the study areas. It was evident that there was an emerging group of 'land-less' resource-poor in peri urban areas who were further being impoverished by the elite who paid them low wages on their farms.

2.3 Land Legislation in Tanzania

2.3.1 Overview of land legislation

The right of occupancy in Tanzania is dualistic because smallholder farmers hold their land, almost entirely, under customary tenure or deemed right of occupancy. Subject to continuous use, and the approval of the village or other communal authorities, this right is held in perpetuity. This principle also applies to resource-poor farmers in peri-urban areas. The foundation of Tanzania's land legislation is the Land Tenure Ordinance Number 3/1923 (Land Ordinance Chapter 113). Enacted under the British Administration in 1923, this Act declared all land, whether occupied or unoccupied, to be public land. Land could be alienated under freehold rights, provided initially to foreign settlers, and later to large commercial agricultural undertakings. The remaining land was publicly held, for use under a "right of occupancy" by indigenous Tanzanians, defined in 1928 to indicate the "title of a native community lawfully using or occupying land in accordance with the customary law" (World Bank, 1994, URT, 1994a).

The conceptual framework that lay behind the Land Ordinance has been inherited virtually unaltered, and the post-independence government has had no express land tenure policy as such, and much less, a clear position on customary tenure (URT, 1994a). The most visible amendment of the Land Ordinance was to replace the term 'Governor', wherever it appeared in the Land Ordinance, with the term 'President'. After, independence in 1961, all freehold lands were converted to government leaseholds by the Freehold Titles (Conversion) and Government Leases Act. The non-freehold sector continued to be regulated by traditional tenure systems. All land in Tanzania is a public property lands vested in the President. The President is empowered by the Land Ordinance to grant land by way of a right of occupancy of a period of up to ninety-nine years. In practice the Ministry of Lands and Human Settlement Development (MLHSD) manages, administers and allocates land on behalf of the President.

The Arusha Declaration of 1967 brought changes in tenure arrangements. The most important event was "villagization", under which rural dwellers were brought together, often forcibly, into villages located and controlled by Government appointees. The intention was to encourage

communal production while permitting a more efficient provision of social services and infrastructure. Land-use in reorganized villages was a mix between individual tenure (often over a new, undeveloped plot), communal plots, or “block farms” where plots were located side by side to facilitate mechanization (Coulson, 1982).

Two pieces of legislation that followed the Arusha Declaration should be mentioned. The first was the Village Act 1975, which, together with other provisions, put the powers of land allocation and land-use in the hands of district directorates. The second relevant piece of legislation was the Local Government (District Authorities) Act, 1982, which consolidated the 1975 Village Act, and again called for the demarcation and registration of villages. The Local Government Act gave powers on all village matters, including the allocation of land for communal or individual use, to the village council. The system had no written guarantee of land ownership rights, which could be terminated at will by the state.

Then came National Agricultural Policy of 1983, which is the most recent official pronouncement on land tenure policy, it attempts to reduce tenure insecurity within the framework of village-based tenure: “It is therefore essential that all users feel confident that their investments of efforts and money will be beneficial to them and their families as well as to the nation as a whole. This principle applies equally to the peasant farmer, the village community and the private or public commercial farmer” (URT, 1983). The Policy outlines a system under which villages are allocated land under a 999-year lease, with the power to sublease any part of their land to individuals, enterprises or institutions for shorter periods of between 33 and 99 years. Such leases cannot be sold. It called for the MLHSD to continue work in designing a land tenure system, which would encourage conservation and investment while respecting “the traditional land practices and beliefs” (URT, 1983).

2.3.2 Selected Land Legislation

Land (Law of Property and Conveyancing) Ordinance of 1923 commenced operation on 19th January, 1923. As its name suggests, the Ordinance closely complements the Land Ordinance, 1923. The Ordinance is renowned for its provisions on application of English Law of property and conveyancing to Tanganyika (“special reception clause”); restrictions on dealings in land between natives and non-natives; and, the power of bodies corporate to hold land.

Then came the land ordinance of 1923, which commenced operation on 26th January, 1923 exactly one week after the Land (Law of Property and Conveyancing). Quite aptly, it is an Ordinance, which defines and regulates the tenure of land within Tanganyika. It, primarily governs the administration of “alienated” lands. The Ordinance defines important terms like “natives”, “right of occupancy” and “unexhausted improvement”. Further, and even more important, the Ordinance provides for the declaration of “public lands”; the vesting of control and disposition of such lands in the Governor; the grant of “rights of occupancy” out of such land and issuance of certificate of occupancy thereof; and, conditions and incidents of rights of occupancy. Suffice it to say that the Ordinance is, currently, the basic land law of Tanganyika. Other land laws merely govern specific aspects of land administration and management.

This was later followed by land regulations of 1948, which commenced operation on 10th December 1948. The Regulations are made under section 21 of the Land Ordinance. The regulations set out provision for Presidential consent for disposition of granted rights of occupancy (Reg. 3) and disclaimer of acceptance of rent as waiver of breach of terms, implied or expressed, of such right of occupancy (Reg.4).

The Land Registration Ordinance of 1953 commenced operation on 1st June, 1954 and is divided into 17 Parts, provides for the registration of land and matters pertaining to the title to land. Like the Land Ordinance, 1923, the Land Registration Ordinance, 1953 applies mostly to alienated land, much so to long term granted rights of occupancy. More specifically, the Ordinance sets out definitions for incidents like “disposition”, “estate”, “lease” and “register”. It also provides for registration of certificate(s) of occupancy; effect of such registration; the manner of effecting dispositions with special reference to transfers, leases and mortgages; rectification of the land register; and appeals against the decision of the Registrar of Titles.

This is the Town and Country Planning Ordinance of 1956, which commenced operation on 28th December, 1956. It is an Ordinance which was intended to make further and better provision for town and country planning. The Minister for Lands is empowered to give general or special directions to a Local Authority, Area Planning Committee or Preparatory Authority, and such directions shall be complied with (section 11). This is followed by the Land Survey Ordinance of 1957, which commenced operation on 1st June, 1959, and is divided into 8 parts, and provides for land surveys and licensing of land surveyors and for matters incidental thereto and connected therewith. There is also the Land Acquisition Act of 1967, which commenced on 23rd March, 1968, and provides for compulsory acquisition of lands for public purposes and in connection with housing schemes.

The Urban Leaseholds (Acquisition and Regrant) Act of 1968 is also important and it commenced operation on 17th May, 1968. The Act makes provision for the acquisition of certain urban lands developed by persons other than owners and for the regrant of lands so acquired. “Urban land” means land in an urban area, which is held for, or forms part of land held for, a right of occupancy (section 2(i)). The Local Government (Urban Authorities) Act of 1982 is an important one and it commenced operation on 14th March, 1983. It makes better provision for the establishment of urban authorities for the purposes of local government and also provides for the functions of those authorities and for other matters connected with or incidental to such authorities.

This is the Land Act of 1999, which basically is a land tenure and land rights legislation, but also addresses issues of compulsory acquisition, mortgages and regulation of unplanned areas. In recognition of the existence of informal types of tenure in urban areas, the Land Act provides for the validation of interests in land other than a granted right of occupancy (section 53-55). To address the issue of not many people in urban areas acquiring plots of land through a granted “right of occupancy” or “customary tenure”, the Act introduces the concept of a “residential licence”, as a derivative right (section 23 of the Act).

The Land Act is relevant to the peri-urban poor in terms of accessing and owning land for agriculture. The Act says that any person who at the commencement of the Act has occupied land in an urban area or peri-urban area as his/her home for not less than years, without any official title, is by virtue of this Act deemed to occupy that land as a residential licence under a licence granted from year to year, by the local authority with jurisdiction in that area. The term is not more than two years but can be renewed.

The licence may be subjected to any conditions including payment of fees and charges specified in the licence. The residential licence is entitled to compensation under the Land Acquisition Act 1967, should their land be expropriated. The residential licence is a tenure status that can be applied to land and property owners in unplanned areas. This is supposed to be implemented by

local authorities, but to date no authority has issued residential licences, although doing so would no doubt enhance the confidence of myriad landowners in urban and peri-urban areas.

The Land Act also deals with issues of compensation in general and with regard to land under regularization schemes in particular. No regularization scheme may take place unless the following undertakings have been fulfilled:

- (i) Occupation and use of land by those persons living and working in the area have been recorded, adjudicated, classified and registered.
- (ii) The President has acquired existing interests and right in accordance with section 45 of the Town and Country Planning Ordinance, and;
- (iii) Fair compensation is paid promptly for the rights and interests to be acquired by the President.

It should be noted however, that the provisions for regularisation are mainly aimed at “facilitating the recording, adjudication, classification and registration of the occupation and use of land by those persons living and working in the declared area”. It is the Minister who approves the Regularisation Scheme, and this will have to be submitted to him by the Commissioner for Lands.

2.3.3 Selected land policies

The National Agricultural Policy of 1983 (URT, 1983) is the most recent official pronouncement on land tenure policy attempting to reduce tenure insecurity within the framework of village-based tenure. The Policy outlines a system under which villages are allocated land under a 999-year lease, with the power to sublease any part of their land to individuals, enterprises or institutions for shorter periods of between 33 and 99 years. Such leases cannot be sold. It calls for the Ministry of Lands, Housing and Urban Development to continue work in designing a land tenure system, which would encourage conservation and investment while respecting “the traditional land practices and beliefs.

Then is the National Land Policy of 1985, which addresses issues of land tenure and administration, and survey and mapping, urban and rural land use planning, land use management, and institutional set up. On urban and rural land use planning, the Policy defines unplanned settlements, and notes that more than 50 percent of the urban residents live in poor conditions in unplanned areas without access to sanitation, water, road networks, telephone services, electricity, and other basic services. Landowners in these areas have no security of tenure.

The Urban Farming Regulations of 1992 is important for this study and it states that: “urban farming” means the carrying out of plant and animal husbandry activities within statutory township boundaries; no person shall occupy or use more than three acres of land for urban farming; only zero grazing is allowed and the number of cattle is restricted to four head per person; and farming activity which is deemed to constitute a nuisance in the form of noise or smell or pose physical danger to the safety of the public shall not be permitted in areas other than those zoned for urban agriculture.

The Agricultural and Livestock Policy of 1997 too is an important document. Specific to (peri) urban agriculture, the policy states that agriculture is not a principle function of towns, but when properly organized (peri) urban agriculture has the potential to provide employment, income and is a supplementary source of food supply. Furthermore, the policy states that the Government

will continue to regulate the conduct of UA and will ensure that it does not disrupt planned urban development.

The Human Settlements Development Policy of 2000 is relevant to this study, and specific to (peri) urban agriculture, the policy states that it shall: designate special areas within planned areas whereby people will be granted legal rights to engage in agricultural activities; continue to regulate and research on the conduct of urban agriculture, and will ensure that (peri) urban agriculture does not disrupt planned urban development; review the existing laws to facilitate planned (peri) urban agriculture; and facilitate the construction of appropriate infrastructure to mitigate/prevent land degradation, water pollution and health, and safety hazards in areas which (peri) urban agriculture is permitted (URT, 2000).

2.4 UA Legislation and Policy Problems

The municipal authorities i.e. all local authorities in the country including KMC condones UA practices. This was legally provided for in the Urban Farming Regulations of 1992 made under the Town and Country Planning Ordinance (Cap. 378) Section 78; (Government Notice No. 10 published on 25/2/93), which states:

“Urban farming” means the carrying out of plant and animal husbandry activities within statutory township boundaries. No person shall occupy or use more than three acres of land for urban farming. No person shall, except where that person practices zero-grazing, graze his animals in an urban area” (URT, 1993).

However, with all regulations in place, UA is practiced in KMC haphazardly. For instance, there are several cases where livestock numbers are above what is allowed, and are raised in commercial, institutional and residential areas threatening the health and safety of city residents. Despite of the potential role of UA, it is characterized by various structural and policy problems that have so far constrained its contribution in the urban economy, the environment and human health (Mwalusanya, 2000). One of the issues that were considered by the Sustainable Dar es Salaam Project (SDP) was the broad policy and structural issues that constrained UA. For instance, an e-conference organized by RUAF and reported by Baumeister and de Zeeuw (2003:5) concluded that “the integration of urban agriculture into City Land Use Plan requires an (inter-) active process involving various types of stakeholders with varying interests and perspectives and roles”. The stakeholders should include the municipal departments, NGOs, farmer organizations, universities, and other local stakeholders.

The next section examines the social capital theory, which was used to explain the resource-poor’s choice of certain methods to access land for agriculture in KMC.

2.5 The Social Capital Theory

This study described access to land for agriculture by the (peri) urban poor in Kinondoni municipality using the social capital theory. Social capital is a set of values and relationships created by individuals in the past that can be drawn on in the present and future to facilitate overcoming social dilemmas (Ahn and Ostrom, 2002). All forms of social capital involve investments that increase the probability of higher returns from individual and joint efforts over a future time period. Bowles and Gintis (2002, cited in Edwards, 2004) define social capital as referring to trust, concerns for one’s associates, a willingness to live by the norm of one’s community and punish those who do not conform. Broadly, social capital concerns the norms and values people hold that result in, and are the result of, collective and socially negotiated ties and relationships (Edwards, 2004). Edwards (ibid) further points out that social capital implies that people share a sense of identity, hold similar values, trust each other and reciprocally do things

for each other. This process has an impact on the social, political and economic nature of the society in which we live. As in many African societies, access to land for agriculture among the (peri) urban poor in KMC was controlled by socio-economic, cultural, legal and political factors, which in turn impact on peoples' social capital. For instance, a poor person who denied access to land to his/her next generation by selling land affected the social capital of the family-children migrating to town because they cannot have land in (peri) urban areas for agriculture.

This point is further echoed by Edwards (2004) and Fukuyama (1999) who assert that social capital also encompasses increasingly ethnically diverse societies, which in turn can cross-cut with social class inequalities. The extent to which social capital is available to families with limited resources and/or can be converted into economic capital, including that relating to employment and entrepreneurial development is debatable (Iverson and Farber, 2000 cited in Edwards, 2004). In Kinondoni municipality, there are diverse ethnicities and their members have used different systems and mechanisms to access land for (peri) urban agriculture. Therefore, using the social capital theory we shall explain the systems and mechanism or options that the (peri) urban poor have used to access land for agriculture.

The externalities from use of social capital may be positive (when a group of neighbours cleans up a neighbourhood) or negative (when a gang of youth protect their turf). Social capital reflects a way of conceptualizing how cultural, structural, and institutional aspects of small to large groups in a society interact and affect economic and political change (Ahn and Ostrom, 2002). Social capital is a core concept of a synthesizing framework that can be applied whenever collective endeavours of individuals are critical in achieving a collective goal. For instance, the work of Pierre Bourdieu in 1986 (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992 cited in Edwards, 2004) focused on family and group relationships, they viewed social capital as the resource that generated through these relationships. Family is seen as the means by which a range of capital assets is transmitted over time, across generations. Bourdieu emphasizes the way that social capital is constructed and maintained in the interaction between individual agency and a society stratified by social and economic inequalities. Pertinent to Kinondoni municipality, this study demonstrated how difficult it was for the (peri) urban poor to access land for agriculture because of their poverty and that little was left for transmission to the next generations.

Coleman (1991 cited in Edwards, 2004) sees social capital as inherent in the structure of family relationship, particularly inter-generation. Putman (2000 cited in Edwards, 2004) sees social capital as a distinct form of 'public good' embodied in civic engagement and having 'knock-on' effects for economic prosperity, rather than an individual good related to human capital. Yet, Fukuyama (1999) argues that in societies where there are strong family and kinship allegiances, the social connections may thus constrain economic prosperity. Furthermore, Putman (2000 cited in Ahn and Ostrom, 2002) bemoans both the 'breakdown' of traditional families as which has led to a loss of social capital, at the same time as bridging social ties and networks outside of families in the community. This process is ongoing in Kinondoni municipality, especially when the (peri) urban poor sold land to the urban rich, hence a break down of social capital among family members.

According to (Ahn and Ostrom, 2002), there are three basic forms of social capital include trustworthiness, networks, and institutions—these serve as independent inputs in economic and political processes and outcomes. First, is trustworthiness, which refers to person's preference that makes the person reciprocate even in the absence of networks or institutional incentives to do so – habits and values of individuals aggregated at a societal level. Second, are networks, which refer to future potential partners of transaction, the trustee are more likely to reciprocate

when entrusted. Social networks provide one's access to group's resource, with the outcome being enhanced economic rewards and social power. Ethnicity is frequently tightly associated with the concept of capital – but is the networks that ethnicity groups may create that is a form of social capital rather than the ethnicity as such.

Third, are institutions, which are the enforceable prescriptions, used by groups of individuals in multiple forms of organizations, ranging in scale from household to international regimes. Institutions are thus a very important form of social capital in that they may provide sufficient deterrent to greatly increase the likelihood that trustees will behave in reciprocal methods even when they face very high material temptations to break the trust placed into them (Ahn and Ostrom, 2002). In Kinondoni municipality, important institutions at the heart of accessing land to the resource-poor for agriculture were the household and the village governments. These institutions were found to be unable provide sufficient deterrents to issues that concerned access to land for agriculture by the resource-poor. For instance, individuals sold land to outsiders without considering family agricultural land needs and most village governments condoned these practices. However, it was well known to most of the (peri) urban resource-poor that land was the only thing that they had and without it most would not sustain their families. In essence, the money received from selling land would cease to exist but not the land.

In Kinondoni municipality, due to the inability of most of the (peri) urban poor to access land for agriculture, a change in social relations and context was taking place and the poor were building alternative forms of social networks, identifying with each other in different methods, and developing trust and reciprocity differently on this basis. What was relevant in this study in relation to accessing land for agriculture was that as more of the land that was not passed over through inheritance but through selling to city dwellers, the practice undermined the social capital generation and sustenance within families and communities. Hence, the practice allowed less social trustworthiness and networks among families and break up of family ties. This to a large extent has affected women more than men because of the social, cultural and socio-economic factors, which appeared to favour the latter in (peri) urban communities. The negative side effect of this has been the increased urban vices and social unrest from the exodus of youth to urban areas because they cannot access land for agriculture in the peri-urban areas.

2.6 Defining Poverty

A large proportion of people in peri urban areas of KMC could not access land for agriculture because of poverty. Therefore, this section explains what poverty is by reviewing several studies in order to come up with a clear understanding of poverty as it relates to this study. Poverty has been one of the social problems that have received the attention of many people including researchers, politicians, policy makers, economic planners, development workers, non-governmental organizations, health personnel, local and international donor agencies and other institutions. Existing definitions of poverty can be grouped into two categories: absolute poverty and the relative poverty. First, absolute poverty is the inability of a person or household to attain a specified (minimum) standard of living, the minimum standard being the poverty line. Second, relative poverty is based on the absolute economic well being enjoyed by the poorest percentage of the population, with regard to the welfare distribution of the entire society. In Tanzania, the 1993 Poverty Profile is formulated on the basis of the two poverty lines: the poor (soft-core-poverty), and the very poor (hard-core poverty) (World Bank, 1993).

Basically, there has been disagreement as to what constitutes poverty, its causes, and the yardstick to measure it; and hence the subsequent measures to take in order to alleviate this seemingly universal unwanted social malaise (Musoke, 2000). The disagreement on poverty has

centred around three main areas: absolute versus relative poverty, material versus multiple deprivation, and inequality versus poverty. A review of literature on poverty appear to agree that poverty is a multi-dimensional as it includes all aspects: absolute and relative, material and multiple, and is also interlocked and linked with inequality and with politics. This is the view which informs this study on the peri-urban resource poor to access land for peri-urban agriculture in KMC.

Drawing on the Poverty Profile for Tanzania prepared in 1993 by the World Bank, a poverty line expenditure level of Tshs. 46,173 (US\$ 211) (at an average official exchange rate of Tshs. 219 per US \$) per capita per annum in 1991 was set for Tanzania (World Bank, 1993). This level of expenditure was 50 percent of the mean adult equivalent expenditure level (or 75 percent of the mean per capita expenditure level) and was well below the "one dollar a day" concept commonly used to define poverty (World Bank, 1993). It was higher than the Tshs. 31,000 income level which had been estimated by the ILO to just cover minimum food and shelter needs, and which defined the "hard core poor".

One characteristic of poverty is to identify those whose adjusted adult equivalent expenditure levels fall below the poverty line. In the case of Tanzania, about 51 percent of the populations live in houses whose adjusted adult equivalent income is below the poverty line (World Bank, 1993). A second characterization, which provides information on the depth of poverty, is to calculate the level of expenditure supplementation necessary to bring the expenditure of the poor in adult equivalent terms up to the poverty line. Thus, if all the poor are only marginally below the poverty line, this quantity expressed as a share of poverty line expenditure, will be small. As Table 2.2 shows, this is the case in Tanzania, where the supplementation is equivalent to a about 25 percent of the poverty line expenditure level (World Bank, 1993).

Table 2.2: Poverty in Tanzania

Areas	Share of pop. with adjusted adult equiv. incomes below the poverty line of Tshs. 46,173/annum	Share of the poor in total population	Depth of poverty
Rural villages	59.1%	85%	29.9
Urban outside DSM	39.3%	13%	15.1
DSM	9.3%	2%	3.1
Tanzania	51.1%	100.0%	24.9
Rural			
Farmers	59.1%	83%	30.1
Business persons	61.1%	1%	23.1
Govt. employees	28.7%	1%	15.5
Urban including DSM			
Self-employed	33.7%	14%	12.8
Business persons	8.4%	1%	1.2
Govt. employees	9.7%	1%	3.5
Tanzania	51.1%	100%	24.9

Source: World Bank, Poverty Profile, 1993.

All indices of poverty show that the rural population is significantly more disadvantaged than the urban. About 85 per cent of all poor people live in rural areas (Table 2.2). Over 59 percent of persons living in rural areas (including farmers) are poor, where as only 39 percent of non-Dar es Salaam urban dwellers, and only 9 per cent of urban dwellers in Dar es Salaam were considered poor (World Bank, 1993). This study found that the incidence of poverty was higher for businesspersons, and lower for government employees, and that 83 percent of all poor persons lived in households where the main occupation was farming (Table 2.2). In KMC, this figure remains true to day (see Table 4.3, Appendix Table A8).

Furthermore, the Tanzania-World Bank study found that access to land, per se, did not appear to be linked to poverty. Collier *et al.* (1990:106) study on labour and poverty in rural Tanzania summarized that "the poor are poor because of low returns to labour rather than due to labour shortages". These low returns to labour can in turn be explained by the low endowments of non-labour assets owned by the poor (Table 2.3).

Table 2.3: Characteristics of poor population in Tanzania.

	Poor	Non-poor
Adults who read and write	59%	75%
HH with over 30 minutes to water	23%	16%
Dependence ratio	1.31	1.01
HH size (persons)	6.8	5.9
Female headed HH	9.3%	9.5%
Ha cultivated per capita	0.62	0.62
HH with land	93%	73%
Share of food from own production	32%	34%

Source: World Bank, Poverty Profile, 1993.

However, land endowments in a village differ for different groups and individuals, "not only in accordance with age, status and gender, but also depending on whether one is *mwenyeji* (indigenous) or *mgeni* (new comer)" (Odgaard, 2002). This was also true in KMC's peri-urban areas (see Appendix A7, Figure A14).

2.6.1 Poverty alleviation: Government efforts

The Tanzanian government has spearheaded poverty alleviation efforts using the following policy documents and processes: Development Vision 2025, The National Poverty Eradication Strategy (NPES), Tanzania Assistance Strategy (TAS), Public Expenditure Review and Medium Term Expenditure Framework Processes, and Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) (Likwelile, 2003). The Vision 2025 stipulates the broad development agenda for the country and envisages Tanzania to be free from abject poverty by 2025. The Tanzania PRSP was prepared through the consultative and participatory process involving different stakeholders at different levels. It is also based on the Development Vision 2025, and NPES aims at the reduction of income poverty, improving human capabilities, survival and social well-being. PRSP is viewed as a national action plan, implemented to achieve objectives set out in Development Vision 2025 TAS, and NESP, as instruments for channeling and concentrating national efforts of halving absolute poverty by 2010 and eradicating it by 2025 in order to achieve the Millennium Development Goals.

In 2002, the Tanzania government carried out a Household Budget Survey (HBS) (URT, 2002). The survey found that the proportion of the population below the food poverty line had declined from 21.6 percent in the 1991/92 to 17.7 percent in 2000/01 signifying a fall of 18 percent over the decade. Furthermore, the survey found that the proportion of the population below the basic need poverty line declined from 38.6 to 35.3 percent (a decline of 8%) over the same period. Inequality levels seem to have risen slightly, with a *Gini coefficient* of 0.37 compared to 0.34 in 1991/92. HBS found that there was improved economic performance in terms of macroeconomic stability and higher growth rates (at 6.2%), and low rates of inflation (down to 4.2% per annum). However, there are observations that achievements at macro level are not translating into improvement of lives of the poor majority, especially in rural areas (Likwelile, 2003). This was also true among the resource-poor studied because preliminary observations and past literature showed that there were no improvements in the way they accessed land for agriculture. For instance, it is agreed by most people that: poverty incidence is still not at acceptable levels both in rural and urban areas, and the absolute numbers of the poor has increased. In rural and urban

areas, poverty appear to exert a strong influence on overall poverty levels; and that more than a third of Tanzanians (i.e. 11 million) cannot satisfy their basic needs-so live in the hardcore poverty (Likwelile, 2003; URT, 2003).

2.6.2 Poverty in Dar es Salaam and KMC

Examining poverty in Dar es Salaam, the Poverty Profile Study of 1993 divided the country into three groups: rural areas, urban areas excluding Dar es Salaam the capital city. About 70 percent of all Tanzanians live in rural areas, and of these 30 percent lived in urban areas of which 10 percent of these lived in the city of Dar es Salaam. The Poverty Profile survey found that just over half of the households in Tanzania were living in poverty: over half of the population was living in poverty and over a third, in hard core poverty (World Bank, 1993). With a population of 26 million people in 1990, this meant that 13 and nine million people were living in poverty and hard-core poverty, respectively.

Because of the fact that things have not changed to better since the 1990s, one would estimate the number of people living in poverty given the 34 million people from the 2002 census results (URT, 2003) because 17 and 11 million people living in poverty and hard-core poverty, respectively. For the city of Dar es Salaam with a population of 2.5 million people (URT, 2003), the figure would be estimated as 225,000 people (which is 9% of the urban dwellers) who are desorbed to be living in poverty. Similarly, in KMC with a population of 1.1 million people (URT, 2003) the estimate figure would be 99,000 (9% of the urban dwellers) living in poverty, hence, unable to access land for agriculture (see Appendix A3).

Summarily, apart from the official statistics and academic writings showing that rural poverty is serious than urban, at face value, urban poverty appears serious in major cities such as Dar es Salaam. This is because of a number of reasons: increased population, poor housing, eating one meal a day, low income, having more people to care, having no land to farm, forced into begging and prostitution, overcrowded housing, living in unplanned areas, and above all working in an informal sector. Moreover, urban poverty may be even more debilitating than rural poverty because in urban areas, unlike in rural areas, access to virtually all goods and services depends on having a cash income (URT, 2003). In peri-urban areas of KMC poverty appeared to be one of the major constraints for the resource-poor not to access land for agriculture.

Figure 2.1 shows a conceptual framework of factors residing at four levels that limited (peri)-urban resource-poor inability to access land for agriculture in Kinondoni municipality. These factors are nested within the Tanzanian socio-political, economic, and cultural milieu, and are further manifested at four levels: the government, municipal council, village and the individual farmer. Furthermore, the factors in Figure 2.1 could be classified as falling into two groups: internal and external. Internal factors were those that the (peri)-urban resource-poor had and these included culture, physiological, economical, social, gender, educational, and knowledge and skills, ethnicity and lineage. The external factors were those outside the (peri) urban resource-poor milieu and they included political, economical, spatial/geographical, legal, land tenure, and religion.

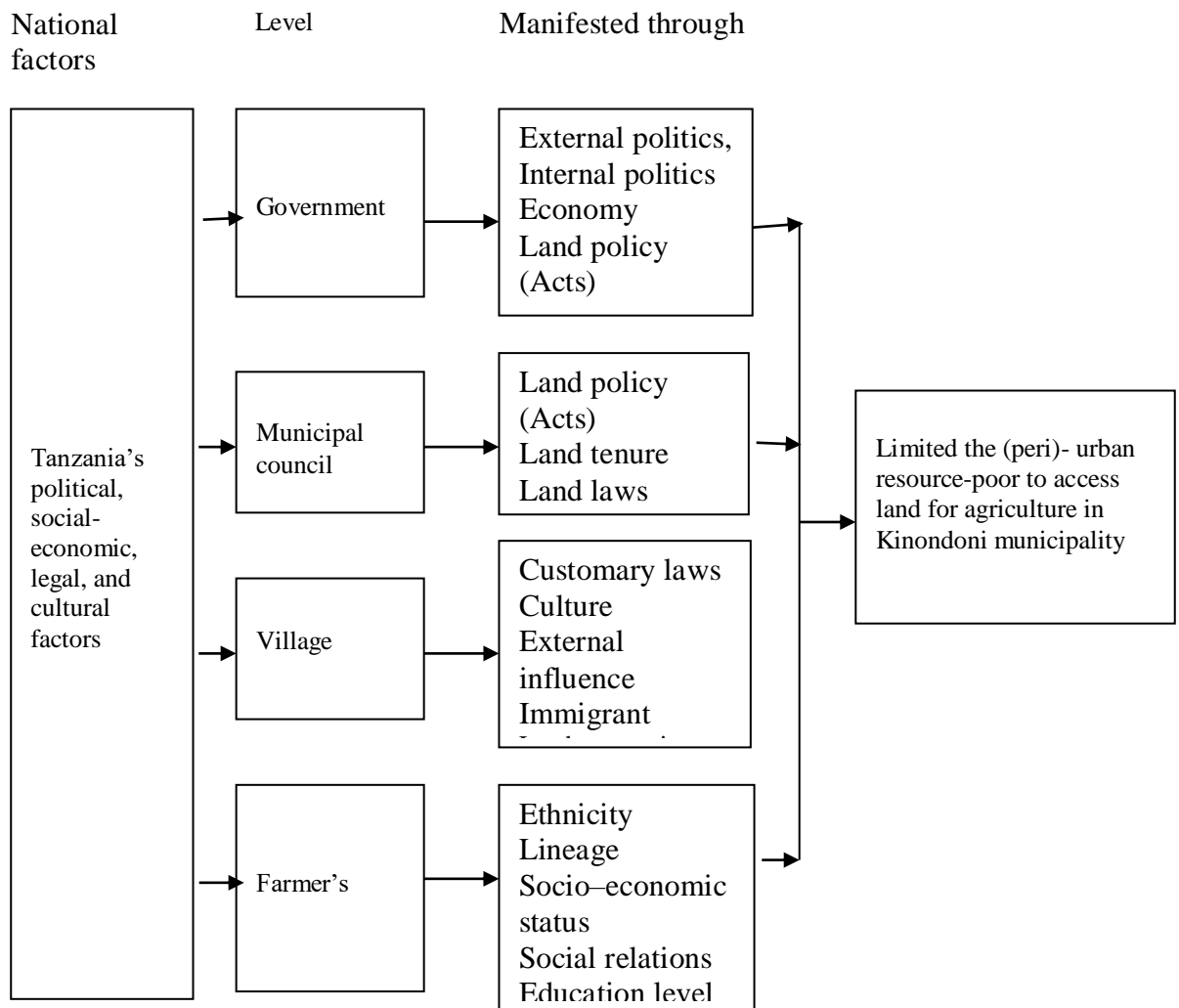


Figure 2.1: Factors residing at four levels that limit the peri-urban resource-poor to access land for agriculture Kinondoni municipality.

