I am very pleased to present the State of National Urban Policies Report in the Arab States, an insightful assessment of urban policies in one of the most urbanized regions of the world. The Arab States account for 56 per cent of the world’s urban population. The report is a valuable source of information, and is based on case studies undertaken by UN-Habitat.

The New Urban Agenda, the outcome document of Habitat III, as well as Agenda 2030 for Sustainable Development, recognize the transformative power of urbanization as an endogenous source of development, prosperity and employment. Within this new framework, the role of national governments in harnessing the opportunities and mitigating risks of urbanization is emphasized, with national urban policies recognized as a primary instrument. The New Urban Agenda emphasizes the leading role of national governments in the definition and implementation of inclusive and effective urban policies.

The report serves as an important tool for policy makers, practitioners and academia, providing insights in a complex region which shares a series of common social and political circumstances: a tradition of political centralization, large populations of youth demanding equal social, political and economic opportunities, extreme vulnerability to climate change, with the potential for food and water insecurity, and the destabilizing effects of political turmoil and conflict. We must not forget that cities of the Arab region are some of the oldest continuously inhabited human settlements in the world; the region continues to remain a source of great relevance when analyzing the development of national urban policies.

The Arab region now finds itself at a particularly turbulent but pivotal time. Policy choices made to manage rapid urbanization will determine the future of cities there, and to a certain extent, the path of national development. Investing in strong, well-developed national urban policies as part of the fundamentals of urbanization – rules and regulations, planning and design and a financing model - guarantees prosperity.

The report is part of a series of five regional reports assessing the state of national urban policies that complement the Global State of National Urban Policies Report, conducted in collaboration between UN-Habitat and the OECD. These studies are timely, as they follow up on Habitat III and Agenda 2030 for Sustainable Development, and accompany the Second International Conference on National Urban Policy.

Dr. Joan Clos
Executive Director, UN-Habitat
CONTENTS

SUMMARY .................................................................................................................................1

Purpose of the study ..................................................................................................................1
Key findings ..............................................................................................................................1

1. INTRODUCTION .............................................................................................................3

1.1 Overview ..........................................................................................................................4
1.2 Aims and objectives .........................................................................................................6
1.3 Methodology .....................................................................................................................6
  Data collection .......................................................................................................................6
  Research constraints ............................................................................................................7

2. REGIONAL NUP APPRAISAL ..........................................................................................10

2.1 Sub-Regional NUP Appraisal .......................................................................................11
  Sub-Saharan Africa .............................................................................................................12
  West Africa .........................................................................................................................12
  Eastern Africa ....................................................................................................................12
  Central Africa ....................................................................................................................13
  Southern Africa ................................................................................................................13

3. COUNTRY CASE STUDIES .................................................................................................15

3.1 Minor Country Case Studies .......................................................................................16
  Benin ..................................................................................................................................16
  Botswana ...........................................................................................................................16
  Burkina Faso .......................................................................................................................17
  Burundi .............................................................................................................................17
  Cameroon ...........................................................................................................................17
  Cabo Verde ........................................................................................................................18
  Central African Republic .................................................................................................18
  Chad .................................................................................................................................17
  Congo ...............................................................................................................................19
  Equatorial Guinea .............................................................................................................19
  Eritrea .............................................................................................................................20
  Gabon ..............................................................................................................................20
  Gambia .............................................................................................................................20
  Guinea ...............................................................................................................................20
SUMMARY .........................................................................................................1

Purpose of the study ............................................................................................1
Key findings ...........................................................................................................1

1. INTRODUCTION ..........................................................................................3

   1.1 Overview ...................................................................................................4
   1.2 Aims and objectives ..................................................................................6
   1.3 Methodology .................................................................................................6
       Data collection .......................................................................................... 6
       Research constraints ..................................................................................7

2. REGIONAL NUP APPRAISAL .................................................................10

   2.1 Sub-Regional NUP Appraisal .....................................................................11
       Sub-Saharan Africa ...................................................................................12
       West Africa ...............................................................................................12
       Eastern Africa ...........................................................................................12
       Central Africa ...........................................................................................13
       Southern Africa ........................................................................................13

3. COUNTRY CASE STUDIES .......................................................................15

   3.1 Minor Country Case Studies .....................................................................16
       Benin ........................................................................................................16
       Botswana .................................................................................................16
       Burkina Faso ...........................................................................................17
       Burundi ....................................................................................................17
       Cameroon ................................................................................................17
       Cabo Verde ..............................................................................................18
       Central African Republic ...........................................................................18
       Chad ........................................................................................................17
       Congo ........................................................................................................19
       Equatorial Guinea .....................................................................................19
       Eritrea .......................................................................................................20
       Gabon ......................................................................................................20
       Gambia ....................................................................................................20
       Guinea ....................................................................................................20
Over the past decade, recognition has grown that the achieving productive, sustainable and equitable urbanization requires increasing attention from national governments. This is particularly the case in contexts where the rate of urbanization is low and rapid growth of future urban settlements is anticipated. The United Nations, through UN-Habitat, has a longstanding commitment to improving the way urbanization is managed at the local, national and sub-national levels. This includes establishing appropriate governance and legislative frameworks for guiding urbanization at the national level. A key feature of such framework is the development National Urban Policies (NUP). A new generation of NUPs has sprung up across the region with aspirations to address contemporary urban problems and plan for future urban development.

**Purpose of study**

The objective of this review is to survey, inform and evaluate national urban policies and strategies developed by national governments in Africa. The review assists UN-Habitat and other national and international stakeholders involved in urban policy and management in predominantly middle to low-income countries to comprehend and appreciate the extent of national urban policy development in Africa. The research encompasses both a recent generation of NUPs in the region as well as a set of older generation national urban programs for urban development. This report particularly focuses on institutional structures, legal and regulatory frameworks, and financial and technical capacity; aimed at promoting long-term policy development and monitoring of urban problems and responses in Africa.

**Key findings**

Rapid urbanization in Africa is a challenge because the rates of urban growth are higher than the coping strategies from requisite authorities responsible for urban planning and management. For several years, managing urbanization has not been a priority, but economic development has been the main aim of most urban authorities. Economic development coupled with some infrastructure development in urban areas have enhanced urbanization; growth specially attributed to rural-urban migration. The urban areas become very attractive to the rural dwellers due to more economic opportunities they provide. The expectations of better livelihoods in urban areas are thwarted when the economic opportunities are not readily realized in urban areas. This eventually results in urban poverty and more of these urban immigrants end up settling in informal settlements. In a majority of African countries informality persists in most spheres of urban life.

From this assessment, there are multiple urban issues recurring in all the sub saharan regions of Africa. The urban challenges that African nations face range from climate change vulnerability, food insecurity, informal settlements proliferation, and urban poverty, informal activities and settlements, and despite the persistence of these challenges, only 17 out 44 countries have an explicit NUP as of 2015.

Ethiopia, one of the countries in Africa with an explicit NUP, has already implemented some stages of the program, and reviewed their national urban policy. Ghana on the other hand has a National Urban Policy framework as well as a policy action plan for the implementation of the goals set out in the framework. Other

Several countries are in the early stages of formulating their NUP through diagnostic studies with the assistance of UN-Habitat. These include Namibia, Zambia, Madagascar, Angola, and Togo amongst others. Other countries such as Gambia and Senegal have already shown interest in formulating a NUP but with no major milestones reached so far.

A majority of the countries do not have a NUP, but have overarching documents that are set to guide urban development such as National master plans, development standards among other planning laws and frameworks. Tanzania has a master plan for the whole country as well as an urban planning act which guide urban development. Other countries do not have national documents guiding urban development but instead have city specific development plans or standards. Some countries on the other hand have only sectoral specific polices or strategies that address transport, housing or other urban issues. For example, the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) has a National Housing Strategy to guide housing in the country. Angola has a New Cities Strategy which is meant to be an urbanization strategy to curb the housing crises in urban areas, especially the capital city Luanda.

Certain countries have policy documents to guide development, such as the DRC (Decree Urbanism 1957) and Sao Tome & Principe (National Planning Document 1977), but the documents have become obsolete due to the rapid changes that occurred after the inception of the documents.

The main findings in this research imply that there are a few countries in Africa with well-developed national urban policies. Africa is a large and diverse continent and it is hard to generalize, but at closer scrutiny, there are apparent differences on the regional distributions of NUP. Fortunately, there is evidence of a more positive response emerging in many countries towards national urban policies. For example, a large number of countries are now receiving technical assistance from UN-Habitat to guide the development of a national urban policy (UN-Habitat, 2015b).

The formulation of a NUP is a pivotal step in the right direction. However in most cases, progress in its implementation is often delayed due to a lack of institutional capacity and resources. Experiences from countries such as Kenya and Uganda illustrate that unpredictable political conditions and orders of the national government priorities cause setbacks in the implementation stages of NUP1. To conclude, despite the several advances that are being made, there appears to be shortcomings with embedding urban policy into the institutional fabric and the political repertoire of most African countries.

1 UN-Habitat’s State of African Cities Report 2014 gave an extreme illustration of negative interference in urban management from national government: “In Kampala, the planning and regulatory efforts of city Authorities have been routinely thwarted by political intervention from the national government. It is widely recognized by the populace that the president is willing to interfere in the city’s affairs to secure political support. Projects have often been delayed or cancelled at the behest of groups who promise to deliver votes in return, and efforts to regulate the informal transport sector have consistently been thwarted by presidential interference. This political manoeuvring has impeded effective urban planning and management in Kampala” (2014, p.29).
1 INTRODUCTION
1.1 Overview

Urbanization in the world is irreversibly taking over in all regions. Since the 1950s, the world’s urban population has increased significantly from 746 million to 3.9 billion in 2014\(^2\). Whereas today nearly half of the world’s population is living in urban settlements, the continuing urbanization and the overall growth of the world’s population is projected to add 2.5 billion people to the urban population by 2050\(^3\). Even by 2030 all developing regions, including Asia and Africa, will have more people living in urban than rural areas\(^4\). This projected exponential rise has led urbanization to be recognized as a crucial phenomenon to take into consideration for sustainable development.

While urbanization is an undeniable precondition for development, bearing the potential of increased wealth and well-being, as well as more efficient use of national resources; if left to develop uncontrolled, it can however have opposite and harmful effects. With its rapid rate, cities run the risk of getting locked into dysfunctional and damaging patterns of urban development, leading to a rise of informal settlements, squalid living conditions, inadequate and overloaded infrastructure, all-round congestion and vulnerability to various kinds of disasters. As the implications for development of such opportunities and challenges exceed traditional city boundaries, so should their political management. Urbanization has therefore been acknowledged globally as an agenda priority, and nationally as a governmental responsibility.

In the past years, global agreements and programmes have indeed increasingly considered urbanization. The Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction, followed by the Paris Agreement on Climate Change, for instance acknowledged the particular vulnerability and responsibility of cities to climate change. Even more explicitly, the Agenda 2030 for sustainable development dedicated one of its 17 sustainable development goals to cities, with SDG-11 calling to “make cities inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable”. Finally, and most significantly, the first major intergovernmental conference following these sustainable development milestones was the United Nations Conference on Housing and Sustainable Urban Development (Habitat III), where the New Urban Agenda was adopted, advocating for proactive policies to leverage the dynamics of urbanization as instruments of sustainable development.

This new priority of managing urbanization within intergovernmental agreements and frameworks indicate and call for an increased responsibility of national governments in adapting, implementing and monitoring these global imperatives. This responsibility was acknowledged by governments of the African Union as their ministers of Housing and Urban Development united on February 24, 2016 to elaborate a common African position on Habitat III.

As indicated by this declaration, the African continent is characterized by specific urbanization trends, challenges, opportunities and priorities. As its population is expected to double in the next two decades, it is the fastest urbanizing continent: its urbanization level soaring from 15% in 1960 to 40% in 2060, and projected to reach 60% by 2050. The nature of this transition from a predominantly rural population to an increasingly urban one will determine the well-being of millions of people for decades to come. It will also influence the prospects for accelerated economic development in Africa and the continent’s resilience to climate change. Also, this speed of urbanization poses a real challenge for policy-makers to keep up in mitigating its negative externalities and harness its potential for sustainable and inclusive growth. Moreover, the causes of urbanization in Africa differ from those in other continents; as it is driven to a larger extent by poverty in rural areas, conflict and demographic change, and less so by industrialization and employment growth (UN-Habitat 2004, 2008).
This rural “push” factor of urbanization and the damages its rapid rate cause within cities might explain the negative image it seems to still hold among policy-makers and their lack of comprehensive response. As Cities Alliance notes: “few countries have developed strategies to cope with the challenges posed by rapid urbanization […] most African decision makers have not yet grasped the importance of the proper functioning of cities for the proper functioning of national economies” (Cities Alliance, 2013, p.10). African governments indeed respond to urbanization in different ways, with some refusing to address the phenomenon directly, only trying to mitigate its negative consequences through sectoral strategies; and some even trying to reverse its effects through strategies such as controlling rural urban migration and promoting development in rural areas (Turok & Parnell, 2009). In sum: “most political leaders in Africa continue to refuse to accept that their societies are urbanising at a rapid and irreversible pace. This widespread denial […] creates a public policy vacuum” (Pieterse, 2014, p.201)

To fulfil and implement the global imperatives of the Agenda 2030 and the NUA, and most importantly to face the challenges and opportunities of exponential urbanization in Africa, African governments therefore need to recognize the crucial importance of the phenomenon and address it through multi-sectoral and comprehensive policies. As the common African position on Habitat III explains: “the process of urbanization, and the potential embedded within it, presents an invaluable opportunity for Africa to realize the economic, social and spatial structural transformation”.

