

**Burundi
Shelter
Sector
Assessment**

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SHELTER SECTOR ASSESSMENT

B U R U N D I

Prepared for
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FOREWORD

This study was conducted in 1983 under the auspices of the Office of Housing and Urban Programs of the Agency for International Development and through funding provided by this office.

The study team was led by Carol A. Oman, Consultant to the National Savings and Loan League. Janet Kerley, also consultant to the National Savings and Loan League, and Stephen Reeve of the Nairobi Regional Housing and Urban Development Office, were other team members.

The findings and recommendations of the report have been reviewed in detail and discussed with representatives of the Government of Burundi. Special thanks for their participation are due here.

While the report results from close cooperation of the team and its host country counterparts, it is not to be interpreted as an official position of either Government or the Agency for International Development.

We hope, however, that the Government of Burundi will find the report and its recommendations useful as it formulates and implements its future shelter programs.

GLOSSARY OF TERMS

BNDE	- Banque Nationale pour le Développement Economique (National Bank for Economic Development)
BRB	- Banque de la République du Burundi (The Central Bank of Burundi)
CADEBU	- Caisse d'Epargne du Burundi (The Savings Bank of Burundi)
CAMOFI	- Caisse Centrale de Mobilisation et de Financement (The institution which mobilizes funds from relends to parastatals.)
DUB	- Développement Urbain du Burundi (World Bank Urban Development Project)
FBU	- Burundi Francs
FHR	- Fonds de l'Habitat Rural (Fund for Rural Housing)
INCN	- Institut National pour la Conservation de la Nature (National Institute for Natural Resource Conservation)
MTPEM	- Ministère des Travaux Publics, de l'Energie et des Mines (Ministry of Public Works, Energy and Mines)
ONL	- Office National du Logement (National Housing Construction Company)
REGIDESO	- Régie des Eaux (National Water and Electric Authority)
SIP	- Société Immobilière Publique (Public Housing Corporation)
SRD	- Société Régionale de Développement (Regional Development Company)
UPRONA	- Union pour le Progrès National (Union for National Progress, the political party)

Exchange Rate: BF 90 = US\$1

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I. INTRODUCTION

The Burundi Shelter Sector Assessment was prepared on the basis of background research in Washington and two-and-a-half weeks of field work in April/May 1983. The final report was prepared in Washington, D.C. in May/June 1983. The shelter sector assessment team was composed of Carol Oman, financial specialist and team leader, Janet Kerley, sociologist, and Steve Reeve, architect and urban planner. Frank Connor, who was in Burundi providing technical assistance to the Société Immobilière Publique (SIP), made an important contribution to the financial institution section. Raj Chanda from the AID Office of Housing and Urban Development in Nairobi was also in Burundi for several days and participated in discussions about the report.

During this period, the shelter sector team reviewed all existing reports concerning housing and urban development in the country. The team made use of current data from the 1979 census and post-census survey data which contained several questions on current housing stock. The study Projet de Développement Urbain du Burundi prepared by URBAPLAN consultants for the World Bank project was an excellent source which the team used extensively. Many of the other documents used for the report are cited in the text.

The team made several field trips to project sites, to low income neighborhoods in Bujumbura and to secondary towns. Discussions were held with many Burundians involved in the sector (both representatives from government and the private sector), representatives from the international agencies active in the country and officials of USAID involved with Burundi. The report reflects careful consideration of the views offered by these individuals.

The conclusions and recommendations, however, are those of the shelter sector team. The report is intended to provide AID with sufficient background and a series of findings, conclusions and recommendations to enable it to make judgments concerning the housing sector in Burundi. Much of the material in the report will be familiar to Government officials, but it is hoped that the conclusions and recommendations will be useful in stimulating creative thinking as these officials continue to deal with the issues of housing and urban development in Burundi.

II. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

1. Country and Urban Setting

Unlike so many other developing countries, Burundi, a country of 4.4 million people, is not yet experiencing massive problems of urbanization. Only 6 percent of the population lives in urban centers (centers with a population over 2,000), the country has only one real city, the capital, Bujumbura, with a population of about 180,000, and a few scattered population centers in the rural areas. The people have no history of grouping in villages. Although two-thirds of the country's urban population is concentrated in the capital, it is not a complex city, and its problems are still considered manageable by comparison to most primary cities of developing countries.

Population pressure on Burundi's agricultural lands has reached the critical point at which a family's individual holdings provide only minimal subsistence. Burundi is faced with the dual population problems of extremely high density (average 154 persons per km²) and a high natural growth rate, 2.7 percent. The growth rate for the capital is currently estimated at 7 percent, up from 4.7 percent in 1979. Until now, the rural-urban migration has not been as pronounced in Burundi as in many other African countries, but as the rural population expands, more and more citizens are migrating to, and seeking employment in, the urban centers, which could result in a more rapid urban growth rate than at present.

To meet this problem, the Government of Burundi has supported a decentralization policy designed to slow urban growth in Bujumbura, develop secondary centers and regroup the now dispersed rural population into villages (the "villagization" program).

Consequently, the growth and development of Burundi's secondary population centers become important to the nation's economic development. Most economic activities either take place in these centers or rely on services and materials provided through them. Bujumbura, and, in particular, the key secondary centers such as Rumonge, Gitega and Ngozi, are thus linked closely with rural development as catalysts of economic activity and as the delivery points for the provision of improved services.