2.7 Summary

This chapter provided answers to objectives 1, 2 and 4 of the study. To achieve this the chapter was divided into eight sections. Section one provided an overview of urban agriculture followed by a discussion on PUA in Tanzania with reference to Kinondoni municipality. Section three and four examined the land legislation in Tanzania highlighting the relevant ones for PUA. The social capital theory was discussed in section five followed by an extensive discussion on poverty. Lastly, poverty was examined in Dar es Salaam, with particular reference to Kinondoni municipality and planned efforts to alleviate it. Lastly, the chapter displays a conceptual framework of factors residing at four levels that limit the (peri)-urban poor to access land for agriculture in Kinondoni municipality. These factors are nested with the Tanzanian socio-political, economic, and cultural milieu, and are further manifested at four levels: the government, municipal council, village and the individual farmer.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses data collection methods, pilot testing of questionnaires, questionnaire survey, focus group discussions, desk studies, and transect walks. The six studied wards are discussed in detail including the research protocol that was adopted. Furthermore, actors and stakeholders involved in the key issues were also varied among urban farmers, policy makers at municipal and ward level, planners, providers of services and support organizations.

In order to meet the political economy information needs of the various actors and stakeholders, and the solutions and strategies needed for improving access of the urban poor to land for peri-urban agriculture (PUA) to be identified, suitable research methodologies were adopted. The research methodology in the project study was inter-disciplinary, cross-sectional and participatory in line with the observed characteristics of the categories of actors and stakeholders in PUA (Figure 3.1). Both qualitative and quantitative information were collected through desk studies, analysis of reports and policy documents, legislation, key informants and focus group discussions. Each of these approaches and methods are explained below. Summarily, the chapter is divided into three sections: sampling procedures, data collection methods, and explanation of the wards chosen for the study.

3.1 Sampling Procedure

A stratified random selection was performed where the process of breaking down the population in the district into mutually exclusive and exhaustive strata was achieved, i.e. the urban poor divided were into two distinct groups: those undertaking UA (referred to as UA), those not undertaking UA (referred to as non-UA), and lastly respondents who resided in peri-urban areas and mainly undertook agriculture (referred to as RA). These defined strata formed the sub population from the original district population and were formed on the basis of some known characteristics about the population. Furthermore, the defined strata, i.e. the urban poor undertaking UA were related to the variable interest of the research. Random selection from each stratum was performed and finally combined into a single research sample to estimate the population parameters. The research team ensured that elements within the stratum were as homogeneous as possible and that stratum-to-stratum variations were relatively large.

As Henry (2001:123) suggests the following formula was adopted in this descriptive study:

$$n' = s^2 / (te/t)^2$$

$$n = n' / (t + f);$$

where n' is the sample size computed in the first step, s is the estimate of the standard deviation, te is the tolerable error, t is the t value for the desired probability level (i.e. 95%), n is the efficient sample using the finite population correction error factor, and f is the sampling.

Using the above preliminary data and the sample size formula, the sample size was estimated to be 801 respondents of which 145 were UA, 174 non-UA, and 480 RA (see Appendices Table A1, Table A2).

3.2 Data Collection Methods

3.2.1 Participatory appraisal methodology

This was most appropriate for establishing the basis of local participation in PUA. Participatory appraisal was used in identifying obstacles that the poor faced for accessing land for agriculture

(Figure 3.1). In this research, the methodology provided an in depth analysis of the situation. The principal idea was that the research remained open to new perspectives and insights into why the (peri) urban poor had problems in accessing land for agriculture. In this research, the methodology provided an in depth analysis of the situation and thus produced detailed information needed for this research. In this research, researchers became learners who went into the field with a set of questions. Respondents both those practicing urban agriculture, non-farming urban dwellers, and those in the peri-urban areas became teachers and guides who provided a lot of input that was used to address the research questions. The respondents also discussed their lived experiences, which explained exhaustively the issues and problems of the study.

The research also adopted the consultation mode in collecting the information. At the household level discussions were informally held with the (peri)-urban poor who gave their views on the magnitude of the problem regarding access to land for agriculture in the district. At the ward level, and the municipal offices (extension agents, land planners, community development, municipal director) were informally consulted and asked to give their opinions as why most of the (peri)-urban poor did not access land for agriculture. In some cases, participation in this research was guaranteed by giving some monetary incentives to the participants.

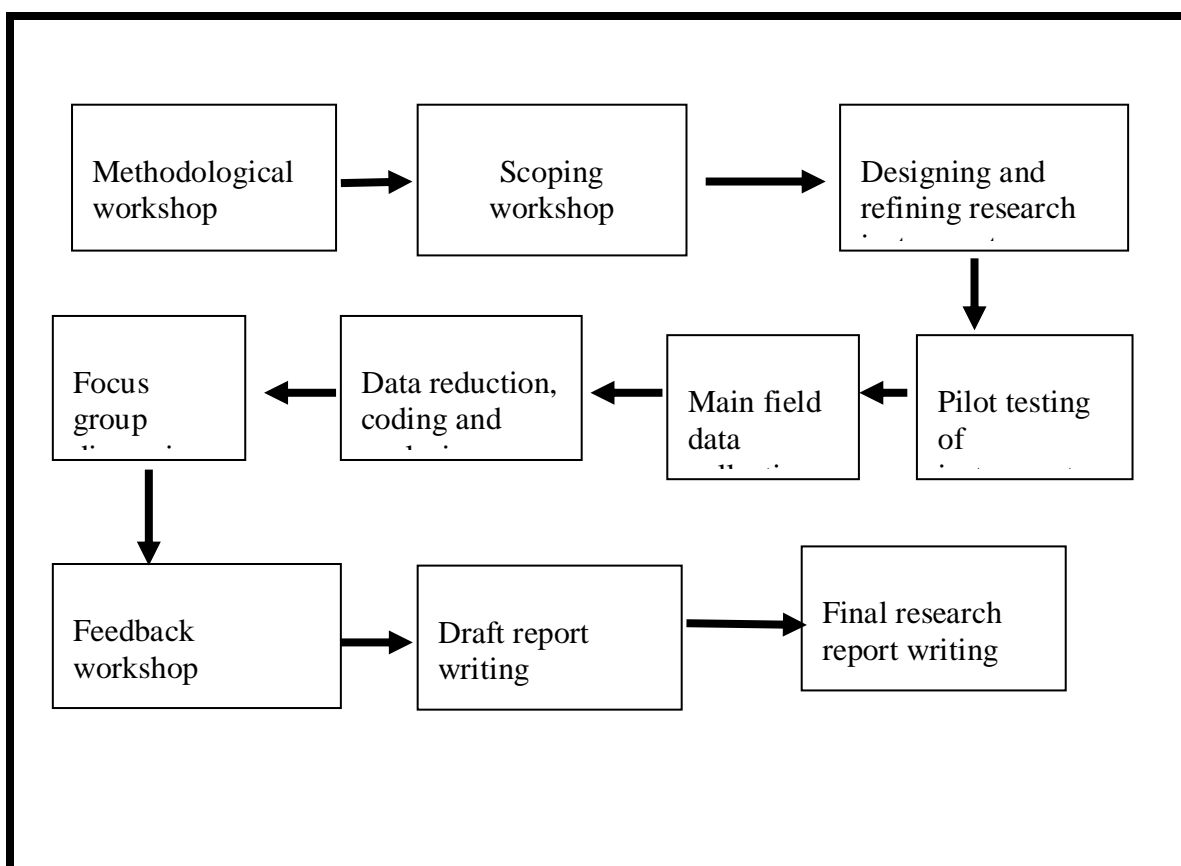


Figure 3.1 The research protocol

3.2.2 Pilot testing of questionnaires

Pilot testing of the questionnaires was done in two areas. First, 12 resource-poor farmers practicing UA (UA) and 14 non- UA practicing urban poor were randomly selected in Hananasif area in Kinondoni Municipal Council (KMC) where two types of the questionnaires were tested. Second, 20 RA (poor peri-urban farmers) in Mbezi Louis peri-urban areas of KMC were randomly selected for pilot testing. The responses from the three groups of categories of the poor

were analyzed and used to improve the main questionnaires used for this study. Furthermore, during the pilot testing exercise, researchers gathered qualitative information from the leaders in the *mitaas*, Ward Executive Offices, and staff at KMC. The questionnaires were further content validated by staff at KMC's departments of town planning, community development, agriculture and livestock, legal and other academicians. This information was later used to improve the questions in the main questionnaires. The resource-poor in the two pre-tested areas were not used in the main survey.

3.2.3 Questionnaire surveys

These were used to extract information from the interviewees. A sample of 801 respondents was interviewed (see Appendices Table A1, A2). In the surveys both quantitative and qualitative data were collected, and this approach was used to achieve objectives 1, 2 and 3 of the research. Three types of questionnaires were used for this study (see Appendices A16, A17, A18). The first set of questionnaire was designed for the urban poor who practiced urban agriculture (hereafter referred to as UA) (see Appendix A17). The second set of questionnaire was used for the urban poor who did not practice urban agriculture (hereafter referred to as non-UA) (see Appendix A16). The third set of questionnaire was used to elicit information from the peri-urban poor who practiced agriculture in the peri-urban areas (hereafter referred to as RA) (see Appendix 18). In all cases, both quantitative and qualitative information was gathered from the respondents in their households. For instance, observations of the environment in which respondents live were also used to judge whether the randomly sampled persons qualified to be called poor, and thus merited to be interviewed (see Appendices Tables A1, A2). The rationale for interviewing the three types of respondents was to establish the magnitude of the problem regarding access to land for agriculture by the poor. One initial idea for including the non-UA practicing urban poor was to understand factors that hindered them from accessing land for agriculture in urban areas. Another thinking was that the non-UA practicing urban poor had other enterprises from which they obtained money to sustain their livelihoods in town and therefore accessing land for agriculture was not a priority. For those who undertook urban agriculture it was important to know how they accessed the land they used for urban agriculture. It was necessary to include the (peri) urban poor in the study because agriculture was their main economic main activity. The overriding issue was to understand how they accessed land that they used for agriculture.

One salient observation in Tanzanian towns is the co-existence nature of the poor and well-to-do individuals in non-surveyed areas. For instance, it is not surprising to find an expensive "mansion" built amidst a poor neighbourhood. This was typical in Kawe, Mwananyamala, and Tandale wards. This phenomenon needs to be recognized when studying the poor in Tanzanian towns and its effects on the quality of information collected.

3.2.4 Focus group discussions: for qualitative data

Focus group discussions were used to complement and verify results in the main household questionnaire interviews by providing participants a chance to articulate and elaborate on selected issues that had previously been asked (see Appendix Table A4). The randomly selected individuals were not included in the main survey. Focus group discussion had an advantage over questionnaire interviews because they afforded the participants a chance to articulate and elaborate their views fully. This approach allowed researchers to collect qualitative data. This approach was used to achieve objective 3 of the research. In this case, four groups each with an average of 10 (Bunju-11; Kawe-9; Mwananyamala 9; Tandale 13) people were randomly

selected and brought together at the Ward Executive Offices to discuss some of the issues pertaining to improving access to land for agriculture by the (peri) urban poor. The discussions involved a facilitator and a person who recorded the excerpts of the discussions on the flip charts. The research team listened to the discussions and made their own independent recording, which were later compared with those on the flip charts and a final version was produced. The facilitator asked a question to the respondents who discussed it at length. Respondents were free to interrogate the responses of their fellow discussants.

3.2.5 Desk studies

Desk studies were conducted to gather information that could not be collected using the two methods mentioned above. The research team collected the relevant literature and information relating to this study. This information included both quantitative and qualitative data. Study reports from research institutions, government offices, journal articles, and other studies were important sources of secondary data. Desk studies in this research were used to achieve objectives 1, 2, and 4.

3.2.6 Gender analysis

This was used to explore roles, allocation of labour, time, constraints and choices for men and women. In this research, gender was a crosscutting and did apply to all objectives of the research. Livelihood frameworks were used to investigate access to land and the use of natural resources, capital and contribution of (peri) urban agriculture to livelihood of participants. Gender analysis was used to achieve objective 1 and 4.

3.2.7 Transact walks

These were useful in understanding or prioritizing research issues. These were done in the study areas (similar to site visits) where researchers saw the situations as they were on the ground. Transact walks in the study areas gathered information that aided in understanding problems that the poor faced in accessing land for agriculture in the study areas. These walks were used to achieve objective 6 of the study.

3.2.8 Stakeholders' Workshop

Stakeholders' workshop was used to gain consensus. The workshop included participants from the KMC Directors' office, Councilors from the study Wards, KMC Head of Departments, Agriculture Extension Officer from the study Wards, and farmers' representatives from the six study Wards (see Appendix Table A5). In (peri) urban agriculture, researchers found that there were many divergent viewpoints among professionals, policy makers, and farmers on policy and practice. First, the workshop helped to facilitate an understanding among participants of the research results for poor not to access land for agriculture in the municipality. Second, the workshop helped to bring together policy makers and farmers to discuss and resolve the conflicts that arise in accessing land by the poor for agriculture. Third, the workshop improved on local governance by having the poor voice their concerns to the policy makers (councilors, KMC officials) and demand solutions to the problems. Gaining consensus among stakeholders on the discussed issues was therefore crucial in solving problems that hindered the poor to access land for agriculture in KMC. Earlier on during the start of the research project a Scoping Workshop was held, which also brought together various stakeholders together to map out the research agenda for this research project. All these two workshops were used to achieve objective 1, 2 and 3 of the research project.

3.3 Case Study Wards in Kinondoni Municipality

The general objective of this research project was to contribute to a better understanding of how the urban poor access land for (peri) urban agriculture. To partly accomplish this objective, this study was carried out in six wards of Kinondoni Municipality with a population of 1,088,867 people (see Appendix Table A3). The three urban wards included Kawe, Mwananyamala and Tandale, while three peri-urban wards included Bunju, Goba and Kibamba. The study surveyed 321 respondents in urban and 480 in the peri-urban wards (see Appendix Table A1, A2), hence a total of 801. The study engaged 12 enumerators who had completed Form VI in 2003. These were trained for a day in interviewing and questionnaire filling. The study was conducted from 30th June to 31st July, 2003.

Researchers introduced themselves orally to the Ward Executive Officers (WEOs) and later produced copies of letters of introduction from Sokoine University of Agriculture and from the Director of Kinondoni Municipal Council. In turn, WEOs wrote introductory letters to the street (*mitaa*) or village chairpersons describing the aim of the study and seeking the cooperation of local leaders. The *mtaa* or village chairpersons introduced researchers and enumerators to the Village Executive Officers (VEOs) who later took them to the ten-cell leaders. The ten-cell leaders took the researchers and enumerators to the randomly sampled respondents to carry out the interviews.

The number of the respondents to be interviewed in each ward was determined as earlier discussed before going out in the field. To avoid bias, the studied *mtaa*, wards, villages or wards were divided into four quadrants and respondents were drawn from the centre, north, south, east and west of the wards. The aim of dividing the ward in four quadrants was to cover the whole area of the ward in which the urban poor lived. This study was participatory in nature as the local leaders (WEO, ten-cell leaders, agriculture and livestock extension agents, *mtaa* or village chairpersons, community development personnel, street or *mtaa* secretaries) played a big role in facilitating the study. These individuals were well informed of the phenomena being studied and were involved in data collection and in providing qualitative data as the study proceeded.

The choice of the respondents was based on the ten households that were under one ten-cell leader. Here, four persons were interviewed and of these, two were females and the remaining two were males. The ten-cell leader was asked to say the names of the household heads in her/his jurisdiction. The researcher ordered the names of females and males alphabetically and assigned them numerical numbers. The numerical numbers were later written on pieces of paper, which were folded and mixed together. The village chairperson was then asked to draw four pieces of folded papers bearing the numbers; two from the list of females and two from the list of males. The numbers were then matched with the names of the poor people in the ordered list who were later interviewed in their homes or compounds.

Furthermore, researchers ensured that the selected respondents were poor by ascertaining that their houses had the following characteristics: had walls made out of poles, plastered with mud, thatched with coconut leaves or grass, were relatively small, and of poor quality compared with other houses in the neighbourhood. Researchers looked at the general family conditions of the respondents i.e. not well dressed, not well fed, lacked social services (i.e. no water tapes, no electricity, no roads), size of plot, availability of toilets, presence and quality of livestock (i.e. chicken).

Another criterion employed in the study was the distances from each street (*mtaa*) or village. For each of the studied street (*mtaa*) within a ward, the distances ranged from six to ten kilometres

apart (i.e. Muzimuni to Mlalakuwa street). In urban areas, the distances from one studied urban ward to another ranged from six to eight kilometres i.e. Kawe to Mwananyamala. Furthermore, the distances from one peri-urban ward to another ranged from 20 to 40 kilometres i.e. from Bunju to Kibamba ward. In this study the studied peri-urban villages within a ward were about six to ten kilometres apart i.e. Luguruni to Kibwegere villages in Kibamba ward. Appendix Table A2 shows the distribution of respondents of a sample of 480 peri-urban poor in the wards of Kibamba, Bunju and Goba in KMC. One important thing noted in the study areas was the heterogeneity of the population in relation to ethnic composition.

All interviews of the respondents were done in their homes. After finishing interviewing the selected respondents from the household the researcher and the enumerator asked the ten-cell leader to take them to the next house or compound of another respondent to continue with the interview. After the ten-cell leader was satisfied that all of the four respondents in her/his ten households had been interviewed, the ten-cell leader took the researcher and the enumerator to the next ten-cell leader, and the process continued for the other respondents. An important aspect of this study was its close and strict supervision that the research team meted on the enumerators to ensure that they gathered accurate and credible information.

3.3.1 Rationale for choosing the study sites

3.3.1.1. Kawe

Kawe Ward had high-, medium- and low-density plots. In the 2002 National Census, Kawe had a total population of 94,535 people of which 48,058 and 46,477 were males and females, respectively (see Appendix Table A3). The ward had more poor urban dwellers compared to the other wards in the district. Most of the poor people farmed on small plots most of which they did not own legally. For the few who claimed ownership to small plots they had no title deeds to the land. There were open spaces in which *Amaranthus spp.* was widely grown, and other vegetables both for sale and household consumption. Field crops such as cassava, sweet potatoes, plantains, and maize were common. Urban dwellers of low, medium and high income reside here. Due to the municipality's expansion, traditional farmers had been subsumed. There was a lot of land speculation, especially in the periphery areas of the ward. Most people came here to work for the Tanganyika Packers—a company that shut down in the 1970s. The Ward is about 15 to 20 kilometres away from Kinondoni Municipal Council Hall.

3.3.1.2 Mwananyamala

In the 2002 National Census, Mwananyamala had a total population of 44,531 people of which 21,946 and 22,585 were males and females, respectively (see Appendix Table A3). This Ward had house plots of high-density and most of its urban dwellers were classified as poor. Few of the urban poor had small pieces of land, especially in the valleys, open spaces on the un-built plots that they used for UA, while others had no land. The ward is about 6 to 12 kilometres away from Kinondoni Municipal Council Hall. The ward had fewer open spaces for undertaking urban agriculture. The urban poor in this ward had characteristics that offered an opportunity to document and analyze strategies and procedures used to prevent, manage, and resolve conflicts over the access to land for agriculture.

3.3.1.3 Tandale

During the National Census of 2002, Tandale ward had a total population of 45,058 people of which 23,588 and 12,470 were males and females, respectively (see Appendix Table A3). In many aspects this ward was similar to Mwananyamala. About 90% of the inhabitants lived in poor conditions with poor infrastructure (i.e. electricity, water, road network). Some of the poor dwellers farmed in the valleys, open spaces but the plots were tiny (i.e. 10 m²). The ward is

nearer to KMC hall, about five kilometers away. One of the reasons for selecting the Ward was the high poverty levels among its inhabitants and the shortage of land for urban agriculture.

3.3.1.4 Kibamba, Bunju and Goba

These were typical peri-urban wards in which most of the people were traditional farmers. In 2002 Census, Kibamba had a total population of 17,998 people of which 9,164 and 8,834 were males and females, respectively (see Appendix Table A3). Bunju Ward with urban and peri-urban characteristics had a total of 20,858 people of which 10,668 and 10,200 were males and females, respectively. Goba ward had more rural-like characteristics and in the 2002 Census it recorded total population of 8,517 people of which 4,473 and 4,044 were males and females, respectively. In addition, there was also a high degree of land buying in the three wards by the well-to do urban dwellers.

Since the 1980s, prices of land in these wards have sky rocketed because of the influx of urban dwellers from the city. The wards have also experienced intense land partitioning, immigration, and thus have an increased number of people without land for agriculture, especially among the poor. With the exception of Goba, Kibamba and Bunju wards each is crossed by major road, Morogoro and Bagamoyo, respectively which have contributed to increase in land prices. It is these reasons, which made these wards to be included in this study. These wards are about 20 to 40 kilometres away from Kinondoni Municipal Council Hall.

3.3 Summary

This chapter describes the research methodology of the study in three sections: sampling procedures, data collection methods, and explanation of the wards chosen for the study. This chapter discussed in detail data collection methods, pilot testing of questionnaires, questionnaire survey, focus group discussions, desk studies, and transact walks.

CHAPTER 4

KEY FINDINGS

4.0 Introduction

The question of access to land is critical in determining the extent to which people can exercise (peri)-urban agriculture and also the nature of agriculture that is carried out. This part of the study deals with land issues. It evaluated respondents' awareness of land legislation, their house ownership pattern, modes of accessing land for urban agriculture, size of land parcels, the extent to which urban agriculture was valued. Others were land price, type of agriculture being conducted in urban areas and what the respondents would have liked to see the central, local and village governments do in order to improve their access to land for urban and peri-urban agriculture. This chapter through its various sections addresses objectives 1,2, 3 and 4 by documenting formal and informal practices, strategies and means used by socially differentiated men and women to access land for (peri) urban agriculture. To achieve this the chapter is divided into five main sections: land issues, accessing land by selected respondents' characteristics, accessing land based on gender, land conflicts and how they were resolved, and the legal and policy issues of PUA.

4.1 Land Issues: An Overview

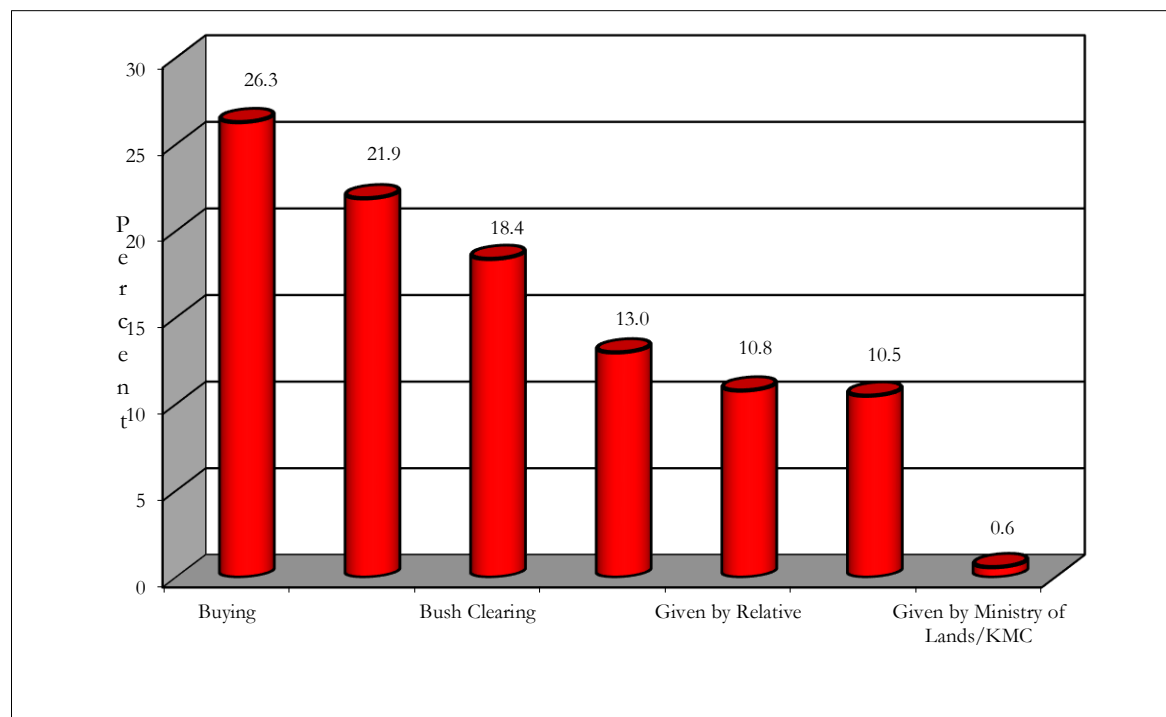
The study evaluated a number of issues with regard to access to land. Out of a total of 778 respondents more than a half (58.6%) stated that they owned land for agriculture. Also, (87.4%) agreed that it was important to own land for agriculture. However, when asked as to whether

they had plans to own more land for agriculture, slightly more than half of the respondents (51.8%) indicated that they had no plans of increasing the size of their agricultural holdings. Reasons given for this varied from lack of capital for agricultural inputs, lack of money for purchasing land, labour shortage and being too old to engage in agriculture (see Appendix Table A11). Of the 108 respondents who had just acquired land for agriculture, 52.7 percent said they would use the land for farming plus construction of a house whereas 43.6 percent said they would use it solely for farming. On the issue of how the respondents perceived possibilities of getting land now compared to the situation five years ago, an overwhelming 86.3 percent stated that it is now relatively more difficult to get land for agriculture. Most of them cited the increase in the cost of living as a major impediment to owning land and suggested land be given free as the best way of enabling them to take part in urban and peri-urban agriculture.

On the issue of ways of acquiring land in KMC, a total of 417 respondents provided responses. Of these, 315 were from peri-urban areas and their responses indicated that ways of acquiring land in peri-urban areas included: purchasing (26.3%), inheriting (21.9%), bush clearing (18.4%), being granted land by the village government (13.0%), being given land by a relative (10.8), by a friend (10.5%) and being allocated land by the Ministry of Lands and Human Settlement Development (MLHSD) or Kinondoni Municipal Council (KMC) (0.6%) and others.

It was apparent that the most popular means of acquiring land in peri-urban areas of Kinondoni was through land purchase followed by inheritance, bush clearing and allocation of land by the village governments. But, this is subject to change when we present cross tabulation results below. Worthy of note was the fact that an insignificant number of respondents obtained land through allocation by the MLHSD or KMC. Figure 4.1 below shows the main ways of accessing land for agriculture in peri-urban areas of Kinondoni.

Figure 4.1. Modes of accessing land in peri-urban KMC



These findings underscore the fact that more people are now accessing land through purchase instead of inheritance. The findings are supported by Kironde (1989), who in connection with ways of accessing land in Bunju village observed that in the year 2001:-

...the role of allocation by the village council, and inheritance seem to be limited. What is significant is the importance of purchase. Although public policy is not in favour of accepting the sale and purchase of land, data from Bunju shows that by far the majority of landowners are increasingly getting access to land by way of purchase. Allocation by village governments is getting more and more constrained since much of the land is in private ownership. This also hampers allocation by public authorities.

There are several problems that prevented the urban poor from owning land for agriculture in KMC. Of the 480 RA, 463 (96.5%) indicating the major problems that prevented them from owning land for agriculture in KMC. Of these, 323 (69.8%), 126 (27.2%), 41 (8.9%), 34 (7.3%), 29 (6.3%), 21 (4.5%) and 19 (4.1%) indicated that the main problems were high prices of land, lack of money to buy land, lack of information on where land was accessible in KMC, absence of friends in the villages, shortage of land in KMC, uncertainty about the status of land, land grabbing following speculation by rich people, and the presence of unsuitable land for agriculture, respectively.

4.1.1 House ownership

Most, 90.8% of the 791 respondents interviewed indicated that they lived in their own houses. It was interesting to note that out of 710 respondents who provided answers as to whether they had a title deed for their house(s), none of them showed that they had a title deed for their properties. On the age of the houses, most (43.8%) were built after 1991, 18 percent between 1981 and 1990 and 20% between 1971 and 1980 (see Appendix Table A8). This shows that most of the housing in (peri)-urban areas of Kinondoni were less than 10 years old. The majority of the houses (80.4%) had not been rented out and those that had been rented out commanded a rental of less than Shillings 10,000 (approximately US\$ 10) per month.

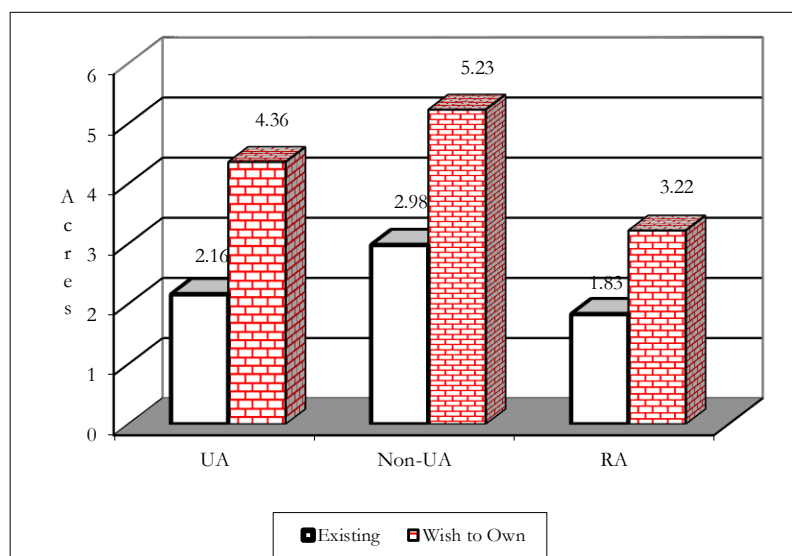
It is worth mentioning that most of the respondents indicated that they owned houses. However, it should also be noted that these houses are in poor state due to lack of repair, which to some extent implies that the owners are poor. There is the whole issue of the quality of the houses that they owned that needs to be kept in proper perspective, lest one concluded that these are not poor respondents because they owned houses. In general, these houses were of poor quality built of mud and poles. Most of the so called 'houses' were in a very poor condition, they were just huts or small houses built of mud and poles or other forms of low quality structures that were in a poor condition.