1.2 Aims and Objectives

This report assesses the status of National Urban Policies (NUPs) in Africa. Defined by UN-Habitat as “a coherent set of decisions derived through a deliberate government-led process of coordination and rallying various actors for a common vision and goal that will promote more transformative, productive, inclusive and resilient urban development for the long term” (UN-Habitat, 2014); National Urban Policy has been recognized as a primary governmental tool to coordinate the global urban agenda and specific national paths to sustainable development. In the preparation leading to Habitat III, NUPs were selected as one of ten policy units, and the accompanying policy paper recommended that they be used as an instrument for the implementation and measuring of the SDGs. Moreover, the New Urban Agenda identifies them as “drivers of change”: a tool that can harness and capitalize on the complex forces of urbanization to participate in sustainable urban development.

It is an instrument that would therefore enable African governments to achieve the objectives delineated in the Common African Position on Habitat III, which insisted on “the importance of contributing to strengthen policy and institutional framework and capacity for managing urbanization and human settlements as a key component of structural transformation in Africa”; and “the need to adopt an integrated and holistic approach in building collaborations, partnerships and alliances with relevant government departments and institution as well as engagement with relevant stakeholders” (Habitat III Africa Regional Meeting, 2016). NUPs indeed provide a framework to create an enabling and cooperative institutional environment, with increased vertical and horizontal coordination. It also helps mobilize stakeholders from all levels of government, the private sector and civil society, and build their capacities, and in this process, leads to a truly inclusive and shared urban vision for the country, with jointly defined and transparent responsibilities.

Although there is little to no research undertaken on this particular subject, the general belief is that explicit national urban policies are rare in Africa. Quotes from three chapters in a recent book on African urbanization illustrate this point. For example, “Very few African states have explicit policies to deal with urbanization and intra-urban development challenges” (Smit and Pieterse, 2014, p.157). Similarly, “national urbanization and national urban strategies in Africa receive remarkably little policy attention
today” (Parnell and Simon, 2014, p.237). These statements endorse the view of the African Development Bank that: “Few African countries have given attention to the challenges and opportunities of sustainable urban development. Notably, urban development has not been given a high priority in national development plans and poverty reduction strategies” (AfDB, 2012, p.7). It also seems to be supported by the findings of a recent United Nations survey which found that three-quarters of African governments actually have policies in place to reduce rural–urban migration (UN DESA, 2012). Kayizzi-Mugerwa et al (2014) concur that “most African governments continue to operate without any explicit national urbanization strategy”, although they are more optimistic about the prospects for change.

The present report therefore assesses the state of NUPs in Africa, and in doing so attempts to highlight obstacles and opportunities for their more extensive development. It is part of a series of five regional reports that consider the state of NUPs at a regional level; which itself complements the Global State of National Urban Policy Report, prepared by UN-Habitat and OECD.

1.3 Methodology

This report on NUPs in Africa is based on regional overviews of national urban policy across African countries and around two sets of case studies; the first set is a series short case studies and the second set comprises more detailed case studies. The short case studies give insights into past and current practices, the stages of these national urban policies, and the leading agency overseeing urban development in the country. The extensive case studies offer a more detailed appraisal of national urban policies in the selected countries with greater focus on the policy cycle. Furthermore, an overview of urbanization patterns in the countries sheds light on the priorities of their urban development policies. This appraisal is distributed approximately evenly across the sets of extensive and intensive case studies.

1.3.1 Data collection

The data collection method was cognizant of the dynamism of the urban sector. Moreover, in terms of research and language, the use of the term ‘National Urban Policy’ may have created restrictions as it might have overlooked the ways that other forms of urban strategy are being formulated and implemented by governments. Although some countries might not have an explicit NUP, they could have adopted some form of urban framework, and have adopted sectoral urban policies on housing or transportation, which in turn impact on urban development. Often the network of these policies forms a wider urban policy framework. This indicates that urban policy is a broad field and that broader search terms should be used to capture these differences. Henceforth, the key search words were extended from ‘National Urban Policy’ to yield greater results. The key terms used to do the research included the country name followed by: ‘urban policy’, ‘urbanization’, ‘national planning policy’, ‘national urban development plan’, ‘urban development’, ‘urbanization’, ‘urban strategy’, ‘urban principles’, ‘cities’ and ‘urban governance’.

A wide number of primary and secondary sources were consulted for this research such as: online scholarly papers, previous UN-Habitat documents and reports, NUP documents, master plans, country reports, urban policy journals, interviews both one on one and email with consultants, NUP experts and Habitat Programme Managers (HPMs), review of NUP reports for other regions and other relevant documents containing information about NUP. Web searches in Google scholar and Google were conducted by typing in phrases such as urban policies, urban planning, spatial plan, master plan and national urban policies alongside the name of the specific country. In some cases the terms had to be translated.
Research constraints

The majority of the research conducted was a desk-top study, thus relying predominantly on web available sources. This method of research had its limitations in several ways: to begin with, a national urban policy may in fact exist in a country but could have a different name. Secondly, foreign language barriers may make it difficult to identify a national urban policy from the onset, especially if it has a strong sectoral focus. Furthermore, some governments may not promote their urban policies as explicitly as others, or it may not be available for public viewing. Another possible constraint in the research process that is not as obvious is some countries might have very recent national urban policies that have not been published.

However, reasonable efforts were made by the study team to ensure accuracy and consistency of the information presented in this report. It is inevitable that some errors or few inconsistencies may occur for which the authors take responsibility. Any major issues should be communicated to the corresponding authors.
2

SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA
NUP APPRAISAL
2.1 Sub-Saharan Africa

There are few countries with urban policies south of the Sahara, where average incomes and urbanization levels are low, but the rate of urbanization is generally high. UN-Habitat estimates that 62 per cent of the urban population lives in informal settlements, which is the highest proportion of any region in the world (UN-Habitat, 2012). This reflects the extent of poverty and the rapid urbanization in the region. In addition to this, local governments across the region generally lack technical capacity and financial resources to engage in effective urban planning, infrastructure investment and delivery of adequate housing. There have been some attempts by national governments to devolve responsibilities to local governments since the 1990s, although generally this was done without commensurate resources to fulfil these functions effectively.

2.2 West Africa

As the most rapidly urbanizing sub-region in Africa after Eastern Africa, West Africa has very high growth rates for its cities. Urbanization is the central spatial feature in West Africa’s development pattern. This is especially evident along the West African coastline, where dense urban settlements are found and where urban interconnectedness is strengthened. Economic activities conducted by small, informal sector actors, as well as larger formal actors, are mediated through urban agglomerations along corridors, which extend across borders and sub-regions.

The distinctive features of urbanization in West Africa is the existence of extended urban corridors or ‘ribbon’ developments found along the coast that often cuts across national boundaries. Alongside this is a high level of cross-boundary commuting and migration flows occurring between West African countries. These corridors are now expanding inland, perpendicular to the coast and integrating more places. This has created large and congested agglomerations, at the heart of which are bustling business districts that house high-level political, economic and commercial functions that can afford the high land prices. Lower value formal suburbs, informal settlements and commercial centres occupy the surrounding areas.

The pressure of finding well-located lands and rising prices has resulted in many poor communities in urban areas being exposed to eviction. Furthermore, time-consuming procedures for regularising land tenure are linked with corruption and vested interests, so vulnerable households struggle to obtain security. As a result of this challenge, there is an increasing demand for upgrading and formalizing informal settlements. Community-based organisations have also become more active in pressing for changes in urban management and improving service delivery to its inhabitants. Meanwhile, various land management functions have been devolved from national to local governments in many West African countries, except for land allocation and title registration.

Many governments have ambitious urban land-use plans dating back to colonial and immediate post-colonial times. It has become increasingly apparent that governments are unable to implement them because of the sheer scale of informal settlement growth, the pressure on scarce urban land, the lack of institutional capacity to enforce plans, and the lack of resources to steer growth in the right direction. Efforts have been made to revise out-dated urban planning legislation and adopt more relevant, realistic, flexible and participatory approaches. These efforts have often been facilitated by international donors and related agencies. One of the constraints faced is the reluctance of many governments to release more of the land under their control. Another is the continuing ambivalence over the granting of secure land tenure to poor communities, especially where traditional customary land practices persist.

Western Africa is a populous sub-region, and its large commensurate consumption potential has not gone unnoticed by global markets. Emerging urban middle classes in the sub-region are key to sustaining growth and foreign direct investment. At the sub-regional and national scales, economic growth is largely driven by extractive activities in...
the minerals and energy sectors and agriculture, whereas tertiary sector activities dominate urban economic growth profits.

Deep and often entrenched challenges within cities of the sub region present a complex mix of political sociocultural and socio-economic factors for urban designers, planners and managers to accommodate responsive urban development policies and strategies. (UN-Habitat 2014)

Poverty, informality and inequality are intensified in cities, which consequently host densely populated slums and informal settlements. Informal service provision, trade and employment persist as a central feature of Western African cities. With large proportions of the urban population residing in informal settlements and slums, the ability of local authorities to collect and maintain revenues is low. This renders local authorities unable to provide basic services, address needs of urban citizenry, or plan effectively to accommodate present and future urban growth patterns.

Moreover, lack of regional and local urban infrastructure hampers sub-regional economic growth and development. Key regional infrastructure deficits in logistics and transport, port infrastructure, information and communications technologies (ICT) and energy, persist to the detriment of efficient storage, transportation of goods and people, etc. The scale of investment required to meet infrastructure deficits and future needs provides a challenge that demands regional and international cooperation.

The same will also be necessary to successfully tackle urban resource pressures and threats like climate change and associated natural disasters.

Current and projected climate change impacts in Western Africa take on two broad spatial dimensions; the northern parts of the sub-region, which border the Sahel, are experiencing southward migration towards the semi-arid Sahel, while to the south and south-west of the region, along the coastal belt, the vulnerability of dense urban corridors and agglomerations to climate change-related pressures such as flooding, storm surges, sea-level rise, saline intrusion and coastal erosion is projected to increase. Temperature and precipitation changes (i.e. seasonal changes as well as changes in frequency and intensity of precipitation events) are likely to make food insecurity a real threat to the sub-region.

Coupled with climate change and environmental pressures, conflict and instability also places additional pressures on cities to absorb refugees and internally displaced persons, which often happens in the form of informal settlements. Within cities conflicts over belonging, indigenous claims to land ownership, trading rights, as well as religious differences, manifest in contestations that can at times turn violent and where foreign refugees and economic migrants are targeted.
2.3 Eastern Africa

This region has the fastest growing urban population in the world, coming from a low base with an urbanization level of 21 per cent in 2010 (UN DESA, 2012). East African cities suffer from high rates of unemployment and under-employment, rapid expansion of overcrowded informal settlements, inadequate infrastructure and services, traffic congestion and environmental degradation. Inefficient administrative arrangements, bureaucratic inertia and mismanagement are additional reasons for the poor urban conditions. Governments are overwhelmed by the needs associated with an expanding urban population and informality and as a result of this; informal settlements have become the norm. In fact most countries have at least two-thirds of their populations living in informal settlements (UN-Habitat, 2014). This reality has not been properly acknowledged and policies have not been adjusted accordingly. Within East Africa, there are indications of urban policies in five countries: Ethiopia, Kenya, Uganda and Rwanda which are detailed in major case studies.

As the world’s least urbanized but fastest urbanizing sub-region, its urban population will have increased by 50 per cent by the end of 2020. The total number of urban dwellers in 2040 is expected to be five times that of 2010. It follows, therefore, that Eastern Africa will face huge challenges associated with increasing urbanization; monumental new and additional demands for the provision of adequate and affordable housing and social infrastructure facilities, requisite urban services; and, perhaps most importantly, urban-based income-generation opportunities.

The impacts of continued rapid growth of Eastern African primate cities include acute housing shortages, traffic congestion, pollution and uncontrolled peri-urban sprawl. Significant interventions are currently under way to redevelop existing urban areas and/or establish satellite cities away from the capital to relieve pressures from the main cities and to disperse the urban population.

One of the most important regional projects has been the resuscitation of the Eastern African Community in 2000. This has subsequently expanded to include Burundi, Kenya, Rwanda, Tanzania, Uganda and South Sudan, while Malawi may be considered for future membership. Comprehensive, sequenced road and rail plans have been advocated to link Eastern Africa’s economic centres, in effect transforming the whole region into a coastal economy and liberating much of it from many of the constraints and expenses associated with being landlocked. The success of these plans could obviously have a transformative effect on the overall shape of Eastern Africa’s urbanization patterns. The region’s cities exhibit high levels of poverty and inequality and fast growth of slums and informal settlements.