Fostering the growth of secondary centers by increasing development aid in selected centers, is a goal of the Government of Burundi's Fourth Five Year Plan. The Government has placed the major responsibility for improving the functions and services of these urban centers on the "commune," the local administrative unit, equivalent to a small county.

Despite the important role the secondary centers could play in Burundi's development, their potential contribution is not presently being realized, in large part, because the financial and institutional needs of

the communes have not yet been assessed. Responsible local government administration with a sound financial base and a capacity for encouraging local initiative can be a positive force in fostering urban growth, promoting economic development, and servicing the diversification of economic activities throughout Burundi. To not strengthen them and utilize them fully would deprive the nation's development efforts of a potentially vital contribution. Further, unless the adopted policies of decentralization for the growth and strengthening of secondary centers are implemented effectively, the destination of the rural migrants will increasingly be Bujumbura.

2. Government Policies, Programs and Organization for Housing

The shelter sector in Burundi is fragmented due to a lack of a comprehensive policy, the involvement of several different institutions in housing matters, and a lack of coordination among these institutions.

a. Policy: The Third Five Year Plan and the preliminary information obtained on the Fourth Five Year Plan (1983-1987) contain broad-based policy objectives relating to supplying affordable shelter to all segments of the population; meeting the increased demands of a growing rural and urban population; and balancing housing investment between the capital city and secondary centers. Specific coordinated implementation plans for these objectives, however, have not yet been prepared.

The major thrust of housing policy and investment by the Government has been to provide subsidized housing to civil servants through the Société Immobilière Publique (SIP), the public housing corporation. The SIP, despite heavy government subsidy, has only been able to meet a limited amount of the housing demand from the civil servants. Constraints on government financial resources have led to a cutback on government commitment to the civil servant housing objective in the last two years. For example, in 1983, the budget allocation for SIP housing was reduced from US\$6.5 million to US\$4 million.

Low income urban housing, while a general policy objective, has not received substantial resource support from the Government. The two low income housing projects currently underway are primarily funded, designed and implemented through multilateral foreign assistance (IBRD and UN).

With one exception in Gitega, a provincial capital, few government resources have been allocated to providing shelter in secondary centers. Only modest infrastructure investments have been made, and the issue of recovery costs has been ignored. While efforts are being made to provide a planning structure for Bujumbura and secondary center shelter and urban development needs, comprehensive policy and specific program actions have not been developed.

b. Government Institutions: There are two principal shelter sector-related initiatives -- urban and rural. The responsibility for addressing development and housing needs in urban areas rests with the Ministry of Public Works, Energy and Mines (MPEM), and the parastatals which it directs. Responsibility for rural areas lies with the Ministry of Rural Development.

Two key divisions within MPEM are responsible for planning and policy functions. The recently created Division de l'Aménagement Régional (Regional Planning Division) is responsible for development of urban spatial policy, and the Division de l'Urbanisme et de l'Habitat (Urban Planning and Housing Division) which carries out long range planning for Bujumbura and secondary centers, develops urban housing policy and programs, and approves subdivision of land. The Regional Planning Division is so new that it is barely operational, and the other division is severely deficient in experienced staff. Plans have been discussed to separate the urban planning and housing functions, but no action has been taken due primarily to lack of staff and resources.

Three parastatals have closely connected responsibilities in the housing sector, namely SIP, ONL and REGIDESO. Responsible for civil service housing, SIP, as the national housing authority, has not had sufficient resources and capacity to meet the demand for civil servant housing, particularly for the middle and lower income levels. Even with substantial government subsidies, SIP houses are not affordable to many government employees. Furthermore, SIP's operational capacity is dependent on government subsidies which are not always paid when due. This results in perennial cash flow problems. Administrative and management problems further limit SIP's ability to provide civil service housing effectively. While the SIP charter would allow involvement in low income housing, SIP could not implement such projects without correction of the problems mentioned above and without staff experienced and trained in low income housing.

The Office National du Logement (ONL), the parastatal construction company, is being reorganized with foreign technical assistance to improve efficiency in order to complement the small capacity of the private sector to construct government housing. There is some question as to whether ONL can be cost competitive with private sector contractors. To make most effective use of government resources, it should be able to compete with the private companies and be profitable.

REGIDESO, the national water and electrical authority, plans, builds, and maintains water, sewer, electricity, and street lighting networks. There is a need for close coordination of its activities with those of SIP.

Responsibility at the national level for other urban facilities and services such as schools, health clinics and community centers falls within the related ministries. Overseeing of local authority finances and fiscal review is the charge of the Ministry of the Interior.

Coordination between ministries and among the various divisions of MTPEM relating to housing and urban development is not well established at this time. Most funds available for investment in development projects are allocated by the central government to the various ministries who in turn allocate to their divisions and, in the case of MTPEM, to the parastatals. These units often appear to make decisions unilaterally about their individual development programs. As a consequence, these development programs tend to progress at the rate dictated by the availability of resources without regard for the need to coordinate with other projects to avoid costly delays or to consider if the basic needs and highest priorities of the urban center are actually being met. This shortcoming is, of course, as much an outgrowth of the absence of effective local government and "bottoms up" planning as it is the method of central government planning and coordination.

The new Division de l'Aménagement Régional and the Division de l'Urbanisme et de l'Habitat in MTPEM could serve as a coordinating point if they were staffed and operating as planned. Furthermore, a National Urban Commission with representatives from all ministries has been established to deliberate on broad urban policy issues. Thus, a framework exists for overall policy making, but it is not certain that it will be effective as a consultative body.