4.1.2 Land size

As stated before, over half of the respondents in KMC reported that they owned land for agriculture. Of the 480 RA poor farmers, 320 (66.6%) indicated that they owned land for agriculture with a mean size of 1.8 acres. Furthermore, of the 145 UA, 95 (65.5%) indicated that they owned land, and the mean size was 2.2 acres, while of the 176 non-UA urban poor, 20 (11.4%) indicated that they owned land for agriculture with a mean size of 3 acres. The minimum size owned by the three categories of respondents ranged from 0.25 to 0.5 of an acre, while the maximum ranged from 8 to 35 acres. The small land parcel size in peri-urban areas may be a reflection of land fragmentation in peri-urban areas in response to land pressure from urban land uses.

Another interesting aspect was the question on the size of land for agriculture that respondents would want to buy and own. Of the 480 RA poor farmers, 238 (49.6%) indicated that they would want to own a mean of 2.9 acres of land for agriculture in the village, while of the 145 UA poor farmers, 67 (46.2%) reported that they would want to own a mean size of 4.8 acres of land for agriculture and of the 176 non-UA urban poor, 67 indicated that they would want to own land for agriculture with a mean size of 3.2 acres (Table 4.2).

Figure 4.2. Existing and preferred land sizes for urban agriculture in KMC



The *Town and Country Planning (Urban Farming) Regulations 1992* (GN 10 of 2/2/1993) clearly stipulates that no person shall occupy or use more than three acres of land for urban farming within statutory township boundaries. Nonetheless a good number of respondents, particularly in the peri-urban areas, held land lots that were less than 3 acres in size. It was clear that all categories of the urban poor who were involved in urban agriculture wished to own land parcels that were greater than 3 acres (Figure DD). This seemed to be in conformity with the current proposals to have 3 acres as the minimum land size for urban agriculture incorporated into the proposed *Town and Country Planning Act*.

4.1.3 Land prices

The price of land in (peri)-urban areas in KMC was determined by the quality of land, size of land, location from the KMC headquarters, the socio-economic status of the buyer and type of infrastructure available on the land. Questions on land prices were posed only to RA farmers. A total of 310 RA farmers provided responses on land prices. The mean land price per acre that someone from outside the village would be charged stood at T.Shs. 1,001,000 (US\$ 963), whereas the minimum price was T.Shs. 50,000 (US\$ 48) and the maximum price T.Shs. 20,000 (US\$ 19,231). When the respondents were asked the price that they would offer their land, most of them indicated that the average price at which they would be willing to sell an acre of land was between T. Shs. 909,000 (US\$ 874) and T.Shs. 917,000 (US\$ 882) depending on whether the land was being sold to a fellow villager or someone from outside the village (see Appendix Table A10). Regarding the amount of land that RA poor farmers would be prepared to sell, the average amount of land that they were prepared to sell was 1.39 of an acre, with a minimum of 0.25 of an acre and a maximum of 5 acres.

There are four main implications of these findings. First, it was apparent that it was extremely difficult for the peri-urban poor to buy land as their incomes did not permit this to. Second, there was land speculation going on in (peri)-urban areas as most of the respondents clearly indicated their willingness to sell land. Third, owning land in peri-urban areas represented a store of wealth, since those owning it could sell it at a higher price in the future. Fourth, most of the RA poor farmers had little land for agriculture, and they were willing to sell only a small portion of their land.

4.1.4 Type of agriculture

RA poor farmers were asked what type of crops they would like to grow and the number and type of livestock that they would like to keep in the future. Out of the 480 RA poor farmers, 374 (77.9%) indicated that they would like to grow food crops, and the mean acreage was 2.5 acres. Similarly, 151 (31.6%) respondents indicated that they would like to grow cash crops, with a mean acreage of 2.0. The other, 106 (22.2%) reported that they would like to grow horticultural crops, with a mean size of 1 acre.

Out of the 480 RA farmers, two thirds, 317 (66%) indicated that they would like to keep a mean of 48 local chickens, with a minimum of 1.0 and a maximum of 1000 birds. Similarly, 114 (23.8%) RA farmers indicated that they would like to keep improved dairy cattle, with a mean of 7, a minimum of 1.0 and a maximum of 200 heads of cattle. Of the 480 RA farmers, 68 (14.2%) reported that they would keep local cattle, with a mean of 8, a minimum of 2.0 and a maximum of 50.0 animals. Out of all RA respondents, 67 (14.0%) reported that they would keep local goats with a mean of 15 animals, a minimum of 2.0, and a maximum of 500 goats. Other animals mentioned included improved broilers, ducks, pigs, sheep, and guinea fowls.

Based on the above analysis, it is possible to make some inferences. The resource-poor too can have realistic plans of what they want to produce and how much resources they need if they are given the opportunity to own resources such as land. For instance, land that a RA poor farmer in (peri)-urban areas of Kinondoni currently produces food crops on was 1.6 acres, and the anticipated acreage was between 2.0 and 2.5 acres, hence a discrepancy of 0.4 to 0.9 of an acre, respectively.

4.1.5 Treasuring urban agriculture

Researchers attempted to elicit information on the extent to which the respondents valued land for urban agriculture. Respondents were asked what they would do if they won T.Shs. 10 million (US\$ 9,615) on the “Jackpot Bingo”—a form of lottery in Tanzania. Of the 480 RA poor farmers, 473 (98.5%) indicated a combination of priorities, out of which 198 (41.9%), indicated that if they won *Bingo* they would first buy a house and then land for agriculture. While 172 (36.4%), said that they would first buy land for agriculture and then a house. Few, 31 (6.6%) reported that they would first buy a house then land for agriculture and finally do business, while 25 (5.3%) said that they would do business first then buy a house. Furthermore, 19 (4.0%) said that they would first buy land for agriculture, buy a house and then do business in that order. On average, these responses indicate that the peri-urban resource-poor treasure ownership of land for urban agriculture.

4.1.6 Requests to authorities for improving access to land

Respondents were asked what they would like to see the central government, KMC as well as their respective village governments do in order to improve access to land for peri-urban agriculture in KMC. Responses from the three categories of respondents i.e. UA, Non-UA and RA were similar. Regarding the respondents’ opinions on what KMC should do to improve

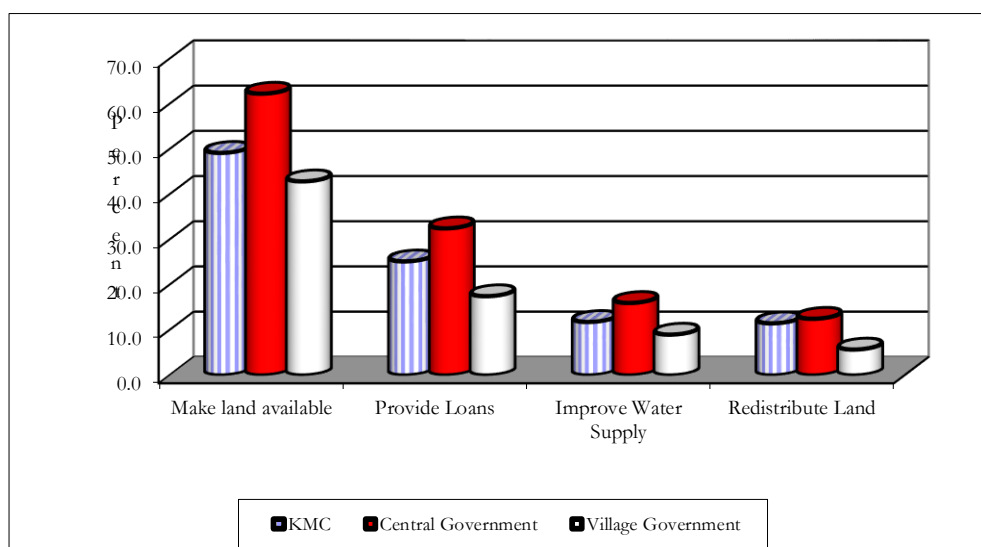
access to land to the peri-urban poor, out of the 262 RA respondents of expressed the view that KMC should make land available by allocating land that has not been allocated yet. While, 66 (25.2%) wanted KMC to give them loans, and about 31 (12%) of the respondents wanted KMC to improve water supply while an equal number (12%) wanted the Council to re-distribute land that was owned by large landowners.

As for advice to the central government, 369 respondents who advised the government, 230 (62.3%) wanted the central government to provide land in areas that were not currently farmed (un-cleared areas). Less than half of the respondents 120 (32.5%) wanted the central government to provide loans for peri-urban agriculture while, 59 (16%) respondents wanted the central government to improve water supply, and 46 (12.5%) of the respondents advised the central government to re-distribute land that was owned by large landowners.

For village governments, 91 (42.9%0 of the 212 respondents wanted their village governments to provide them with land by allocating unallocated areas. Others, 37 (17.5%) wanted the village governments to provide loans, 19 (9.0) want the village governments to improve water supply, and 28 (13.2%) wanted their village governments to make a follow-up on land matters that would ease access to land for peri-urban agriculture.

Figure 4.3 below depicts clearly the ranking of the suggestions RA farmers gave to KMC, the central government and village governments in dealing with two most pressing problems—the problem of land accessibility and loan provision with a view of creating an enabling environment for peri-urban agriculture (see Appendix Table A9). The issue of loan provision featured prominently amongst the three categories of respondents i.e. UA, Non-UA and RA. Respondents also reported that because they had no title deed to their land and, hence, a need to carry out land survey, titling and registration in (peri)-urban areas to enable them use their land as a collateral.

Figure 4.3: Advice given by RA farmers on improving access to land for (peri)-urban agriculture.



4.1.7 Section summary

This part of the study has dealt with ways of accessing land in KMC. The majority respondents agreed that they liked to own land for agriculture in the district. However, the majority of the respondents expressed the opinion that the possibilities of getting land for agriculture in 2003

were quite remote. Resource-poor respondents indicated that increase in the cost of living had led to difficulties of accessing land for agriculture in peri-urban areas of KMC, and that the best option for them for accessing land in peri-urban areas would require the government to give it free. Respondents also gave their responses on ways of acquiring land for agriculture in peri-urban areas in KMC in which they indicated that the norm as far as land acquisition in peri-urban areas is concerned was through purchase, inheritance, bush clearance and free allocations by the village government or by a relative. Below we show that informal ways of accessing land for agriculture were common than the formal (i.e. buying).

Most of the RA poor farmers indicated that they did not expand their farmland because they had no capital or money for agricultural inputs. Also most of the RA poor farmers indicated that they did not own land outside their villages because land was expensive to buy. Over half of the respondents mentioned the provision of land in the open spaces, un-allocated land, and giving loans to the poor as a way to access land for agriculture. Most of the 801 respondents indicated that in the past three years they had not gone to KMC land department to ask for land for agriculture, and that the KMC land legislation prevented them from owning land for agriculture in the district.

Less than half, 42 percent of the 473 RA respondents indicated that if they won *Bingo* they would first buy a house and then land for agriculture. Over two thirds (64.6%) of the 480 RA poor farmers, indicated that the current prices of an acre of land that farmers charged to a person coming from outside the village was a mean of TShs. 1,001,000 (US\$ 963), which was too high for this category of respondents. This was observed as the main reason that made the majority of the respondents fail to own land for agriculture.

The respondents also spelt out significant policy issues that they wanted the central government, local and village governments to take on board. In general, respondents wanted to be enabled to access more land for (peri)-urban agriculture through land provision, credit for agriculture, dealing with the problem of water availability for (peri)-urban agriculture and the re-distribution of idle land held by large landowners.

4.2 Accessing Land by Selected Respondents' Characteristics

4.2.1 Ways of accessing land by respondents' age

Table 4.4 shows some of the respondents' characteristics, which included age, gender, educational levels, marital status, and household size (see Appendix Table A6). Out of the 801 respondents, 774 (96.6%) reported ages, which were evenly distributed with the highest, about 40 percent being in the age group of between 40 to 60 years. Cross-tabulations were performed between age and the various ways used by the three groups in accessing land for agriculture. Of the 136 UA respondents, 77 indicated their ages and the ways they used to access land in which, less than half, 36 (47%) indicated that they accessed land for agriculture through inheritance. Figure 4.4 shows that land for agriculture was accessed through inheritance, which was common across all age groups with the exception of those less than 20 years of age.

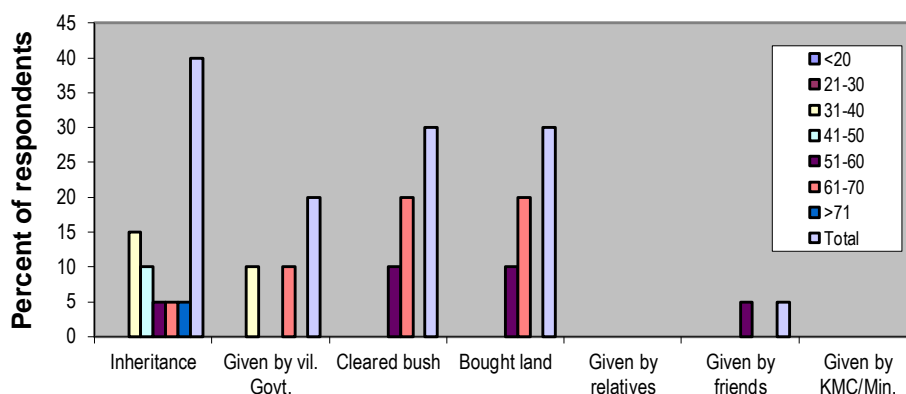


Figure 4.4. Ways of accessing land by respondents' age for UA

Furthermore, Figure 4.4 shows that older UA respondents (i.e. 41 to 70) had more chances of accessing land for agriculture through inheritance (32.5%) than younger ones. This might be due to the fact that most of the UA resource-poor farmers had little land that could be given out as an inheritance. Furthermore, respondents reported that if they had land they would have preferred to give it to older members of the family because of the anticipation that they would not sell the land since the younger ones were likely to do it. This also implied that most of the older members of the resource-poor UA respondents might had families and if they inherited land they would use it to grow food to feed their families compared to younger members who might sell it because they had no families to feed and other obligations (see Pitman, 2000 cited in Ahn and Ostrom, 2002).

The next group of UA respondents (15.6%) was those from 31-60 years of age. These indicated that they accessed land for agriculture through buying (Figure 4.4). Although, buying was mentioned as the second way that some of the resource-poor UA respondents used in order to access land for agriculture, the area bought was small because most of these respondents lacked money. This was also true for the other categories of respondents (i.e. non-UA, RA). The informal ways of accessing land for agriculture among the UA respondents accounted for 72 percent, while the economic or buying for 21 percent, and the formal for only 11 percent (Figure 4.4). Note that the percent added up to more than 100 because respondents answered certain question for more than once (i.e. multiple responses).

The informal method of accessing land was in line with Edwards (2004) assertion that “social capital implies that people share a sense of identity, hold similar values, trust each other and reciprocally do things for each other. As in many African societies, access to land for agriculture among the (peri) urban poor in Kinondoni municipality was controlled by socio-economic, cultural, legal and political factors, which in turn had an impact on peoples’ social capital (see also Mwafupe and Kvelia, 2001; Kironde 1989, and World Bank 1991) on land access through inheritance). One of the conclusions made by the World Bank stuffy pertinent to this study read as:

While the situation varies in different parts of the country it seems clear that tenure regimes in Tanzania are still heavily influenced by customary tenure systems where land is communally owned, user rights are administered within clan, and transfers to outsiders are rare (World Bank, 1993:7).

In this study, the aspect of accessing land through buying was mentioned by about one third of the respondents. However, the overriding question perhaps would be to ask how much of the land the resource-poor indicated to have through this method. For instance, earlier data showed that most respondents (75%) could not easily afford to buy land as land price per acre was T.Shs. 917,000 (US\$ 882) when compared to their annual earning from the informal sector, which was of T.Shs. 900,000 (US\$ 864). Clearly, this data showed that the money that the resource-poor UA respondents (also non-UA, RA) earned was not enough to buy land. And, that for the few (i.e. one third) of the resource-poor farmers who bought small parcels of land for agriculture did so because they depended on other financial resources such as remittances, loans, from sales of farm products, and borrowing money from friends. Box 4.1 abstracts views of UA participants in Kawe ward during the FDG session on how difficult and expensive it was for them to access land for agriculture.

Box 4.1 Kawe ward UA FDG Views

In Kawe ward, nine resource-poor farmers were randomly selected and involved in a focus group discussion. All participants agreed that farmland was available in peri-urban areas, but they could not access it because they lacked money. Others indicated that even if they were given land for free of charge they lacked money to take care of the farms. Yet, others mentioned that there was plenty of farmland in Target whose cost ranged from Tshs. 50,000 to 200,000 (US\$ 48 to 190) per acre (at exchange rate of Tshs. 1,050 = 1 US\$). For instance, participants said that the cost of a two-acre farm in Kibaha area was only Tshs. 130,000 (US\$ 124), while the same land cost Tshs. 2 million US\$ 1,905 in 2003.

Furthermore, the cross-tabulations for non-UA indicated that of the 20 respondents who indicated to have access to land for agriculture, eight (40%) had land accessed land through inheritance. Based on age, the other informal ways that non-UA respondents commonly used to access land for agriculture included buying (30%), given by village governments (20%), and given by a friend (5%), For the non-UA respondents, the informal ways of accessing land for agriculture accounted for 45 percent, the economic or buying 33 percent, and the formal 22 percent.

Similarly, cross-tabulations between age and the various ways used by the RA respondents produced a different picture. Of the 314 respondents, the highest, 84 (28%) and 69 (22%) of respondents among all age groups indicated that they accessed land for agriculture by buying and inheritance, respectively. The study showed that of all respondents who inherited land, older respondents from ages 41 to 70 had a slightly higher probability to access land (55%) through inheritance than younger ones (i.e. < 20 to 40), As explained in respect to the UA, the study findings appeared to suggest that elders with farmland in peri-urban areas trusted the older members of the family more than the young ones when they considered passing over land through inheritance.

Elders saw older family members as the means by which land could be transmitted over time, across generations, a system which is collaborated by Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992 cited in Edwards (2004). The former also have emphasized the way that social capital is constructed and maintained in the interaction between individual agency and a society stratified by social and economic inequalities.

The study found that other informal ways that RA respondents commonly used to access land for agriculture included clearing the bush (16%), given by friends (11%), and given by relatives (11%), (Table 4.1). Few RA respondents (0.6%) in all age groups indicated that they had been given land for agriculture by KMC or MLHSD. This clearly showed that formal ways of accessing land for agriculture among the resource-poor farmers in peri-urban areas were almost none-existent (Table 4.1).

Table 4.1: Ways of accessing land by age ranges for RA (%) (n = 314).

Age range	Inheritance	Given by vil. govt.	Cleared bush	Bought land	Given by relatives	Given by friends	Given by KMC/Min	Total
< 20	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.3	0.0	0.6
21 – 30	3.8	1.6	0.3	2.6	0.3	1.3	0.3	10.2
31- 40	5.7	2.5	2.4	6.4	2.2	4.5	0.0	23.7
41 – 50	2.5	2.5	1.9	6.7	1.9	1.2	0.0	16.7
51 – 60	3.5	1.4	2.5	5.8	2.2	1.3	0.3	17.0
61 – 70	3.2	2.9	1.9	3.5	1.3	1.3	0.0	14.1
> 71	2.9	1.9	7.0	2.9	1.9	1.0	0.0	17.6
Total	21.9	12.8	16.0	27.5	10.5	10.6	0.6	100.0

Source: Survey data, 2003.

Two things can be said about accessing land through the formal ways in peri-urban areas in KMC as depicted in Table 4.1. First, from the 1960s through the end of 1970s, most village governments in peri-urban areas had enough land and it was common for them to give farmland free of charge to people partly as incentives for the people to join and live in the villages. This was also encouraged by the *Ujamaa* policies through the *villagization* push. Second, from the early 1980s, farmland in peri-urban areas became a commodity to be sold partly because of the poor national economic conditions that forced most urban dwellers to look for alternative ways to earn extra income and produce own food. In peri-urban areas, most village governments had little land to give to its people freely (i.e. only 12%), and land transactions in the villages were carried out between individual resource-poor farmers and those having the money, while village governments merely endorsed the transactions.

Similar results found for the UA and Non-UA respondents did apply for the 12% of the older RA respondents whose ages ranged from 41 to 70. These also had accessed land through inheritance than the younger respondents (Table 4.1). The study findings indicated that more middle-aged RA respondents (19%) ages ranging from 41 to 70 had accessed land for agriculture through buying than younger (< 20 years) respondents (9%). This implied three things. First, older respondents might have saved the money earned from other economic activities and used it to buy farmland than younger ones. Second, older respondents might have obtained money from relatives, and/or children as remittances and used it to buy land. Third, older respondents might have saved money they got from wages they earned as casual labourers in various in-village and outside the village economic occupations. The study findings showed that younger respondents (>20-30) both in urban and peri-urban areas of KMC were mostly disadvantaged in terms of accessing land for agriculture (Table 4.1).

Other informal ways that RA respondents commonly used to access land for agriculture included, clearing bush (19%), given by friends (11%), given by relatives (11%). All the informal ways of accessing land for agriculture accounted for 62 percent (Table 4.1). These informal ways of accessing land for agriculture by the resource-poor farmers were superior over the formal ones, which included buying (27%), given by the village governments (13%), and given by KMC/or MLHSD (0.6%). The informal ways of accessing land in KMC in the study

areas have been in operation for a longer period and these have maintained by “trustworthiness, networks, and institutions” as elaborated by (Ahn and Ostrom, 2002).

4.2.2. Ways of accessing land by respondents’ marital status

This study too performed cross-tabulations between marital status of respondents and the various ways they used to access land for agriculture in KMC. Cross-tabulation results showed that of 137 UA respondents, 78 (56%) who gave their opinions and about half of them, 44 (56%) were monogamously married, followed by 17 (21%) who were widowed. Of all UA respondents, the highest, 37 (47%) indicated that they accessed land for agriculture through inheritance, followed by 17 (21%) who reported that they bought land (Figure 4.5).

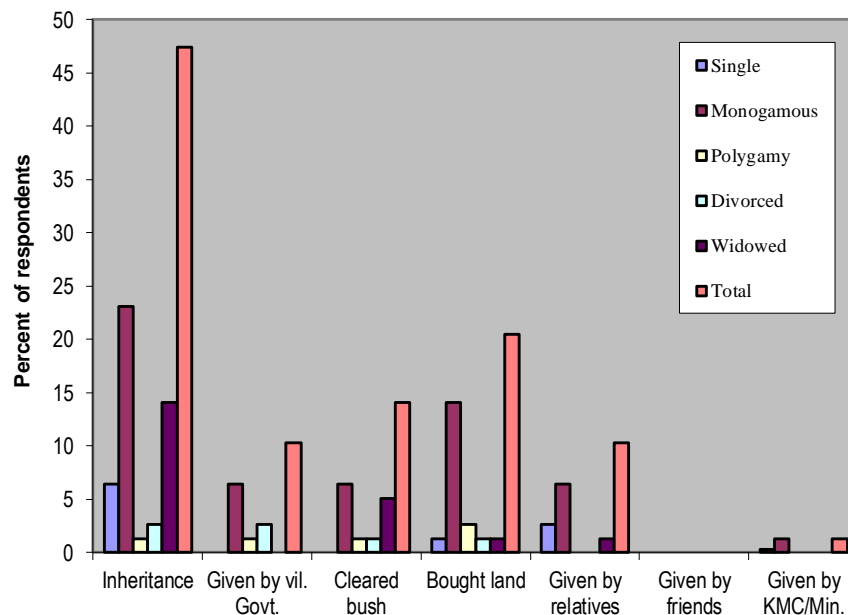


Figure 4.5. Ways of accessing land by marital status for UA

Generally, the monogamously married UA respondents indicated to frequently access land for agriculture through inheritance, given by the village governments, clearing the bush, buying and given by relatives than other categories of marital status categories (Figure 4.5). This might be due to the obligations of married respondents to acquire land on which they could grow food crops to feed their families. Apart from buying, given by the village governments and KMC or MLHSD, other informal ways that the UA respondents used to access land for agriculture based on marital status accounted for about 72 percent. This again highlights the significance of the informal ways for accessing land for agriculture in peri-urban areas of KMC among the resource poor farmers. Here we see that a household composed of a wife, a husband and children was an important institution in accessing land among the resource-poor farmers. Institutions are thus a very important form of social capital in that they may provide sufficient deterrent to greatly increase the likelihood that trustees will behave in reciprocal ways even when they face very high material temptations to break the trust placed in them (Ahn and Ostrom, 2002).

The trend described for the UA respondents was almost the same for the Non-UA respondents composed 19 respondents, in which (21%), three (16%) and one (5%) were monogamously married, widowed and single, respectively. These too indicated that they mostly accessed land

for agriculture in KMC through inheritance. Based on marital status, most Non-UA respondents apart from buying and being given land by the village governments, other informal ways of accessing land for agriculture, were also used. These ways accounted for about 47 percent, implying that they were less important compared to other ways—buying and formal.

Cross-tabulations between marital status of RA respondents and the various ways they used to access land for agriculture in KMC revealed interesting results. Of the 476 UA respondents, 310 (65%) who gave their opinions, two thirds, 195 (63%) indicated that they were monogamously married. Out of 310 respondents, 81 (32%) indicated that they accessed land for agriculture through buying, followed by 68 (22%) who accessed land through inheritance, and 57 (18%) through clearing the bush (Figure 4.6)

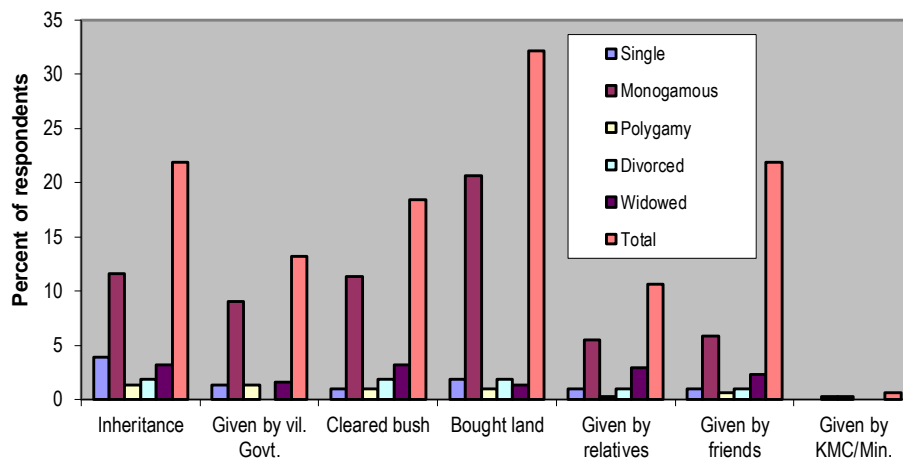


Figure 4.6. Ways of accessing land by marital status for RA

Of the 81 RA respondents who indicated that they accessed land by buying, 62 (21%) were monogamously married followed by 6 (2%) who were divorced. Of the 22 percent of the RA respondents who accessed land through inheritance, 12 percent were monogamously married followed by 4 percent who were single (Figure 4.6).

Generally, the monogamously married RA respondents reported using a variety of ways to access land for agriculture than any other category of the marital status. Apart from buying, given by the village government, and given by KMC or MLHSD, informal ways that the RA respondents used to access land for agriculture based on marital status accounted for about 63 percent, showing their importance. The implications for these results are similar to those discussed for UA respondents’ age groups

4.2.3 Ways of accessing land by respondents’ income levels

Another interesting aspect that this study unveiled concerned how the resource-poor respondents in peri-urban areas of KMC accessed land for agriculture based on their income levels. To fully explain this aspect it was important to know the income levels that the resource-poor respondents got from various sources. The study found that out of the 801 respondents, 771 (96.3%) gave their respondents in which 420 (54.5%), and 208 (27%) indicated that their major sources of income were farming, and petty trading, respectively. Other respondents’ minor sources of income were wage labour, self-employment, and temporary employment, respectively (Table 4.2).

Table 4.2: Respondents' sources of income in KMC (N = 801)

Source ¹	UA (n = 136)	Non-UA (n = 161)	RA (n = 474)	Total (n = 771)
Permanent employed	5(3.7)	7(4.3)	4(0.8)	16(2.1)
Temporary employed	3(2.2)	4(2.5)	3(0.6)	10(1.3)
Self employed ²	15(11.0)	24(14.9)	39(8.2)	78(10.1)
Wage labour	11(8.1)	16(9.9)	52(11.0)	79(10.3)
Business i.e. petty trading	49(36.0)	48(29.8)	111(23.4)	208(27.0)
Do farming	53(39.0)	0(0.0)	367(77.4)	420(54.5)
Have no employment	0(0.0)	62(38.5)	50(10.5)	112(14.5)

Source: Survey data, 2003; Figures in parentheses are percentages and those out of parentheses are frequencies. ¹Data were based on multiple responses. ²Carpentry, masonry, salon, tailoring, etc.

This study found that respondents' income levels influenced the various ways that they used to access land for agriculture. Table 4.3 presents the respondents' monthly income ranges generated from the informal sector. Out of the 801 respondents, 311 (38.6%) responded that to this aspect in which 247 (79.4%), 27 (8.7%), 21 (6.8%), and 16 (5.1%) indicated that their monthly income from the informal sector was less than Tshs. 30,000 (US\$ 28.8), more than Tshs. 50,000 (US\$ 48), between Tshs. 30,000 to 40,000 (US\$ 28.8 to 38.5), and between Tshs. 40,001 to 50,000 (US\$ 38.5 to 48.1), respectively.

Table 4.3: Respondents' monthly income ranges earned from the informal sector (Tshs) (N = 801).

Income range	UA (n = 48)	Non-UA (n = 50)	RA (n = 213)	Total (n = 311)
< 30,000	30(62.5)	34(68.0)	183(85.9)	247(79.4)
30,000 – 40,000	8(16.7)	4(8.0)	9(4.2)	21(6.8)
40,001 – 50,000	1(2.1)	5(10.0)	10(4.7)	16(5.1)
> 50,000	9(18.8)	7(14.0)	11(5.2)	27(8.7)

Source: Survey data, 2003; Figures in parentheses are percentages and those out of parentheses are frequencies; χ^2 -value = 26.318, p-value = 0.000.