2.4 Central Africa

This region has some of the largest and fastest growing cities in Africa, partly as a result of civil strife, rural poverty and concentrated political power in the capital cities. The growth of mineral extraction (such as oil, gas, copper and diamonds) has also attracted multinational investment and foreign financial institutions into the major cities. National policies have strongly shaped urban economic progress in the sub region with political power and investments in education, healthcare, industry, roads and other infrastructure concentrated in larger capital cities. This has skewed the distribution of income and wealth across each country and created new classes of upper- and middle-income households in the big cities. Kinshasa (DRC), the
largest city in the region, has an estimated 9 million people and is growing by around 390,000 each year (UN-Habitat, 2014). Luanda (Angola) has 5 million and has to accommodate an additional 276,000 people every year. Yet it was designed by the colonial Portuguese planners to accommodate only about half a million.

Key challenges in these and other fast-growing cities is to improve the allocation and management of urban land, to extend basic services to communities in need, and to find ways of boosting jobs, livelihoods and the subsistence economies relevant to the poor majority of the population. City governance and financial systems tend to be weak in the face of highly centralised governments, which complicate efforts to improve urban planning and management. There is little indication of any overt urban policies in central African countries. However with cases such as Kinshasa and Luanda, there are urban development plans to build satellite cities outside of the main cities.

Although Central Africa is rapidly urbanizing, the sub-region is not expected to reach a region-wide urban majority until around 2030. The Central African Republic and Congo (DRC) are expected to reach urban majorities just before 2040 and Equatorial Guinea at around 2045. With an estimated present day population of over 9 million, Kinshasa continues to dominate Central Africa as the sub-region’s largest and fastest growing urban system.

Although Central Africa is generally rich in oil, minerals, water, forest and biodiversity, cities in the sub-region are characterized by civil strife, extreme poverty and inequality, corruption, as well as a high number of slums and informal settlements. Urban governance in Central Africa is beset by deep institutional failures, which are partly catalysed by, and result in, informal land- and housing acquisition. Recent decentralization efforts have led to additional urban governance problems with municipal institutions not reaching the urban poor to the fullest potential, over-bureaucratization, corruption and nepotistic practices that directly or indirectly give preference to the wealthy and politically connected. Municipalities are largely unable to collect revenues to finance their services.

Private developers cater for the wealthy and lack of formal service provision renders the poor households particularly vulnerable to the increasing costs of water, energy, transport and food. Improving integrated urban service delivery should be key in planning for sustainable development.

5 According to UN-Habitat “Urban governance in Central Africa is beset by deep institutional failures […] Recent decentralization efforts have led to additional urban governance problems with municipal institutions not reaching the poor urban majorities due to low access to funds. Inefficiencies, bureaucracy, corruption and nepotistic practices directly or indirectly favour the wealthy and the politically connected minority while neglecting the larger populace. Municipalities are largely unable to collect revenues to finance their services, leading to uncoordinated piecemeal interventions, while governance is compromised by lack of inclusion mechanisms” (2014, p.201).

2.5 Southern Africa

Southern Africa, the most urbanized region in sub-Saharan Africa, is projected to reach an overall region-wide urban majority around the end of the current decade. Nevertheless, in 2011, only Angola, Botswana and the Republic of South Africa (RSA) had urban majorities. The other countries, apart from Swaziland, are expected to reach that point by 2050. Urbanization has progressed unevenly, between and within countries, and only Lesotho recorded a decline in urbanization levels since 2001.
Southern African cities are extremely vulnerable to climate change impacts. Sea level rise due to global warming and weather unpredictability threaten to directly and indirectly disrupt systems critical to the survival of its cities. With increased prevailing temperatures and changing rainfall patterns, food security is likely to become an increased concern across the sub-region. The encouragement of non-polluting forms of urban and peri-urban agriculture and forestry may contribute to strengthening local food security, especially for some of the urban poor. This can enhance livelihoods, contribute to urban greening initiatives, and mitigate climate change.

While the percentage of people living in slums and informal settlements in Southern Africa is generally lower than the rest of the continent - except for Angola, Mozambique and Zambia - urban planning efforts in Southern African cities face similar challenges to East, West and Northern Africa such as urban sprawl, substantial housing backlogs, poverty and inequality, segregation, slum and informal settlement proliferation within city centres and on the urban peripheries, as well as inadequate infrastructure and service provision.

This region is generally more urbanised than other parts of Sub-Saharan Africa, but the urban population is growing more slowly. The proportion of people living in informal settlements is lower than elsewhere in Africa and the informal economy is smaller too. It is also a relatively wealthy region (at least in part), so the urban transition has been better managed. Of course there are important exceptions – Mozambique, for example, has more in common with East African countries in all these respects. Another distinctive feature of Southern Africa is the high level of social inequality, which was largely inherited from the colonial and segregationist eras. This is visible in the highly segregated pattern of housing, with affluent, leafy suburbs standing in stark contrast to overcrowded townships and informal settlements.

City governments tend to have stronger technical capacity and more resources in Southern Africa compared to the other African regions. There are no examples of comprehensive urban policies in the region, except for South Africa.

Every country has its own status regarding a NUP and this has been outlined below. The questions answered in each of the case studies are:

Does this country have a NUP? If not, does policy guidance exist under a different name? If there is no explicit NUP or policy guidance, are there policies that form an informal framework to guide urbanization? If a NUP or other form of policy guidance exists, what is the date of implementation? What is the implementing agency for the NUP? Is there any particular thematic emphasis (e.g. housing, slum upgrading, local economic development, etc.)? Has there been any evaluation of the NUP? To what extent does the NUP incorporate the four cross-cutting variables (more compact, better integrated and connected, socially inclusive and climate-resilient) cities?
3
COUNTRY CASE STUDIES
### 3.1 Minor Country Case Studies

#### 3.1.1 Benin

Benin does not have an explicit NUP. However, Benin collaborated with the World Bank, to create a 2-phase Adaptable Program Loan (APL) program that is addressed as the ‘Decentralized City Management Project’. The project attempts to formulate national urban strategies and improve the upscaling of services for the low-income urban neighbourhoods. There is a Growth Strategy for Poverty Reduction (2008) that was prepared as a joint effort by the government, World Bank and IMF. It describes the country’s macroeconomics, structural and social policies in support of growth and poverty reduction (IMF, 2008).

Benin is faced with huge spatial imbalance. Thus the strategy involves taking regional disparities into account with a view to greater territorial equity and distribution of social and economic investments as well as sustainability of natural resources. Town and regional planning, environmental protection, and decentralization are highlighted as the main tools to help achieve balanced and sustainable spatial distribution. (IMF 2008)

#### 3.1.2 Botswana

Botswana has ‘good governance’ policies that seek to create opportunities for sustainable development, and are already in use. They form the base for sustainable urban development in the country, but are not sufficient. The national urban policies that are in use include: The National Policy on Housing (NPH) which addresses key elements of the housing sector including institutional capacity building, land, finance, subsidies, rentals, housing standards, building materials and housing legislation as well as guide planners in shelter planning and layout designs for various developments.

Secondly are Urban Development Standards of 1992, used as a guide in the preparation of development plans and detailed layouts in urban areas.

Finally, the National Settlement Policy (NSP) of 1998 aims to provide a comprehensive set of guidelines for national physical planning, and a framework for guiding the distribution of investment in a way that reflects the settlements’ population size, economic potential, level of infrastructure and role as service centres (Keiner & Cavric, 2001). The agency that oversees urban development is the Ministry of Lands and Housing, specifically the Department of Town and Regional Planning. In 2004, The National Settlement Policy was revised to provide guidelines and a long term strategy for the establishment and development of human settlements, as well as for the development of transportation and utility networks to strengthen the functional linkages between settlements. Particular emphasis was put on rationalization and promotion of the optimal use of land and the preservation of the best agricultural land and conservation of natural resources for the benefit of future generations. The policy provides a settlement hierarchy that guides service and infrastructure provision.

The revised Town and Country Planning Act (2013) makes provision for the orderly and progressive development of land in both urban and rural areas and for preservation and improvement of amenities thereof. It provides for the granting of permission to develop land and for powers of control over the use of land. The Act was amended in 2013 and the major issue introduced from the previous Act was the transfer of planning functions from central government to local authorities. The Act established Councils as local planning authorities in an effort to bring services closer to the people and improve service delivery.

#### 3.1.3 Burkina Faso

Burkina Faso has an explicit NUP titled Politique Nationale de l’Habitat et du Développement Urbain (National Housing and Urban Development Policy) formulated in 2008 by the Ministry of Housing and Urban Development. Its principles are based on:
• The Istanbul Declaration of 1996 and the Millennium Development Goals.
• The Strategic Framework for the Fight against Poverty.
• The five-year program of the President of Burkina Faso: “The continuous progress of hope for a society”

The principles of the policy are sustainable urban development, functionality, modernity and authenticity, partnership and citizen participation, aggregation and social cohesion and the principle of equity. The main objectives are housing, economic growth, and development and poverty reduction. The main strategic directions for the National Housing and Urban Development policy are:

• the contribution to the construction of the national urban network and sub-regional levels;
• planning and control of sustainable urban development;
• The promotion of decent housing for all;
• the preservation and enhancement of the national cultural heritage;
• the reduction of urban poverty and the promotion of good urban governance.
• However the country does not have enough capacities to implement the strategy. (Turok 2015).

3.1.4 Burundi

Although it does not have an explicit NUP, Burundi has undergone country assessments and other processes which will eventually contribute to the formulation of a National Urban Policy. Moreover, a national development plan addressed as ‘Vision 2025’ has been introduced to replace the 2006 Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper. This 2011 Plan was prepared as a joint effort by the Ministry of Planning and Communal Development and UNDP, and its section 5.7 is dedicated to sustainable and environmental development and space management through proactive policy of ‘villagisation’ and urbanization. Burundi also has other policies that guide urban development such as the Lettre de Politique Nationale d’Habitat et d’Urbanisation (LPNHU, 2008), focused on housing, and La Lettre de Politique Foncière (2009), which addresses access to land and natural resources, with a particular focus on land tenure and people’s rights.

3.1.5 Cameroon

There is no explicit NUP. However, on September 3rd 2015, the Ministry of Housing and Urban Development (MINHUD) signed a contribution agreement with UN-Habitat to support the preparation of Cameroon’s national urban policy. UN-Habitat would provide technical assistance in kind6. The signing of the agreement followed a feasibility study by UN-Habitat carried out in 2014 on financing and implementing a NUP process. The policy will equip Cameroon with a reference document on sustainable urban development that will act as a real lever for socio-economic transformation.

There are various documents that guide urban planning in the country. The government has also undertaken actions and issued official statements that have affected or have the potential to affect growth and the development of urban communities in the country. The agency responsible for urban development is the Ministry of Housing and Urban Development (Njoh, 1999). In pursuant to Law No. 2004/003, there are four tools to regulate urban planning, namely: the Urban Master Plan (UMP) the Land Use Plan (LUP), the Urban Sketch Plan (USP), and the Area Plan (AP).

The Urban Master Plan is the corner stone of urban planning in Cameroon. It aims to identify

the basic guidelines for developing a city, as well as the general allotment of land and programming of facilities. The Urban Master Plan is enshrined in Cameroon’s law as a strategic planning tool developed for “large” decentralized councils (the City Councils). It defines the government’s long term urban development policy, and makes available a document wherein consistency of all sector policy concerning town planning in the broader sense (housing, economic development, infrastructure, etc.) can be ensured.

Land Use Plans sets, in compliance with the Urban Master Plan where necessary, the general provisions and easements for use and land occupation that are applicable to the entire territory of the council. Urban Sketch Plans are minimum land use plans for councils with modest human and financial resources. An Area Plan is designed for a part of an area that has a Land Use Plan which it must stick to. As a “Pre-operational Document”, it gives the following details on the territory it covers: the organization and technical modalities of land use, facilities and reserved sites, but also the technical and financial characteristics of the infrastructure projects planned (YANGO, 2014).

There is a specific Spatial Master Plan for an industrial port city in western Cameroon known as Kribi. The objective was on the one hand to use the rich mineral resources for the sustainable, economic development of the country, and on the other hand to preserve the large areas of pristine tropical forest by concentrating urban activities (Royal Haskoning DHV, 2014).

Urban development policy in Cameroon is overseen by several institutions for regulation, delivery and financing. Regulatory agencies are responsible for ensuring that land and other related activities, respect building heights and structural standards, residential density, floor area ratio and amenity standards. Delivery agencies are responsible for services provisions and the financial agencies fund the urban development projects.

3.1.6 Cape Verde

There is no overarching explicit policy document to guide urban development. However the legal framework approved by Law 60/VIII/2014 sets out the rules applicable to land division, urbanization, edification and the use and conservation of buildings. Other guidelines are Municipal Master Plans, Urban Development Plans and Detailed Plans. The agency that oversees urban affairs is the Ministry of Territorial Development, Housing and Urban Planning, and other municipal agencies in charge of developing master plans in municipalities.