The Ministry of Public Works, Energy and Mines (MTPEM) is currently responsible for two low income housing projects financed by foreign donors (World Bank and the United Nations).

The DUB project, financed by the World Bank, will provide 750 new houses to the low income population of Bujumbura by the date the project is scheduled to end in June 1985. A number of innovations in building construction techniques and the use of locally produced building construction materials have been successfully introduced. These new techniques can be used in subsequent housing projects. This project also involves the upgrading of several low income neighborhoods in the capital. This has been delayed since none of the costs of the first upgrading efforts have been recovered and no maintenance of the improved services has been done in the first year of the project. Until these issues (cost recovery and maintenance by the municipal government) are resolved, no further upgrading will be done.

The second low income housing project, funded by the United Nations, is located in the Musaga neighborhood, considered the poorest area in the capital. This project also contains two elements, the provision of 104 new housing units, and the upgrading of infrastructure in the entire neighborhood (road and footpath construction, standpipes, drainage systems, health center, elementary schools and community center). The upgrading of the infrastructure has been completed except for the construction of footpaths. The beneficiaries for the 104 new homes have been selected and approximately one-fourth of the houses built and occupied. This project is scheduled for completion in June 1985.

At the present, both projects have been established as separate units within the MTPEM. This structure has allowed efficient implementation of the projects, but at the same time has limited the transfer of knowledge gained by the staff to other divisions within the Ministry. Each project has made significant contributions in different areas. For instance, the Musaga project has been more successful in involving the community in the project from the beginning while the DUB project has made more progress in the construction areas. More frequent discussion between project personnel would improve both projects.

This problem of insufficient coordination and sharing of knowledge is characteristic of all the institutions involved in the shelter sector. Improved coordination within the sector would permit a more efficient use of already scarce resources for the essential task of providing shelter for the population.

The Division of Rural Habitat in the Ministry of Rural Development directs an active program to upgrade rural infrastructure and provide building construction loans for home improvement. The institution is fairly well organized to carry out the program and the staff surpassed its goals for the five year period 1978-1982. Nevertheless, the program was only able to upgrade 1,416 houses a year during the last five year period, far short of actual needs. The major constraint facing the rural housing program is lack of adequate financial resources. As in other areas of program implementation, the Government depends heavily on foreign donor assistance (65 percent) for the rural habitat program. A lack of trained personnel is a second serious constraint in meeting the demand for improved rural housing.

3. Housing Situation

There is a serious need for new, affordable housing stock for the lower and middle income groups in Burundi. In 1979, nearly 95 percent of the population lived on rural homesteads (rugos) dispersed throughout the countryside on collines (hills). Census figures show that on the 2,400 collines, there were 638,070 homesteads housing 884,880 households, or an average of 1.4 households per rugo. The Government's current Five Year Plan estimated the need for additional rural housing at 548,000 units by 1987. This is based on an estimated demand of 233,500 houses for newly formed households and an estimate of 285,000 houses which need renovation or replacement. (The life expectancy of a traditional house in Burundi is ten years.)

In the Five Year Plan, the need for urban housing was estimated at 16,053. This includes 8,545 new houses in the secondary centers and 7,508 houses in Bujumbura (6,500 new houses and 1,008 renovated houses.) Supply does not currently meet the demand. In the capital, approximately 500 houses are built annually by the formal sector and 700 in the informal

sector. The net supply is less than the demand, resulting in increased density per household and a large number of residents continuing to live in very poor conditions.

Demand for housing in the capital city, Bujumbura, is elastic, however, and will depend upon the ability of the Government to implement its stated policy of developing secondary urban centers as alternate growth poles, thus reducing the population growth rate in the capital. The Division of Urban Planning and Housing in the Ministry of Public Works prepared estimates of housing need, for the year 2002, based on two assumptions about the growth rate in Bujumbura. Assuming a low growth rate (4%) in the capital, and a current density per unit of 7.5 persons, the Division projected the need for housing at 37,565 by the year 2002, or approximately 2,000 houses per year (27,430 for new households and 10,135 to upgrade or replace existing housing stock).

Assuming a high growth rate (7%) for Bujumbura, which appears under present circumstances to be the more accurate, and lowering unit density to 6.5 persons, housing demand is estimated to be 64,465 new houses needed by the year 2002, or approximately 3,400 a year (53,100 are estimated for new households and 11,365 to upgrade or replace existing housing stock).

A constraint on meeting the needs for housing is the current policy limiting the purchase of houses in government-sponsored projects to Burundian citizens. This poses a problem in Bujumbura where nearly half the population is non-Burundian. As a result of problems in neighboring countries, many Rwandans, Zaireans, Ugandans, and Tanzanians have moved to Burundi where they have been given status as refugees, not citizens.

Accurate information on demand for housing in the secondary centers was difficult to obtain. Squatter settlements of substantial size were observed by the shelter sector assessment team during field visits to four secondary cities. The problem appears most serious in the urban centers of Gitega, the second largest city with approximately 20,000 people, and Ngozi with 15,000 people in the North and Central highlands where the population density is the highest in the country. If the government policy to strengthen secondary centers is implemented soon, and the necessary resources made available, it is reasonable to assume that demand for housing will increase in these areas.