Data in Table 4.3 clearly shows that 247 (79%) of the resources-poor respondents earned below Tshs. 30,000 (US\$ 28.8) per month from the informal sector-which was an occupation for these respondents. The earning per day was obtained by dividing the Tshs. 30,000 by 30 days, which yielded Tshs. 1,000 (US\$ 0.96) per day-an amount that was below the World Bank's poverty line indicator of one US\$ dollar. As earlier discussed, it was because of the lack of money that most of the resource-poor respondents could not access land for agriculture through buying unless other external sources of funds were forthcoming, such as remittances and loans (see Appendix Table A11). It is because of these aspects that "social capital reflects a way of conceptualizing how cultural, structural, and institutional aspects of small to large groups in a society interact and affect economic and political change" (Ahn and Ostrom, 2002).

The next section examines the cross-tabulation results between UA respondents' monthly income ranges earned from the informal sector and the various ways used for accessing land for agriculture in KMC. Of the 48 UA respondents who gave their views on the income, a third, 15 (31%) gave their responses, in which 8 (53%) indicated that they accessed land for agriculture through inheritance followed by three (20%) who indicated that they bought the land (Figure 4.7).

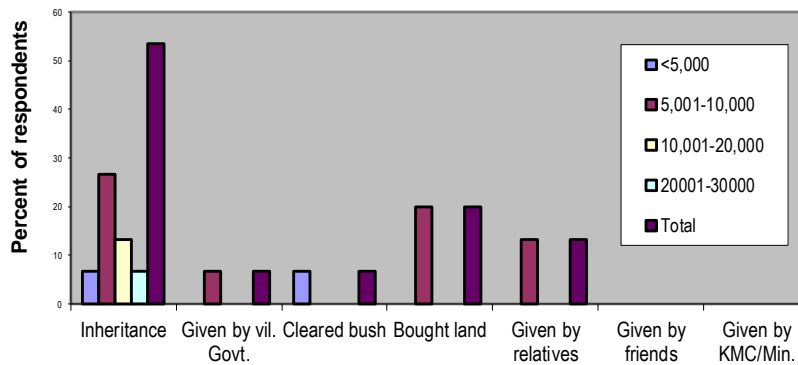


Figure 4.7. Ways of accessing land by income levels for UA

Other less important ways that UA respondents based on their monthly income accessed land for agriculture included given by relatives-13 percent and clearing the bush-7 percent. As earlier discussed, the informal ways of accessing land for agriculture based on respondents' monthly income accounted for 73 percent compared to the formal ones, i.e. buying and given by the village governments, again implying a reliance on social capital.

A similar trend that discussed in respect to the UA respondents on this issue was observed for the non-UA in the cross-tabulations results. For example, of the 50 respondents who responded on the issue, less than a half, 22 (44%) were involved in the cross-tabulations in which 8 (36%) indicated that they accessed land for agriculture through inheritance (Figure 4.7). Other less important ways that non-UA respondents based on their monthly income accessed land for agriculture included given by the village governments--23 percent and clearing the bush--7 percent. As earlier discussed, the informal ways of accessing land for agriculture based on non-UA respondents' monthly income accounted for 46 percent compared to the formal ones, i.e. buying and given by the village governments.

Furthermore, there were interesting cross-tabulation results between RA respondents' monthly income ranges earned from the informal sector and the various ways used for accessing land for agriculture in KMC. Of the 213 RA respondents who gave their opinions on their monthly income earnings 164 (77%) responded from which 141 (86%) indicated that their monthly income from the informal sector was less than Tshs. 30,000 (US\$ 28.8). Out of these, 44 (27%) indicated that they accessed land for agriculture through buying followed by 33 (20%) who accessed through inheritance (Figure 4.8).

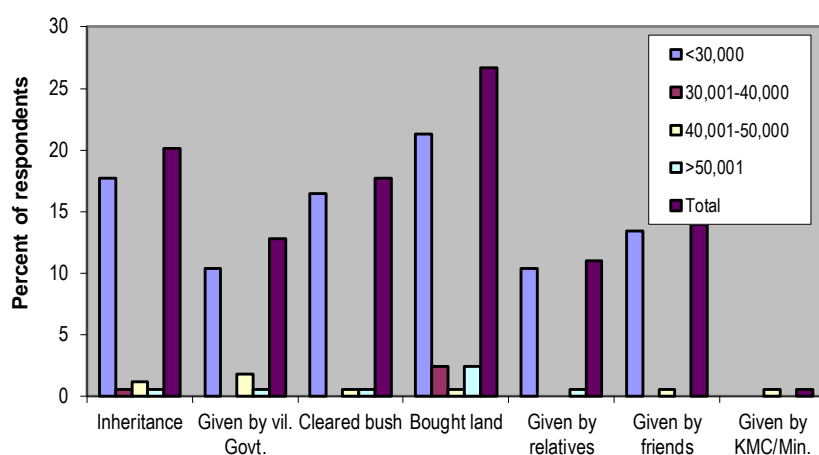


Figure 4.8. Ways of accessing land by income levels for RA

Of the 141 RA whose income per month was less than Tshs. 30,000, 35 (21%) and 29 (18%) indicated that they accessed land for agriculture through buying and inheritance, respectively (Figure 4.8). Furthermore, respondents who earned less than Tshs. 30,000 per month, 27 (17%) and 22 (13%) indicated that they accessed land through clearing the bush and given by friends, respectively. A few RA respondents, 14 percent with monthly income earnings between Tshs. 30,001 to over 50,000 (US\$ 28.8 to 48) indicated that they accessed land for agriculture through using various ways such as clearing the bush--18 percent, given by the village governments--13 percent, given by friends--14 percent, and given by relatives--11 percent. Yet, some RA respondents used less important ways for accessing land such as given by KMC or MLHSD-0.6 percent. The informal ways of accessing land for agriculture based on RA respondents' monthly income accounted for 59 percent compared to the formal ones, i.e. buying, given by the village governments, and KMC of MLHSD.

4.2.4 Section summary

Table 4.4 summarizes the three ways for accessing land in percentage by the nine respondents' characteristics: age, gender, education level, marital status, household size, zone of birth, place of birth, years lived in Dar es Salaam and years lived in KMC. Among the ways of accessing land, in order of importance, the informal ranked first, then buying and lastly the formal one. Table 4.4 shows that over two thirds of the respondents used the informal way of accessing land for agriculture in KMC, which accounted for an average of 59 percent, and this was an important way among the UA respondents (69%). However, accessing land for agriculture among the types of the resource-poor through buying was less important because it was only indicated by an average of 27 percent, and was slightly important among the non-UA respondents (34%). The formal way of accessing land was less important among the three types of respondents since it was only indicated by an average of 17 percent, although registered the highest response among the non-UA respondents (24%) (Table 4.4).

Table. 4.4: Summary of three ways for accessing land by nine respondents' characteristics (%).

Characteristic	Informal ¹			Formal ²			Buying		
	UA	non-UA	RA	UA	non-UA	RA	UA	Non-UA	RA
Age	72	45	62	11	22	14	21	33	27
Gender	72	66	53	12	24	14	21	38	27
Educ. Level	62	43	60	12	24	13	21	29	27
Marital status	72	47	63	12	26	14	21	32	32
Household size	71	40	63	13	25	14	21	40	27
Zone of birth	68	43	63	12	24	14	21	38	27
Place of birth	72	40	64	22	25	13	20	40	27
Years lived in Dar ³	65	47	62	12	21	15	23	32	27
Years lived in KMC	67	50	61	13	22	15	22	28	27
% Average	69	47	61	13	24	14	21	34	27

Source: Survey data, 2003; ¹Informal ways for accessing land included inheritance, clearing the bush, given by relatives, given by friends; ²Formal ways included given by the village governments and given by KMC or MLHSD; ³Is abbreviations for Dar es Salaam.

Another way of explaining how the three types of respondents accessed land for agriculture was to examine data based on the nine respondents' characteristics across the three ways they used to access land for agriculture. Data in Table 4.4 shows that the average percent were: age 34; gender 36; education level 32; marital status 35; household size 35; zone of birth 34; place of birth 36; years lived in Dar es Salaam 34; and years lived in KMC 34. As the percentages show, it appeared that there were no significant differences based on the respondents' characteristics on how the respondents access land for agriculture.

Furthermore, Figure 4.9 gives a summary of percent averages of the three ways for accessing land that the three types of respondents used in KMC. As earlier discussed, the average percent in Figure 4.9 also shows that the three types of respondents used informal ways for accessing land for agriculture in varying proportions. The highest were the UA and RA who on average, over two thirds (69%) and (61%) indicated that they used informal ways for accessing land for agriculture, respectively. The informal ways of accessing land for agriculture were also important among the non-UA because on the average of 47 percent of the respondents reported it, signifying the importance of social capital.

Figure 4.9. Percent averages of the three ways for accessing land for the three types of respondents' characteristics (%).

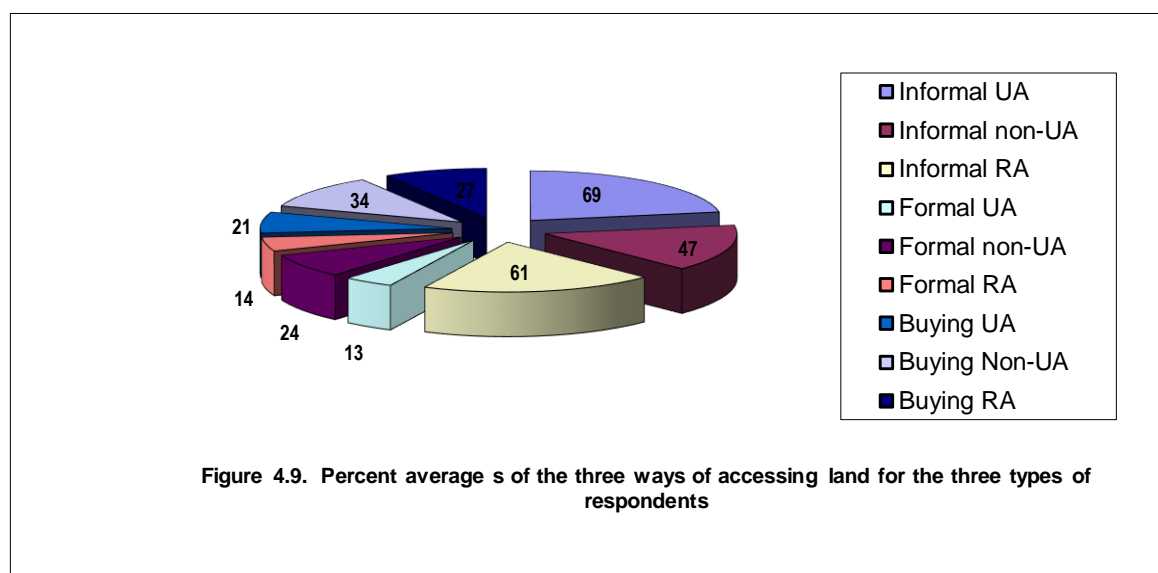


Figure 4.9. Percent average s of the three ways of accessing land for the three types of respondents

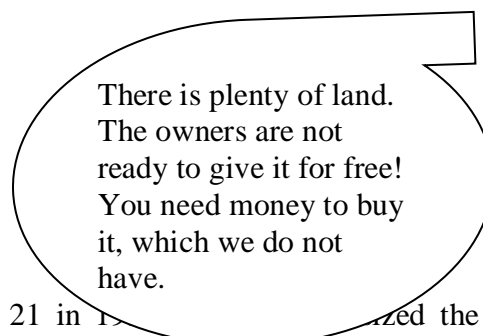
Data presented in Figure 4.9 further underscores the importance of informal ways for accessing land, which further explains the reliance on social capital for accessing land for agriculture among the resource-poor in both urban and peri-urban areas of KMC. Data further shows that two strategies used for accessing land: formal and buying accounted for only a third. The implication of this data, as earlier pointed out was to ask KMC, where possible to increase efforts of giving land to the resource-poor in urban and peri-urban areas. First, in urban areas, these could be the open spaces, valleys, and hazardous lands. Second, in peri-urban areas, these could be areas that are legally owned by the respective villages—mostly owned by the villagers, and KMC would have to negotiate with the respective village governments or villagers to get the land. This process would be difficult and futile. But, even if KMC succeeded in appropriating land from the village governments in peri-urban areas, the overriding question would be, what criteria would be used to distribute the free land to the resource-poor farmers. However, experience shows that given the high price of land in peri-urban areas, such a mechanism would usher corruption in which the well-to-do urban dwellers would get most of the land earmarked for the resource-poor farmers.

4.3 Accessing Land Based on Gender

4.3.1 Introduction

This section addresses the fifth part of the specific objectives of the study. The objective was to contribute to filling gaps on gender aspects of and to the state of art and knowledge on access to land for peri-urban agriculture in KMC. In rural Tanzania, women are the main producers of food crops and to large extent cash crops, which account for about 90 percent of the foreign exchange. Out of the total active population engaged in agricultural production, 75 percent are women. In most third world countries, urban agriculture has been recognized as a management tool that could address poverty, income and food security. In the recent years, Kinondoni municipality through the Dar es Salaam Sustainable Programme has been exploring a diversity of strategies to enhance access of the urban poor and the unemployed youth to land for agricultural activities. To this effect, some unemployed youths both boys and girls were permitted to establish tree nurseries and flower gardens in the open spaces and on road reserves of Ali Hassan Mwinyi Road in Kinondoni municipality. Others continued to grow local *Amaranthus* or *mchicha* in Kiswahili—a leafy vegetable widely grown and ate by city dwellers.

During group discussions most female respondents said that most of the resource-poor urban families did not own the plots where they grew different crops especially the quick yielding types. Asked whether there were problems in accessing land for agriculture, one female respondent had this to say:



There is plenty of land.
The owners are not
ready to give it for free!
You need money to buy
it, which we do not
have.

Following the adoption of Agenda 21 in 1992, the City Council emphasized the importance of giving access to resources both financial and institutional to low income groups to raise their quality of life. Dar es Salaam City Council through the Sustainable Dar es Salaam Project (SDP)

introduced a new planning and management approach known as Environmental Planning and Management Approach (EPM), which among other things, emphasizes the need for mainstreaming environmental and gender issues in urban planning. Through the EPM process, the City of Dar es Salaam including the municipality of Kinondoni prepared a strategic Urban Development Plan (SUDP), which is livable, competitive, bankable, and well managed and governed. One of the critical issues in SUDP is to manage open spaces by allowing urban agriculture to take place. Urban agriculture is strengthened by introducing user rights of the urban farmers and providing temporary permits for them to use road reserves and open spaces. However, this is only applicable to certain areas in the municipality.

Many of the urban poor women would take up urban agriculture for a living if they had the capital to buy the land. In the peri urban areas of KMC, most women respondents knew where or how to get land for farming and were willing to go into larger scale farming if they had money. But credit is hard to come by and most of the land in KMC belongs to the government or male owners. Women respondents who owned land were widows who inherited land from their husbands or deceased fathers. KMC has unbuilt land in the form of open spaces, land earmarked for markets, infrastructure or housing unbuilt private plots, public or non-public open spaces such as hospital, school, military base reserved areas, etc. Here, the women could be allowed to use these areas while awaiting development by their owners. Other efforts that KMC is experimenting is creating community gardens on former garbage dumps and road reserves, and hopefully the poor women would be allowed to access such areas for urban agriculture. Most of the poor respondents including women were not aware of this type of land legislations.

Often, there are a large number of institutional actors, varying in size and legal status, that sometimes have overlapping jurisdiction over urban land, which further limit the capacity of city authorities to regulate urban land use. However, it is true that in urban and peri-urban areas too, more men than women own land and property. This is historical given that more men migrated to urban areas earlier than women in search of work and other opportunities propelled by their educational, traditional, and biological advantages. “Land and access to land is a matter of power, so why would men like to share the power with women? On the other hand, women do not care about power or access to land as long as the family is intact” (Ericsson, 1999). With the current local government reforms in place whose main objective is poverty eradication through quality, access and equitable distribution of services, which are pro poor, it is envisaged that there is room for giving more chances to women to access land for agriculture. For the very poor women, even short-term tenure improvements can be a great advantage.

The Kinondoni municipality has a challenge of revisiting the Strategic Urban Development Plan with the aim of improving urban agriculture without forgetting women and the youth to access it. Here attention should focus on seeking methods that enable the authority to accept urban agriculture as legitimate form of urban land use and the inclusion of urban agriculture in urban zonification and strategic urban development plans. Also attention should be paid to access land to the poor, especially when experimenting with strategies like creating community gardens on former garbage dumps and road reserves. The Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security should also direct its educational services to women and the youth to ensure that they improve their income and food security.

The next section discusses the study findings of this study based on gender perspectives.

4.3.2 Methods of accessing land by respondents' gender

Cross-tabulations between gender and various methods of accessing land for agriculture among the three groups of respondents gave interesting results. Of the 137 UA who gave their responses on gender, 78 (57%) who gave their opinions, 24 (31%) and 13 (17%) were females and males. These indicated that they accessed land for agriculture through inheritance, respectively. Of all

respondents ten (13%) males and five (8%) females indicated that they accessed land through buying (Table 4.5).

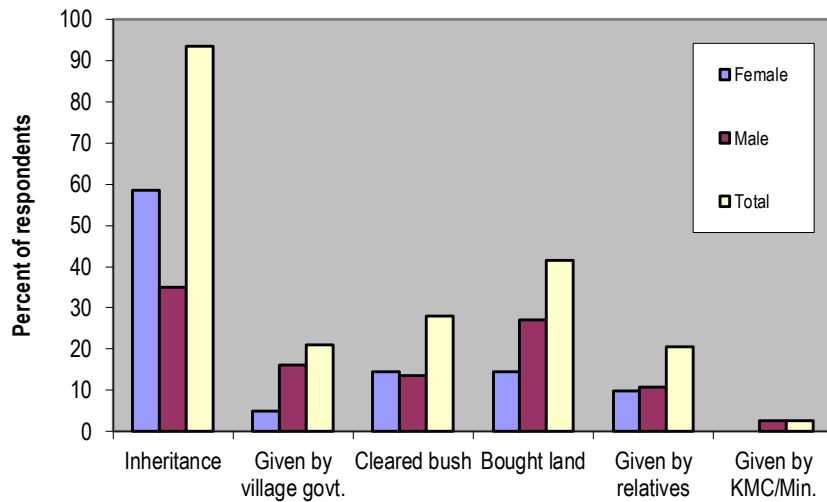


Figure 4.10. Ways of accessing land by gender for UA

Both females and males respondents indicated that they accessed land for agriculture through bush clearing—7.6 and 6.4 percent, respectively. However, fewer UA females indicated that they accessed land for agriculture by being given by the village governments-2.5 percent compared to 7.6 percent of males (Table 4.5, Figure 4.10).

Table 4.5: Methods of accessing land by UA respondents' gender (%) (n = 78)

Gender	Methods of accessing land						
	Inheritance	Given by vill.govt.	Cleared bush	Bought land	Given by relatives	Given by friends	Given by KMC/Min
Female	30.7	2.5	7.6	7.6	5.1	0.0	0.0
Male	16.7	7.6	6.4	12.8	5.1	0.0	1.3
Total	47.4	10.1	14.0	20.4	10.2	0.0	1.3

Source: Survey data, 2003.

Apart from buying, given by the village government, and given by KMC and MLHSD, other informal methods that both UA females and males respondents commonly used included inheritance (47%), bush clearing (14%), and given by relatives (10%). All the informal methods of accessing land accounted for about 72 percent, indicating that they were the most feasible ones. One thing to note was that most of the women accessed land for agriculture through inheritance than did males. This perhaps might have been due to matrilineal methods of passing over property practiced by the ethnic groups in the eastern zone, and the women had little money to buy land (see Appendices Table A12, Figure A16). As reported elsewhere, most, 97 percent indicated that women could buy land because they had no money. Accessing land for agriculture in both urban and peri-urban areas in KMC has of recent been based on how much money one had than on gender aspect on cultural affiliation (see Box 4.2, 4.3).

Box 4.2 in Kawe Ward FGD Views

Mrs. Nuru Abib aged 58 and widowed

Mrs. Abib hailed from southern Tanzania in Songea, was married and came to Dar es Salaam in 1969. Ownership of a plot in the city has almethods been by men because they were the first to come here looking for jobs. After getting jobs the men married us and we came here to join them. I own the plot and the house because my husband died. The thing is that if a woman does not have a job she cannot own plot or a house. In a way having a job makes it easier for a woman to own property such as land and a house.

Mrs. Halima Abdalla's comment further clarified the issue about accessing land based on gender.

Box 4.3 in Kawe Ward, FGD Views

Mrs. Halima Abdalla, aged 55.

Yes! A woman today can buy a plot and own it if she has the money. But, during our days a man bought a plot and built a house—so he owned the plot and land. I do not know any land bylaw that concerns land ownership. KMC should educate us about these bylaws if there are any.

The cross-tabulations results for the Non-UA respondents followed the same trend observed for the UA respondents with few exceptions. Of the 176 Non-UA who gave their responses on age, only 21(12%) gave their opinions about the methods they used to access land for agriculture. Of these, 12 and nine were females and males, respectively. And of these, 19 percent females and males, for each indicated that they accessed land for agriculture through inheritance. Of all the non-UA respondents, 14 percent of males and females for each indicated that they accessed land for agriculture by buying, respectively. Substantial non-UA females indicated that they accessed land for agriculture by being given by the village governments (19%) than did males (5%). Based on non-UA respondents' gender, the informal methods that both females and males commonly used to access land for agriculture accounts for about 66 percent, indicating that they were superior over the formal methods of accessing land for agriculture.

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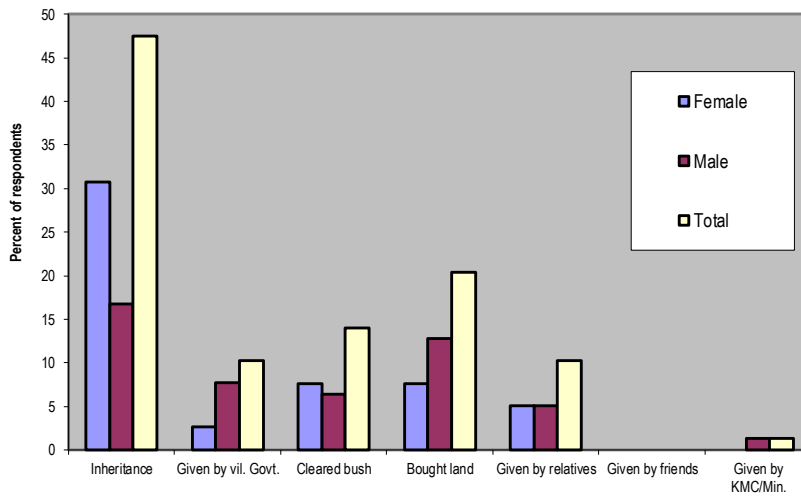


Figure 4.11. Ways of accessing land by gender for RA

tabulations between 16%) and 169 (54%) respondents, 48 (15%) and 53 (16%) for agriculture by respondents equally indicated that 48 (15%) for agriculture was perhaps due to the Matumbi, Luguru, and other tribes (Table A7).

Slightly more male RA respondents indicated that they accessed land by bush clearing 30 (10%), compared to females 28 (9%). However, more males were given land by the village governments 27 (9%) than females 14 (4%). Equally, females and males indicated that they accessed land for agriculture by being given by friends and relatives (5%) (Figure 4.11). Nonetheless, a small number of RA males (1.3%) compared to 0.3% females indicated that they hired land for agriculture. Overall, more males, 169 (54%) compared to 146 (46%) females used various methods of accessing land for agriculture.

As explained earlier, based on gender, few RA respondents indicated that they had accessed land for agriculture by being given by MLHSD or KMC (0.6%) (Figure 4.11). The informal methods for accessing land for agriculture (i.e. inheritance, bush clearing, given by friends, given by relatives) based on RA respondents' gender accounted for about 53 percent than the formal methods. The study findings implied that the informal methods for accessing land for agriculture should be encouraged and supported so that the resource-poor women and men can access land for agriculture in peri-urban areas.

In order to make practical recommendations for helping the resource-poor women and men access land for agriculture in KMC it was important to understand the reasons that limited their actions. The study found that of all 715 respondents (non-UA, UA, RA), 691 (96.6%) indicated that lack of money was the single most important reason that caused women in KMC fail to access land for agriculture. Similarly, the same question was asked about men, and the responses were the same since out of 714 respondents, 700 (98.0%) indicated that lack of money was the main reason that made the resource-poor men in KMC unable to access land for agriculture. Other less important reasons included as limiting factors for both sexes (i.e. % average) included not born in the ward (23%), not having political influence in the ward (19%), and not having social relations with the people in the ward (17%) in order of importance.

Relevant to these findings, the stakeholders' workshop recommendations as shown in Box 4.3 on the resource-poor women and men need to be heeded.

Box 4.3 Stakeholders' recommendation to improve access to land for both sexes

We have noted from the research findings that women and men have equal opportunities when it comes to accessing land for agriculture, but women are disadvantaged due to:

- a) Low levels of education that hinder communication.
- b) Most women lack money for accessing land for agriculture.
- c) Women's access to land is affected by customs and traditions

Things that need to be done:

- a) KMC should offer education to the resource-poor on land ownership insisting on title deeds.
- b) KMC should ensure that the resource-poor women get loans so that they can buy land for agriculture
- c) KMC should educate the (peri-) urban resource-poor to discourage the practice of out-dated customs and traditions that prevent the resource-poor women from accessing land for agriculture.

4.3.3 Section summary

Accessing land for agriculture based on gender has been a contentious one because of the methods men have been favoured by the society in which they live. Changes have been slow and given the externalities that women possess it appears that it will take some years to come to achieve equitable distribution of resources, with particular emphasis to land for agriculture. This section has provided data to further understand this complex phenomenon through presenting data elicited from the resource-poor women and men. The study results for all three groups of respondents (UA, non-UA, RA) who were interviewed in urban and peri-urban areas of KMC appear similar in many cases with few exceptions. For instance, accessing land through inheritance was important for the UA and RA, but less so for the non-UA respondents. The implications are that the principles of social capital theory were important among the UA and RA resource-poor women and men than for the non-UA—as their livelihoods did not depend on agriculture.

Another finding of the study, which cuts across all respondents was that if KMC, government and the NGOs were serious about improving the welfare of many resource-poor women and men in the municipality some methods of providing funds to them were necessary. The resource-poor women and men could not access land for agriculture because they lacked money. The study found that even those who had farms in peri-urban areas were unable to survey them because of the high cost involved in the exercise. This implied that they could not get title deeds. Title deeds were necessary documents for getting a loan from the banks. It is because of these reasons that external help is needed for the resource-poor women and men to get out of the vicious cycle trap. For instance, Ericsson (1999) says that “every sector has to contribute. As far land surveyors are concerned they have a lot of responsibilities to promote equal access to land. When allocating land, the land title can be issued in the names of both husband and wife”.

4.4 Land Conflicts in KMC

4.4.1 Introduction

The aim of this section is to discuss land conflicts using qualitative data collected during the main survey in peri-urban areas of KMC. This section addresses specific objective number 3 of the study, which sought to document and analyze strategies and procedures used to prevent, manage, and resolve land conflicts and foster collaboration over access to land for peri-urban agriculture by the urban resource-poor. Specifically, the section is set to address two research questions. First, to explain the main types of land conflicts over the access to land that the resource-poor in KMC experienced. Second, to explain the various methods that the resource-

poor farmers used to resolve land conflicts over the access of land for the different peri-urban agriculture activities in the municipality. This section discusses land conflicts in peri-urban areas and those found in urban areas only.

Land conflicts are historical and are closely associated with human beings, and are common in areas in which land scarcity prevails. Land conflicts in many countries of the world have resulted into killings, reprisals, migration, hunger, poverty, and decreased agricultural production, to mention a few. One does not have to be a sociologist to understand that land is probably the highest valued good in the world, for which people are prepared to die and kill (O'Brien, 1999). A land conflict may be defined as the disagreement between two individuals or groups of people on who has the rightful use to the land. In KMC peri-urban areas, land conflicts have become a common thing and most of the resource-poor farmers attribute their increase, among many other reasons to population increase, socio-economic status, large household sizes, the proximity of peri-urban areas to the City of Dar es Salaam, and sometimes the inefficient, corrupt and ineffective land registration system. Around the city of Dar es Salaam, high population growth has caused widespread increase of land use and land values in peri-urban areas, swallowing the rural villages and affecting the existing land tenure systems (Mushi, 2004).

4.4.2 Land conflicts in peri-urban areas

Box 4.4 shows the types of land conflicts in KMC, identified at three main levels: the level of individual resource poor farmer, the village government, and KMC or MLHSD or government. Furthermore, the study found that a resource-poor farmer could find herself/himself in a land conflict issue either with one of the four types of entities: family members, people outside his/her family, the village government, and KMC/MLHSD—here representing the government (Box 4.4).

Box 4.4. Land conflicts in peri-urban areas of KMC

1. MLHSD through KMC appropriated land of the resource-poor farmer and the farmer thinks that the govt had inadequately compensated him
2. Village government appropriated part of a resource-poor farmer's land to distribute it to young or landless village members
3. Village government leaders sold land belonging to a resource-poor farmer to a 'new owner' without informing her/him
Village government appropriated part of a resource-poor farmer's land and sold it to a 'new comer' to raise money for village development
4. Village government appropriated part of a resource-poor farmer's land and sold it to a politicians or government official to get favours
5. A resource-poor farmer refused to give land to the village government for building a school, dispensary, kindergarten etc
6. A resource-poor farmer refused to give back land to the village government that he/she was given free by the village government
7. A resource-poor farmer took over land from a 'new comer' that he/she had given it free some years back
8. A resource-poor farmer took over land from an 'old comer' that he/she had given it free some years back
9. A resource-poor farmer took over land from 'a new comer' that he/she had sold it some years back
10. A resource-poor farmer sold the same land to the second 'new comer' that he/she had sold it to the first 'new comer' some years back (i.e. double selling).
11. A resource-poor farmer gave the land free to the second 'new comer' that he/she had given it free to the first 'new comer' some years back (i.e. double giving).
12. A resource-poor farmer took over land from a family member that he/she had given it free some years back

The study also found that land conflicts in KMC peri-urban study wards were heightened partly due to five main reasons: land scarcity, proximity to the city of Dar es Salaam, the homogeneity of the ethnic tribes, the young Zaramo claims to the land, the socio-economic status of the resource-poor farmers. Each of these reasons is discussed below.

1. Land scarcity was in most of the KMC peri-urban areas is a problem because of the many needs for land from other users—land for housing, urban development, and farming. For instance, of the 480 peri-urban resource-poor farmers (RA) who were interviewed, over half (66%) indicated that they owned land with a mean size of 1.8 acres and a minimum of 0.5 of an acre. This land size was not enough to sustain a family given the fact that a resource-poor household size had an average of four to six people. The study found that 50 percent of the 480 RA resource-poor farmers indicated that they wished to own land of a mean size of 3.0 acres. It was this discrepancy of how to get the extra 1.2 acres that was in part at the center of the land scarcity that easily translated into land conflicts in the study wards.