The Cape Verde Municipal Plans (2014-2016) call for the overhaul and systematic planning and management of urban development in the social, environmental and political-administrative sector to fulfil the premise of building cities7.

3.1.7 Central African Republic

There is no current NUP. According to World Bank’s report on CAR’s Urban Environmental Rehabilitation Project in 1996, the government had an urban policy and strategy which had materialized into a Municipal Development Program (PDM) in 1993. Its main objectives include restructuring haphazard settlements, improving urban planning, expanding serviced sites in peripheral area, poverty relief through job creation, and setting-up new entities to finance and execute urban investment. At the time of the report in 1996, the project finance agency was not yet operational. The most recent strategies on urban development are contained in the Sub-Saharan Africa Transport Policy Program of 2007. The main agency that oversees urban development in the country is the Ministry of Reconstruction and Urban Planning.

3.1.8 Chad

There is no explicit NUP. There have been efforts to improve urban development, which includes the preparation of Urban Development Plans for N’Djamena and several secondary cities, as well

as city-specific, sectoral, development agency-backed urban development projects, e.g. the Urban Development and Housing Improvement Project and the Additional Financing for Urban Development Project.

Current activities are conducted through a document called “Stratégie Nationale du Logement” which was elaborated with UN-Habitat technical support since 1999. The Stratégie Nationale du Logement seeks the improved financing of settlements, materials and production.

But this document is already obsolete and Chad uses the UN-Habitat Country Programme Document instead, which was revised in 2010. The Government is expected to formulate a formal document of national policy in 2015 with the support of UN-Habitat and UNDP through the project "DURAHI III".

3.1.9 Comoros

There is no explicit NUP. There are also no urban development plans or an urban planning scheme. The country has strategic planning tools such as a Diagram or Planning Blueprint for planning, which foresees the implementation of infrastructure necessary for the development of the country. The Government is committed to its plan of action 2011-2016 to create conditions that will foster the development of a diagram of Spatial Planning across the country, and should help build cities and communities from local development. There are also plans to set up a register to better secure land rights and reduce the risk of many conflicts that undermine social peace.

A Law on Urban Planning and Construction was enacted in 2012 to regulate buildings but also allow communities to have an urban planning tool.

In the area of land, the state was able to prepare a draft document entitled "National Registration Program Properties built and unbuilt" which should lead to the development of a cadastre. This can’t be done without political will and resources. The political will is there, it remains to convince development partners to fund these actions.

3.1.10 Congo

There is no overarching explicit policy document for urban development. There is however an urban transport policy guiding transportation in urban areas. The agency responsible for urban development is the Ministry of Planning. Besides development agency backed sectoral urban development projects, urban development is mentioned as part of the National Development Plan 2012-2016, in terms of projects to improve infrastructure, social housing and social development. Weak institutional and technical tools for urban management are highlighted as among the challenges. Key actions called for also include reform of urban planning, development of urban plans and improved land management.

3.1.11 Equatorial Guinea

There is no explicit NUP; however, the country does have a National Development Plan, which is addressed as the ‘Horizon 2020 Development Plan’, or the ‘National Socio-Economic Development Plan’. Despite having described the first phase focus of the plan as infrastructure and service implementation, the main topic of the plan seeks to diversify the economy, with the ultimate goal to reduce the country’s dependency on oil industry. The five major aims of the plan include:

- invest in strengthening economic growth;
- strengthen the development of structured investments;
- promote and strengthen the development of social policy actions;
- Ensure a transparent social climate;
- Develop the prospects for better monitoring and evaluation of poverty and living conditions of households.

8 The term “development agency” is used to refer to groups such as the World Bank, UN-Habitat, The Cities Alliance, the IMF, Deutsche Gesellschaft für International Zusammenarbeit (GIZ), USAID, United Cities and Local Governments (UCLG), various European governments and their international development departments, e.g. the UK Department for International Development (DFID).
The Ministry of Town Planning is responsible for urban planning activities. Through the Horizon 2020 Development Plan, 50 per cent of urban and local plans for all the cities in the country had been developed by 2012.

3.1.12 Eritrea

There is no explicit NUP. There are however Master Plans for cities such as Asmara developed by the councils of the cities. The Department of Urban Development (in the Ministry of Public works) is the national body responsible for urban planning, and it actively provides technical assistance to towns either directly or through the use of private consultants. Eritrea also has the Housing/Urban development Policy Report (2005) and the National Indicative Development Plan (2014-2018).

3.1.13 Gabon

There is no explicit NUP. The lead agency responsible for urban affairs is the Ministry of Housing and Accommodation, Town Planning, Environment and the Sustainable Development; and the Ministry for Equipment, Infrastructures and Town and Country Planning, under which spatial planning falls. There are however plans to develop a strategy for habitat and national urban development in Gabon, whereby a diagnostic study was already conducted, and a report prepared with the help of UNDP. The report centers on the existing situation with regards various components of urban development and possible strategic directions for every component.

3.1.14 Gambia

There is no explicit NUP. However, the country's spatial development planning goes back to mid-1980's with the Physical Development Plan of the Greater Banjul Area, based on the 1984 Physical Planning Act. Other national urban development documents, including urban plans and spatial information are out-dated. However the country is currently planning to develop a NUP, and this was raised in the country's Poverty Reduction Strategy Report. The agency that oversees urban development is the Ministry of Local Government and Lands.

3.1.15 Guinea

There is no explicit NUP. However, IMF’s Enhanced Structural Adjustment Facility Report 1998-2000 for Guinea suggests that the country has its urban development policy, which aims to improve access for the majority of the urban population to urban services and infrastructure. The preparation of Master Plans for development and urban growth will be continued within this policy framework. The government is also expected to set up appropriate institutions, mechanisms, and regulations for the implementation of policies such as housing finance (IMF, 2000).

3.1.16 Guinea Bissau

The country does not have an explicit NUP. The lead urban agency is Ministry of Public Works, Construction and Urbanism. The country has established a ‘National Regional Planning Policy’ (IMF, 2011). Besides, the government adopted the General Civil Construction and Urban Housing Regulation Law and enacted the Regional Planning and Urban Development Law. The Real Estate Development Agency was also created to further improve the lives of people. However, details of the aforementioned policies and agency remain untraceable in English.

According to the Second Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper prepared by the IMF and World Bank, measures will include: the development and implementation of aforementioned policies and laws, the process of urban restructuring and rehabilitation in the cities of Guinea Bissau, the renovation and building of urban infrastructure, the creation of green spaces in urban areas; and the reinforcement of national capacities in urban planning, GIS and topographic mapping (IMF, 2011). Infrastructure and Urban development have been highlighted as one of the key six necessary portfolios in the Operational Plan for Guinea-Bissau 2015-2020 Strategy for development of the country, with land planning and urban development highlighted as an immediate goal to renovate and build principal urban centers in the country.

3.1.17 Lesotho

There is no explicit NUP. The country has a National Strategic Development Plan 2012-2016 as a medium term implementation strategy towards achieving the goals set out in the National Vision 2020 aspirations. It considers factors such as economy, governance, infrastructure, skills development and environmental issues. Currently, Lesotho does not have a housing policy, although there was a national housing policy in the late 1980s which was never implemented. There is also a draft National Shelter Policy that advocates transparent, efficient, consistent and equitable shelter delivery (UN-Habitat, 2015).

3.1.18 Liberia

There is no explicit NUP in Liberia. The documents used to guide urban development include: Liberia Master plan of 2013 and the Liberia Planning Law. The zoning laws dates back to the 1950s and are seemingly outdated. The Master Plan provides a framework for urban development and places emphasis on zoning and locating land use activities on space. The agency in charge of urban development is the Ministry of Internal Affairs at the Department of Urban Affairs.

3.1.19 Mali

The country has an explicit National Urban Policy known as “Politique Nationale de La Ville” (National Urban Policy). It was formulated on February 6th, 2004 by the leading Ministry of Planning and Urban Policy. The policy aims at improving quality of life through planning, the improvement of city management, the reinforcement of local economy, and the enhancement of social cultural diversity. It has social inclusivity as one of its goals and a pillar of enhancing social cultural diversity. It is also aims at enhancing sustainability though ecological sustainability although the climate change resilience agenda is not well spelt out.

Cities Alliance (2013: 74) states: “Mali has a countrywide city development strategy elaborated in 2009 by the Ministry of Urban Planning and a city development strategy focusing on ‘secondary cities’ and ‘frontier cities’ since their appearance in the wake of decentralisation and cross-border cooperation.” However, no supporting documentation for this could be found in English. Several projects and programs related to urban upgrading are being carried out in Bamako (2002).

Urban Development Plans (UDP), produced during the start-up phase of the Urban Development and Decentralization Project in Bamako and the country’s eight regional capitals, also exist. However most of these plans and polices are rarely implemented due to lack of capacity and local resources (Diop et al, 2010). Urban planning is also mentioned as part of the country’s Poverty Reduction and Growth Strategy. Development agency-backed programmes include the Social Development of Neighbourhoods: Sigida Kura Program, and the Bamako Urban Development Support Program (PDUB).

The government is currently seeking UN-Habitat support to develop a NUP with a focus on housing (UN-Habitat, 2015).

3.1.20 Mauritius

There is no explicit NUP, but a National Development Strategy. This acts as the overall guiding framework for urban development with its main focus being land use planning. The Ministry of Housing and Lands is the national institution responsible for urban development. The strategy enhances sustainable development by incorporating the three pillars of stimulating economic growth and employment, environmental protection, and social progress recognizing the needs of all people.

Besides this, urban development is mentioned as part of the Third Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSPIII) Action Plan. This involves improved housing for the poor, as well as programmes for the improvement of infrastructure and service provision in slums in several cities. Greater strides need to be made in terms of developing and updating urban...
planning regulations and tools, improved governance, and access to finance in order for the goals to be fully realized and projects to be implemented in more cities.

3.1.21 Mozambique

Mozambique does not have an explicit National Urban Policy. However, with the support of several development agencies such as Cities Alliance, the Mozambique Country Programme aims to align urban development efforts at the national, municipal and community levels by helping the government to scale-up inclusive urban development policies, build cities’ capacity to strategically manage their urbanization, empower community organisations to engage in city development, and strengthen municipal level government.

Such efforts include Strategic Action Planning in specific cities such as Maputo since the 1980s. The program used land redistribution to control housing demand, curb unplanned urban expansion and, in so doing, create desirable and equitable urban form. Maputo’s pioneering Strategic Action Planning approach now (21st century) continues as a cultural model within society, with many poor and better-off residents seeing the original master plan, thirty years later, as an ideal urban form, but with one major difference. A shift from public to private providers of land distribution highlights an unwillingness to provide land for public open spaces or spaces for social amenities such as schools and health clinics (Andersen & Jenkins, 2011).

The country is experiencing rapid urbanization and fast economic growth associated with mineral extraction, including coal and natural gas. All land is nationalized, which is an advantage in many respects. However, it also means that people migrating to the cities may be inclined to occupy land without authorization since the government is less aggressive about preventing land invasions than other types of landowners.

3.1.22 Namibia

The government of Namibia is in the process of developing an explicit NUP. The Namibian NUP has land reform as one of its main priorities with a particular interest in highlighting its connection between poor people’s right to lands and access to basic services. The other main focuses are creating environmentally sound basic urban infrastructures and services, and lastly to strengthen human settlements finance systems.

3.1.23 Niger

Niger’s NUP is the National Urban Development Strategy, which forms part of Niger’s Accelerated Development and Poverty Reduction Strategy, 2008-2012. This includes an Urban Planning and Development Scheme (SDAU) developed in 2004 and a law providing guidance on urban land planning passed in 2010. However, despite the progress in establishing the institutional and legal framework for urban development, there has been insufficient implementation of the National Urban Development Strategy, largely due to lack of political will, and poor mobilization of facilitating partners. Moreover, subdivision plans are inadequately prepared.

3.1.24 Sao Tome and Principe

There is no explicit NUP. The country has a National Planning Document (NPD) that dates back to 1977 which promotes balanced and parsimonious use of land, while taking consideration of protecting resources for future generations. The government also advocates an ongoing project, Urban Development Support of Sao Tome and Principe, focusing on three interrelated areas:

- Spatial Planning;
- Housing policy and nonconventional methodology for construction;
- Structuring and management of the social development funds (Da Gama & Flavio, 2015)
3.1.25 Senegal

There is no explicit NUP. Senegal however has a development agency backed and funded by local urban development programmes, such as the Programme d’Appui aux Communes (PAC, 1998-2010) and more recently, the Programme d’Equipement des Collectivités Locales (Precol, 2006-2010). These had a substantial positive impact on infrastructure in several towns. Other programmes include Joint Ventures Italy-Senegal for Sustainable Urban Development11. Many codes are approved separately in different urban fields (construction, urbanism, and environment) without real coordination. These codes are legal documents with no participation or policy orientation.