Squatter settlements have begun to occur on government land on the periphery of Bujumbura, along the major highway and to a lesser degree on the mountains behind the affluent residential neighborhoods. Information obtained from the newly-formed Ministère de la Condition Féminine (Ministry of Women's Affairs) indicates that a large number of households in these squatter areas are headed by women. These women are faced with a serious housing need which is aggravated by extremely low incomes. Also, a large number of single women are migrating to the capital in search of work and face serious problems in finding adequate and affordable housing. Currently, bachelor quarters (dormitories) are built by SIP exclusively for male immigrants.

Housing in the squatter areas and in the more established low income areas of the capital, is of poor quality. Nearly 80 percent of the current housing stock in Bujumbura is made of non-durable building materials (generally mud) and has an average duration of four to eight years. All the low income neighborhoods suffer from serious deficiencies in basic infrastructure (potable water, electricity, sewage and drainage systems) as well as in the social infrastructure (schools, clinics, community centers, and recreational facilities). Government policy strongly supports universal education and preventive health care for the population, but given the current economic situation faced by the Government, it is unlikely and unrealistic to expect substantially increased expenditures in these areas in the near future.

While the number of rural houses needed is greater in absolute numbers, the urban need is the more serious. A much larger proportion of the urban dwellers do not own their own homes (30 percent compared with .5 percent in the rural areas). Density per room is higher in the urban areas and increasing, and density per m² is also higher. This, combined with the lack of adequate sanitary conditions in the city, presents a very real public health problem in the urban centers as evidenced by a severe cholera epidemic in 1978.

Affordability

A serious constraint in estimating effective demand is the difficulty in obtaining accurate data on the household income of the urban poor. This is due partly to the fact that a majority of the economy is still non-monetarized and the value of the goods exchanged or used in home consumption has not been accurately measured. A relatively small portion of the population (6 percent) receives wages from the formal sector, and the income reported from informal sector employment appears to have been underestimated.

The lack of reliable data has made it difficult to accurately estimate the income of the population and therefore design a shelter solution which is affordable to the lower income group. This has caused confusion in the design and implementation of a project, and has resulted in houses that are either too expensive for the poorest or too inexpensive for the beneficiary population. This problem may be solved when more accurate data become available from a study of the informal sector proposed by the University of Burundi with IBRD financing.

Data compiled from a 1979 University of Burundi study estimated that 50% of the urban population earned 13,200 FBu (US \$145) or less a month. Secondary employment and income from other family members may increase this figure. Also, produce consumed by families from urban agriculture may effectively increase a family's income by 3,500 FBu (US \$39) a month.

Low-income residents who rent housing in Bujumbura are currently paying a substantial portion of their income for this need. A single room rents from 3,000 FBu (US \$33.70) to 5,000 FBu (US \$56) a month.

A small house may cost upwards of 10,000 FBu (US \$112) a month. Since rent control was eliminated in 1981, rents have risen dramatically, so that a family earning close to the median income of 14,000 FBu (US \$157.00) may be spending 50 to 60 percent of its cash income on housing. Some evidence suggests that domestic servants and others with very low incomes may spend their entire salary on housing and feed their family from subsistence agriculture.

These same individuals do not have access to credit, and therefore cannot afford to buy the houses being built by the private sector when they are available. Many of the beneficiaries of the current government-sponsored low income projects (financed by the World Bank and the United Nations) are actually paying less in mortgage payments than they were in rent.

The need is so great that some on the waiting list for a lot in the Musaga project are willing to pay double the current price being charged because this price is still lower than the price being charged on the private market for a lot (current m² price for Musaga I project is 200 FBu (US \$2.23), current price on private market 600 FBu (US \$6.70)).

At the present, demand for the limited number of houses available in these two urban projects exceeds the supply. It may be, however, that the demand for this type of housing is limited to a relatively small group with access to formal sector employment, which is currently experiencing slow growth. Once this small group is satisfied, the demand may increasingly be for less expensive solutions such as sites and services or core houses.

4. Land

As Bujumbura and the secondary centers expand in population in the years ahead, the demand for urban land will intensify and so too will the issues relating to land tenure, allocation and servicing. Since much of the land suitable for urban shelter is in public ownership, the Government has an opportunity and responsibility to use an innovative land policy as an instrument for developing an effective shelter and urban development program.

Currently, the Government of Burundi does not use the full land value as a basis for establishing the sale of government lands, or for determining urban land taxes or special levies on land benefiting from public projects. This problem must be addressed in the near future since the quantity of urban services is dependent on the revenues that can be raised from beneficiaries.

Land tenure is also not clear, as private land ownership is distinguished by a dual system of customary rights and full legal title, and the procedure by which customary rights can be transformed into clear legal title remains

confused. A solution to this problem is also necessary, as the potential for recovering new shelter project costs or raising municipal revenues by land taxation is largely dependent on the existence of clear titles to land ownership. Clear title is also essential for land to be used as collateral for home construction or improvement loans, thus more fully harnessing individual initiative in meeting shelter needs.

Hard decisions will have to be made about these land issues to enable the Government to meet the shelter needs of new migrants, to upgrade the conditions of shelter of present inhabitants, and to provide urban services on a scale sufficient to match the growth in numbers requiring services.

5. Construction and Building Materials

Burundi's construction industry is small and dominated by many foreign-controlled contractors. Its development is hindered by (1) a shortage of supply of local materials; (2) costly and unreliable transport of imported materials; (3) lack of skilled manpower; and (4) lack of financing. The informal sector is the largest contributor to the housing construction sector, but the small contractors lack tools and the technical and financial resources to operate efficiently.