2. The peri-urban study wards are close to Dar es Salaam metropole, in which land was a commodity to be sold. In these peri-urban areas, the value and price of land per acre was high, especially along the Dar es Salaam to Morogoro, and Dar es Salaam to Bagamoyo roads. This in itself was a major motivator for most of the resource-poor farmers to want to get their original land back the land or hold it so that they could sell it and get more money. As shown elsewhere, most of the respondents (75%) earned less than one US dollar per day, hence, lived below the poverty line. Land along the beach, especially in Bunju Ward was highly valuable. For instance, the study found that on the south eastern side of Bunju ward there is a beach along the Indian

Ocean. Land here is expensive to buy and mostly riddled with land conflicts because rich people or ‘new comers’ want the land for estate development.

Furthermore, in Bunju ward, a land conflict involving the resource-poor farmers with KMC/MLHSD was reported by the 13 participants who attended a focus group discussion. The resource-poor farmers lamented that KMC/MLHSD had appropriated about 7,000 farms, which were subdivided into about 23,000. Most of these plots were later distributed to urban dwellers. Participants indicated that they had been poorly compensated for their farmland, and were angry by the way KMC/MLHSD had handled the situation. However, they reported that no action has been taken to address or solve their complaints. The majority of the resource-poor farmers were dislocated due to high premium—an action that denied the urban poor including women and youth access to the land (Mushi, 2004). However, we hope that such acts do not translate to the Brazilian case in which “the demand for land translated land conflicts into the language of public policy and demanding some sort of intervention on their behalf, which would not be merely repression,...but acts of rural rebellion” (de Medeiros, 2001). Listening to these resource-poor farmers during the focus group discussion one noted a voice of a marginalized people who would easily be driven to take radical change models to deal with the roots of oppression.

The study noted that in most KMC peri-urban areas, especially in Bunju, and Kawe wards land conflicts had recently been intensified fuelling a lot of dissatisfaction in the way KMC and MLSHD handled land issues among the resource-poor farmers. Box 4.5 reports responses from a stakeholders’ workshop meeting held on 15th April 2004 organized as part of this study.

Box 4.5. Excerpts from a stakeholders’ workshop

“We have been lowly compensated for our farmland including the crop therein. Why can’t KMC and MLHSD remove all the car garages in Bunju and Kawe Wards and give us the land to us to farm. KMC and MLHSD should also talk to urban dwellers who own large tracks of land so that they can give part of the land to be distributed to us for farming”. But such demands faded away when a KMC Urban Planner answered by saying that “currently all land in the municipality was regarded as town land and that the government had instructed it to be surveyed and allocated for urban uses and not for agriculture”.

3. The homogeneity of the inhabitants in the peri-urban areas influenced land conflicts. As discussed earlier, the dominant single ethnic tribe in the study wards was the Zaramo. This implied that they originally had accessed land through the customary system. The study found that there were three common types of land conflicts: land conflicts meted by the resource-poor farmers to the ‘old comers’ as the latter wanted the land back—mostly to re-sell it at high price, and land conflicts between resource-poor farmers and the ‘new comers’ as the latter wanted the land back on the pretext that it was cheaply sold to them in the first place (Box 4.4).

4. Young Zaramos claimed rights to land held by ‘old or new comer’ who was given or bought it from their parents but was unable to produce legal documents for owning the land. The study findings show that it was because of this that most of urban-based ‘new comers’ who had bought land from the resource-poor farmers immediately surveyed and processed title deeds from MLHSD to avoid land conflicts with the young Zaramos.

5. The socio-economic status of the resource-poor farmers in the study wards. Land conflicts among the resource-poor farmers were partly attributed by their inherent socio-economic status, that is, getting low income per month, living in a poor houses, having large household sizes, possessing low formal education, low farm production, not having a formal jobs, having children with low or no education, unable to eat well, and generally having a miserable welfare.

4.4.2.1 Sources of land conflicts in peri-urban areas

In order to further understand the sources of land conflicts in KMC peri-urban areas Table BB shows a matrix of five main factors that clearly explain the phenomena. These include the methods for accessing land, the type of conflicts, reasons for the conflicts, and how conflicts were resolved. Here, the landowners included the resource-poor farmers, family members, old comers, newcomers and KMC/MLHSD. For instance, the study found that the type of land conflicts that the 'new comers' faced in KMC peri-urban areas were of three types: the resource-poor farmers, family members, and sometimes the village government all wanting back the land that the new comer had bought from the resource-poor farmer (Table 4.6).

Furthermore, the main reason for the land conflicts, which the new comers experienced were due to the fact that they owned large parcels of land. However, the study found that the interests for the three groups towards land varied. The resource-poor farmers wanted it back so that they could re-sell it at high price. While most family members of the resource-poor farmer wanted the land so that they could use part of it for agriculture and sell the remaining part. Yet, the village government wanted back the land for two reasons: putting up other village development structures, such as schools, dispensaries, and to distribute the rest to other landless resource-poor farmers, such as the youth, women and the widowed. Table BB shows some attributes of the land conflicts in KMC peri-urban areas.

Table 4.6: Sources of land conflicts and claims made by resource-poor farmers

Land owner	Method accessed land	Type of conflict	How conflict resolved	Reason for conflict
Resource-poor farmer	Inherited from parents Cleared the bush Given by friends Given by relatives Bought the land	Village government wants back the land to give to other villagers MLHSD wants back the land for dev.	Clan elders Village governments hearings Court of law (rare)	Resource-poor not wanting to give back land
Family member	Inherited from resource-poor parents	Parents want land back	Relatives, clan elders	Resource-poor not wanting to give land to family members
‘Old comer’ to the areas	Given by village govt. Given by other farmers Bought land from resource-poor farmers	Village govt. want land back Resource-poor farmers wants land back Family members want land back	Village government hearings Ten-cell leaders hearings then referred to the village govt. “	Claims by resource-poor that they refuse to give back land that they were freely given
‘New buyer’	Bought it from resource-poor farmers Bought it from the village govt.	Resource-poor farmers want land back Family members want land back Village govt. want land back	Village govt. If the case fails then referred to courts of law	Claims by resource-poor that they paid too low price on the land Also, that they hold large tacks of land
KMC/MLHSD	Legally land belong to Govt.	Wants land for development	Can take farmers to court of law (rare)	Farmers refuse to give land

Source: Survey data, 2003.

4.4.2.2 Levels of land conflicts in peri-urban areas

In the six wards, the study found that there were five levels of conflicts and the lowest level of a land conflict was when a resource-poor farmer’s family member had a conflict with another family member on a land issue (Box 4.6). This involved the resource-poor farmer with another resource-poor farmer—in essence the land conflict became more external than in the earlier case. The study found that the externality of the land conflicts depended on the seriousness of the case itself. For instance, a resource-poor farmer having a case with a family member here referred to as a family-based land conflict could be taken outside the family circles only when family members failed to settle the issue amicably. In this case, the claim was first taken to the ten-cell leader and if it was still not arbitrated, it was then taken to the village government for arbitration.

Box 4.6. Levels of land conflicts in KMC

- A resource-poor farmer with a family member
- A resource-poor farmer with another resource-poor farmer
- A resource-poor farmer with an ‘old comer’
- A resource-poor farmer with a ‘new land buyer’
- Village government with another village government
- Resource-poor farmer with KMC/MLHSD
- Village government with KMC/MLHSD (were rare)

The study found that another level of land conflict was when a resource-poor farmer was involved with another resource-poor farmer. Here, the form of land conflict could range from a small dispute of one having chopped part of a neighbour's land on the boundary to a serious one of seizing or selling one's plot without the owner's knowledge. In this case, land claims were normally settled through the village government using the village government leaders. The study found that such types of land claims ended at the village level, but few cases would actually go beyond the village government. It was noted that most of the resource-poor farmers avoided taking their land conflicts beyond the village government because such cases involved paying money for them to be heard and settled.

In addition, the study found that for a normal land case in a village the cost ranged from Tshs. 10,000 to over 20,000. This can be a substantial amount of money if the case was to heard for more than five times. Usually, the time for a land case to be settled in a village took not less than four meetings depending on the seriousness of the land conflict, implying that a resource-poor farmer would part with about Tshs. 40,000 to have his/her land conflict settled. This could be a substantial drain on a resource-poor farmer's income--a reason that made most of the resource-poor to avoid taking their land conflicts beyond the village governments.

Another land conflict in KMC peri-urban areas was between a traditional resource-poor farmer with another resource-poor farmer here referred to as the 'old comers'(Box 4.6). Generally, these were individuals who were originally born in the same villages but had stayed in the villages for over 30 years. As discussed earlier the classification of respondents based on where respondents were born prior to coming to KMC. There were a number of resource-poor farmers who came to KMC in the 1960s, or late 1970s, and during this time land in peri-urban areas of KMC was plenty. As a good gesture the resource-poor gave some land free of charge to these individuals to farm. From the late 1970s onwards, land in KMC peri-urban areas became available commodity as most people from the urban areas wanted land for further development and speculation.

The study found that new comers were mostly urban dwellers from Dar es Salaam city who approached the traditional resource-poor farmers for land to buy. Those with land started selling it to the new comers, and those who had given it to the 'old comers' started claiming it back so that they could sell it at high price. However, most of the 'old comers' refused to give the land back without being compensated. Most of the old comers had developed the land during the 30 years they had lived on. Claiming the land back became a serious land conflict leading to land cases. The study found that serious land conflicts have been experienced when siblings of the resource-poor farmers wanted back the land without compensating the 'old comers'.

Another level of land conflict experienced in KMC peri-urban areas was the one involving the resource-poor farmers with the 'new buyers'. A 'new buyer' here is referred to as a person who went in the peri-urban areas for the purpose of buying land, a practice that started in the late 1970s and continues till now (see Mwamfupe and Kivelia, 2001; Kironde, 1998). However, the study found that there were appreciable number of the resource-poor farmers who registered dissatisfactions by claiming that the 'new buyers' should top-up money for the land they bought some years back. Yet, other resource-poor farmers exacerbated the land conflict issue by wanting the land back so that they could re-sell it at the prevailing price. The study found that most of the 'new buyers' of land in KMC peri-urban areas were knowledgeable about land legislations. As such, most formalized their land transactions through the village government authorities, and even went to MLHSD to officially have the land surveyed and title deed granted.

The study found that there were land conflicts, albeit a few, that involved a resource-poor farmer in the study village with another resource-poor farmer living in another village. Such land conflicts could be called the *intra-village* land conflicts and were usually settled by the village government leaders in which the land being disputed was found. From the early 1960s, most of the resource-poor farmers in KMC used to own farmland in villages other than those they lived in. Such a piece of land was either given to them by the village governments, friends, and through their spouses' side. In order to ensure that such land was not snatched away, the resource-poor farmer entrusted another person living in the same village to oversee the farmland for him/her. But, as time went on farmland in these villages became scarce such that other landless resource-poor were compelled to take over such land for agriculture, a move that sparked a land conflict. The study found that a plaintiff of such land conflicts never won the case because according to the Village Land Act, 1999, the village government legally owns all farmland in a village on behalf of all the villagers residing therein. What has been explained above did apply for the land conflicts involving two villages—which were rare in the study wards.

The last highest level of the land conflict was that involving the village government and resource-poor farmer (Table 4.6). Here, the resource-poor farmer could be asked to give back land for the village, but the farmer could refuse leading to serious case. However, such conflicts were not common in the studied peri-urban areas.

4.4.2.3 Means of resolving land conflicts in peri-urban areas

The study found that there were two methods of settling land conflicts in KMC peri-urban areas. These included the formal or official, and the informal or traditional methods of settling land conflicts (Table 4.7). In KMC peri-urban areas, the formal method of settling land conflicts consisted of five levels: the ten-cell leader, village government leaders, ward executive officer, the primary court, and district court. The extent to which a land conflict was settled at any of these five levels depended mainly on three factors: the size of land involved in the conflict, the extent to which the resource-poor farmer thought that he/she could win the case, and the amount of money the resource-poor was willing to pay for the hearings. However, the study found that most of the resource-poor farmers land conflicts were settled at three levels: the ten-cell leaders, village government, and at the ward executive offices (Table 4.7).

Table 4.7: Type of land conflicts and methods of settling them

Type of land conflicts	Formal	Informal
1. MLHSD through KMC appropriated resource-poor farmer land and they think that they have been inadequately compensated	x	
2. Village government appropriated part of a resource-poor farmer's land in order to distribute it to young landless village members	x	
3. Village government leaders sold land of a resource-poor farmer to a 'new comer' without informing her/him	x	
4. Village government appropriated part of a resource-poor farmer's land in order to sell it to outsiders to raise money for village development	x	
5. Village government appropriated part of a resource-poor farmer's land in order to sell it to politicians and government officials to get favours	x	
6. Village government appropriated part of a resource-poor farmer's land in order to sell it to politicians and government officials to get favours	x	
7. A resource-poor farmer refused to give land that he/she was given free by the village government to a build a school, dispensary, kindergarten, etc	x	
8. A resource-poor farmer took over land from a 'new comer' that he/she had gave it free to him/her some years back	x	x
9. A resource-poor farmer took over land from an 'old comer' that he/she had gave it free to him/her some years back	x	x
10. A resource-poor farmer took over land from 'a new comer' that he/she had sold to him/her some years back		
12. A resource-poor farmer took over land free a family member whom he/she had given it free some years back		

As Table 4.7 shows the use of informal or traditional methods for resolving land conflicts in the study wards was minimal. Usually, these methods involved mainly the resource-poor farmer family members and sometimes clan elders in resolving the land conflicts. This implied that there was lack of confidence with system or else land conflicts had become more complicated that the traditional system could resolve. However, the study found that few land conflicts cases heard in the informal hearings rarely crossed over to the formal methods, and when it so happened the ten-cell leader was the first person to be informed of the case, further underscoring the importance of social capital.

4.4.3 Land Conflicts in Urban Areas

A section prior to this examined the land conflicts that the resource-poor in peri-urban areas endured. This section examines the land conflicts of the resource-poor farmers or the UA in the urban areas. The overriding premises is that most of the UA did not legally own the land they farmed.

4.4.3.1 Type of land conflicts in urban areas

Table TT below shows the type of conflict that the urban resource-poor experienced when they accessed land for agriculture. Furthermore, Table TT shows that the urban resource-poor had land conflicts with three types of urban dwellers: the legal landowners, other resource-poor farmers who also used the land illegally, and the non-farming coup of illegal land users. The legal landowners included KMC, University of Dar es Salaam, schools, individuals, military bases, and churches. The other resource-poor farmers who also used the land illegally for whom the resource-poor had land conflict with included the common *Amaranthus* growers in KMC, other vegetable growers such as tomatoes, okra, spinaches, onions, kale and field crop growers. The non-farming coup of illegal land users for whom the resource-poor farmer had land conflicts with included garage operators, bar owners, workshop owners, car washers, kiosks operators, brick makers, and sand extractors (Table 4.8).

Table 4.8. Type of land conflicts in urban areas

	Conflict with	Example	Area of conflict	Means conflict resolved
Resource-poor farmer	Legal landowner	KMC	Open space, road vedges, Valleys	<i>KMC</i> militia, <i>mtaa</i> chairperson, ward executive office, court of law
		University	Open space	<i>Mtaa</i> chairperson, ward executive office, court of law
		Schools	Open space	<i>Mtaa</i> elders, <i>mtaa</i> chairperson, ward executive office, court of law
		Individuals	Open space, building plot, business area	<i>Mtaa</i> elders, <i>mtaa</i> chairperson, ward executive office, court of law
		Military base	Open space	<i>Mtaa</i> chairperson, ward executive office
		Churches/mosque	Open space	Church/mosque members, <i>mtaa</i> chairperson, ward executive office, court of law
	Another resource-poor farmer	<i>Amaranthus</i> growers and veg. growers, field crop growers,	Extension of boundaries, plot evasion,	<i>Mtaa</i> elders, <i>mtaa</i> chairperson, church/mosque members, ward executive office
Non-UA land user	Garage operators, bar owners, workshop owners, car washers, kiosks operators, brick makers, sand extractors, etc.	Evading open space, extension of plot boundaries, polluting crops	<i>Mtaa</i> chairperson, ward executive office	

Source: Survey data, 2003.

4.4.3.2 Areas of land conflict in urban areas

The study found that the areas of land conflicts that the urban resource-poor farmers had with different entities differed, and that the common one was the open spaces (Table 4.8). For instance, the common land conflicts that the urban resource-poor had with KMC involved the latter asking the poor to give back the open spaces, road vedges, valleys, which they illegally farmed. Unlike in the peri-urban areas, land conflicts involving KMC and the resource-poor farmers were sometimes confrontational in that KMC could be sent to slash down crops growing on the disputed open space and/or valley. Land conflicts between the resource-poor and individuals occurred when the latter wanted the open space, building plot, or business area, which was illegally used by the former. The study found that often times the resource poor lacked knowledge on the *bona fide* landowners in KMC, especially in the open spaces and building plots. Areas of land conflict between the resource-poor farmers and other resource-poor farmers, and the non-UA land users involved the latter evading into the open spaces used by poor. Sometimes it involved the extension into the plot boundaries of the poor, or their activities polluting crops of the poor, especially for garage operators and car washers (Table 4.8).

4.4.3.3 Means of resolving land conflicts in urban areas

The study found that the means through which land conflicts were resolved in KMC differed based on the entity or person the resource-poor was involved with in the conflict. For instance,

for a land conflict that involved KMC and the resource-poor farmer, KMC instructed the ward executive officers to resolve the conflict. The ward executive officer sent a notice through the *mtaa* chairperson to the resource-poor to report to her/his office. Then, the ward executive officer together with other five *mtaa* elders selected by the *mtaa* chairperson of the resource-poor having the land conflict listened to the nature of the conflict. They discussed the conflict and later asked the resource-poor to vacate the disputed land. If this option failed, then KMC used force by sending its militia to enforce the order. Rarely did land conflicts between the resource-poor farmers and KMC reach this stage nor go to courts of law (Table 4.8).

Resolving a land conflict that involved an individual person with a resource-poor farmer was of two methods: through the formal method of using the *mtaa* chairperson, and through the informal method of using the *mtaa* elders. If the individual decided to report her/his case to the *mtaa* chairperson, the chairperson selected other five members who convened to listen to the land conflict. The *mtaa* executive secretary kept records of the deliberations. If both parties were satisfied the conflict the case was resolved and verdict delivered. If one party was not satisfied, then the case was referred to the ward executive officer for further hearing. The records of the case were sent to this office to form the basis of the case. This followed the same procedure described for the KMC land conflict. This was the common method of resolving land conflicts. Again, if the land conflict was not resolved the case was referred to the primary court of law together with records kept during the earlier deliberations. But, this was rare.

If the individual decided to report her/his case to the *mtaa* elders through the *mtaa* chairperson, the *mtaa* chairperson selected other five members who convened to listen to the land conflict. If both parties were satisfied the conflict was resolved and justice delivered. But, if one part was not satisfied the case was adjourned and the case went through the formal channel starting with the *mtaa* chairperson as described above. However, the study found that most of the land conflict cases in urban areas ended up at the ward executive office level, and were rarely settled in courts of law. In this case, the informal methods of arbitrating land conflicts cases in urban areas played a minimal role mostly included *mtaa* elders, and church or mosque members (Table 4.8). As reported earlier for the peri-urban areas, taking a case forward depended on factors such as the socio-economic status of the claimants and the magnitude of the land conflict.

4.4.4 Section summary

This section has addressed the mechanisms, which were used to resolve land conflicts in KMC (peri)-urban areas, especially around the milieu of the resource-poor farmer, which was the primary focus of this study. The section discussed the five main reasons that heightened land conflicts, which included land scarcity, proximity to the city of Dar es Salaam, the homogeneity of the ethnic tribes, the young Zaramo claims to the land, and the socio-economic status of the resource-poor farmers. There is also a discussion of the five sources of land conflicts and these included the resource-poor themselves, the resource-poor family members, the old comers to the areas, the new buyers of land, and KMC/MLHSD. Levels of conflicts have been discussed and later the formal and informal methods of resolving land conflicts have been elaborated with the latter dominating.

This discussion on land conflicts shows that it was a complex issue. For the case of KMC, conflicts were resolved by using formal and informal methods. The family members and clan elders resolved some of the land conflicts, but mostly preferred formal methods, but here too few went to courts of law. The use of a combination of informal and formal methods of resolving land conflicts in the case of KMC were successful, and constituted a check balance in that farmers continued to live in harmony.

Unlike urban areas, the customary land ownership in peri-urban areas have been preserved and respected, i.e. an indigenous Zaramo selling a parcel of land he/she had inherited. In a way such customary land ownership needed improvement (i.e. through surveying, titling, registration) if they are to continue, as mostly were the sources of land conflicts, and negatively affected efforts towards proper land planning in peri-urban areas. However, the existing land conflicts in peri-urban areas could be further lessened if the resource-poor farmers were educated on land laws, land tenure systems, village development plans, municipal expansion plans, and city master plan. This would require that local, ward, and municipal authorities embraced the participatory methods of educating the resource-poor farmers about land conflicts and how they could lessen them, such as titling the land they owned.

4.5 Legal and Policy Issues

Tanzania is rife with PUA legal and policy documents, but their implementation has been questionable, and not known to most people, especially the resource-poor. In Chapter 2 we discussed the legal and policy issues pertaining to PUA, and mentioned the National Land Policy of 1985, which addresses issues of land tenure and administration, survey and mapping, urban and rural land use planning, land use management, and institutional set up. There is the Urban Farming Regulations of 1992, which is important for this study and it states that: “urban farming” means the carrying out of plant and animal husbandry activities within statutory township boundaries; no person shall occupy or use more than three acres of land for urban farming; only zero grazing is allowed and the number of cattle is restricted to four head per person; and farming activity which is deemed to constitute a nuisance in the form of noise or smell or pose physical danger to the safety of the public shall not be permitted in areas other than those zoned for urban agriculture.

The Agricultural and Livestock Policy of 1997 too is an important document followed by the Human Settlements Development Policy of 2000, which specifically states that special areas should be designated for (peri) urban agriculture. The municipal authorities i.e. all local authorities in the country including KMC condones UA practices. This was legally provided for in the Urban Farming Regulations of 1992 made under the Town and Country Planning Ordinance (Cap. 378) Section 78; (Government Notice No. 10 published on 25/2/93), which states:

“Urban farming” means the carrying out of plant and animal husbandry activities within statutory township boundaries. No person shall occupy or use more than three acres of land for urban farming. No person shall, except where that person practices zero-grazing, graze his animals in an urban area”.

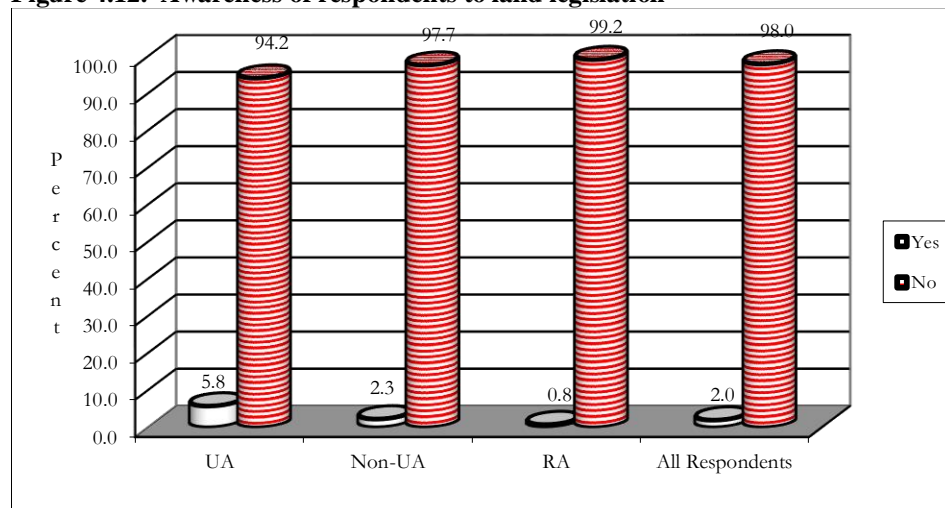
However, with all regulations in place, UA is practiced in KMC haphazardly. For instance, there are several cases where livestock numbers are above what is allowed, and are raised in commercial, institutional and residential areas threatening the health and safety of city residents. Despite of the potential role of UA, it is characterized by various structural and policy problems that have so far constrained its contribution in the urban economy, the environment and human health.

4.5.1 Awareness to land legislation

The study tested the respondents’ (UA, Non-UA, and RA) awareness to several land legislation (land laws, bye-laws, circulars and regulations) governing urban and peri-urban agriculture in KMC. Out of a total of 801 interviewees, 790 (98.6%) respondents reacted to issue of awareness

of land legislation regulating access to land for agriculture in KMC (Figure 4.12). An analysis of the results showed that an overwhelming 774 (97.6%) of the respondents were not aware of any land legislation issued by the government or KMC for regulating access to land for agriculture in KMC. Further analysis carried out for each sub-category i.e. UA, Non-UA and RA yielded the same results—that the majority of the respondents were not aware of any legislation for regulating access to land for urban or peri-urban agriculture. Figure 4.12 below shows the extent of awareness on legislation for regulating (peri)-urban agriculture in KMC for the three categories of respondents.

Figure 4.12. Awareness of respondents to land legislation



Source: Survey data, 2003.

Further analysis carried out for each sub-category i.e. UA, Non-UA and RA yielded the same results—that the majority of the respondents were not aware of any legislation for regulating access to land for urban or peri-urban agriculture. Figure 4.12 below shows the extent of awareness on legislation for regulating (peri)-urban agriculture in KMC for the three categories of respondents. It is worth noting that a minority (2%) who claimed to “know” land legislation were not further tested as their level of knowledge and understanding of land legislations, as that could have been uneconomical as they were few.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter has three sections: the conclusion, policy recommendations, and suggestions for further research. These are each discussed below.

5.0 Conclusion

The general objective of this study was to contribute to a better understanding of how the peri-urban resource-poor accessed land for agriculture. It also sought to identify and recommend public policy interventions for the purposes of improving access to land by the peri-urban resource poor for agriculture. The main data for this study involved a sample of 801 respondents whose information was collected using three types of questionnaires. The first set of questionnaire was designed for the urban resource-poor who practiced urban agriculture (hereafter referred to as UA). The second set of questionnaire was used for the urban poor who did not practice urban agriculture (hereafter referred to as non-UA). The third set of questionnaire was used to elicit information from the peri-urban poor who practiced agriculture in the peri-urban areas (hereafter referred to as RA). In all cases, both quantitative and qualitative information was gathered from the respondents in their households.

To address the first objective of the study and its accompanying research questions the study found that there were systems and mechanisms/options by which different social groups accessed land for agriculture in KMC. The study found that the three types of respondents used informal ways for accessing land for agriculture in varying proportions than the other two types (formal and buying). The highest were the UA and RA who on average, (69%) and (61%) indicated that they used the informal ways for accessing land for agriculture, respectively. The informal ways of accessing land for agriculture were also important among the non-UA as it was indicated by average of 47 percent of the respondents, signifying the importance of social capital. These findings vary from those of Mwamfupe and Kivelia (2001) and Kironde (1989) who found that the formal way i.e. buying or purchasing of accessing land for agriculture was the important one.

The informal ways of accessing land for agriculture were mostly used because of the low monthly income of the resource-poor in KMC. For instance, the study found that the price of land in (peri)-urban areas in KMC was determined by the quality of land, size of land, location from the council's headquarters, the SES of the buyer, the type of infrastructure present. On this issue, 310 of the 480 RA resource-poor farmers, 310 (64.6%) reported that the mean price of land charged per acre stood at Tshs. 1,001,000 (US\$ 963), the minimum at Tshs. 50,000 (US\$ 48), and a maximum of Tshs. 20,000,000 (US\$ 19,231) with a standard deviation of Tshs. 1,773,000 (US\$ 1,705). Respondents also indicated the price they would charge per acre of land to fellow villagers. Of the 480 RA resource-poor farmers, 284 (59.2%) indicated that they would charge an acre of land to fellow villagers at a mean price of Tshs. 1,012,000, a maximum of Tshs. 20,000,000 (US\$ 19,231), a minimum of 50,000 (US\$ 48) with a standard deviation of Tshs. 1,652,000 (US\$ 1,589). None of the resource-poor farmer would buy land with this kind of price for an acre of land given their low monthly income. The informal ways of accessing land could be enhanced and improved if land was given free of charge to the resource-poor farmers in peri-urban areas by the village governments, KMC and MLHSD. However, these official institutions had no land that they could give out free of charge to the resource-poor farmers in KMC.

In urban areas, UA females and males respondents commonly used inheritance (47%), clearing the bush (14%), and given by relatives (10%) to access land for agriculture. All the informal ways of accessing land accounted for about 72 percent, indicating that they were superior over the formal ways. One thing to note was that most of the women accessed land for agriculture through inheritance than did males. This is probably due to matrilineal systems of passing over property practiced by the ethnic groups in the eastern zone. Among the UA respondents, 24 (31%) and 13 (17%) females and males indicated that they accessed land for agriculture through inheritance, respectively. Of all respondents ten (13%) males and five (8%) females indicated that they accessed land through buying.

In peri-urban areas, RA females and males respondents equally indicated that they accessed land for agriculture through inheritance (35 (11%) for females and 34 (10.8%) for males). This data showed that there was gender equity in terms how land for agriculture was given to siblings in peri-urban areas of Kinondoni, an aspect that perhaps was because of the matrilineal nature of most of the dominant ethnic groups—the Zaramo, Matumbi, Luguru, Ndengereko, Ngindo, Kwere, and Zigua in the study Wards. At this juncture we can say that informal ways of accessing land for agriculture for most of the peri-urban poor farmers in KMC guaranteed and offered them some form of security of tenure to use land for both men and women in KMC.

With response to answering the second question of the study which sought to analyze the existing legal and policy frameworks for accessing private or public land for agriculture, the study found that there were several legal and policy frameworks for accessing land for agriculture among the resource-poor farmers. For instance, there is the Urban Farming Regulations 1992, the Agricultural and Livestock Policy of 1997 and the Human Settlements Development Policy of 2000, which in varying tone have statements similar to those contained in the National Land Act 1995. This Act designates special areas within planning areas whereby people will be granted legal rights to engage in urban agricultural activities; continue to regulate and research on the conduct of urban agriculture, and will ensure that (peri) urban agriculture does not disrupt planned urban development; etc.