Large urban development occurs under the umbrella of “Pôles urbains” (Urban Hubs).

3.1.26 Seychelles

There is no explicit NUP. The Town and Country Planning Authority is the authorizing body for all land development proposals today, it is also in charge of approving all infrastructure projects. The Town and Country Planning Act (1972) has been the main instrument to dealing with land use and development. Besides, the Environment Impact Assessment Process and the Planning Authority Process have been enacted to provide a framework for integrating environmental and developmental issues in decision-making.

3.1.27 Sierra Leone

There is no explicit NUP. However the country has established the importance of national urban policy, and has been seeking external assistance with reviewing and establishing urban related policies.

The government partnered with UN-Habitat in 2006, in updating its National Housing Policy as well as tackling informal settlements. A National Urban Transport Policy was also developed to improve urban mobility in Freetown and beyond. Sierra Leone has also actively participated in UN-Habitat's African Urban Agenda Programme, and has developed the Comprehensive National Land Policy, and drafted the New Planning Law and National Development Framework.

3.1.28 South Sudan

South Sudan has a draft NUP, with the first version released in June 2012 as a draft urbanization policy framework. The ministry in charge is the Ministry of Housing and Physical Planning. The main thematic areas which the policy has emphasized are economic development, environment, urban safety, social development, and urban services and design. The policy is undergoing review. The Government of South Sudan plans to use the framework to develop a National Urban Policy.

3.1.29 Swaziland

There is no explicit NUP. The lead agency for urbanization is the Ministry of Housing and Urban Development. The country’s first version of the Housing Policy (1987 & 1993) has been replaced by a New Housing Policy in 2000, which benefited from the Second United Nations Conference on Human Settlements (Habitat II). With its vision stating as that ‘all Swazi households should have access to affordable shelter and services’, it further specifies its objectives as to:

1. Improve access to land with secure tenure for those households seeking to house themselves.

2. Support the development of a property market through financing, building and planning processes and regulations.

3. Assure the rights of both landlords and tenants in the rental market.

4. Ensure that service is affordable to the household.
5. Use construction methods and materials that reduce the cost of housing and promote employment creation.

6. Use economic activities on to improve household incomes and affordability standing.

The Physical Infrastructure Sectoral Strategy guides the country’s human settlements and shelter matters. The following strategies are embedded:

1. Land use and tenure
2. Affordability
3. Finance
4. Efficiency of service delivery.

However, there is no attempt to address the urbanization matters in the above strategies.

3.1.30 Tanzania

There is no explicit NUP. Development agency backed programmes include Safer Cities Dar es Salaam and the Sustainable Cities Programme. There are ongoing discussions and processes with UN-Habitat to assess assistance in developing a NUP. The ministry in charge of planning is the Ministry of Lands, Housing and Human Settlements Development. The other instruments guiding urban development include: Tanzania Master Plan 2012-2032 which forms a framework for all development programmes in the country. The focus areas are economic strategies, social proposals, environment and infrastructure, governance and implementation as well as design guidelines. There is also a legislation known as the Urban Planning Act no. 8 of 2007, which provides guidelines for urban development. There are also planning standards for urban land use planning which form a basis for urban development at the city level.

3.1.31 Togo

Togo is currently in the process of drafting a NUP with the help of UN-Habitat, for which a diagnostic report has already been prepared. The agency responsible for urban development is the Ministry of Cities and Town Planning.

The need for improved access to decent housing led the Government to adopt in June 2009 a National Housing Strategy (SNL), which promotes the facilitation of industry activities based on the full mobilization of the potential and resources of public and private stakeholders. The SNL’s main objective is to provide decent housing for all, but especially to low- and middle-income families. This includes affordable housing meeting minimum safety standards, occupancy and structural and temporal stability, conveniently served by infrastructure and, if possible, close to the workplace and community facilities; thus promoting integrated development. The actions in the context of SNL revolve around three main strategies: reorganization of the housing sector; improvement of the national housing stock; and mobilization and judicious allocation of financial resources. Its implementation program (National Housing Programme) had 14 projects that ended in 2014.

Between 1974-1975 the Togolese government gained more awareness of the problems of uncontrolled urban growth, especially in the city of Lomé. A housing policy has been developed as part of the 3rd Five Year Plan (1976-1980), which would allow the authorities to achieve the mastery of urban land. Until that time, the state hardly intervened in the urban sector as a whole, except when running the German Urban Plan in 1898.

The 2001 Declaration of National Policy on the Urban Sector stemmed from the need to improve the living conditions of the population and fight poverty in urban areas. Thus in 1995, the Government had set up, with financial support from the World Bank, the Urban Development Project of Lomé (PDU-Lomé) which allowed:

- The implementation of priority urban work for the improvement of transport and traffic conditions as well as environmental and health conditions;
- The promotion of small and medium enterprises in the construction sector and public works thanks to the work of high labour intensity;
• The participation of citizens in activities to improve the urban environment, with support for community participation in the neighbourhood;

• A review of the urban sector through a series of studies, aiming at the definition of a sectoral strategy and institutional strengthening, and which resulted in the Urban Sector Policy Statement by Decree No. 2001-63 / PR of 9 March 2001.

3.1.32 Uganda

A draft for an explicit National Urban Policy was developed in 2013 and is still under review with the assistance of UN-Habitat. The responsible body is the Ministry of Lands, Housing & Urban Development. The main emphasis of the policy is balanced, sustainable and organized urban development, which addresses the current urbanization challenges. Ugandan cities have been largely unplanned, with high rates of extensive physical growth, poor alignment between sectoral and spatial planning, inadequate provision of basic services, weak urban managerial capacity, a deficient legal framework and significant financial constraints. Developing and implementing a NUP seems vital for the country’s urban future.

Uganda’s Ministry of Housing, Land and Urban Development is responsible for implementing the NUP. Its main responsibility is physical planning. Over time, it has gradually increased its external profile, political influence and technical capacity within government by introducing practical programmes to deliver services and infrastructure in selected cities.

3.1.33 Zambia

There is no explicit NUP. However, Zambia has recently taken tentative steps towards establishing an urban policy. There was a National Urban Renewal Programme stipulated in the Sixth National Development Plan, 2011-2015, which aims to rehabilitate municipal infrastructure and housing and improve spatial planning. The authority responsible for urban affairs is the Ministry of Local Government and Housing, and City and Municipal Councils. These are all recognized planning authorities under the Town & Country Planning Act.

Following a national conference in April 2013, a discussion document was produced that reviewed urban trends and made the case for a national urban policy to plan and manage urbanization more carefully. UN-Habitat has been supporting the process with technical advice. Other planning documents used include: Regional Plans prepared by regional planning authorities; Structure Plans and Local Plans (which may be prepared by the planning authority on the directive of the Minister or Director in charge of planning). All these are guided by the framework of Town & Country Planning Act. Other guiding regulations are the National Housing Authority Act and Housing (Statutory & Improvement Areas) Act.

Currently, the capital Lusaka is experiencing strong growth pressures, resulting in sprawling informal settlements, inadequate services and traffic congestion. Several mining towns in the north are also experiencing pressures of in-migration in a context of poor infrastructure.

3.1.34 Zimbabwe

There is no explicit NUP. There are, however, other documents discussed below that guide urban development.

At independence, the Department of Physical Planning (DPP) was tasked of locating nine focal points of urban development by making provision for infrastructure development and treating the matter with urgency. Development of the growth points in the post-independence era, GoZ (1991) asserts, “had to be done in so short a period that it had to be visible to the rural population as a matter of urgency”. This was the Growth Point Strategy. In principle, the plan is to identify potential areas for economic growth, which would curb rural-urban drift and facilitate decentralisation of economic activities in pursuance of the “growth with equity” policy. Zvobgo, was quoted as saying in 1982: “rural
service centres and district rural service centres form the linchpin of our strategy to redress the imbalance between the rich and poor areas and bring about a better life for all.” (Paradza and Mukondiwa, 2005). The implementation of the Growth Point / Rural Service Centre Strategy was geared towards the translating the Growth with Equity (GWE) Policy into a spatial reality.

3.2  Major Case Studies

3.2.1  Angola

Angola is one of the African countries that have undergone severe crises which has really affected their status and pattern of urbanization. The country has a moderately high rate of urbanization of up to 4.4% (2011). It is a former Portuguese colony that gained independence approximately 40 years ago. After independence, the country experienced civil war for approximately 27 years, a period during which the country's infrastructure was destroyed and its development slowed down. The war forced millions of people to seek refuge in Luanda, the capital city; which currently houses 21% of the country's population. The government considered them to be displaced people who would move home after the war, and it only catered for temporary services. However, the protracted war meant that most people settled permanently in Luanda. The city was planned for half a million people, but it currently has five million and is growing by 280,000 more each year (5.8 per cent per annum) (UN-Habitat, 2014).

There is no NUP in Angola yet it faces formidable urbanization challenges especially in the capital city, Luanda. The country grapples with three main problems: the governance of urban areas, housing, and infrastructure, in a post conflict situation. In response to these challenges, the government developed the “Urbanization Strategy” for developing new towns. This ‘Urbanization Strategy’ attracted Chinese investors who financed the projects and assisted in developing housing and infrastructure. This is being done through oil-bank loans either under China–Angola bilateral cooperation or private contracts. The lead agency in charge of urban development for the country is Ministério do Urbanismo e Construção, (MINUC).

Despite the challenges, Angola has a strong GDP due to a good mineral reserve. However, issues of informal settlement proliferation remain prominent. The country now has up to 75% of the urban dwellers living in informal settlements (mussekes) (Benazeraf & Alves, 2014). Housing a fast-growing population became a key challenge in the post-civil war context. A total of 100,000 hectares of land around Luanda, Benguela, Namibe, Lubango and Malange were reserved for the housing programme in order to build satellite towns, called ‘new centralities’ (novas centralidades) or ‘new cities’ (novas cidades).

This programme illustrates the problem of approaching urban challenges exclusively from a project perspective. Indeed, the built cities/projects are not adapted to the local socio-economic environment and have remained largely unoccupied. This is an indication of insufficient preparation in terms of developing city plans or policy guidelines such as a NUP for the whole country.

Angola exemplifies a country that approached urbanisation without developing a strategy considering existing housing and infrastructure. This stresses the importance of a National Urban Policy as a reference document to all developers and development stakeholders in all project phases.

Angola, as a coastal country, is threatened by climate change impacts as a result of sea level rise. This could be addressed in the national urban policy being a qualifier of UN-Habitat new generational NUPs. The country has a relative high GDP due to the resources as oil and gas resources, diamonds, hydroelectric potential, and rich agricultural land. This is however contrary to the status of the country and even the cities in the country as the economy is doing quite well yet majority of the people still lives in slums. Angola has shown interest towards formulating a NUP and is considered in its prefeasibility phase.
3.2.2 Democratic Republic of Congo

The Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) has an area of 2.3 million sq. km and no fewer than 40% of the nearly 77 million inhabitants live in urban areas (CIA World Fact book, 2015). DRC has 80 million hectares of arable land and over 1,100 minerals and precious metals; the DRC has the potential to be one of the richest countries on the African continent and a driver for African growth. However, poverty remains high, even though it fell from 71% in 2005 to 63% in 2012. The DRC ranks second to last on the Human Development Index (186 out of 187 countries), and its per capita income, which stood at US$220 in 2012, is among the lowest in the world.\(^\text{12}\)

There is no explicit NUP. There are however, development agency-backed, city-specific, and sectoral urban development projects, e.g. the DRC Urban Development Project and the DRC Emergency Urban and Social Rehabilitation Project. The lead agency responsible for urban development is the Ministry of Planning. The 1957 decree gives the Planning Department the task of defining the allocation of land development plans, and the Authority of Land Affairs establishes the occupation of land titles. The decree establishes in Chief Towns of each province, a city planning commission. Under this decree, housing estates and buildings for the government and private owners are subject to the prior approval of the District Commissioner for Cities, and Provincial Governor for other localities.

Urban development has been guided since the colonial period by the same documents and legislation contained in the Decree on Urbanism of 1957, though the urban population and urban needs have changed significantly since the 1950’s, thus rendering the document obsolete. Its urbanization rate (4.19%) is relatively high and must urgently be addressed. However, several factors have exacerbated the obsolescence of the decree. Among these factors are:

- The non-adaptation of the text since the independence of the country and the emergence of new institutions and national bodies;
- The rapid acceleration of urbanization;
- A very low production of urban plans, which are essential complements to national planning regulations;
- The ambiguity of the provisions of the Land Law, which has created conflicts of jurisdiction between the services of Land Affairs and those of Urbanism, and led to many contradictions with the Urban planning rules subdivisions;
- The instability of the department of Urban Development and Housing (attached successively to several ministries).

The current urban governance structure is centralized with limited participation, meaning that pressing needs are not immediately addressed. Conflicts have crippled the manufacturing sector and thus fewer jobs are available in cities every day. Immigration into urban areas worsens the economic situation and perpetuates urban poverty. Communities are rendered vulnerable to many urbanisation vagaries. The low income groups, that comprise the majority of the population in DRC cities, are most affected (Misilu et al, 2014).