In the past several years, the Government has demonstrated a strong commitment to reduce dependency on imported construction materials and to expand the supply of local building materials by providing managerial and financial assistance to materials suppliers. It also seeks to reduce foreign domination in the industry by developing training programs and by securing financial and technical assistance for Burundian contractors, and to expand employment in the industry.

Significant investments are being made to exploit limestone deposits and develop lime kilns to replace the costly importation of cement. Improved production of local bricks and tiles is another objective toward which important new projects are now being directed. The World Bank-financed pilot project to assist the construction materials industry in appropriate technology is a noteworthy effort addressing the priority needs of the construction industry. The two principal low income housing projects in Bujumbura (Project Musaga and Project DUB, both described earlier) are making significant contributions in the design of affordable housing by reducing use of imported materials and substituting the use of local materials in an innovative, cost-reducing manner.

Building codes and standards scarcely exist at all insofar as housing construction is concerned. There is no regulatory body for the building trades. No other regulatory restrictions exist that would hamper the development of low income shelter projects.

6. Community Organization and Self-Help Housing

As recently as twenty years ago, collective action among neighbors in rural Burundi was the accepted way to build houses. This is rarely found in the countryside today, and is virtually non-existent in Bujumbura.

Some sources suggest that after the tribal conflict of 1972, between the Tutsi and Hutus, the rural population tended to become even more individualistic than before, and thus collective action was virtually abandoned. Also, as the economy has become increasingly monetized bartering of services gave way to purchasing of services, thus reducing the need for collective action. In Bujumbura, the highly diversified population (nearly half of the population is non-Burundian) contributes to the difficulty encountered in any type of community organization work.

Self-help housing construction is also not found on a large scale. The two principal donor-assisted low income housing projects offered the beneficiaries the opportunity to construct their own house themselves or to hire small contractors to build the houses for them. Overwhelmingly, the beneficiaries hired others to build their houses. These projects actually may have reached a level of beneficiaries who, in terms of aspirations if not income, are closer to the middle class, and thus are reluctant to work with their hands. Self-help may be more acceptable to the lower income groups. There is also a tendency on the part of some professionals to view core housing, and sites and services projects (where self-help is expected) as inappropriate design solutions for social housing programs, which may have been communicated to beneficiaries.

The Government has a small cadre of trained community development workers. The Foyers Sociaux (Social Welfare Centers) program of the Ministère des Affaires Sociales (Ministry of Social Affairs) trains local community leaders. The Ecole Sociale (Social Work School) in Gitega trains young women at the secondary level. A handful of Burundians have university degrees in social work or community development. They have studied abroad, as the University of Burundi has no degree program in related fields.

Several ministries are employing these individuals to develop cooperatives, health extension programs, villagisation programs, and other community-based programs. It appears, however, that there is a tendency for each ministry to set up its own network of people working at the community level which leads to duplication of efforts and an inefficient utilization of resources.

7. Financing Shelter Sector

a. Governmental Financial Resources: The resources available to the Burundi Government for development, including the shelter sector, are highly dependent on revenues from the sale of coffee on world

markets, as well as on the amount of foreign assistance that can be obtained. Coffee prices on the commodity market have been weak in the last two years. Despite conservative financial management and continued high levels of foreign assistance, the national budget is in deficit. A number of parastatal enterprises established in the late 1970s when coffee revenues were high now need Government resources to cover operating deficits. In many Burundi institutions, managers are inexperienced and limited in number. This makes effective administration difficult. Any new program or new organization established to assist the shelter sector must take into account the limited Government resources and should plan to be self-sustaining.

b. Housing Finance Institutions: No financial institution exists in Burundi which has substantial involvement in housing finance for individuals. CADEBU, the Burundi savings bank, has among its objectives the mobilizing of funds for housing finance, but, in fact, does very little. Loans for individual housing are very limited and available only to people with high incomes generally through the commercial banks or to higher level civil servants through the SIP. As a result, there is substantial need for housing and housing finance for middle and lower-level civil servants as well as for the low income population.

The Burundi Government has no concrete plan to create a specific housing finance institution. The fourth Five Year Plan (1981-1987) now being finalized, however, includes the objectives of assistance in the creation of a private building society and of mobilizing the financial resources of existing institutions within an organization set up to finance housing. Thus, the Government recognizes the need for housing finance institutions, but has yet to focus on their actual establishment.

The single institution with the goal of mobilizing private savings to relend for housing and consumer loans, is the Caisse d'Epargne du Burundi (CADEBU-the Burundi Savings Bank), a parastatal organization. This has not been effective. As the result of low interest rates paid on deposit accounts, 2.5 - 8.5 percent depending on the term, the heavy burden of administering numerous small accounts and the Government's obligatory savings program (includes a required 500 Fbu or US \$5.59 savings bond purchase by rural inhabitants each year which earns 3 percent over 3 years), CADEBU has not succeeded in attracting a significant amount of private savings and is not profitable. Furthermore, CADEBU does not have the capacity to process and administer loans equal to the demands made on it. CADEBU can process 1,000 loans per year, but receives 20 requests per day. Better loan processing and more efficient trained staff are necessary to make it a viable finance institution.