Furthermore, the municipal authorities i.e. all local authorities in the country including KMC condones UA practices, and this was legally provided for in the Urban Farming Regulations of 1992 made under the Town and Country Planning Ordinance (Cap. 378) Section 78; (Government Notice No. 10 published on 25/2/93). But, with the legal and policy frameworks in the books, the conditions of the peri-urban resource-poor farmers has not improved and these legal and policy frameworks have negatively affected the access to land for the agriculture of the urban poor at different stages of development of the practice. This is to say that the legal and policy frameworks for accessing land for agriculture by the resource-poor farmers has lagged behind requirements and needs of KMC in terms of recognizing peri-urban agriculture as an emerging land use.

The third objective of the study sought to document and analyze strategies and procedures used to prevent, manage and resolve land conflicts or foster collaboration over access of land for (peri)-urban agriculture by the resource-poor in KMC. The study found that the urban resource-poor farmer experienced land conflicts with three types of urban dwellers: the legal landowners, other resource-poor farmers who also used the land illegally, and the non-farming coup of illegal land users. The legal landowners included KMC, University of Dar es Salaam, schools, individuals, military bases, and churches. The other resource-poor farmers who also used the land illegally for whom the resource-poor had land conflict with included the common *Amaranthus* growers in KMC, other vegetable growers such as tomatoes, okra, spinaches,

onions, kale and field crop growers. The resource-poor farmer had land conflicts with other non-farming coup of illegal land users. These included garage operators, bar owners, workshop owners, car washers, kiosks operators, brick makers, and sand extractors. The study found that the main types of land conflicts that the urban resource-poor farmers had with different entities differed, and that the common one was over the open spaces. For instance, the common land conflicts that the urban resource-poor had with KMC involved the latter asking the poor to give back the open spaces, road vedges, valleys, which they illegally farmed.

The study found that the means through which land conflicts were resolved in KMC differed based on the entity or person the resource-poor was involved with in the conflict. For instance, for a land conflict that involved KMC and the resource-poor farmer, KMC instructed the ward executive officers to resolve the conflict. The ward executive officer sent a notice through the *mtaa* chairperson to the resource-poor to report to her/his office. Then, the ward executive officer together with selected five *mtaa* elders by the *mtaa* chairperson of the resource-poor having the land conflict listened to the nature of the conflict. They discussed the conflict and later asked the resource-poor to vacate the disputed land. If this option failed, then KMC used force by sending its militia to enforce the order. Rarely did land conflicts between the resource-poor farmers and KMC reach this stage nor go to courts of law.

Resolving a land conflict that involved an individual person with a resource-poor farmer was done in two ways: through the formal way of using the *mtaa* chairperson, and through the informal way of using the *mtaa* elders. If the individual decided to report her/his case to the *mtaa* chairperson, the chairperson selected other five members who all convened to listen to the land conflict. The *mtaa* executive secretary kept records of the deliberations. If both parties were satisfied the conflict was resolved and justice delivered. If one party was not satisfied, then the case was referred to the ward executive officer for further hearing. The records kept earlier were sent to this office to form the basis of the case. This followed the procedure as described for the KMC land conflict. Again, if the conflict was not resolved the case was referred to the primary court of law together with records kept during the earlier deliberations.

The study found that land conflicts in KMC (peri) urban areas existed at three main levels: at the individual resource-poor farmer, at the village government, and at KMC or MLHSD or government. The study also found that land conflicts in KMC peri-urban wards were heightened partly due to five main reasons: land scarcity setting in, proximity to the city of Dar es Salaam, the homogeneity of the ethnic tribes, the young Zaramo claims to the land, the socio-economic status of the resource-poor farmers.

In the six study wards, the study found that there were five levels of conflicts and the lowest level of a land conflict was when a resource-poor farmer's family member had a conflict with another family member on a land issue. There was a land conflict, which involved the resource-poor farmer with another resource-poor farmer—in essence the land conflict became more external than in the earlier case. The study found that the externality of the land conflicts depended on the seriousness of the case itself. For instance, a resource-poor farmer having a case with a family member here referred as a family-based land conflict could be taken outside the family circles only when family members failed to settle the case. In this case, the claim was first taken to the ten-cell leader and if it was still not arbitrated then it was taken to the village government for arbitration.

The study found that there were two ways of settling land conflicts in KMC peri-urban areas. These included the formal or official, and the informal or traditional ways of settling land

conflicts. In KMC peri-urban areas, the formal way of settling land conflicts consisted of five levels: the ten-cell leader, village government leaders, ward executive officer, the primary court, and district court. The extent to which a land conflict was settled at any of these five levels mainly depended on three factors: the size of land involved in the conflict, the extent to which the resource-poor farmer thought that he/she could win the case, and the amount of money the resource-poor was willing to pay for the case to be heard. However, the study found that most of the resource-poor farmers land conflicts were settled at three levels: the ten-cell leaders, village government, and at the ward executive offices.

This study has shown that there was institutionalization of urban agriculture within the local authority and that the local communities minimized land conflicts. In most cases land conflicts were resolved through the participatory approaches involving the resource-poor farmers, their local leadership and community elders who were effective in resolving land conflicts on both private and public land. As earlier explained, social capital was displayed, as Putman (2000) asserts “that social capital allows citizen to resolve collective problems more easily... People often might be better off if they cooperate, with each doing her share. But each individual benefits more by shirking their responsibility, hoping that others will do the work for others...”. At the community level, in (peri)-urban areas social capital greased the wheels that allowed individuals of different ethnic origins to live and advance together.

Objective 4 of this study sought to integrate/link research objectives 1,2, and 3 with; a. Specific public policy interventions to improve access to land by the (peri)-resource-poor farmers for agriculture in KMC; b. Other threats and risks that may influence the access to land for agriculture by the resource-poor farmers in KMC was lack of implementing existing policies for enhancing (peri)-urban agriculture through designating special areas within planned areas whereby people can be granted legal rights to engage in urban agricultural activities. And, the other thing should not involve enforcement of regulations, but to encourage and facilitate urban agriculture that the resource-poor can contribute in some way towards the urban food basket while improving their livelihoods. In urban areas, this would imply that KMC allocate the open spaces, road verges, valleys and other not used land to the resource-poor urban farmers. In the peri-urban areas, this would mean that village governments, KMC/MLHSD would acquire extra land elsewhere and allocate land to the resource-poor farmers for agriculture. However, in both cases, the political commitment and secure land tenure would undermine efforts at making land for agriculture accessible to the poor.

The good elements that this study has uncovered include the dominance of informal ways of accessing land for agriculture. About two thirds of the resource-poor (peri) and urban farmers accessed land through the informal ways (inheritance, clearing the bush, given by friends, given by relatives). Since, this was already happening it required some enhancement from KMC/MLHSD, and village governments to ensure that the allocated land to the resource-poor farmers remained in their hands for the practice to continue.

However, caution must be taken because some of the resource-poor farmers could misuse the offer and resort to selling the land freely given by above named institutions. There had been negative experiences in some of the World Bank projects in which the poor were allocated plots to build houses in Sinza, Dar es Salaam and Mwanjelwa in Mbeya, to name a few, in which the poor later sold the plots to the well-off urban dwellers hence going against the whole purpose of the exercise. These acts have acted as threats to incorporating of the good elements into the municipality land use planning process. Overcoming these threats would require that KMC

institute programmes that combine education and regulation to ensure that the poor do not sell out the plots given to them.

To further integrate research on objective 1, 2, and 3 with specific policy interventions to improve access by the (peri)-urban resource-poor to land for (peri)-urban agriculture was to improve land inheritance system. As discussed elsewhere, inheritance is part of the social capital which means “that is an instantiated informal norm that promotes cooperation between two or more individuals. . .it can range from a norm of reciprocity between two friends, all the way up to complex and elaborately articulated doctrines” (Fukuyama, 1999). However, the threat to inheritance was that the resource-poor farmers in (peri)-urban areas were increasingly selling land to well-off urban dwellers leaving little land that could be passed over to family members through inheritance. In order for inheritance to continue and function effectively, the village governments in collaboration with KMC/MLHSD should enact bylaws limiting the size of land that a resource-poor farmer could sell out to people coming from outside the village. This means that proper institutionalization of (peri) urban agriculture should be accompanied by responsive policies and regulations based on the realities in KMC.

This study has also found that there was equitable accessing of land for agriculture between women and men, which was something to laud. One of the reasons attributed to this was the matrimonial nature of the predominant tribe in the study wards. However, this good practice should not only be left to individuals but should be governed by policies and regulations through the village governments in collaboration with KMC/MLHSD who should enact bylaws that ensure that half of the village land suitable for agriculture is owned by the resource-poor women. The bylaws should be enforced to make sure that the land is surveyed, registered and titled in the names of the resource-poor women (or wife and husband) so that unscrupulous men will not take away land from women and sell it out or used it for agriculture.

Objective 5 sought to contribute to fill the gaps on gender related aspects of and to the state of art and knowledge on access to land for (peri) urban agriculture. The question of gender is a contentious one that needs careful examination. Literature abounds showing that men own more resources in almost every society. There is a need, therefore, to critically examine data in order to make sound conclusions. In urban areas, 24 (31%) and 13 (17%) females and males UA respondents indicated that they accessed land for agriculture through inheritance, respectively.

And, of the 12 non-UA respondents who gave their opinions, nine were females and males, 19 percent females and males indicated that they accessed land for agriculture through inheritance. In peri-urban areas, females and males equally indicated that they accessed land for agriculture through inheritance 35 (11%) for females and 34 (10.8%) for males. This data showed that there was gender equity in terms of how women and men accessed land for agriculture. The main problem, therefore, has been the legal/policy frameworks in urban areas, in the villages, KMC/MLHSD that appear not to have policies and regulations that favour women to own land legally. In (peri)-urban areas too, there were the cultural, traditional and informational impediments, which appeared to negatively affect women to access land for agriculture.

5.1 Policy Recommendations: The Way Forward

There are six policy recommendations emanating from this study, and each is discussed below.

1. KMC in collaboration with other government departments, NGOs and community based organizations should initiate educational programmes to the resource-poor farmers on land legislations and policy issues, land conflicts and how to resolve them, surveying,

titling and registration of their lands, how to get loans using title deed as collaterals, and refraining from selling land and initiating sustainable income sources.

2. In (peri)-urban areas, KMC in collaboration with other institutions (i.e. Banks, NGOs, government departments) should initiate programmes that could give loans to the resource-poor farmers. The money could be given through the ‘urban agriculture farmers producer groups’ advocated below. The resource-poor farmers could use this money to buy the expensive land in peri-urban areas for agriculture.
3. In urban areas, KMC in collaboration with MLHSD should survey and temporarily allocate the open spaces, vedges, and valleys to the resource-poor farmers to be used for agriculture. Again, these areas would be allocated to members belonging to ‘urban agriculture farmers producer groups’ advocated below. Here, the resource-poor farmers would enter into legal agreement to hold these areas temporarily and their use would be strictly for agriculture and not for building houses. However, this would require strict enforcement to ensure compliance.
4. In peri-urban areas, KMC/MLHSD in collaboration with the village governments should enact bylaws limiting the size of land that a resource-poor farmer could sell out to people coming from outside the village. This would ensure that in the (peri)-urban areas land was left for inheritance. However, this required proper institutionalization and that it is accompanied by responsive policies and regulations based on the realities in KMC.
5. In urban areas, using the existing leadership ladder, KMC in collaboration with the Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security should initiate ‘urban agriculture farmers producer groups’. This groups should be registered legally and among its many functions would include negotiating with KMC/MLHSD on accessing land for its members, lobby to the government for its ‘practical recognition’ than is the case, looking for new areas that its members could be allocated for agriculture, negotiating with different landowners on how their land can be accessed and temporarily used for agriculture by its members, resolving land conflicts between its members and landowners.
6. In (peri)-urban areas, KMC in collaboration with MLHSD, and the village governments should enact bylaws that would compel village governments to allocate half of their agricultural land to women and ensure that such land is properly surveyed, titled and registered in the names of women. This would ensure that there was equitable access to land for agriculture between women and men. But, like most regulations this one too would require proper institutionalization at three four levels: household, community, village, and KMC/MLHSD accompanied by responsive policies and regulations based on the realities in each village.

5.2 Suggestions for Further Research

This study dealt with the resource-poor (peri)-urban farmers. Similar study with some modifications could be carried out to both groups: the resource-poor and the well-to-do (peri)-urban farmers. For instance, the study could provide information on why is it that the well-off urban dwellers buy land in (peri)-urban areas. What are some of the problems they encounter when buying land? For instance, this study has uncovered some land conflicts between the resource-poor and the well-off farmers. The overarching question would be know how do the well-off farmers resolve land conflicts. Observations show that most of those buying land in peri-urban areas are men—what happens to the women. There is, therefore, a need to understand

the role of women in the buying land in these households including how individuals get information about the available land for sale and the methods used to process title deed.

Such a study, among other things, would look into the legal and policy support frameworks and institutionalization of such form for accessing land for agriculture in peri-urban areas. Yet, the study would look into the positive and negative effects of land selling and buying in peri-urban areas—for instance, what happens to the resource-poor farmers who have disposed of their land. Such a study would uncover the contradictory nature of the whole exercise: on one hand there are sellers who do not follow the official channel for selling land selling, while on the other hand there are informal middlemen who look for land and inform the prospective buyers. Lastly, there are unofficial surveyors who produce maps for which the owners use them to obtain official title deed. All these need to be studied to understand their impact on land policy formulation and regulation.

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APPENDICES

Table A1. Research Sample for the Urban Respondents in the Three Wards: Kawe, Mwananyamala, and Tandale in KMC.

Ward (<i>Kata</i>)	Street (<i>mtaa</i>)	Undertake UA		Do not undertake UA		Total
		M	F	M	F	
Kawe	Muzimuni	4	5	4	5	18
	Mlalakuwa	6	3	5	4	19
	Ukwamani	8	4	7	11	30
	Ukwamani-Udoeni	9	9	12	15	45
Mwananyamala	Bwawani	5	5	4	6	20
	Msisiri "A"	6	4	3	6	19
	Msisiri "B"	4	5	4	5	18
	Mwinyi Juma	-	-	4	5	9
	Mwinyi Juma – Kopa	4	5	5	4	18
	Mwinyi Juma - Mafele	7	2	-	-	9
Tandale	Sokoni	4	5	7	3	19
	Mtongoto	7	2	5	4	18
	Mkunduge	5	4	5	4	18
	Pakacha	-	-	5	5	10
	Muharatani	-	-	4	10	14
	Kwa Tumbo	3	11	8	6	28
	Total		73	72	82	94
Total (%)		22.7	22.4	25.5	29.3	100

Source: Survey data, 2003.

Table A2. Research Sample for the Peri-urban Respondents (RA) in the Three Wards: Kibamba, Bunju and Goba in KMC.

Ward	Village	Street (<i>mtaa</i>)	Pop. in 2002 ¹	Sex of resp.		Total	Predominant tribe	
				F	M			
Kibamba	Kiluvya	Hondogo	17,998	9	12	21	Makonde	
		Madukani		11	5	16	Mixed	
	"	Kwa Komba		15	4	19	Matumbi/Ngindo	
		Luguluni		5	4	9	Mixed	
	"	Gogoni		5	9	14	Mixed	
		Kibwegere		17	16	33	Mixed	
	Kwembe	Kati		Mlongazila	8	13	21	Mixed
				Kisopwa	-	4	4	Mixed
		Mpakani		Kisopwa	3	5	8	Mixed
				Mpakani	5	6	11	Mixed
Bunju	Bunju	Bunju A	20,868	3	4	7	Mixed	
		Bunju A --Chalinze		12	7	19	Zaramo/Ngindo	
		Bunju B – Shuleni		4	3	7	Zaramo	
		Bunju B – Kitunda		7	8	15	Mixed	
		Bunju B – M/Kage		8	4	12	Zaramo	
	Boko	Solvea	5	4	9	Makonde		
		Basi haya	11	5	16	Zaramo		
		Dovya	10	8	18	Mixed		
	Mabwe-Pande	Moyo	7	3	10	Makonde		
		Monduli	13	8	21	Matumbi/Ngindo		
		Manzese	6	4	10	Pogolo		
		Mtambani	3	6	9	Matumbi		
		Kitunda	3	4	7	Ngindo		
		Mabwe-Pande	4	2	6	Matumbi		
		Chaurembo	18	11	29	Mixed		
	Goba	Goba	Kibululu	8,517	12	12	24	Mixed
			Kinzudi		13	12	25	Gogo/Luguru
Kungulu			14		13	27	Mixed	
Matosa			14		10	24	Mixed	
Kulangwa			8		21	29	Mixed	
Total			47,383	228	252	480		
Total (%)			-	47.4	52.6	100		

Source: Survey data, 2003; Total N = 480; Kibamba – n = 156; Bunju – n = 195; Goba – n = 129;

¹Denotes ward population (i.e. Kibamba's was 17,998) as shown by the 2002 Population and Housing Census - General Report- United Republic of Tanzania (2003), Dar es Salaam: Central Census Office, p. 75.

Table A3. The 2002 Human Population Census for the Kinondoni Municipality.

Population						
	Type	Male	Female	Total	Household Number	Average
District Total		549,929	538,938	1,088,867	260,269	4.2
Magomeni	Urban	11,448	11,128	22,616	5,609	4.0
Makurumula	Urban	27,493	26,301	53,794	13,623	3.9
Ndugumbi	Urban	18,679	18,750	37,429	9,351	4.0
Tandale¹	Urban	23,588	12,470	45,058	11,875	3.8
Mwananyamala	Urban	21,946	22,585	44,531	10,643	4.2
Msasani	Urban	21,792	21,573	43,457	10,134	4.3
Kinondoni	Urban	10,628	10,861	21,489	5,132	4.2
Mzimuni	Urban	12,710	12,573	25,283	6,024	4.2
Kigogo	Urban	19,282	18,682	37,964	9,094	4.2
Mabibo	Urban	37,477	36,501	73,978	18,137	4.1
Manzese	Urban	34,389	32,477	66,866	17,685	3.8
Ubungo	Urban	22,014	22,325	44,339	10,070	4.4
Kibamba	Mixed	9,164	8,834	17,998	4,219	4.3
Goba	Rural	4,473	4,044	8,517	2,198	3.9
Kawe	Urban	48,058	46,477	94,535	21,487	4.4
Kunduchi	Mixed	38,251	34,676	72,927	16,885	4.3
Mbweni	Rural	1,865	1,610	3,475	671	4.0
Bunju	Mixed	10,668	10,200	20,858	5,344	3.9
Makuburi	Urban	17,341	17,292	34,633	7,871	4.4
Mburahati	Urban	10,882	10,726	21,608	5,242	4.1
Makumbusho	Urban	28,296	27,043	55,702	14,261	3.9
Sinza	Urban	17,031	19,438	36,469	7,841	4.7
Kijitonyama	Urban	23,053	24,043	47,096	10,624	3.9
Kimara	Urban	33,053	33,235	66,288	14,328	4.6
Mikocheni	Urban	13,711	13,572	27,283	6,200	4.4
Mbezi	Mixed	16,584	16,057	32,641	7,290	4.5
Hanasif	Urban	16,040	15,983	32,023	8,231	3.9

Source: Kinondoni Municipal Council Office, 2003; ¹Wards in bold represent those involved in the research project.

Table A4. List of Focus Group Discussion (FGD) Participants and Their Characteristics in Kawe Ward (Date: 22nd August 2003).

Name	Sex	Age	# of own children	Grand children	Other people	Mtaa of residence
Ms. Nuru Abib	F	58	1	3	2	Ukwamani
Ms. Rehema Mpota	F	60	1	6	4 (G/GC)	Mzimuni
Mr. Jumanne Juma	M	38	1	-	2	Mzimuni
Mr. Juma Abdalla	M	66	6	20	-	Ukwamani
Ms. Halima Abdalla	F	55	4	5	-	Mzimuni
Ms. Twaibu Hassan	M	62	8	9	-	Ukwamani
Mr. Mohamed Mbwana	M	66	6	7	-	Ukwamani
Mr. Iddi Abdalla	M	68	6	7	-	Mzimuni
Ms. Ambwene Mwambungu	F	65	3	2	-	Ukwamani

Source: Survey data, 2003.

Table A5. List of Participants for a Stakeholders Workshop held on 15th April 2004 at Kinondoni Municipal Council Hall, Dar es Salaam

Honorable:

Mr. Lameck Machimo	KMC Assistant Director
Mr. Salum S. Londa	KMC Mayor
Dr. Ahmed K. Mwilima	Councillor for Tandale Ward & elected
Workshop Chairperson	
Mr. Chuwa Eliapenda	Councillor for Bunju Ward
Mr. Salim Mwakinginda	Councillor for Sinza
Mr. Mr. Kassim Lema	Councillor for Mabibo
Mr. Felix T. Mwanambilimbi	Councillor for Goba
Mr. Joseph Chonya	Councillor for Mwananyamala

Ward Executive Officers (WEO):

Mr. K.N.M. Mikongo	for Bunju Ward
Mr. H. Asangalwisye	for Kibamba Ward
Ms. R. Mlongakweli	for Tandale Ward
Ms. A. Kitogo	for Goba Ward
Mr. S. Nyiruka	for Kawe Ward
Mr. B. Mwangomo	for Manzese Ward

KMC Head of Departments:

Ms. L. Shuma	KMC Planning & Coordination Officer
Mr. Z. Sellah	KMC Health Officer
Mr. S. Rugaitika	KMC Land Officer
Ms. S. Singa	KMC Agricultural Officer
Dr. P. Henjewe	KMC Livestock Officer
Mr. P. Kasawara	KMC Rural Development Officer
Mr. F. Munuo	KMC Administration Officer
Ms. J. Mwamlima	KMC Engineer
Mr. H. Jumanne	KMC Urban Planning
Mr. D. Shirima	KMC Natural Resource Officer
Mr. J. Kagaruki	KMC Community Development Officer

Agriculture Extension Officers (AEO):

Mr. H. Lutemba	Ward AEO for Goba
Ms. F. Kakiza	Ward AEO for Kibamba
Ms. A. Buzohera	Ward AEO for Bunju
Mr. C.J. Temba	Ward AEO for Kibamba
Mr. R. Itono	Ward AEO for Kawe
Mr. M. Mbando	Ward AEO for Goba
Mr. S.H. Msuya	AEO at KMC Hqts.

Farmers:

Mr. R.J. Kipao	from Mabwe-Pande in Bunju Ward
Ms. M. Daimu	from Tandale Ward
Ms. H. Kombe	from Kibamba Ward
Mr. S. Makala	from Kawe Ward
Mr. H. Yusufu	from Bunju Ward
Ms. S. Magdalena	from Goba Ward
Mr. Mshaweji Bedui	from Goba Ward
Mr. A.R. Kashuli	from Tandale-Sokoni Ward
Mr. R. M. Saidi	from Mwananyamala Ward
Mr. H. Ngunguti	from Kawe Ward
Mr. M. Mwanyika	from Kibamba Ward
Ms L. Mlay	from Mwananyamala Ward

Table A6. Some Characteristics of Respondents.

Variable	UA	Non-UA	RA	Total	χ^2- value	P- value
Age (years)	(n =136)	(n =160)	(n = 478)	(n = 774)	20.6	0.057
< 20	1(0.7)	0(0.0)	6(1.3)	7(0.9)		
21 – 30	12(8.8)	19(11.9)	58(12.1)	89(11.5)		
31 – 40	15(11.0)	27(16.9)	114(23.8)	156(20.2)		
41 – 50	23(16.9)	22(13.8)	77(16.1)	122(15.8)		
51 – 60	28(20.6)	30(18.8)	74(15.5)	132(17.1)		
61 –70	29(21.3)	35(21.9)	84(17.6)	148(19.1)		
> 70	28(20.6)	27(16.9)	65(13.6)	120(15.5)		
Sex	(n =137)	(n =176)	(n = 480)	(793)	1.7	0.422
Males	73(53.3)	82(46.6)	228(47.4)	383(48.3)		
Females	64(46.7)	94(53.4)	252(52.6)	410(51.7)		
Education level	(n =135)	(n = 173)	(n = 478)	(n = 786)	16.9	0.078
No formal education	46(34.1)	53(30.6)	184(38.5)	283(36.0)		
Finished primary educ.	75(55.6)	108(62.4)	265(55.4)	448(57.0)		
Secondary (O-level)	9(6.7)	11(6.4)	15(3.1)	35(4.5)		
Secondary (A-level)	2(1.5)	1(0.6)	1(0.2)	4(0.5)		
Finished colleges	1(0.7)	0(0.0)	2(0.4)	3(0.4)		
Adult education	2(1.5)	0(0.0)	11(2.3)	13(1.7)		
Marital Status	(n =137)	(n =152)	(n = 476)	(n = 765)	22.0	0.005
Single	11(8.0)	12(7.9)	44(9.2)	67(8.8)		
Monogamous	74(54.0)	79(52.0)	287(60.3)	440(57.5)		
Polygamous	10(7.3)	8(5.3)	29(6.1)	47(6.1)		
Divorced	8(5.8)	6(3.9)	42(8.8)	56(7.3)		
Widowed	34(24.8)	47(30.9)	74(15.5)	155(20.3)		
Household size	(n =137)	(n =152)	(n = 477)	(n = 766)	16.6	0.035
1 – 3	25(18.2)	14(9.2)	90(18.9)	129(16.8)		
4 – 6	49(35.8)	53(34.9)	173(36.3)	275(35.9)		
7 – 9	34(24.8)	43(28.3)	133(27.9)	210(27.4)		
10 – 12	17(12.4)	21(13.8)	52(10.9)	90(11.7)		
> 12	12(8.8)	21(13.8)	29(6.1)	62(8.1)		

Source: Survey data, 2003; Figures in parentheses are percentages and those out of parentheses are frequencies; UA = Urban agriculture farmers; Non-UA = Non- urban agriculture farmers, RA = poor farmers in peri-urban areas.

Table A7. Respondents' Responses on Region of Birth, Place of Birth, Number of Years Lived in Dar es Salaam, and Kinondoni Municipal Council.

Variable	UA	Non-UA	RA	Total	χ^2 - value	P-value
Region of birth¹	(n = 137)	(n = 172)	(n = 479)	(n = 788)	40.929	0.000
Eastern zone	81(59.1)	118(68.6)	259(54.1)	458(58.1)		
Northern zone	3(2.2)	2(1.2)	14(2.9)	19(2.4)		
Central zone	3(2.2)	2(1.2)	45(9.4)	50(6.3)		
Lake Tanganyika	7(5.1)	6(3.5)	11(2.3)	24(3.0)		
Lake zone	5(3.6)	5(3.5)	25(5.2)	35(4.4)		
Southern highlands	6(4.4)	3(1.7)	17(3.5)	26(3.3)		
Southern Tanzania	27(19.7)	36(20.9)	104(21.7)	167(21.2)		
Outside Tanzania	5(3.6)	0(0.0)	4(0.8)	9(1.1)		
Place of birth	(n = 132)	(n = 163)	(n = 466)	(n = 761)	3.844	0.146
Rural	100(75.8)	119(73.0)	373(80.0)	592(77.8)		
Urban	32(24.2)	44(27.0)	93(20.0)	169(22.2)		
No. of years lived in Dar.^a	(n = 118)	(n = 111)	(n = 392)	(n = 621)	38.151	0.000
< 20	9(7.6)	8(7.2)	89(22.7)	106(17.1)		
20 – 30	30(25.4)	22(19.8)	114(29.1)	166(26.7)		
31 – 40	33(28.0)	35(31.5)	83(21.2)	151(24.3)		
41 – 50	27(22.9)	28(25.2)	51(13.0)	106(17.1)		
> 50	19(16.1)	18(16.2)	55(14.0)	92(14.8)		
No. of years lived Kin.^b	(n = 115)	(n = 104)	(n = 394)	(n = 613)	35.332	0.000
< 20	15(13.0)	13(12.5)	106(26.9)	134(21.9)		
20 – 30	32(27.8)	24(23.1)	127(32.2)	183(29.9)		
31 – 40	33(28.7)	31(29.8)	83(21.1)	147(24.0)		
41 – 50	22(19.1)	20(19.2)	31(7.9)	73(11.9)		
> 50	13(11.3)	16(15.4)	47(11.9)	76(12.4)		

Source: Survey data, 2003; Figures in parentheses are percentages and those out of parentheses are frequencies; ¹Eastern zone = Dar-es-salaam, Morogoro, Tanga, Pwani; Northern zone = Arusha, Kilimanjaro; Central zone = Singida, Dodoma; Lake Tanganyika = Kigoma, Tabora; Lake zone = Shinyanga, Mwanza, Mara, Kagera; Southern highlands = Iringa, Mbeya; Southern Tanzania = Ruvuma, Lindi, Mtwara, Rukwa.; Outside Tanzania = Msumbiji, Kenya. ^aDar. = Dar-es-salaam. ^bKin. = KMC.

Table A8. Issues on House Ownership.

Variable	UA	Non-UA	RA	Total	χ^2 -value	P-value
Owning the house living in	(n = 136)	(n = 176)	(n = 479)	(n = 791)	9.098	0.011
Yes	130(95.6)	165(93.8)	423(88.3)	718(90.8)		
No	6(4.4)	11(6.2)	56(11.7)	73(9.2)		
<u>Having title deed</u>	(n = 129)	(n = 164)	(n = 417)	(n = 710)	-	-
Yes	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)		
No	129(100.0)	164(100.0)	417(100.0)	710(100.0)		
Year built the house	(n = 107)	(n = 87)	(n = 350)	(n = 544)	130.849	0.000
Before 1960	12(11.2)	3(3.4)	4(1.1)	19(3.5)		
1960 – 1970	32(29.9)	24(27.6)	24(6.9)	80(14.7)		
1971 – 1980	26(24.3)	27(31.0)	56(16.0)	109(20.0)		
1981 – 1990	23(21.5)	17(19.5)	58(16.6)	98(18.0)		
1991 and above	14(13.1)	16(18.4)	208(59.4)	238(43.8)		
Renting part of the house	(n = 129)	(n = 164)	(n = 431)	(n = 724)	108.147	0.000
Yes	49(38.0)	63(38.4)	30(7.0)	142(19.6)		
No	80(62.0)	101(61.6)	142(19.6)	582(80.4)		
Income per month from house rent (Tsh.)	(n = 47)	(n = 60)	(n = 28)	(n = 135)	30.263	0.000
< 10,000	13(27.7)	37(61.7)	25(89.3)	75(55.6)		
10,000 – 20,000	22(46.8)	13(21.7)	2(7.1)	37(27.4)		
20,001 – 30,000	8(17.0)	5(8.3)	0(0.0)	13(9.6)		
> 30,000	4(8.5)	5(8.3)	1(3.6)	10(7.4)		
Having house in Dar. Urban by RA farmers	-	-	(n = 462)	-	-	-
Yes	-	-	9(1.9)	-		
No	-	-	453(98.1)	-		
Spouse has income generating activity	(n = 99)	(n = 104)	(n = 323)	(n = 526)	10.269	0.006
Yes	32(32.3)	21(20.2)	120(37.2)	173(32.9)		
No	67(67.7)	83(79.8)	203(62.8)	353(67.1)		

Source: Survey Data, 2003; Figures in parentheses are percentages and those out of parentheses are frequencies.