DRC is an example of a country which has managed urbanization over time using outdated documents. Much emphasis has also been put on specific plans, with no overarching urbanization policy.

The Habitat III report has emphasized the need for spatial plans for urban areas in the DRC, citing its high rate of urbanization. There is a specific proposal to develop urban development plans for 10 cities.

In the DRC, a NUP is needed to address the pressing rapid urban growth, improve access to economic opportunities, streamline urban governance, help mainstream the legal and regulatory framework in the urban and territorial planning and management real, and devolve urban governance. This will strengthen local capacities and enable a sustainable planning framework.

3.2.3 Cote D’Ivoire

Côte d’Ivoire (Ivory Coast), is located in western Africa on the Gulf of Guinea. Its neighbours are Liberia, Guinea, Mali, Burkina Faso, and Ghana. The country consists of a coastal strip in the south, dense forests in the interior, and savannas in the north. Côte d’Ivoire was originally made up of numerous isolated settlements; today it represents more than sixty distinct tribes, including the Baoule, Bete, Senoufou, Agni, Malinke, Dan, and Lobi. The nation’s economy is one of the most developed in sub-Saharan Africa. It is the world’s largest exporter of cocoa and one of the largest exporters of coffee.

Urban policy in Côte d’Ivoire has evolved over time since 1928. However, the country does not have an explicit NUP. The country has mainly had city development plans specially geared towards the major cities. Projects on urban development for various land use categories have been developed from the city development plans. The plans have however failed due to financial inadequacies that have seen partial implementation of the activities set out in the development plans. The funding of urban development and housing in urban areas has been abandoned by the state and is now planned by local authorities and implemented by the private sector.

In the planning of urban infrastructure and development, the government has promoted decentralization thorough the law No. 78-07 of 9 January 1978 that became effective in 1980. The current urban management regime advocates for decentralization of responsibilities from central to local government and a redistribution of responsibilities. There is an emerging collaboration between different stakeholders to foster partnerships towards urban development. Urban communities now have more power to conceive their own development. The decentralized structures (Municipalities) are tasked to modernize and improve the living environment, manage land and the environment (Kuchelmeister, 1999).

Key laws relating to the establishment of urban decentralization in Côte D’Ivoire include:

- In 1978, Law No. 78–07 of January 9, 1978 established 28 fully-fledged communes and set up a uniform system of communes in the country.
in Côte d’Ivoire, particularly with the increase in the number of communes. It enabled municipalities to take over direct government interventions.

- In 2001, a new policy direction in decentralization was instituted through orientation Law No. 2001–476 of August 9, 2001 on the general organization of the territorial administration, which set up five levels of decentralized local authorities. These are from the lowest to the highest level communes, towns, departments, districts, and regions.

- Under Law No. 2003–208 of July 7, 2003, a wide range of responsibilities was in theory devolved to local authorities. The decentralization process is the result of a gradual restructuring of the former municipal system governed by French colonial-era laws, starting with the creation of the first Ivorian commune.

- In 2012, however, in a move to rationalize the system, the government decided to postpone the plan to establish communes throughout the national territory, and reverted to a simpler structure: 197 communes\(^{13}\) (municipalities), and 31 regions. 14 supra-regions have now emerged of these, two are autonomous districts—Abidjan and Yamoussoukro—while the other 12 supra-regions are not formal decentralized entities.

Today, the new policy of the government in matters of urban development concentrates on elaborating and promoting urban planning documents unknown or ignored by people during development activities. Disregard or different interpretations of these laws is the main cause of urban disorder observed in Abidjan. The Ministry of Construction also wants to develop a master plan for sewerage and drainage and to set up a national policy concerning sanitation.

For Abidjan city, the first Master Plan called “Plan d’Aménagement de la ville d’Abidjan” (Abidjan City Development Plan) was set up in 1928 under colonization period. The second plan financed in 1952 called ‘Plan Badani’ was set to change the nature of the city and some new activities appeared. Port, industrial and commercial activities were developed in this plan in addition to administrative and residential functions contained in the 1928 plan. These were followed by “SETAP2 plan” in 1960, the 1969 plan, 1974 plan, 1985 plan and the last one, those of 2000 called “Grand Abidjan”. All of these plans developed specific schemes for pursuing modernization though urban projects focusing on housing and infrastructures. In 1962, the Politique de la Planification Urbaine en Côte d’Ivoire (Urban planning policy in Ivory Coast) was enacted.

To support the Planning documents in city development are Regulatory documents. These include planning permissions (Certificat d’Urbanisme, C.U), prior to planning (Accord Préalable d’Urbanisme, A.P.U), building permits (Permis de Construire, P.C) and special planning regulations (Règlement Particulier d’Urbanisme, R.P.U). The planning permission is delivered by the Ministry of Construction and includes information concerning the possibility of use and construction on a land under applicable planning regulations. The building permit is the main control instrument of the administration. When delivered, it authorizes the land developer to conform to construction patterns and Master Plan details. The certificate of conformity (Certificat de Conformité, C.C) is a document delivered to approve the conformity of construction regarding the regulatory and norms of urban planning.

The lead agencies or actors in urban development are classified into public and private agencies; the public ones being the Ministry of Construction, Sanitation and Urban Planning, the Ministry of Housing Promotion, the Governorate of Abidjan district, and the communes. With the private ones being village communities, private real estate companies, individuals and financial institutions.

Côte d’Ivoire is an example of a country that has shown interest in urban policies and urban development but has no explicit NUP. The country has had master plans for: 1928, 1959, 1960, 1969,
1974, 1985 and 2000 which show the interest in urban development. There are other documents which have been classified as forecasting planning documents, operational planning documents and regulatory documents. Forecasting planning are prospective planning documents in which the expansion plan of the city, the building areas and unsuitable areas for construction, and the layout of infrastructure are set. There are urban master plans, planning and development programme, and structure diagram (schéma de structure). Operational planning documents are documents needed to implement or achieve the forecast plan in order to systematically monitor city development. These documents are master plan details which complete the city master plan and establish patterns of land use according to land parcels. There is also land subdivision which is in operation to subdivide a land for various uses (housing, infrastructure, garden and greening space, business areas and offices). A restructuring plan seeks to modernize and equip the existing land sectors.

3.2.4 Ethiopia

Ethiopia is located in the horn of Africa bordered by Eritrea to the north, Kenya to the south, Djibouti to the north east Somalia to the east, South Sudan to the south west and Sudan to the North West. It has over eighty unique ethnic, cultural and Indigenous linguistic groups and is the most populous land locked country in the world. The country is one of the two in Africa that was never colonized but became a colonizer of Eritrea. The supremacy of the capital; Addis Ababa is alarming as it hosts approximately half of the country’s urban population. Addis Ababa is more than 10 times larger than the second largest city in Ethiopia and is the seat of the African Union as well as the headquarters of the United Nations of Economic Commission for Africa.

Ethiopia is a country with favourable climate, and is endowed with water and vast land resources and a high population growth and strong labour force. However, Ethiopia is now recognized as the second poorest country in the world (UNDP, 2010) when evaluated in terms of the new international measure of poverty, Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) which employs the combination of the three dimensions’ health, education, and standard of living to assess the level of poverty in a country.

The country was initially considered to be under-urbanized compared to the other African countries and was considered a rural country. This has been attributed by some authors to the successful agricultural practice in rural Ethiopia. The country has however joined the African countries in rapid urbanization rates. The urban population has been increasing and is projected to reach 22million people by 2020 (Ministry of Works and Urban Development, 2006). This rapid urbanization, coupled with high levels of poverty, is undoubtedly set to increase the population of the urban poor. This of course increases the likeliness of informal settlements arising and approximately 70% of urban population in Ethiopia lives in slums (UN-HABITAT, 2008). The main challenge arising from this has been housing and it had been approximated that there needs to be a production of 225,000 housing units to curb the housing crisis (Ministry of Works and Urban Development, 2007).

The country developed an Urban Development Policy in 2005 to interlink developed urban centres and make them internationally competitive, capable of serving as democracy and development centres in their locality by ensuring efficient service delivery, suitability for residence and adherence to development plans. The policy has been reviewed and now places emphasis on urban governance as a means of implementing and incorporating urban development in the development agenda. The review seems to approve the contribution of urban development policy in controlling urban development despite raising gaps in the policy.

Ethiopia has a long history of centralisation of decision-making and public service delivery. It has a strong regional sphere of government, and during the 1990s went through a process of devolution of powers and functions to local government, especially in Addis Ababa and Dire Dawa. Both cities have, in a sense, been elevated to the same level of authority of the nine Ethiopian states (UN-Habitat,
Urban areas have only had functioning local governments since 2000. There has also been a parallel process of fiscal decentralization to give city authorities more direct control over public spending. The level of urbanization in Ethiopia is only 17%, and the recent recognition of the importance of cities is therefore less surprising than elsewhere.

Ethiopia has introduced several important development programmes with an urban focus. The Urban Local Government Development Project (ULGP) is one of the widest in scope, encompassing 19 different cities. Since its launch in 2008, these cities have made improvements in planning, budgeting, financial management, procurement, revenue mobilization and project execution. Cities are beginning to manage their assets better and starting to improve their delivery of services and infrastructure. Citizens have also been given more scope than in the past to influence decisions about priority services and infrastructure in their areas of jurisdiction.

Ethiopia has an explicit NUP entitled National Urban Development Policy (2005). The policy was formulated in 2005 by Ministry of Urban Development and Construction. The main theme of the National Urban Development Policy was founded on the Agricultural Development Led Industrialization (ADLI), Industrial Development Strategy, federalism, democratization and civil service reform. Urban-rural linkages are a theme explored in the National Urban Policy as it states that the speed, extent and focus of urban development is dependent on rural development and vice versa. It emphasizes the importance of democracy and good governance for sustainable urban development. As per the Structure Plan 2012 some of the components of the policy are already being implemented.

The National Urban Development Policy Framework was approved in 2005. This policy was to be the vehicle for the implementation of the urban component of PASDEP (Accelerated and Sustained Development to end Poverty 2005/06-2009/10). However, limited resources and capacity have hampered the implementation process. Development agency backed projects include the City development Strategy for Ethiopia (Addis Ababa) and the Urban Local Government Development Project.

In addition to the urban policy, there are also other regulations such as the Proclamation to Provide for Urban Plans (Proclamation No. 574/2008, asserting the needs to regulate and guide urban centres with sound and visionary urban plans to bring about balanced and integrated national, regional and local development; to create a favourable and an enabling environment for public and private stakeholders to fully participate in the process of urban plan initiation, preparation and implementation on the basis of national standards; to regulate the carrying out of development undertakings in urban centres without detrimental effects to the general well-being of the community as well as the protection of natural environment; and to replace existing urban planning laws with a comprehensive legislation which takes into account the federal structure of government and the central role of urban centres in urban plan preparation and implementation.

The Five Years (2011-2015) Growth and Transformation Plan (GTP) is also another urban development guiding document. It focuses on improving capacity for the implementation of urban planning and urban land administration for a better urban governance. On the urban planning side, emphasis is on the following: promoting proper delineation of urban green areas, beautification, landscape design and urban design works; developing appropriate systems for the management of solid and liquid wastes; carrying out continuous follow up on the control of urban land use plan; ensuring preparation and implementation of plans based on the urban planning law; and making urban managers sufficiently aware of urban planning and implementation issues.

In summary, Ethiopia has been predominantly rural for most of its history. The result of this is the growth of Addis Ababa and the slower growth of corresponding cities. Rapid urbanization is a recent phenomenon in the country which has resulted in several urban issues, particularly related to housing issues. This has mainly been due to the
enormous rural-urban migration that has been occurring and the slow response towards it. The country developed an explicit NUP in 2005; with the main focus areas of urban rural linkages and urban governance. A review of the national urban policy was conducted and it was noted that such emphasis was appropriate, though the action plan was inadequate. There have been tremendous successes in urban Ethiopia concerning the provision of services such as water. The problems in rural areas still persist which is an indication of some of the shortcomings of the policy document.

After a four-year period of technical analysis, policy reviews, workshops and extensive domestic and international consultation, the first ever National Urban Policy was launched in March 2013, along with a five-year detailed Action Plan. Extensive investment in urban infrastructure funded by national government and managed by municipalities is expected to alleviate severe congestion in the big cities and create a sound living and working environment to support the country’s rapid socio-economic development. There are 12 policy objectives:

1. To facilitate balanced redistribution of the urban population
2. To promote a spatially-integrated hierarchy of urban centres
3. To promote urban economic development
4. Improving the environmental quality of urban life
5. To plan and manage urban growth and sprawl more effectively
6. To ensure efficient urban infrastructure and service delivery
7. To improve access to adequate and affordable housing
8. Promote urban safety and security
9. Strengthen urban governance
10. Promote climate change adaptation and mitigation
11. Strengthen applied research in urban and regional development
12. Expand sources of funding for urban development and strengthening urban financial management.