The Fonds de l'Habitat Rural (Rural Housing Fund), a new institution started in 1980 with limited funds, provides financial assistance to the rural housing sector via building materials loans. It has invested

US \$2 million in loans over 4 years, but it is only 2 years old and it has yet to prove that it can effectively collect on loans. In order to expand to meet the need for rural housing finance, FHR will need additional resources and the organization to handle them. Because of limited Burundi Government resources, foreign funding sources will probably be needed. Assuming it can demonstrate loan recovery and contain administrative costs generated by the large number of small loans, averaging about US \$350 per loan, this well-conceived program should be successful.

Resources available to the Burundi Government to utilize for housing or other purposes are uncertain from year to year. The amount of tax and foreign exchange revenues available to the Government is dependent largely on two factors, the supply and international price of coffee, and the amount of foreign development assistance received. Currently, the Government faces revenue shortages as a result of low coffee prices which have almost eliminated the margin between the producer and sales prices for coffee. While Burundi has and is expected to continue to be successful at obtaining foreign assistance on concessional terms, the need for counterpart resources and support for projects and institutions begun when coffee prices were high has put an additional strain on the Government budget. The Government has taken some action to raise taxes and reduce spending on projects and consumer imports. However, revenues are sufficiently scarce that the Government is paying late on many obligations to parastatals.

A further source of financing to the economy is the mobilization of domestic savings. This effort is constrained by the fact that a large proportion of the populace operates almost completely outside the monetary economy. Also, savings potential is weak because of very low monetary revenues. Obligatory rural savings schemes have not been successful due to the small amounts collected, high administrative costs and low interest rates. In the more monetized urban sector, additional efforts to raise savings via raising interest rates, particularly if tied to the possibility of a housing loan, could be successful. Indications that many urban dwellers have income in addition to salaries suggest that savings potential exists to be tapped.

Since the Burundi economy is quite small and most of the population lives from subsistence agriculture, the possibilities for revenue generation are limited. However, the Burundi Government has repeatedly demonstrated that it has a general willingness to analyze and face up to its structural problems and a prudent, conservative, relatively pragmatic approach to dealing with its economic development needs. Conservative government financial management has helped attract foreign resources such as grants and low cost loans. As a result, the debt service ratio is relatively low at about 10 percent. This figure has fluctuated from 5 to 10 percent from year to year due to the variations in coffee export revenues and may increase if coffee prices continue to be weak. The amount of foreign exchange reserves

also is a function of coffee revenues. At the moment, foreign exchange reserves are low and continuation of the present conservative financial management would seem to be a necessity. There has been no need for IMF intervention.

Deficit operations of a number of parastatal corporations, including those not in the financial sector, require government support. Improved management and operations would facilitate financial resource conservation by lowering the need for government support.

c. Cost Recovery and Subsidies: Resources could be augmented through more effective cost recovery in several areas. Infrastructure and maintenance service costs in Bujumbura basically are not recovered. Government land sales at below market prices without recovery of infrastructure costs and tax policies favor the higher income groups. In effect, the Government subsidizes the cost of infrastructure and maintenance in the higher income neighborhoods. The city's tax system is complex and regressive in that large commercial establishments pay relatively lower taxes compared to small establishments. A new tax code which would recover infrastructure and maintenance costs from the major users most able to pay was proposed and defeated by the National Assembly recently, but it will be considered again in September 1983. Also, more effective spending of city revenues could result in savings which could be used to provide better maintenance of the city's infrastructure.

In recent years, housing subsidies, primarily for civil servants, have been the main government expenditure in the shelter sector. The subsidy has been uneven, for the higher level civil servants who bought SIP houses received the largest government subsidy. Faced with deficits, the Government cut back on this funding in 1982 and will again in 1983. Although the Government has a stated policy of providing shelter needs to low income people as well as civil servants, revenue constraints have led to expenditure cuts for subsidies to civil servant housing and almost total dependence on foreign funding sources for housing for the low income population. Thus, while the Government has recognized the housing need at the policy level, it has not been willing to allocate more resources to this sector, choosing rather to devote scarce resources only to civil service housing and to other areas outside the housing sector.

While direct government subsidies are not pervasive in the Burundi economy, indirect subsidies exist in several areas which relate to the availability of resources to support housing and urban development. For example, government land, or the right to occupy that land, is given away at no cost or at a below market cost without even recovery of infrastructure costs. For example, serviced Government lots in the high income neighborhoods of Rohero are sold at a price per square meter that is less than one-tenth of the market price of the right to occupy land in a low income neighborhood. The lack of a policy of full cost recovery for land and services results in a drain on government resources. As long as cost recovery is not an

institutionalized policy, expectations of government largesse can be expected to continue, and cost recovery in shelter sector projects for low income families will be fragile.

The Burundi Government sets interest rates for both deposits and loans throughout the financial sector. These rates are not adjusted regularly (last changed in 1981), and do not reflect market rates, given that inflation in recent years has been higher than the established interest rates.

B. RECOMMENDATIONS

A series of recommendations relating to the findings and conclusions of the Shelter Sector Assessment are provided below for consideration by the Government of Burundi. Many of these recommendations stem from discussions with GRB officials who are actively involved in and committed to solving the housing and urban development issues currently facing the country, and thus may already be under consideration.