Table A9. Some Efforts Exerted to Access to Land for Agriculture by the Poor in Kinondoni Municipal Council.

Variable	UA	Non-UA	RA	Total	χ^2 -value	P-value
In the past three years have you ever gone to the KMC's land dept. to ask for land for agriculture	(n = 132)	(n = 172)	(n = 477)	(n = 781)	1.993	0.369
Yes	4(3.0)	3(1.7)	6(1.3)	13(1.7)		
No	128(97.0)	169(98.3)	471(98.7)	768(98.3)		
<u>In the past three years have you ever gone to the villages govt. to ask for land for agriculture</u>	(n = 134)	(n = 115)	(n = 476)	(n = 725)	0.651	0.722
Yes	2(1.5)	2(1.7)	12(2.5)	16(2.2)		
No	132(98.5)	113(98.5)	464(97.5)	709(97.8)		
In the past three years have you gone to villages in the district to see individual farmers so that they could sell you land for agriculture	(n = 135)	(n = 165)	(n = 475)	(n = 775)	1.320	0.517
Yes	4(3.0)	4(2.4)	20(4.2)	28(3.6)		
No	131(97.0)	161(97.6)	455(95.8)	747(96.4)		
If given land in the peri-urban area by KMC would you live there and do farming	(n = 136)	(n = 176)	(n = 476)	(n = 788)	18.242	0.000
Yes	104(76.5)	150(85.2)	430(90.3)	684(86.8)		
No	32(23.5)	26(14.8)	46(9.7)	104(13.2)		
Thinking that KMC land legislation prevent you from owning land in the peri-urban area	(n = 120)	(n = 168)	(n = 445)	(n = 733)	44.687	0.000
Yes	35(29.2)	42(25.0)	38(8.5)	115(15.7)		
No	85(70.8)	126(75.0)	407(91.5)	618(84.3)		

Source: Survey Data, 2003; Figures in parentheses are percentages and those out of parentheses are frequencies.

Table A10. Responses of Resource-Poor RA Respondents on Land Prices (Tshs.) in Peri-urban Areas in Kinondoni Municipal Council.

Variable	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	Sd
Current price per acre of farmland for outside people by villagers (Tsh. '000)	310	50	20,000	1,001	1,773
Current price per acre of farmland for a fellow villager by villagers (Tsh. '000)	284	50	20,000	1,012	1,652
If want to sell land-Price per acre of farmland for outside people (Tsh. '000)	269	40	20,000	917	1,840
If want to sell land-Price per acre of farmland for a fellow villager (Tsh. '000)	259	40	20,000	909	1,693
If want to sell land- size of land that would like to sell (acres)	98	0.25	5.00	1.39	1.00

Source: Survey data, 2003; sd = standard deviation.

Table A11. Responses on Reasons that Prevented the Resource-Poor Respondents not to Access Land for Agriculture in Peri-urban Areas of Kinondoni Municipal Council.

Reasons ¹	UA (n = 123)	Non-UA (n = 158)	RA (n = 447)	Total (n = 728)
Land in peri-urban areas is sold to people with money	50(40.7)	42(26.6)	369(82.6)	461(63.3)
Land in the peri-urban areas is expensive	103(83.7)	132(83.5)	-	235(32.3)
Try to avoid conflicts due to the use of land	34(27.6)	25(15.8)	40(8.9)	99(13.6)
Land in the per-urban areas is owned by the village govt.	33(26.8)	27(17.1)	70(15.7)	130(17.9)
Land in the peri-urban areas is passed over through inheritance	41(33.3)	26(16.5)	111(24.8)	178(24.5)
Land in the peri-urban areas is given out along tribal lines	32(26.0)	29(18.4)	34(7.6)	95(13.1)
Land in the peri-urban areas is given out to those born in the region	32(26.0)	27(17.1)	33(7.4)	92(12.6)
Land in the per-urban areas is owned by the KMC	30(24.4)	26(16.5)	48(10.7)	104(14.3)
Land in peri-urban areas is owned by the people who don't want to sell it out	37(30.1)	25(15.8)	74(16.6)	136(18.7)
Don't have money to buy land	23(18.7)	31(19.6)	101(22.6)	155(21.3)
Poor land provision and selling system (Biasness)	1(0.8)	0(0.0)	3(0.7)	4(0.6)
Too old to buy land, can't make follow ups	3(2.4)	0(0.0)	8(1.8)	11(1.5)
Don't want a farm which is far from home	1(0.8)	0(0.0)	1(0.2)	2(0.3)
There is land shortage in peri-urban areas	0(0.0)	7(4.4)	8(1.8)	15(2.1)
There is water shortage in peri-urban areas	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(0.2)	1(0.1)
Large areas are owned by few rich people	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	11(2.5)	11(1.5)

— Source: Survey Data, 2003; Figures in parentheses are percentages and those out of parentheses are frequencies; ¹Data was based on multiple responses.

Table A12. Responses on Causes that Prevented Most Resource-Poor Women not to Access Land for Agriculture in Peri-urban Areas of Kinondoni Municipal Council.

Causes ¹	UA (n = 117)	Non-UA (n = 150)	RA (n = 448)	Total (n = 715)
Women				
Not born in the villages	30(25.6)	29(19.3)	98(21.9)	157(22.0)
Having no relations with people of dominant tribe in the village	25(21.4)	25(16.7)	50(11.2)	100(14.0)
Having no relations with any clan in the village	24(20.5)	23(15.3)	40(8.9)	87(12.2)
Don't have money to buy land	112(95.7)	144(96.0)	435(97.1)	691(96.6)
Not having high education	35(29.9)	28(18.7)	52(11.6)	115(16.1)
Don't have political powers in the community	27(23.1)	28(18.7)	0(0.0)	55(7.7)
Don't have political powers in the village	23(19.7)	30(20.0)	81(18.1)	134(18.7)
Don't have social relations with people in the village	35(29.9)	26(17.3)	56(12.5)	117(16.4)

Source: Survey data, 2003.

Table. A13. Ways of Accessing Land by UA Respondents' Educational Level (%) (n = 78).

Age	Ways of accessing land						
	Inheritance	Given by vill. govt.	Cleared bush	Bought land	Given by relatives	Given by friends	Given by KMC/Min
No form.educ	15.4	2.6	7.7	2.6	1.3	0.0	0.0
Primary	28.2	5.1	6.4	11.5	9.0	0.0	0.0
Secondary- O	3.8	0.0	0.0	5.1	0.0	0.0	1.3
Secondary- A	0.0	1.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
College	0.0	1.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Adult educ.	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.3	0.0	0.0	0.0
Total	47.4	10.3	14.1	20.5	10.3	0.0	1.3

Source: Survey data, 2003.

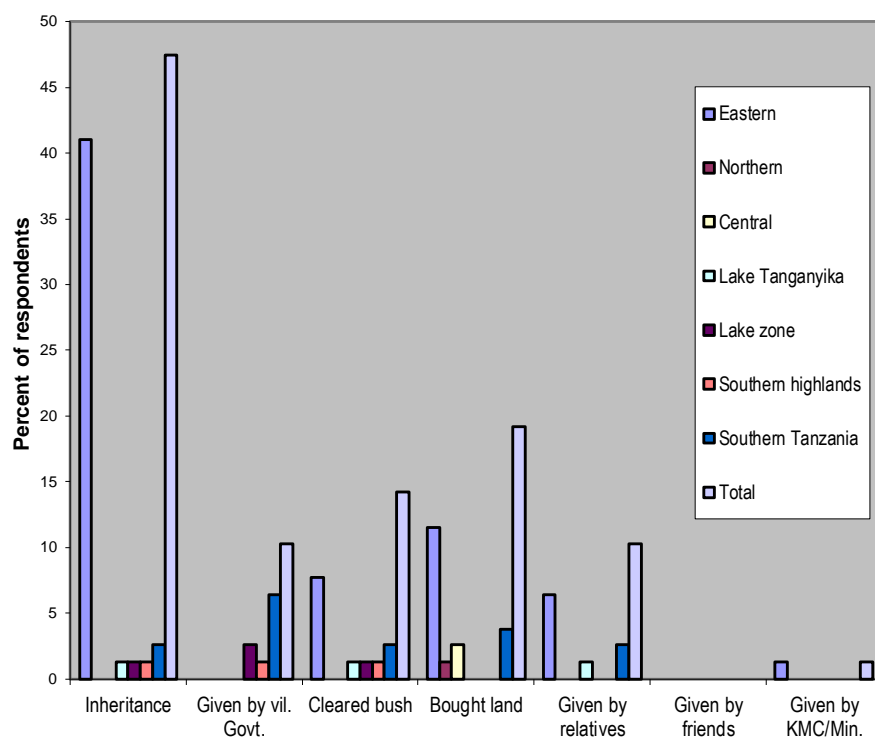


Figure A14. Ways of accessing land by zones of origin for UA

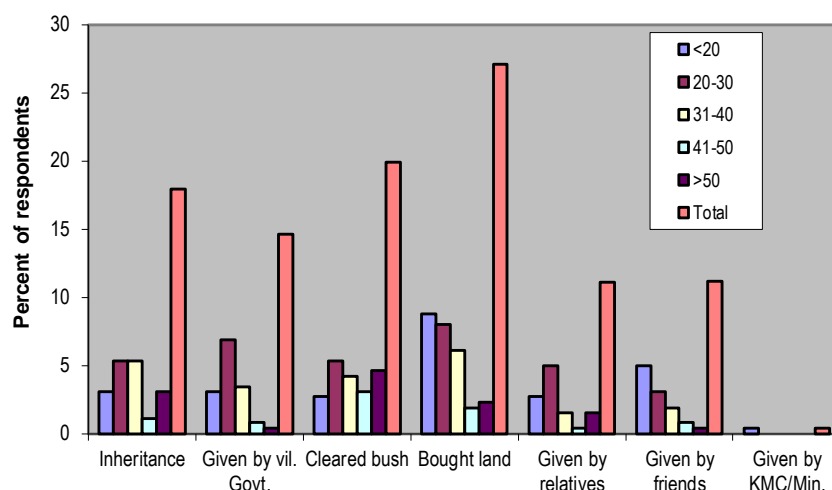


Figure A15. Ways of accessing land by years lived in Kinondoni for RA

A16. Management of Research Project Funds

Since the inception of the research project in April 2003, the co-ordinator Prof. Malongo R.S. Mlozi based at Sokoine University of Agriculture (SUA) in Morogoro, Tanzania managed the research funds. A current account was opened at the Exim Bank in Morogoro. The co-ordinator and the research team were paid on the official rate based on (SUA) per diem rates—the ones that the co-ordinator was familiar with. The SUA financial policy stated that a researcher/lecturer would be paid a per diem of TShs. 40,000.00 if she/he slept outside Morogoro town for official or research activities. If the researcher/lecturer was within Morogoro town, then a half per diem of TShs. 20,000 would be paid to the officer to cover his transport, meals and other incidentals. These rates also applied for an officer who travelled to Dar es Salaam. These rates did apply for paying researchers for this research project unless they rendered special services which required extra remuneration.

In order to administer the disbursement of the research money a special form was designed in which the other research team member signed whenever they were paid by the research coordinator. This is to say that all transactions were recorded and records kept. The per diem payments for the research coordinator were calculated against the leave of absences form filled at the University, which indicated the date and days for which he was away from the University on research activities. Whenever there were incidences, which involved paying people outside this arrangement the research team met to discuss the amount that was to be paid for these special assignments. For instance, before hiring enumerators for the research, the team met to decide who were to be recruited as enumerators and how much each enumerator would be paid per questionnaire. During such meetings it was also decided on the payment for other logistical support services during the main survey.

There were special cases when the research team members decided to pay themselves above the normal per diem rates, and these included preparing and presenting the research findings during the stakeholders' workshop, writing section(s) of the research report, and rendering any other service (i.e. assigned to see a Mayor or councillors for a meeting, assigned to visit resource-poor farmers in a certain ward). However, there were complains by the other research team members in the way the research co-ordinator managed the research funds. One complain often heard was that the co-ordinator was not transparent enough when it came to issues regarding the research funds. At one point in time the research co-ordinator (in the presence of Mr. Takawira) brought all the receipts of the money spent so far to show other team members that the research funds were well spent and documented.

At this juncture, it must be mentioned that there were some misguided conceptions about the allocation of research funds. Some thought that the money should have been shared among individual research team members. While others were of the opinion that the number of days they would have spent in the research activities should have been calculated and money due to them paid in advance. Such line of thinking later led to one research team member opting out of the research team as the co-ordinator could not pay her the amount of money that she wanted in advance.

In a way this has been yet another experience of co-ordinating people from different disciplines who have different inclinations toward research and its funding. Although, everybody agrees that money is a motivator for getting things done, but giving money to an individual in advance can sometimes be counter productive, especially if one decides not to show up during the research activities. In essence, this last argument was used against giving research money prior to the activities.

A17. Linking the Research Project with KMC

Kinondoni municipality formerly a district in the city of Dar es Salaam became a municipality through the Government Notice Number 4 in 2000. The municipality is headed by a Council, which is an autonomous institution that makes policies and operational decisions. Hence, the Kinondoni Municipal Council (KMC) is governed through elected Councilors under a democratic system. The Municipal Director is the Council's chief Executive Officer and is supported by several heads of the departments and other relevant sections. The Honorable Mayor, himself an elected Councilor presides over all Council meetings.

The Municipality is located on the eastern side of the Indian Ocean coastline, covering about 521 square kilometers of land that includes the offshore islands (Kinondoni Municipal Council, 2003). The municipality is characterized by both urban and rural physical development the latter is predominantly found in the urban fringes where fresh food supplies are produced. In 2003, Kinondoni Municipality had four divisions, 27 wards, 133 *mitaa* (meaning streets), and 14 villages. According to the 2002 national census, the municipality had a population of 1,088,667 people with a population density of 2,050 people per square hectare (URT, 2003). The municipality had an equal number of females and males, and a total of 260,229 households with an average size of 4.2 people.

The first entry point of this research project to the municipality was through a letter written by the research coordinator to the Kinondoni Municipal Director asking for permission to carry out a research. The Municipal Director granted permission for the research to be conducted and wrote a general letter instructing the Ward Executive Officers to allow researchers to carry out research in their areas. About this time a Scoping Workshop was organized which brought together all the stakeholders to the research. This included farmers and Ward Executive Officers from the participating wards, representatives from Kinondoni Municipal Council, University of Dar es Salaam, Sokoine University of Agriculture, two relevant NGOs, Dar es Salaam City Council. All of these stakeholders discussed the research and contributed their inputs.

Furthermore, the municipality was further linked with this research project by including one person who worked with the municipality as a Town Planner in the research team. At the municipal level, two forms of linkage involved the dissemination of information and documents through the official channel to the attention of the Director. There was also informal linkage in which the research coordinator visited the Director to report on the progress of the research. Such visitations were later found to be more valuable than sending reports, which often took long to reach the Director because of bureaucracy.

Another linkage of this research project with the municipality was the low level, which involved the wards, *mitaa*, and individuals. This was perceived to be much broader than the mere action of the Director writing letters of introduction to the Ward Executive Officers who in turn wrote letters to the respective village executive officers and/or village chairpersons introducing the research team. From here the research project was further linked to the researched resource-poor for whom the whole exercise was to understand how the urban and peri-urban resource-poor accessed land for agriculture in KMC. In the study wards we also met and sometimes worked with Councilors, agriculture and livestock extension officers, health personnel, community development officers, and NGOs staff. A small portion of the resource-poor in the study wards linked to this research project were those involved in the focus group discussions. The contributions of these individuals were invaluable and sharpened our understanding of the phenomena being studied.

Another important linkage of this project with the Municipality was the involvement of 45 people who included the resource-poor, Councilors, Ward Executive Officers, KCM heads of departments, and agriculture extension officers in a stakeholders' workshop. The aim of the stakeholders' workshop was two fold: to present salient findings of the research project, and for the participants to discuss the research findings and give their comments.

Given the aforementioned discussions, we think that this research project was adequately linked to KMC, which in essence would make it easy for the implementation of the research project recommendations for improving the way the resource-poor could assess land for agriculture.

A18. QUESTIONNAIRE FOR URBAN POOR WHO DO NOT UNDERTAKE URBAN AGRICULTURE IN KINONDONI MUNICIPAL COUNCIL—the non-UA

A: General Information

Respondent's number.....; respondent's name; street name.....
 Name of town, Name of ward....., name of area.....
 Area of residence: 1= high, 2= medium, 3 = medium-low, 4 = low.

1. What is your gender? 1= female, 2 = male
2. How old are you? 1= < 20, 2 = 21-30, 3 = 31-40, 4 = 41-50, 5 = 51-60, 6= 61 70, 7 = above 71 years old.
3. Where were you born? Region; District
4. Which place were you born? 1= Rural, 2= Urban
5. What is your tribe?.....
6. What is your marital status? 1 = single; 2 = married monogamously; 3 = married polygamously; 4= divorced\ separated, 5= widowed.
7. What is your family size (children of your own)?females; males.
8. Do you live with any relatives? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
9. If answered Yes in question 8 above how many people who are not own children live in this household?females;males.
10. When did you first came to live in Dar es salaam? year
11. How long have you lived in Dar es Salaam?..... years.
12. When did you first came to live in Kinondoni District year
13. How long have you lived in Kinondoni District? years.
14. What is your highest attainment of formal education?
 1 = none, 2 = schooled up to standard seven,
 3 = Attained "O" level secondary education (Form 1-IV),
 4 = Attained "A" level secondary education (Form V-VI),
 5 = Has post secondary education,
 6 = Others, please specify
15. What is your occupation?
 1= Regular employed, 2= temporary employed,
 3 = self employed, 4 = casual labour, 5 = unemployed,
 6 = none (student, children), 7 = house wife, 8 = Others, please specify
16. Name the place of workis it a: 1= government; 2 = private; 3 = company; 4 = Others, specify
17. If work in the formal sector, name the type of job that you do
18. If work in the formal sector (officially employed), what is your monthly household income from salary/wage? (How much salary/wage do you get per month? Tshs.).
 1 = <Tshs 5,000; 2= 5,001-10,000; 3= 10,001-20,000; 4= 20,001-30,000;
 5= 30,001-40,000; 6= 40,001-50,000; 7= 50,001-60,000; 8=60,001-70,000;
 9= 70,001-80,000; 10= 80,001-90,000 11= 90,000-100,000 Others, specify
19. Rank in order of importance (i.e. 1 – 5) (indicate %) areas in which you spend most of the money obtained from the formal sector(salary/wages)? (1 = most important etc)
 1 = To buy food(.....%),
 2 = To pay for childrens' school fees(.....%),
 3 = To buy clothes (.....%),
 4 = To pay for councils levies (.....%),
 5 = To pay for electricity and water bills(.....%),
 6 = To pay for consumables (.....%).
20. If you work in the informal sector (not officially employed) what is your monthly household income
 1= <Tshs 5,000; 2= 5,001-10,000; 3= 10,001-20,000; 4= 20,001-30,000;
 5= 30,001-40,000; 6= 40,001-50,000; 7= 50,001-60,000; 8=60,001-70,000;
 9= 70,001-80,000; 10= 80,001-90,000 11= 90,000-100,000 12= Others, specify ...

21. Which of the following activities are you involved in:

- 1 = Work as small scale trader
- 2 = Small scale workshop owner
- 3 = Do casual jobs
- 4 = Self employed
- 5 = Do agriculture activities

22. Rank in order of importance (i.e. 1 – 5) (indicate %) areas in which you spend most of the money obtained from the informal sector? (1 = most important etc) To buy food(.....%), To pay for childrens’ school fees(.....%), To buy clothes (.....%), To pay for councils levies (.....%), To pay for electricity and water bills(.....%), To pay for consumables (.....%).
23. Do you own this house in which live in? 1 = Yes; 2 = No.
24. Do you have a title deed to this house in which you live in? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
25. If the answer in question is Yes in question 24 above when did you build this house? year.
26. What was the total cost of building this house? Tshs.
27. Where did you get the money for building this house: 1 = Borrowed money from the bank, 2 = Borrowed money from relatives, 3 = Saved money from salary/wage, 4 = My parents gave money to build a house, 5 = Inherited the house from parents, 6 = Others, please specify
.....
28. If you own this house, do you rent part of it out? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
29. If answered Yes is question 28 above how much money do you get as rent per month? Tshs.
.....
30. If you get rent money from your house what is your monthly income? Ths.
31. Rank in order of importance (i.e. 1 – 5) (indicate %) areas in which you spend most of the money gotten from the house rent? (1 = most important etc) To buy food(.....%), To pay for childrens school fees(.....%), To buy clothes (.....%), To pay for councils levies (.....%), To pay for electricity and water bills(.....%), To pay for consumables (.....%). Others, specify
32. If married, does your spouse has an occupation that earns her/him an income?
1= Yes, 2 = No.
33. If answered Yes in question 32 above what was her/his annual income in 2001/2002?.....
34. Do you operate non-agricultural enterprises for income generation? 1= Yes 2= No.
35. If answered Yes in question 34 above what was the income for 2001/2002?
- | Name of enterprise | Income earned in 2001/2002 (in T. shs.) |
|--------------------|---|
| | |
| | |
| | |
| | |

B. Main Issues

36. Do you have a farm in the in town or in the peri-urban areas? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
37. If answered Yes in question 36 above what is the size of the farm?acres.
38. If answered Yes in question 36 above why do you not use the land for farming?
 1 = Do not have money to buy inputs required in farming;
 2 = Do not have interest in farming
 3 = Do not have time to farm
 4 = Too old to farm
 5 = Farming does not pay
 6 = Do not have enough labour to farm
 7 = Farm is too far from here
 8 = Other reasons, specify
39. If you own a farm in the peri-urban areas say the means through which you got the farm?
 1 = Inherited the farm Size of plotacre
 2 = Allocated by the village government Size of plot acre
 3 = By bush cleared the farmsize of plotacre
 4 = Purchased the farmsize of plotacre
 5= Allocated by a friend size of plotacre
 6= Allocated by a relativesize of plotacre
 7= Allocated by the Ministry of lands or Kinondoni municipal councilsize of plotacre
 8= Bought vacant land size of plotacre

40. If you answered No in question 36 above (i.e. do not own a farm) in the peri-urban areas – give reasons.

- 1 = Do not have enough money to buy land in the peri-urban areas – farms are expensive
- 2 = Do not come in Dar region so can not inherit land in the peri-urban areas
- 3 = Do not have interest in farming
- 4 = Do not have time to look after a farm
- 5 = Can not afford transport cost to go the farm
- 6 = Do not have transport to go the farm
- 6 = Too old to farm
- 7 = Do not have enough labour to farm

41. Do you think that it is important for you to own land for agriculture in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes; 2 = No.

42. Do you have any member(s) of this household who owns land for agriculture? 1 = Yes; 2 = No.

43. If the answer is Yes in question 42 above how big is the land? acres.

44. Name the person(s) who own land:

- | | | |
|--------------------|------|-------------------|
| 1 = Spouse | acre | Year bought |
| 2 = Son | acre | Year bought |
| 3 = Daughter | acre | Year bought |
| 4 = Nephew | acre | Year bought |
| 5 = Uncle | acre | Year bought |

45. Do you consider the land owned by any household member mentioned in question 42 above as owned by you? 1 = Yes; 2 = No.

46. Do you consider the land owned by any household member mentioned in question 42 above as owned by the whole family? 1 = Yes; 2 = No.

47. Do you consider the land owned by any household member mentioned in question 42 above as owned by the person who bought it? 1 = Yes; 2 = No.

48. Do you have any plans in the future to own land for agriculture in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes; 2 = No.

49. If the answer in question 48 above is Yes how much land would you want to own? acres.

50. If the answer in question 49 above is Yes mention the type of land that you are planning to get in the future:

- 1 = Land for agriculture acres
- 2 = Plot for building a houseacres
- 3 = Land for agriculture and building a houseacres
- 4 = Any type of landacres
- 5 = Others, specify

51. Comparing five years ago (i.e. 1998) and now (2003) how would you rate the difficult of getting land for agriculture?

- 1 = Very difficult
- 2 = Difficult
- 3 = Very easy
- 4 = Easy
- 5 = Do not know
- 6 = Others, specify

52. Which of the following do you consider as the major problems related to acquiring land for agriculture in Kinondoni District:

- 1 = Not knowing whom to see in the offices to go and ask for land
- 2 = Land owners asking too high prices
- 3 = Uncertain about land that is (to be) sold or allocated
- 4 = Unsuitability of the areas where land is available
- 5 = Not having connections with people in the villages
- 6 = Others, specify

53. Do you think that the rising cost of living has adversely affected your possibility of getting land for agriculture in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes; 2 = No.

54. If you were to get land for agriculture which of the two ways would you use?

- 1 = Get land free
- 2 = Get land after buying it
- 3 = Other ways, specify

55. If you happened to win a BINGO or LOTTERY of Tshs. 10 million what would you first buy?

- 1 = First would buy a farm then a house
- 2 = First would first buy a house then a farm

- 3 = First would buy a car then a farm
4 = First would start big business, then buy a house and lastly buy a farm
5 = I would do nothing, but put the money in the bank
6 = Others, specify
56. If you were first to buy a farm in the peri-urban areas how big would it be?acres.
57. In the past three years (2000 – 2002) have you ever gone to the Kinondoni municipal council’s land department to ask for land for farming in the peri-urban areas? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
58. In the past three years (2000 – 2002) have you ever gone to the villages in Kinondoni District to ask for land to farm in the peri-urban areas? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
59. In the past three years (2000 – 2002) have you ever gone to see individual farmers in the villages in Kinondoni District to so that they can sell you land for farming in the peri-urban areas? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
60. If the Kinondoni municipal council gave you a farm in the peri-urban area would you agree to go and farm? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
61. How big would you want the farm to be?acres.
62. Do you think that the Kinondoni municipal land laws prevent you from owning a farm in the peri-urban areas? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
63. What reasons prevent you from owning a farm in the peri-urban areas in Kinondoni District? (Rank then in order of importance, i.e. 1 = most important and 10 least imp.).
1 = Land in the peri-urban areas is sold to people with money
2 = Land in the peri-urban areas is expensive
3 = I want to avoid conflicts due to the use of land
4 = Land in the peri-urban areas is owned by the village governments
5 = Land in the peri-urban areas is passed over through inheritance
6 = Land in the peri-urban areas is given out along tribal lines
7 = Land in the peri-urban areas is given out to those born in the region
8 = Land in the peri-urban areas is owned by the Kinondoni municipal council
9 = Land in the peri-urban areas is owned by individuals who do not want to sell it out
10 = Others, specify
64. If by chance you bought land in the peri-urban areas what crops would you grow?
1 = food crops (maize, cassava, cow peas, plantains, sweet potatoes)
2 = cash crops (cashew nuts, coconuts)
3 = vegetables (mchicha, tomatoes, spinaches, onions)
65. If by chance you bought land in the peri-urban areas what livestock would keep?
1 = improved dairy cattle
2 = local dairy cattle
3 = local chickens
4 = improved layers
5 = improved broilers
6 = Cash crops
7 = Food crops
8 = Others, please specify
66. Do you know any by-laws, circulars, regulations and orders that the Government has issued that regulate accessing land by the (peri)-urban poor for agriculture in the peri-urban areas for Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
67. If you answered Yes in question 66 above name the bylaws, circulars, regulations and orders
68. Do you know of any customary laws that govern accessing land by the (peri)-urban poor for agriculture in peri-urban areas in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
69. If the answer in question 68 above is Yes, name the Land Law.
70. Do you know of any Land Tenure Act that govern accessing land by the (peri)-urban poor for agriculture in the peri-urban areas in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
71. If you answered Yes in question 70 above name the Land Tenure Act.....
72. Do you any village bylaws, circulars, regulations, and orders that the village governments have issued that regulate accessing land by the (peri)-urban poor for agriculture in the peri-urban areas in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
73. If you answered Yes in question 72 above name the village bylaws, circulars, regulations and orders
74. Do you know of any customary land laws that village governments use to govern the use which favour men than women for accessing land by the (peri)-urban poor for agriculture in the (peri)-urban areas in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.

75. If you answered Yes in question 74 above name the customary land laws
76. Do you know of any bylaws, circulars, regulations and orders that the Government has issued which favour men than women for accessing land by the (peri)-urban poor for agriculture in the (peri)-urban areas in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
77. If you answered Yes in question 76 above name the bylaws, circulars, regulations and orders
78. Do you know of any bylaws, circulars, regulations and orders that the Kinondoni District council has issued which favour men than women for accessing land by the (peri)-urban poor for agriculture in the (peri)-urban areas in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
79. If you answered Yes in question 78 above name the bylaws, circulars, regulations and orders
80. Do you know of any village bylaws, circulars, regulations, and orders that the village governments have issued that favour men than women for accessing land by the (peri)-urban poor for agriculture in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
81. If answered Yes in question 80 above name the village bylaws, circulars, regulations and orders.
82. Do you think that most of the urban poor women do not access land for agriculture in the (peri)-urban areas due the following reasons. (Please, rank them in order of importance i.e. 1 = most important etc).
- 1 = Not born in the village
 - 2 = Not belonging to the dominant tribe in the village
 - 3 = Not belonging to any lineage in the village
 - 4 = Not having money to buy land
 - 5 = Not having high education (O or A levels).
 - 6 = Not having any political leadership in society
 - 7 = Not having any political leadership in the village
 - 8 = Not having any social relations with people in the village
83. Do you think that most of the urban poor men do not access land for agriculture in the (peri)-urban areas due the following reasons. (Please, rank them in order of importance i.e. 1 = most important etc).
- 1 = Not born in the village
 - 2 = Not belonging to the dominant tribe in the village
 - 3 = Not belonging to any lineage in the village
 - 4 = Not having money to buy land
 - 5 = Not having high education (O or A levels)
 - 6 = Not having any political leadership in society
 - 7 = Not having any political leadership in the village
 - 8 = Not having any social relations with people in the village
84. Mention five things that you would recommend to the Government in order to improve the access of land by the (peri)-urban poor for agriculture. (Start with the most important).
1.
 2.
 3.
 4.
 5.
85. Mention five things that you would recommend to the Kinondoni District Council in order to improve the access to land by the (peri)-urban poor for agriculture. (Start with the most important).
1.
 2.
 3.
 4.
 5.
86. Mention five things that you would recommend to village governments in the peri-urban areas in order to improve the access to land by the (peri)-urban poor for agriculture. (Start with the most important).
1.
 2.
 3.

We thank you for your cooperation in responding to our questions.