3.2.5 Ghana

Ghana has a population of approximately 27 million, with a variety of ethnic and religious groups. It is a major producer of petroleum and natural gas, with the continent’s fifth largest oil reserves and sixth largest natural gas reserves. It is one of the world’s largest gold and diamond producers, and is projected to be the largest producer of cocoa in the world as of 2015. All these attributes make it one of the fastest growing economies in Africa.

Ghana’s urban population is slightly more than half the total population. The goal of the national urban policy for Ghana is to promote a sustainable, spatially integrated and orderly development of urban settlements with adequate housing, infrastructure and services, efficient institutions, and a sound living and working environment for all people to support the rapid socioeconomic development of Ghana.
As a means of implementing the goals set out in the policy, an action plan is divided into action areas is presented in the policy document. The action plan gives the policy initiatives, the necessary activities, timelines and the agencies responsible, giving a clear outlook of how the policy should be implemented through projects and programs. Through this policy, Ghana has been in a better position to conduct adequate monitoring and evaluation studies on their NUP by checking the success of each action areas. This is a representation of best practice as a means of implementing a NUP.

Ghana exemplifies a country seeking to embrace urbanization more positively, now that more than 50% of its population is urban. The rate of urbanization is very high, and is linked to rapid economic growth and the discovery of oil.

The implementation of the NUP is being coordinated by the Urban Development Unit within the Department of Local Government and Rural Development. Cities Alliance is also providing institutional capacity support and the World Bank is providing US$150 million to fund a water and sanitation programme for greater Accra.

An interesting feature of the Ghanaian NUP is the recognition given to the role of the informal sector, including businesses, markets and settlements. The National Urban Policy: Action Plan talks about “changing the official attitude towards informal enterprises from neglect to recognition and policy support”. Several initiatives address informal settlements, including a commitment to end evictions, support in situ upgrading, and to introduce new forms of housing finance.

Some doubts have been raised about the implications of the first two objectives and whether they are realistic. The intention is to relieve pressure on Accra and Kumasi by supporting the growth of secondary cities and towns, but this could result in investment in the large cities being neglected and the growth of their residential areas being discouraged, contradicting some of the other objectives.

The NUP has a framework: the ‘National Urban Policy Framework’, since 2012. Its vision is to reduce poverty in the shortest possible time through a structural transformation of the economy, and to attain a middle income status. There has been no review of the policy framework as it lays a foundation for the NUP.

The policy does however provide a comprehensive response to the challenges of urban development, including the environment and climate change. The government has prioritised the upgrading of low-income urban communities in various urban development projects since the mid-1980’s. The lead agency overseeing urban development in the country is the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development. The action plan has the various action areas, policy initiatives as per that action area, activities, timelines and responsible agencies. This brings a clear example of how the success of a policy can be traced back or how the various recommendations are converted into projects and programs. It makes the next phase easier and successful ensuring nothing is left out in the evaluation or monitoring.

3.2.6 Kenya

In Kenya, urban planning and management has been overshadowed by the central administration. Local government, dominated by the political opposition, especially in Nairobi and the other cities, remains weak (De Visser, 2012). As a result, urban areas have been somewhat neglected, despite accommodating about a third of the rapidly growing population. Coherent urban development has also been hampered by a fragmented approach to planning and
inconsistent geographical boundaries, and a lack of inter-agency coordination. Urban planning is based on out-dated and obsolete approaches from colonial times and are routinely used to carry out mass evictions and demolitions in informal settlements. The planning profession has become irrelevant and discredited as a means of securing control, and enrichment of political and economic elites (Ngau, 2013).

The work on a National Urban Development Policy (NUDP) began in 2008 to manage rapid urbanization and unlock the economic potential of Kenyan cities. It was approved in 2011 and focuses on improving housing, physical infrastructure and municipal services. The response to informal settlements is a pragmatic policy of delivering affordable housing of acceptable quality. It is also intended to rationalize legislation and harmonize fragmented planning systems. The NUDP argues for greater attention to be given to the following themes: the urban economy; urban governance and management; national and county urban planning; land, environment and climate change; social infrastructure and services; physical infrastructure and services; urban housing; urban safety and disaster risk management; and marginalized and vulnerable groups.

The NUDP has been hampered by the lack of a strategy for implementation. The human, institutional, technical and financial resources required to achieve its objectives are not readily available. Kenya introduced a new Constitution in 2010 which promised to reduce the president’s authority, devolve power to county governments and reform its governance and financial systems. It was followed in 2011 by the Urban Areas and Cities Act, creating an opportunity for stronger local government, but removing its democratic basis. There were three classes of urban areas created in 2013: Cities, Municipalities, and Towns. There are three authorities with city status: Nairobi, Mombasa and Kisumu. They are to be run by boards appointed by county governments, which are the regional tier between local and national government. Municipal and town councils will be run by administrators, also appointed by the country governments.

Some observers are concerned that the county boundaries are too large to permit a focus on urban problems, so attention will be diverted to rural interests and problems. This is less of a problem in Nairobi and Mombasa as city counties. Another concern is that the new institutions may be less “responsive to popular pressures, as many of the new arrangements seem to have allocated more power to appointed officials than elected representatives” (UN-Habitat, 2014, p.164).

The agency in charge of urban affairs is the Ministry of Lands and Physical Planning, which has morphed from the previous Ministry of Local Government. UN-Habitat assisted the country in improving the policy in line with the 5 qualifiers of sustainable urban development and other components for an overarching policy documents.

3.2.7 Malawi

Malawi has an urbanization level of only 20%, although it is growing fast. The urban population is expected to reach 50% by 2050. Rapid urbanization has led to the growth of new urban centres and poorly serviced informal settlements. The planning and management of service delivery by urban authorities is not meeting demands, and this is worsened by the government’s rural development focus. Thus, two-thirds of the urban population in the country live in slums (UN-Habitat, 2014).

Urban and regional planning in Malawi has traditionally been centralized under the Ministry

14 More information available at Cities Alliance
http://www.citiesalliance.org/node/3290
of Lands, Housing, and Urban Development, with four regional offices in Blantyre, Zomba, Lilongwe, and Mzuzu. The Commissioner for Physical Planning is mandated to carry out all urban and regional planning in Malawi. After 1991, urban and regional planning was devolved to local authorities in Mzuzu, Lilongwe, and Blantyre, as these had planning professionals. The Local Government Act requires all councils to undertake planning activities. Responsibility for infrastructure and service provision is shared between the central and local government.

Malawi embarked on a City Development Strategy to manage urbanization with the support of Cities Alliance. This sought to develop management strategies for the cities of Blantyre, Lilongwe, Mzuzu and Zomba. The City Development Strategy also sought to improve the national institutional framework, and set up a sustainable financial system for local government. However, implementation of the strategy has suffered from inadequate technical and financial means. In addition, an Urban Policy Framework is being developed to help formulate a coherent approach to urban areas. Along with a New Land Bill, it is expected to ease challenges in land administration and management, but has also been criticised for being based on insufficient consultation.

Blantyre City Council is the country’s leading authority in respect to slum upgrading, working alongside UN-Habitat in the ‘Cities without Slums Programme’, to halve by 2015 the proportion of the population that lack access to adequate water and sanitation (UN-Habitat, 2014). The Council also works alongside the Ministry of Lands, Housing and Urban Development and the Malawi Housing Corporation to provide housing in Blantyre.

Urban development projects include the Malawi City Development Strategy and Slum Upgrading Programme. The ministry in charge is the Ministry of Physical Planning. Urban Development was guided by urban planning schemes in the 1950s and was regulated by the Planning Act of 1948. In 1998 a government act was formulated which changed the roles of the various institutions in urban development.

There is no explicit NUP in Malawi. However, in 2012, the government of Malawi began a process of developing its NUP, with funding from Cities Alliance and technical support from UN-Habitat. The multi-stakeholder process was participatory and ensured all sectors of the population at the urban and rural scale were engaged. The NUP aims at covering the following issues:

- Defining an urban classification system;
- Aligning with the Malawi Growth and Development Strategy II and sector policies to support the country’s economic growth and poverty reduction agenda;
- Facilitating the development of plans and designs that promote compact, socially inclusive, better integrated and linked cities that foster sustainable urban development and are resilient to climate change;
- Encouraging cities to become engines of economic growth by promoting local-level investments and financial self-sufficiency;
- Paving the way for cities’ vertical and underground growth;
- Promoting effective and efficient development and management of urbanising rural growth centres and district towns to enable them to grow into small and medium cities, leading to a more equitable spatial distribution of population and development;
- Facilitating the coordination of institutions involved in managing urbanisation; and

15 The Cities Alliance document ‘Assessing the Institutional Environment of Local Governments in Africa’ (2013: 72) in describing Malawi’s urban policy states that: “A clear national urban strategy exists, but the financial and technical arrangements and capacities necessary to implement it are lacking”. They are actually referring to the Cities Alliance backed Malawi City Development Strategy and Slum Upgrading Programme, focussing on four specific cities, rather than a comprehensive national urban policy for the whole of Malawi.
• Providing clear guiding principles for the NUP implementation process.

3.2.8 Nigeria

Approximately half of the population live in urban areas and economic growth has been relatively strong since the discovery of oil. Nevertheless, poverty remains high and the proportion of the urban population with access to water sanitation is low by international standards. The country has a long-established urban and regional planning system, based on colonial experiences. A new Planning Law was introduced in 1992 to modernize the old system and make it more relevant to the country's needs arising from rapid urban growth and the pressure on land and infrastructure. This was followed by a National Urban Development Policy (NUDP) in 2001, which was reviewed in 2009. Its broad aim is to improve the way urban settlements function so as to foster sustainable economic growth and to improve living standards. The key objectives include:

1. To promote efficient urban development and management
2. To define the responsibilities of each level of government so as to ensure effective plan implementation and accountability
3. To provide appropriate financial mechanisms across the three levels of government to implement slum upgrading, urban infrastructure and other development projects.
4. To revise and implement sectoral programmes in housing, environment, employment and other fields to make them more responsive to the country's urban problems.

In practice, implementation of these policies and objectives has generally been poor, so the benefits of urban planning and coordinated investment in infrastructure have not been realised. Cumbersome governance arrangements inhibit rational decision-making, except perhaps in Lagos State and the Federal Capital Territory of Abuja. There is also a lack of political will to establish dedicated planning authorities and a shortage of qualified planners to formulate and implement effective urban plans. The approach to land-use planning remains outmoded in that it is reactive and control-oriented. There is little tradition of positive planning to make long term changes.
3.2.9 Rwanda

Rwanda is currently one of the least urbanized countries in the world but is one of the most densely populated with the density of 415 inhabitants per square kilometre (Republic of Rwanda, 2012). It has an urbanization level of about 19%, and this rate is set to increase (UN-Habitat, 2014). The 1994 genocide spurred a dramatic increase in urbanization as people sought refuge and safety in cities. As a result of this, the number of people living in urban “slums” more than doubled between 1995 and 2000 (UN-Habitat, 2014). The proportion of the urban population living in “slums” is now 68% and consequently, the level of access to basic services is relatively low.

The spatial distribution of the urban population in Rwanda in 2012 was characterized by the concentration of people in the capital city. In 1991, Kigali represented 55% per cent of the urban population with more than 230,000 inhabitants. The rate went down to 49.5 per cent in 2012, 21 years later, but the population had multiplied by 3.6 with 859,333 inhabitants. This rate rose to 50 per cent in 2014. In 2012, Kigali and the six secondary cities had 76.3 per cent of the country’s urban population.

With support from UN-Habitat, Rwanda’s NUP was approved in December 2015. One aim is to raise the level of urbanization to 35 per cent by 2020. It makes considerable sense to plan ahead of population growth by identifying suitable land, planning the street layout and installing essential infrastructure.

Urban development was also mentioned in Rwanda’s Vision 2020 (in the year 2000) and the Economic Development and Poverty Reduction Strategy, 2008-2012. The Ministry of Infrastructure does have a sectional strategy document outlining its principle intervention areas, especially those dealing with urban planning and settlement. However, planning documents are not realistic and technical expertise is lacking. The management of urban planning in Rwanda requires much greater political will and decentralized urban planning services16.

The country has other national policies relevant in management of urban areas, which include: National Settlement Policy, National Urban Housing Policy and National Decentralization Policy. This is an indication that Rwanda is indeed determined to manage its urbanization issue. Rwanda is representative of other African countries that have faced extreme civil wars and have already taken strides towards creating policies to manage urbanization within their rebuilding process.

The Government of Rwanda has tried to address this situation by active measures to extend service delivery, support house-building and devolve responsibilities to local government. Its positive approach to urban areas is in marked contrast to many other African countries:

“Development has proceeded swiftly in Kigali in recent years in line with the city’s ambitious master plan. Tough zoning and permit laws are followed to the letter, with poor and rich held to equal standards, while city authorities are easily able to clear squatters off public land slated for approved projects. While the somewhat authoritarian nature of governance in Kigali has generated some controversy - and may ultimately prove unsustainable - the pace of urban development has been impressive, earning the city a UN-Habitat Scroll of Honour Award in 2008” (UN-Habitat, 2014, p.29).