1. The Government should consider reorganizing, restructuring and then strengthening the housing institutions in the country and develop appropriate and supportive roles for public and private sector. The Government should encourage the housing institution to be self supportive and profit making rather than continuing drain on the government budget.
2. A comprehensive review of both direct and indirect subsidies must be undertaken. This includes a review of housing subsidies to civil servants and land and tax policies. The aim of the review should be to move toward full cost recovery, in particular of infrastructure costs, and to reduce government support. Any effort to recover costs should involve creation and/or improvement of collection procedures, and a more effective tax structure for the modern sector of the economy to generate resources for the Government. Adoption of a tax code similar in principal to that proposed (but not adopted) in the last year would be appropriate.

3. The government should prepare a national urban development strategy that more clearly defines the specific actions needed to achieve the government's policies for decentralization and strengthening of secondary centers as stated in the Five Year Plan. Such a strategy should include a determination of the initial urban centers that would be promoted, a description of the approach to identify development projects in secondary centers, and a framework for coordinating the investments of related ministries.
4. Investment plans for Bujumbura and selected secondary centers should be prepared by the ministries related to urban development. This should be coordinated by the Division de l'Urbanisme de l'Habitat (MTPPEM) working in conjunction with the National Urban Commission to assure cost efficiency and coordination of investments. The investment plans should directly involve the relevant commune administration to insure that an individual urban center's needs are understood and that all of the programs of the various ministries are coordinated for the maximum benefit. The investment program should then be integrated in the government forward budgeting process and become the framework for government expenditure, donor assistance and local initiative.
5. Legislation should be adopted that defines the expanded legal functions of the communes for meeting the nation's urban development objectives and in directing their own social and economic development. Methods should be devised to expand local government revenues and investment funds commensurate with any expansion of functions and obligations. The central government's role in urban development vis-a-vis that of the local government should also be defined. In general, the central government should facilitate and oversee the flow of investment funds to the commune and provide assistance in those areas, where the communes do not have an internal capability. Training for local officials is needed in order for them to carry out these functions.
6. The Government's Five Year Plan for housing should be translated into more specific housing objectives. Included among these should be the housing needs of low income women-headed households and the housing needs of the non-Burundian urban population.
7. Because the World Bank and UN sites and services projects only meet a portion of the current need for low income housing, the Government should then initiate sites and services projects on well-located government land to meet the needs of arriving migrants and avoid the proliferation of squatter settlements, particularly in Bujumbura. To reduce costs and mobilize as

much private capital as possible for the development of shelter, priority should be given to phased introduction of basic infrastructure and minimum services consistent with public health objectives.

8. The community development function needs to be incorporated in the initial stages of all low income housing projects in order to ensure beneficiary participation and acceptance of the solutions. A stronger coordination among the ministries providing social services is needed in order to make the maximum use of limited resources at the community level.
9. Legislation should be adopted that provides for the transformation of customary rights to full legal title of lands in urban centers. This will be facilitated by the establishment of a cadastral survey and land registration program.
10. The Government should more fully exploit its urban land as a revenue base. The costs of social and economic infrastructure should be recovered to the extent possible through the sale of government land at its full value. The financing and sale of housing for civil servants should also account for the full value of government land. Such measures offer the advantage of increasing fiscal resources for further public investment in urban centers.
11. The Government's recent achievements in strengthening the construction industry should be built upon in the years ahead in even more comprehensive fashion as experience is gained and lessons earned. Training and technical assistance to the informal as well as the formal sector in areas such as improved housing design and appropriate use of local materials should be emphasized.

III. COUNTRY SITUATION

INTRODUCTION

In this section a number of factors about Burundi are reviewed in order to provide the framework for analyzing the housing and urban development situation in the country. Of particular importance are the population characteristics, the pattern of urbanization and the employment situation, as all three have implications for the shelter sector. The information used to prepare this section has been drawn from a variety of existing reports and publications which have been summarized to present material relevant to the issues of housing and urban development.

B. DESCRIPTION OF GEOGRAPHY AND CLIMATE

Burundi is a small, landlocked country in Central Africa, located just south of the Equator. The country is bounded by Zaire and Lake Tanganyika to the West, Tanzania to the South and East, and Rwanda to the North. The capital and only city, Bujumbura, is located on a lowland plain along the northeast shore of Lake Tanganyika.