**A19. QUESTIONNAIRE FOR URBAN POOR WHO UNDERTAKE URBAN AGRICULTURE
IN KINONDONI MUNICIPAL COUNCIL—the UA**

A: General Information

Respondent's number.....; respondent's name; street name.....

Name of town, Name of ward....., name of area.....

Area of residence: 1= high, 2= medium, 3 = medium-low, 4 = low.

1. What is your gender? 1= female, 2 = male
2. How old are you? 1= < 20, 2 = 21-30, 3 = 31-40, 4 = 41-50, 5 = 51-60, 6= 61 70, 7 = above 71 years old.
3. Where were you born? Region; District
4. Which place were you born? 1= Rural, 2= Urban
5. What is your tribe?.....
6. What is your marital status? 1 = single; 2 = married monogamously; 3 = married polygamously; 4= divorced\ separated, 5= widowed.
7. What is your family size (children of your own)?females; males.
8. Do you live with any relatives? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
9. If answered Yes in question 8 above how many people who are not own children live in this household?females;males.
10. When did you first came to live in Dar es salaam? year
11. How long have you lived in Dar es Salaam?..... years.
12. When did you first came to live in Kinondoni District year
13. How long have you lived in Kinondoni District? years.
14. What is your highest attainment of formal education?
 - 1 = none, 2 = schooled up to standard seven,
 - 3 = Attained "O" level secondary education (Form 1-IV),
 - 4 = Attained "A" level secondary education (Form V-VI),
 - 5 = Has post secondary education,
 - 6 = Others, please specify
15. What is your occupation?
 - 1= Regular employed, 2= temporary employed,
 - 3 = Self employed, 4 = casual labour, 5 = unemployed,
 - 6 = None (student, children), 7 = house wife, 8 = Others, please specify
16. Name the place of workis it a: 1= government; 2 = private; 3 = company; 4 = Others, specify
17. If work in the formal sector, name the type of job that you do
18. If work in the formal sector (officially employed), what is your monthly household income from salary/wage? (How much salary/wage do you get per month? Tshs.).
 - 1 = <Tshs 5,000; 2= 5,001-10,000; 3= 10,001-20,000; 4= 20,001-30,000;
 - 5= 30,001-40,000; 6= 40,001-50,000; 7= 50,001-60,000; 8=60,001-70,000;
 - 9= 70,001-80,000; 10= 80,001-90,000 11= 90,000-100,000 Others, specify
19. Rank in order of importance (i.e. 1 – 5) (indicate %) areas in which you spend most of the money obtained from the formal sector (salary/wages)? (1 = most important etc)
 - 1 = To buy food(.....%),
 - 2 = To pay for childrens' school fees(.....%),
 - 3 = To buy clothes (.....%),
 - 4 = To pay for councils levies (.....%),
 - 5 = To pay for electricity and water bills(.....%),
 - 6 = To pay for consumables (.....%).
20. If you work in the informal sector (not officially employed) what is your monthly household income
 - 1 = <Tshs 5,000; 2= 5,001-10,000; 3= 10,001-20,000; 4= 20,001-30,000;
 - 5= 30,001-40,000; 6= 40,001-50,000; 7= 50,001-60,000; 8=60,001-70,000;

9= 70,001-80,000; 10= 80,001-90,000 11= 90,000-100,000 12= Others,
specify ...

21. Which of the following activities are you involved in:
 1 = Work as small scale trader
 2 = Small scale workshop owner
 3 = Do casual jobs
 4 = Self employed
 5 = Do agriculture activities
22. Rank in order of importance (i.e. 1 – 5) (indicate %) areas in which you spend most of the money obtained from the informal sector? (1 = most important etc) To buy food(.....%), To pay for childrens' school fees(.....%), To buy clothes (.....%), To pay for councils levies (.....%), To pay for electricity and water bills(.....%), To pay for consumables (.....%).
23. Do you own this house in which live in? 1 = Yes; 2 = No.
24. Do you have a title deed to this house in which you live in? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
25. If the answer in question is Yes in question 24 above when did you build this house? year.
26. What was the total cost of building this house? Tshs.
27. Where did you get the money for building this house: 1 = Borrowed money from the bank, 2 = Borrowed money from relatives, 3 = Saved money from salary/wage, 4 = My parents gave money to build a house, 5 = Inherited the house from parents, 6 = Others, please specify

28. If you own this house, do you rent part of it out? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
29. If answered Yes is question 28 above how much money do you get as rent per month? Tshs.

30. If you get rent money from your house what is your monthly income? Ths.
31. Rank in order of importance (i.e. 1 – 5) (indicate %) areas in which you spend most of the money gotten from the house rent? (1 = most important etc) To buy food(.....%), To pay for childrens school fees(.....%), To buy clothes (.....%), To pay for councils levies (.....%), To pay for electricity and water bills(.....%), To pay for consumables (.....%). Others, specify
32. If married, does your spouse has an occupation that earns her/him an income?
 1= Yes, 2 = No.
33. If answered Yes in question 32 above what was her/his annual income in 2001/2002?.....
34. Do you operate non-agricultural enterprises for income generation? 1= Yes 2= No.
35. If answered Yes in question 34 above what was the income for 2001/2002?
- | Name of enterprise | Income earned in 2001/2002 (in T. shs.) |
|--------------------|---|
| | |
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| | |

B. Main Issues

36. Do you own a plot of land the on which you currently farm in the urban areas? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
37. If answered Yes in question 36 above what is the size of the farm or plot?acres.
38. If you own the plot that you are currently farming in the urban areas, say the means through which you got the plot?
- | | |
|---|-------------------------|
| 1 = Inherited the plot | size of plotacre |
| 2 = Allocated by the village government | size of plot acre |
| 3 = By bush cleared the farm | size of plot.....acre |
| 4 = Purchased the farm | size of plotacre |
| 5= Allocated by a friend | size of plotacre |
| 6= Allocated by a relative | size of plotacre |
| 7= Allocated by the Ministry of lands or Kinondoni municipal council | size of plotacre |
| 8= Bought vacant land | size of plotacre |
39. Dou you think that it is important for you to own a plot of land in the urban areas for agriculture in Kinondoni District? 1 =Yes; 2= No.
40. Do you have any member(s) of this household who own plot of land in urban areas for agriculture? 1 = Yes; 2 = No.
41. If the answered is Yes in question 40 above how big is the plot of land? acres.

42. Name the person(s) who owns the plot of land and year acquired:
- | | | |
|--------------------|------|-------------------|
| 1 = Spouse | acre | Year bought |
| 2 = Son | acre | Year bought |
| 3 = Daughter | acre | Year bought |
| 4 = Nephew | acre | Year bought |
| 5 = Uncle | acre | Year bought |
43. Do you consider that the plot of land owned by any of the household member in the urban areas mentioned in question 42 above as owned by you? 1 = Yes; 2 = No.
44. Do you consider that the plot of land owned by any household member in the urban areas mentioned in question 43 above as owned by the whole family? 1 = Yes; 2 = No.
45. Do you consider that the plot of land owned by any household member in the urban areas mentioned in question 42 above as owned by the person who bought it? 1 = Yes; 2 = No.
46. Do you have any plans in the future to own more plots of land in the urban areas for agriculture in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes; 2 = No.
47. If the answer in question 46 above is Yes how much land would you want to own? acres.
48. If the answer in question 46 above is Yes mention the type of land that you are planning to get in the future:
- | | |
|---|-------|
| 1 = Land for agriculture | acres |
| 2 = Plot for building a house | acres |
| 3 = Land for agriculture and building a house | acres |
| 4 = Any type of land | acres |
| 5 = Others, specify | |
49. Comparing five years ago (i.e. 1998) and now (2003) how would you rate the difficult of getting a plot of land in the urban areas for agriculture in the Kinondoni District?
- | |
|---------------------------|
| 1 = Very difficult |
| 2 = Difficult |
| 3 = Very easy |
| 4 = Easy |
| 5 = Do not know |
| 6 = Others, specify |
50. Which of the following do you consider as the major problems related to acquiring a plot of land in urban areas for agriculture in Kinondoni District:
- | |
|---|
| 1 = Not knowing whom to see in the offices to go and ask for land |
| 2 = Land owners asking too high prices |
| 3 = Uncertain about land that is (to be) sold or allocated |
| 4 = Unsuitability of the areas where land is available |
| 5 = Not having connections with people in the villages |
| 6 = Others, specify |
51. Do you think that the rising cost of living has adversely affected your possibility of getting land in the urban areas for agriculture in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes; 2 = No.
52. If you were to get land in the urban areas for agriculture, which of the two ways would you use?
- | |
|-------------------------------|
| 1 = Get land free |
| 2 = Get land after buying it |
| 3 = Other ways, specify |
53. If you happened to win a BINGO or LOTTERY of Tshs. 10 million which combinations would you first effect?
- | |
|--|
| 1 = First would buy land and then a house |
| 2 = First would first buy a house then a farm |
| 3 = First would buy a car then a farm |
| 4 = First would start a big business, then buy a house and lastly buy a farm |
| 5 = I would do nothing, but put the money in the bank |
| 6 = Others, specify |
54. If you were first to buy land for agriculture in the urban areas how big would it be?acres.
55. In the past three years (2000 – 2002) have you ever gone to the Kinondoni municipal council's land department to ask for land for farming in the urban areas? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
56. In the past three years (2000 – 2002) have you ever gone to the villages in Kinondoni District to ask for land for agriculture in the urban areas? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
57. In the past three years (2000 – 2002) have you ever gone to see individual farmers in the villages in Kinondoni District so that they can sell you land for agriculture in the urban areas? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
58. If the Kinondoni municipal council gave you land in the urban area would you agree to it and increase your agricultural activities? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.

59. How big would you want the land to be?acres.
60. Do you think that the Kinondoni municipal land laws prevent you from owning land for agriculture in the urban areas? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
61. What reasons prevent you from owning more land for agriculture in the urban areas in Kinondoni District? (Rank then in order of importance, i.e. 1 = most important and 10 least imp.).
- 1 = Land in the urban areas is sold to people with money
 - 2 = Land in the urban areas is expensive
 - 3 = I want to avoid conflicts due to the use of land
 - 4 = Land in the urban areas is owned by the village governments
 - 5 = Land in the urban areas is passed over through inheritance
 - 6 = Land in the urban areas is given out along tribal lines
 - 7 = Land in the urban areas is given out to those born in the region
 - 8 = Land in the urban areas is owned by the Kinondoni municipal council
 - 9 = Land in the urban areas is owned by individuals who do not want to sell it out
 - 10 = Others, specify
62. If by chance you bought land for agriculture in the urban areas what crops would you grow?
- 1 = food crops (maize, cassava, cow peas, plantains, sweet potatoes)
 - 2 = cash crops (cashew nuts, coconuts)
 - 3 = vegetables (mchicha, tomatoes, spinaches, onions)
63. If by chance you bought land in the urban areas for agriculture what livestock would keep?
- 1 = improved dairy cattle
 - 2 = local dairy cattle
 - 3 = local chickens
 - 4 = improved layers
 - 5 = improved broilers
 - 6 = Cash crops
 - 7 = Food crops
 - 8 = Others, please specify
64. Do you know of any Land Law that the Government has issued that regulate accessing land for agriculture in the urban areas in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
65. If the answer in question 64 above is Yes, name the Land Law.
66. Do you know of any Land Tenure Act that that the Government has issued that governs accessing land for agriculture in the urban areas in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
67. If you answered Yes in question 66 above name the Land Tenure Act.....
68. Do you know any by-laws, circulars, regulations and orders that the Government has issued that regulate accessing land for agriculture in the urban areas for Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
69. If you answered Yes in question 68 above name the bylaws, circulars, regulations and orders
70. Do you know of any customary laws that the Government uses for accessing land for agriculture in the urban areas in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
71. If the answer in question 70 above is Yes, name the customary land laws.
72. Do you know any by-laws, circulars, regulations and orders that the Kinondoni District Council has issued that regulate accessing land for agriculture in the urban areas for Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
73. If you answered Yes in question 72 above name the bylaws, circulars, regulations and orders
74. Do you know of any customary laws that Kinondoni District Council uses for accessing land for agriculture in the urban areas in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
75. If the answer in question 74 above is Yes, name the customary land laws.
76. Do you know any by-laws, circulars, regulations and orders that the Ward Executive Officer (WEO) in this area has issued that regulate accessing land for agriculture in the urban areas for Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
77. If you answered Yes in question 76 above name the bylaws, circulars, regulations and orders
78. Do you know of any customary laws that Ward Executive Officer (WEO) in this uses uses for accessing land for agriculture in the urban areas in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
79. If the answer in question 78 above is Yes, name the customary land laws.
80. Do you know of any Land Law that the Government has issued which favour men than women for accessing land for agriculture in the urban areas in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
81. If you answered Yes in question 80 above name the Land Law

82. Do you know of any Land Tenure Act the Government has issued which favour men than women for accessing land for agriculture in the urban areas in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
83. If you answered Yes in question 82 above name the Land Tenure Act
84. Do you know of any bylaws, circulars, regulations and orders that the Government has issued which favour men than women for accessing land in the urban areas in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
85. If you answered Yes in question 84 above name the bylaws, circulars, regulations and orders
86. Do you know of any customary laws that the Government uses which favour men than women for accessing land in the urban areas in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
87. If the answer in question 86 above is Yes, name the customary land laws.
88. Do you know of any bylaws, circulars, regulations and orders that the Kinondoni District council has issued which favour men than women for accessing land for agriculture in the urban areas in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
89. If you answered Yes in question 88 above name the bylaws, circulars, regulations and orders
90. Do you know of any bylaws, circulars, regulations, and orders that the WEO has issued that favour men than women for accessing land for agriculture in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
91. If answered Yes in question 89 above name the village bylaws, circulars, regulations and orders.
92. Do you think that most of the urban poor women have access to land for agriculture in the urban areas? 1 = Yes; 2 = No.
93. If you answer in question 92 above is No—is it due to the following reasons: (Please, rank them in order of importance i.e. 1 = most important etc).
- 1 = Not born in the area
 - 2 = Not belonging to the dominant tribe in the area
 - 3 = Not belonging to any lineage in the area
 - 4 = Not having money to buy land
 - 5 = Not having high education (O or A levels).
 - 6 = Not having any political leadership in society
 - 7 = Not having any political leadership in the area
 - 8 = Not having any social relations with people in area
94. Do you think that most of the urban poor men have access to land for agriculture in the urban areas? 1 = Yes; 2 = No.
95. If you answer in question 94 above is No—is it due to the following reasons: (Please, rank them in order of importance i.e. 1 = most important etc).
- 1 = Not born in the area
 - 2 = Not belonging to the dominant tribe in the area
 - 3 = Not belonging to any lineage in the area
 - 4 = Not having money to buy land
 - 5 = Not having high education (O or A levels).
 - 6 = Not having any political leadership in society
 - 7 = Not having any political leadership in the area
 - 8 = Not having any social relations with people in area
96. Mention five things that you would recommend to the Government effects in order to improve the access to land for agriculture by the urban poor. (Start with the most important).
1.
 2.
 6.
 7.
 8.
97. Mention five things that you would recommend to the Kinondoni District Council to effect in order to improve the access to land for agriculture by the urban poor. (Start with the most important).
1.
 2.
 6.
 7.
 8.

98. Mention five things that you would recommend to the WEO to effect in the urban areas in order to improve the access to land for agriculture by the urban poor. (Start with the most important).

1.
2.
3.

We thank you for your cooperation in responding to our questions.

A20. QUESTIONNAIRE FOR (PERI)-URBAN POOR WHO UNDERTAKE AGRICULTURE IN KINONDONI MUNICIPAL COUNCIL —the RA.

A: General Information

Respondent's number.....; respondent's name; street name.....
Name of town, Name of ward....., name of area.....
Area of residence: 1= high, 2= medium, 3 = medium-low, 4 = low.

1. What is your gender? 1= female, 2 = male
2. How old are you? 1= < 20, 2 = 21-30, 3 = 31-40, 4 = 41-50, 5 = 51-60, 6= 61 70, 7 = above 71 years old.
3. Where were you born? Region; District
4. Which place were you born? 1= Rural, 2= Urban
5. What is your tribe?.....
6. What is your marital status? 1 = single; 2 = married monogamously; 3 = married polygamously; 4= divorced\ separated, 5= widowed.
7. What is your family size (children of your own)?females; males.
8. Do you live with any relatives? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
9. If answered Yes in question 8 above how many people who are not own children live in this household?females;males.
10. When did you first came to live in Dar es salaam? year
11. How long have you lived in Dar es Salaam?..... years.
12. When did you first came to live in Kinondoni District year
13. How long have you lived in Kinondoni District? years.
14. What is your highest attainment of formal education?
1 = none, 2 = schooled up to standard seven,
3 = Attained "O" level secondary education (Form 1-IV),
4 = Attained "A" level secondary education (Form V-VI),
5 = Has post secondary education,
6 = Others, please specify
15. What is your occupation?
1= Regular employed, 2= temporary employed,
3 = self employed, 4 = casual labour, 5 = unemployed,
6 = none (student, children), 7 = house wife, 8 = Others, please specify
16. Name the place of workis it a: 1= government; 2 = private; 3 = company; 4 = Others, specify
17. If work in the formal sector, name the type of job that you do
18. If work in the formal sector (officially employed), what is your monthly household income from salary/wage? (How much salary/wage do you get per month? Tshs.).
1= <Tshs 5,000; 2= 5,001-10,000; 3= 10,001-20,000; 4= 20,001-30,000;
5= 30,001-40,000; 6= 40,001-50,000; 7= 50,001-60,000; 8=60,001-70,000;
9= 70,001-80,000; 10= 80,001-90,000 11= 90,000-100,000 Others, specify
19. Rank in order of importance (i.e. 1 – 5) (indicate %) areas in which you spend most of the money obtained from the formal sector (salary/wages)? (1 = most important etc)
1 = To buy food(%),
2 = To pay for childrens' school fees(%),
3 = To buy clothes (.....%),
4 = To pay for councils levies (%),
5 = To pay for electricity and water bills(%),
6 = To pay for consumables (%).
20. If you work in the informal sector (not officially employed) what is your monthly household income
1= <Tshs 5,000; 2= 5,001-10,000; 3= 10,001-20,000; 4= 20,001-30,000;
5= 30,001-40,000; 6= 40,001-50,000; 7= 50,001-60,000; 8=60,001-70,000;
9= 70,001-80,000; 10= 80,001-90,000 11= 90,000-100,000 12= Others, specify ...
21. Which of the following activities are you involved in:
1 = Work as small scale trader

- 2 = Small scale workshop owner
- 3 = Do casual jobs
- 4 = Self employed
- 5 = Do agriculture activities

22. Rank in order of importance (i.e. 1 – 5) (indicate %) areas in which you spend most of the money obtained from the informal sector? (1 = most important etc) To buy food(.....%), To pay for childrens' school fees(.....%), To buy clothes (.....%), To pay for councils levies (.....%), To pay for electricity and water bills(.....%), To pay for consumables (.....%).
23. Do you own this house in which live in? 1 = Yes; 2 = No.
24. Do you have a title deed to this house in which you live in? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
25. If the answer in question is Yes in question 24 above when did you build this house? year.
26. What was the total cost of building this house? Tshs.
27. Where did you get the money for building this house: 1 = Borrowed money from the bank, 2 = Borrowed money from relatives, 3 = Saved money from salary/wage, 4 = My parents gave money to build a house, 5 = Inherited the house from parents, 6 = Others, please specify
.....
28. If you own this house, do you rent part of it out? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
29. If answered Yes is question 28 above how much money do you get as rent per month? Tshs.
.....
30. If you get rent money from your house what is your monthly income? Tshs.
31. Rank in order of importance (i.e. 1 – 5) (indicate %) areas in which you spend most of the money gotten from the house rent? (1 = most important etc) To buy food(.....%), To pay for childrens school fees(.....%), To buy clothes (.....%), To pay for councils levies (.....%), To pay for electricity and water bills(.....%), To pay for consumables (.....%). Others, specify
32. If married, does your spouse has an occupation that earns her/him an income?
1= Yes, 2 = No.
33. If answered Yes in question 32 above what was her/his annual income in 2001/2002?.....
34. Do you operate non-agricultural enterprises for income generation? 1= Yes 2= No.
35. If answered Yes in question 34 above what was the income for 2001/2002?
- | Name of enterprise | Income earned in 2001/2002 (in T. shs.) |
|--------------------|---|
| | |
| | |
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| | |

B. Main Issues

36. Do you own a plot of land the on which you currently farm in the peri-urban areas? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
37. If answered Yes in question 36 above what is the size of the farm or plot?acres.
38. If you own the plot that you are currently farming in the peri-urban areas, say the means through which you got the plot?
- | | |
|---|-------------------------|
| 1 = Inherited the plot | size of plotacre |
| 2 = Allocated by the village government | size of plot acre |
| 3 = By bush cleared the farm | size of plot.....acre |
| 4 = Purchased the farm | size of plotacre |
| 5= Allocated by a friend | size of plotacre |
| 6= Allocated by a relative | size of plotacre |
| 7= Allocated by the Ministry of lands or Kinondoni municipal council | size of plotacre |
| 8= Bought vacant land | size of plotacre |
39. Dou you think that it is important for you to own a plot of land in the peri-urban areas for agriculture in Kinondoni District? 1 =Yes; 2= No.
40. Do you have any member(s) of this household who own plot of land in peri-urban areas for agriculture? 1 = Yes; 2 = No.
41. If the answered is Yes in question 40 above how big is the plot of land? acres.
42. Name the person(s) who owns the plot of land and year acquired:
- | | |
|-------------------------|--------------------|
| 1 = Spouseacre | Year bought |
| 2 = Son acre | Year bought |
| 3 = Daughter acre | Year bought |
| 4 = Nephew acre | Year bought |
| 5 = Uncle acre | Year bought |

43. Do you consider that the plot of land owned by any of the household member in the peri-urban areas mentioned in question 42 above as owned by you? 1 = Yes; 2 = No.
44. Do you consider that the plot of land owned by any household member in the peri-urban areas mentioned in question 43 above as owned by the whole family? 1 = Yes; 2 = No.
45. Do you consider that the plot of land owned by any household member in the peri-urban areas mentioned in question 42 above as owned by the person who bought it? 1 = Yes; 2 = No.
46. Do you have any plans in the future to own more plots of land in the peri-urban areas for agriculture in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes; 2= No.
47. If the answer in question 46 above is Yes how much land would you want to own? acres.
48. If the answer in question 46 above is Yes mention the type of land that you are planning to get in the future:
- 1 = Land for agriculture acres
 - 2 = Plot for building a houseacres
 - 3 = Land for agriculture and building a houseacres
 - 4 = Any type of landacres
 - 5 = Others, specify
49. Comparing five years ago (i.e. 1998) and now (2003) how would you rate the difficult of getting a plot of land in the peri-urban areas for agriculture in the Kinondoni District?
- 1 = Very difficult
 - 2 = Difficult
 - 3 = Very easy
 - 4 = Easy
 - 5 = Do not know
 - 6 = Others, specify
50. Which of the following do you consider as the major problems related to acquiring a plot of land in peri-urban areas for agriculture in Kinondoni District:
- 1 = Not knowing whom to see in the offices to go and ask for land
 - 2 = Land owners asking too high prices
 - 3 = Uncertain about land that is (to be) sold or allocated
 - 4 = Unsuitability of the areas where land is available
 - 5 = Not having connections with people in the villages
 - 6 = Others, specify
51. Do you think that the rising cost of living has adversely affected your possibility of getting land in the peri-urban areas for agriculture in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes; 2 = No.
52. If you were to get land in the peri-urban areas for agriculture which of the two ways would you use?
- 1 = Get land free
 - 2 = Get land after buying it
 - 3 = Other ways, specify
53. If you happened to win a BINGO or LOTTERY of Tshs. 10 million which combinations would you first effect?
- 1 = First would buy land and then a house
 - 2 = First would first buy a house then a farm
 - 3 = First would buy a car then a farm
 - 4 = First would start a big business, then buy a house and lastly buy a farm
 - 5 = I would do nothing, but put the money in the bank
 - 6 = Others, specify
54. If you were first to buy land for agriculture in the peri-urban area show big would it be?acres.
55. In the past three years (2000 – 2002) have you ever gone to the Kinondoni municipal council’s land department to ask for land for farming in the peri-urban areas? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
56. In the past three years (2000 – 2002) have you ever gone to the villages in Kinondoni District to ask for land for agriculture in the peri-urban areas? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
57. In the past three years (2000 – 2002) have you ever gone to see individual farmers in the villages in Kinondoni District so that they can sell you land for agriculture in the peri-urban areas? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
58. If the Kinondoni municipal council gave you land in the peri-urban area would you agree to it and increase your agricultural activities? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
59. How big would you want the land to be?acres.
60. Do you think that the Kinondoni municipal land laws prevent you from owning land for agriculture in the peri-urban areas? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
61. What reasons prevent you from owning more land for agriculture in the peri-urban areas in Kinondoni District? (Rank then in order of importance, i.e. 1 = most important and 10 least imp.).

- 1 = Land in the peri-urban areas is sold to people with money
 - 2 = Land in the peri-urban areas is expensive
 - 3 = I want to avoid conflicts due to the use of land
 - 4 = Land in the peri-urban areas is owned by the village governments
 - 5 = Land in the peri-urban areas is passed over through inheritance
 - 6 = Land in the peri-urban areas is given out along tribal lines
 - 7 = Land in the peri-urban areas is given out to those born in the region
 - 8 = Land in the peri-urban areas is owned by the Kinondoni municipal council
 - 9 = Land in the peri-urban areas is owned by individuals who do not want to sell it out
 - 10 = Others, specify
62. If by chance you bought land for agriculture in the peri-urban areas what crops would you grow?
- 1 = food crops (maize, cassava, cow peas, plantains, sweet potatoes)
 - 2 = cash crops (cashew nuts, coconuts)
 - 3 = vegetables (mchicha, tomatoes, spinaches, onions)
63. If by chance you bought land in the peri-urban areas for agriculture what livestock would keep?
- 1 = improved dairy cattle
 - 2 = local dairy cattle
 - 3 = local chickens
 - 4 = improved layers
 - 5 = improved broilers
 - 6 = Cash crops
 - 7 = Food crops
 - 8 = Others, please specify
64. Do you know of any Land Law that the Government has issued that regulate accessing land for agriculture in the peri-urban areas in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
65. If the answer in question 67 above is Yes, name the Land Law.
66. Do you know of any Land Tenure Act that that the Government has issued that governs accessing land for agriculture in the peri-urban areas in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
67. If you answered Yes in question 69 above name the Land Tenure Act.....
68. Do you know any by-laws, circulars, regulations and orders that the Government has issued that regulate accessing land for agriculture in the peri-urban areas for Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
69. If you answered Yes in question 65 above name the bylaws, circulars, regulations and orders
70. Do you know of any customary laws that the Government uses for accessing land for agriculture in the peri-urban areas in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
71. If the answer in question 67 above is Yes, name the customary land laws.
72. Do you know any by-laws, circulars, regulations and orders that the Kinondoni District Council has issued that regulate accessing land for agriculture in the peri-urban areas for Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
73. If you answered Yes in question 65 above name the bylaws, circulars, regulations and orders
74. Do you know of any customary laws that Kinondoni District Council uses for accessing land for agriculture in the peri-urban areas in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
75. If the answer in question 67 above is Yes, name the customary land laws.
76. Do you know any by-laws, circulars, regulations and orders that the Ward Executive Officer (WEO) in this area has issued that regulate accessing land for agriculture in the peri-urban areas for Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
77. If you answered Yes in question 65 above name the bylaws, circulars, regulations and orders
78. Do you know of any customary laws that Ward Executive Officer (WEO) in this uses uses for accessing land for agriculture in the peri-urban areas in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
79. If the answer in question 67 above is Yes, name the customary land laws.
80. Do you know of any Land Law that the Government has issued which favour men than women for accessing land for agriculture in the peri-urban areas in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
81. If you answered Yes in question 75 above name the Land Law
82. Do you know of any Land Tenure Act the Government has issued which favour men than women for accessing land for agriculture in the peri-urban areas in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
83. If you answered Yes in question 75 above name the Land Tenure Act
84. Do you know of any bylaws, circulars, regulations and orders that the Government has issued which favour men than women for accessing land in the peri-urban areas in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.

85. If you answered Yes in question 75 above name the bylaws, circulars, regulations and orders
86. Do you know of any customary laws that the Government uses which favour men than women for accessing land in the peri-urban areas in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
87. If the answer in question 67 above is Yes, name the customary land laws.
88. Do you know of any bylaws, circulars, regulations and orders that the Kinondoni District council has issued which favour men than women for accessing land for agriculture in the peri-urban areas in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
89. If you answered Yes in question 77 above name the bylaws, circulars, regulations and orders
90. Do you know of any bylaws, circulars, regulations, and orders that the WEO has issued that favour men than women for accessing land for agriculture in Kinondoni District? 1 = Yes, 2 = No.
91. If answered Yes in question 79 above name the village bylaws, circulars, regulations and orders.
92. Do you think that most of the peri-urban poor women have access to land for agriculture in the peri-urban areas? 1 = Yes; 2 = No.
93. If you answer in question 81 above is No—is it due to the following reasons: (Please, rank them in order of importance i.e. 1 = most important etc).
- 1 = Not born in the area
 - 2 = Not belonging to the dominant tribe in the area
 - 3 = Not belonging to any lineage in the area
 - 4 = Not having money to buy land
 - 5 = Not having high education (O or A levels).
 - 6 = Not having any political leadership in society
 - 7 = Not having any political leadership in the area
 - 8 = Not having any social relations with people in area
94. Do you think that most of the peri-urban poor men have access to land for agriculture in the peri-urban areas? 1 = Yes; 2 = No.
95. If you answer in question 81 above is No—is it due to the following reasons: (Please, rank them in order of importance i.e. 1 = most important etc).
- 1 = Not born in the area
 - 2 = Not belonging to the dominant tribe in the area
 - 3 = Not belonging to any lineage in the area
 - 4 = Not having money to buy land
 - 5 = Not having high education (O or A levels).
 - 6 = Not having any political leadership in society
 - 7 = Not having any political leadership in the area
 - 8 = Not having any social relations with people in area
96. Mention five things that you would recommend to the Government effects in order to improve the access to land for agriculture by the peri-urban poor. (Start with the most important).
1.
 2.
 9.
 10.
 11.
97. Mention five things that you would recommend to the Kinondoni District Council to effect in order to improve the access to land for agriculture by the peri-urban poor. (Start with the most important).
1.
 2.
 -
 -
 -
98. Mention five things that you would recommend to the WEO to effect in the peri-urban areas in order to improve the access to land for agriculture by the peri-urban poor. (Start with the most important).
1.
 2.
 - 3.....
 - 4.....

We thank you for your cooperation in responding to our questions.