The Ministry of Infrastructure is in charge of urban planning. Its sectional strategy document identifies four main goals for urban planning and human settlements:

16 The Cities Alliance (2013) states that for Rwanda “A clear national urban strategy exists, but the financial and technical arrangements and capacities necessary to implement it are lacking”. While no supporting documentation was provided in the bibliography, this may refer to the RUICMP, heavily supported by the World Bank, which aims to improve infrastructure and service delivery in the capital city Kigali and two secondary cities.
1. to ensure a rational management of the urban space
2. to ensure that the urban supply of land meets the urban demand
3. to develop the building industry
4. to provide quality public services

One of the constraints faced is a shortage of technical expertise in urban planning and development. There is also a lack of coordination between ministries with responsibilities for urban infrastructure and services. Weak municipal financial systems are another impediment to improved urban conditions. International organisations have assisted with developing master plans for the larger cities, rehabilitating water and electricity infrastructures, resettling refugees and supporting youth development initiatives.

3.2.10 South Africa

South Africa is the 25th-largest country in the world by land area, and with close to 53 million people, is the world’s 25th-most populous nation. South Africa is among the very few countries in Africa with a middle income economy status.

Like most of Africa and other developing countries, it is experiencing continuing urbanisation. The United Nations estimates that 71.3% of the South African population will live in urban areas by 2030, reaching nearly 80% by 2050. South Africa’s urban population is growing larger and younger, as individuals and households move into ‘inner-core’ cities where jobs are created and household incomes are higher. Nearly two-thirds (64%) of South Africa’s youth live in urban areas, whereas the aged population (and no longer economically active) tend to migrate to more rural settlements and secondary cities in other provinces (UNDESA, 2014).

Urban centres dominate the country’s economy, as cities and large towns produce over 80% of the national gross value added (GVA). Metropolitan municipalities are growing twice as fast as other cities and towns and also have much higher (by about 40%) average incomes compared to the country as a whole. Urban centres, though they dominate the economy are dynamically linked to the rural areas, through flows of people, and natural and economic resources. Indeed, urban and rural areas are becoming increasingly integrated, as a result of improved transport and communications infrastructure. Therefore, the interdependence of rural and urban spaces is recognised, as well as the need for a comprehensive, integrated approach to urban development that responds to the reality of migration to peri-urban areas.

The need to address the state of urbanization led to the drafting of a managing document known as Integrated Urban Development Framework. The draft was released in September 2014 and the main emphasis of this policy is integrating urban and rural areas towards economic growth, while reducing unemployment, social issues and climate change impacts. Coupled with this emphasis on enhancing the urban and rural continuum, the framework seeks to create liveable, safe, resource-efficient cities and towns that are socially integrated, economically inclusive and globally competitive, and where residents actively participate in urban life.

One of the challenges in South Africa has been to secure high level political support for a national urban policy. Several ‘paper’ policies were approved by the Cabinet but failed to gain traction because they lacked a political champion in a context where popular sentiment is pro-rural. Meanwhile, many sectoral programmes have done a great deal to improve housing, electricity, water, sanitation, waste disposal and other basic services in the cities. The main concerns have been centred on the location, quality and coordination of these investments (COGTA, 2013). A new urban
policy framework is in preparation that seems to have stronger support from within government, partly because urban conditions have deteriorated in some respects, reflected in some growth of informal settlements and rising protest activity (COGTA, 2013). There has also been growing recognition that the cities are crucial to national economic performance and job creation. In addition, the process of preparing the latest policy has been more inclusive and consultative than in the past, and less technocratic.

The new urban policy proposes that every city should formulate a long-term growth and development strategy with a 30 year time horizon. Instead of merely reacting to crises and private sector initiatives, the idea is to try and anticipate and shape development patterns with a long-term view of the future in mind. The new policy also proposes seven policy mechanisms or ‘levers’ to promote change.

1. Basic infrastructure networks.
2. Inclusive economic development.
3. Integrated transport and mobility.
4. Integrated human settlements.
5. Land management.
7. Urban governance and strategic leadership.

One of the on-going uncertainties about urban policy in South Africa is the relationship between top-down and bottom-up processes. Both are necessary, but contested. There is a tendency for national government to place all the responsibility for improving urban conditions onto local government, often without commensurate powers and resources. There is a similar tendency for them to blame municipalities when things go wrong. Conversely, municipalities often blame national government for having contradictory policies, for imposing excessive regulatory burdens on them, and for disregarding variable local conditions. Municipalities want national governments to be more be sensitive to the reality of conditions on the ground, more supportive of the challenges of urban transformation and integration, and more aware of the unique opportunities presented by urbanization for reducing poverty in a sustainable way.

The agency responsible for urban development is the Ministry of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs which is also the implementing agency. Evaluation was done through reviewing comments submitted to the policy and adjustments made accordingly. The policy integrates various aspects of urban developments such as integrated infrastructure. The policy is compact combining several items and relates them, making integration possible. Inclusiveness is also emphasized in the objectives to deal with social impacts especially due to apartheid.
4 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS
Africa is one of the regions in the world that has most advanced on the formulation of National Urban Policies. This could be highly attributed to the high urbanization levels that have occurred throughout the continent in the recent past. Many countries have also started or showed interest in developing NUP. The major concerns that have arisen in most African countries have been ad hoc ways of dealing with urban issues. This has been through use of projects and master plans to solve urban spatial challenges. The influence of colonization on the planning systems of countries is still prevalent in the reliance or adoption of policies and plans developed or being used in the colonizers country.

Most master plans remain obsolete and outdated and are representative of urbanization patterns during colonization and not of current times. This has affected many urban areas as their issues are not being tackled appropriately due to the fluid nature of urban concerns. There is a need not only to update current policies but also to develop new policies among other urban development guiding documents that are locality specific.

For countries with an explicit NUP, the main area of focus has been sustainable development with issues concerning poverty eradication, climate change, environmental protection, food security, urban rural linkages and social issues being addressed.

Urban policy in Africa at present is quite mixed and varied. Most countries do not seem to have an explicit ‘National Urban Policy’ that is clearly identified as such, or given a prominent profile. Certain countries such as Ghana and Ethiopia have formulated explicit national urban policies alongside guidelines for the development and achievement of goals set out in those documents. However, scarce financial resources are a recurring obstacle amongst countries with established national urban policies towards achieving urban development goals in a timely manner. It is important not to overstate the lack of urban policies in Africa. At least nine countries have elements of an urban policy in existence or clear indications of the emergence of an urban policy in the near future.

Ethiopia and Rwanda have taken deliberate measures backed by substantial financial commitments to improve urban planning and living conditions over a similar period. South Africa has also done a great deal to improve housing and basic services in its cities since 1994, and to improve the capacity of city governments, although without explicitly calling this an urban policy.

Other countries have emerging urban policies, the significance of which it is probably too soon to judge. Ghana, Malawi and Zambia are obvious examples. With sufficient political backing and international support, there is no reason why these policies should not start transforming local conditions and improving the lives of citizens for the better.
REFERENCES


Da Gama, S. and Flávio A. (2015), STFO/SARC, AfDB, Sao Tome and Principe,


Embassy of Equatorial Guinea in the UK, Evaluation of Equatorial Guinea’s progress within the framework of the Horizon 2020 Plan, http://www.embassyofequatorialguinea.co.uk/development/


## ANNEX: CROSS-CUTTING VARIABLES FOR CASE STUDY COUNTRIES

### Appendix 1: Summary of Existing NUP by Country

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Explicit/Implicit NUP?</th>
<th>Title of NUP</th>
<th>Date of NUP/Other</th>
<th>Title of Other “NUPs”</th>
<th>Public Institution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Botswana</td>
<td>Explicit</td>
<td>Revised National Settlement Policy</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>National Policy on Housing (NPH)</td>
<td>Ministry of Lands and Housing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burkina Faso</td>
<td>Explicit</td>
<td>Politique Nationale de l’Habitat et du Development Urbain</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>The Burkina Faso Country Programme</td>
<td>Ministry of Housing and Urban Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cameroon</td>
<td>Implicit</td>
<td>Urban Master Plans</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>Land Use Plan (LUP) Urban Sketch Plan (USP) Area Plan (AP).</td>
<td>Ministry of Housing and Urban Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Implicit</td>
<td>Action</td>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Document/Report</td>
<td>Ministry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chad</td>
<td>Implicit</td>
<td>Stratégie Nationale de Logement</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>DURAH III</td>
<td>Ministry of Housing, Urban Development and Regional Planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC)</td>
<td>Implicit</td>
<td>Decree Urbanism</td>
<td>1957</td>
<td>Plans and Town Planning Documents</td>
<td>Ministry of Planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equatorial Guinea</td>
<td>Implicit</td>
<td>Horizon 2020 Development Plan</td>
<td>2007</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ministry of Economy, Planning &amp; Public Investment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Explicit/Implicit</td>
<td>Policy Type</td>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Ministry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gabon</td>
<td>Implicit</td>
<td>Mooted National Urban Development Policy</td>
<td>2014</td>
<td>Angondje Phase II Masterplan, Vision and Smart Code Development</td>
<td>Ministry of the Housing, the Accommodation, the Town Planning, the Environment and the Sustainable Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gambia</td>
<td>Implicit</td>
<td>Poverty Reduction Strategy</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Ministry of Local Government and Lands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberia</td>
<td>Implicit</td>
<td>Liberia Master Plans</td>
<td>2013</td>
<td>Liberia Planning Law on Zoning</td>
<td>Ministry of Internal Affairs at the Department of Urban Affairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Status</td>
<td>Policy Type</td>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Other Policy/Act</td>
<td>Ministry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>------------------------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mozambique</td>
<td>Implicit</td>
<td>Strategic Action Planning in Cities</td>
<td>1980s</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Ministry of Planning and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niger</td>
<td>Explicit</td>
<td>National Urban Development Strategy</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>Explicit</td>
<td>National Urban Development Policy</td>
<td>2001</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Federal Ministry of Works and Housing or Ministry of Lands and Urban Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senegal</td>
<td>Implicit</td>
<td>Poles Urbaines</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Ministry of Urban Planning and Housing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seychelles</td>
<td>Implicit</td>
<td>Town and Country Planning Act</td>
<td>1972</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>Town and Country Planning Authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Implicit/Explicit</td>
<td>Policy/Plan Description</td>
<td>Year</td>
<td>National Transport Policy</td>
<td>Ministry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sierra Leone</td>
<td>Implicit</td>
<td>National Housing Policy</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>National Transport Policy</td>
<td>Ministry of Lands and Country Planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somalia</td>
<td>Explicit</td>
<td>Somali Urban Development Program for Somali Region</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>National Development Plan</td>
<td>Ministry of Planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>Explicit</td>
<td>Integrated Urban Development Framework</td>
<td>2009</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Ministry of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Sudan</td>
<td>Implicit (draft)</td>
<td>Urbanization Policy Framework</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Ministry of Housing and Physical Planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swaziland</td>
<td>Implicit</td>
<td>New Housing Policy</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Infrastructure Sectoral Strategy</td>
<td>Ministry of Housing and Urban Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>Implicit</td>
<td>Tanzania Master Plan</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>Urban Planning Act no. 8 2007</td>
<td>Ministry of Lands, Housing and Human Settlements Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>Implicit (draft)</td>
<td>National Urban Policy</td>
<td>2013</td>
<td>Uganda Vision 2040</td>
<td>Ministry of Lands, Housing &amp; Urban Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>Implicit</td>
<td>Diagnostic Studies</td>
<td>2013</td>
<td>Town &amp;Country Planning Act</td>
<td>Ministry of Local Government and Housing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>Implicit</td>
<td>Growth Point/Rural Service Centre Strategy</td>
<td>1970s - Current</td>
<td>Urban Planning Policy developments</td>
<td>Department of Physical Planning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This report aims to survey, evaluate and inform the development of National Urban Policies – defined by UN habitat as “a coherent set of decisions derived through a deliberate government-led process of coordinating and rallying various actors for a common vision and goal that will promote more transformative, productive, inclusive and resilient urban development for the long term” – in the African Region, the fastest-urbanizing region in the world.

The African region is extremely relevant to analyze the development and potential of National Urban Policies as the challenges and opportunities posed by urbanization in the region are particularly acute. While the rate of urbanization threatens to exacerbate pre-existing issues of vulnerability to climate change, urban poverty and the spread of informal settlements; the relatively recent onset of the urban transition in the region also means that it has the opportunity and latitude to fully embrace a modern urban paradigm shift towards sustainable urban development.

The report is part of a series of five regional reports assessing the state of national urban policies that complement the Global State of National Urban Policies Report, conducted in collaboration between UN-Habitat and the OECD. These studies are timely, as they follow up on Habitat III and Agenda 2030 for Sustainable Development the role of national urban policies, and accompany the Second International Conference on National Urban Policy, to be held in Paris, France in May 2017.