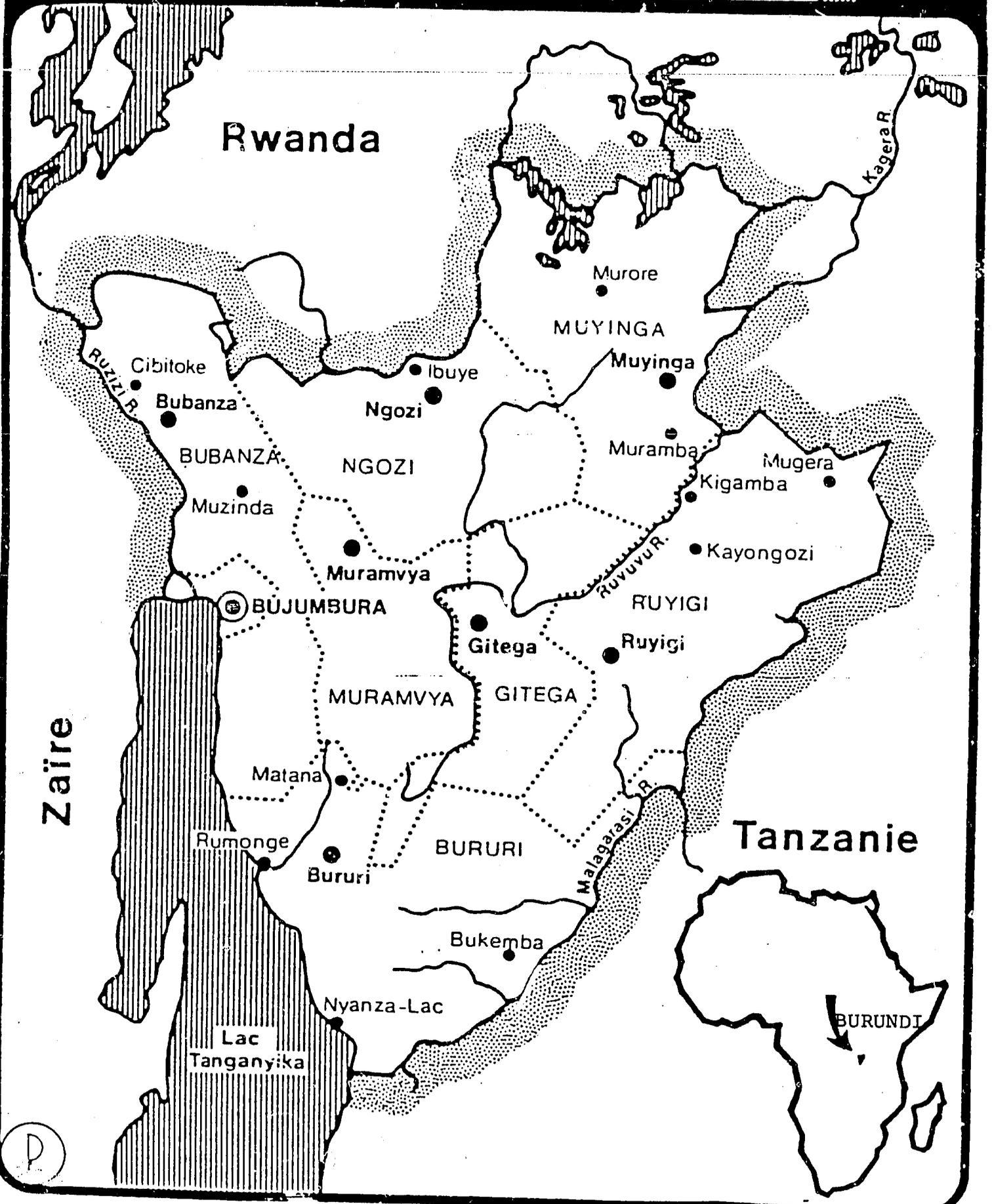
A country about the size of Belgium, Burundi covers 27,834 square kilometers (10,747 square miles) and lies along the western extension of the Great Rift Valley. The country is comprised of four distinct geographical regions, the Ruzizi River-Lake Tanganyika Plains, the Zaire-Nile Crest, the Central Plateau, and the Eastern Region. The plains along the Ruzizi River and Lake Tanganyika follow the Rift Valley at an average elevation of 800 meters. This area is hot and tropical, with annual temperatures ranging between 22.5 and 25 centigrade. To the east of the plains are steeply sloping ridges of the Zaire-Nile Crest, rising to elevations between 2,000 and 2,600 meters. Cooler and wetter than the plains, this region registers average temperatures from 17 to 19 centigrade with some frost in the June to September dry seasons.

East of the Zaire-Nile Crest is the Central Plateau, characterized by rolling dome-shaped hills and ridges. Somewhat lower than the Zaire-Nile Crest at elevations of 1,500 to 1,900 meters, the Central Plateau receives less rain and is moderately warmer. The fourth area, the Eastern Region, is an extension of the Central Plateau and is made up of a series of ridges and valleys aligned in a southwest-northeast direction with savannas and plains extending along the Tanzanian border. Temperatures are again hot and tropical, especially in the swamps along the border. The housing requirements are simple requiring no provision of heat except for a few places in the central highlands.

Due to its high relief, the equatorial climate is quite moderate. This, combined with the fertile laterite soil, make most areas suitable for two growing seasons, and in some limited areas three crops per year.

BURUNDI

50 klm



Rainfall can vary significantly from year to year, so that in limited rainfall years drought conditions result in reduced agricultural output of commercial and subsistence crops.

Burundi normally has abundant water from rainfall which feeds a number of rivers, streams and lakes. Some watercourses are suitable for hydroelectric power generation. In addition, over 4,000 fresh water springs located throughout the upland areas provide water for most of the rural population. These springs are now being capped to provide sanitary water supplies to the rural areas.

Land use is divided among crops (37 percent), pasture (22 percent), forest (5 percent) and wasteland (35 percent). Urban land use comprises less than 1 percent.

It is clear that the major natural resource of Burundi, its land, is under extreme pressure. Burundi shares with neighboring Rwanda the African population density record, with almost 235 people per square kilometer of arable land. The average landholdings are now no larger than a hectare, and agricultural lands are reaching their carrying capacity. Of the 1.4 million hectares of available arable land, approximately 150,000 hectares are all that remain to be cultivated. Therefore, adding new land for cultivation is not feasible to any significant extent.

The heavy population density has not only forced the cultivation of marginal lands, but has resulted in uncontrolled tree cutting. Less than 5 percent of Burundi's land remains in forest from the heavy forest cover that existed in the 17th century, and USAID/Burundi estimates that tree cover will be reduced to 40 percent of 1981 levels by 1986. Deforestation is especially serious around the capital and the secondary urban areas as the demand for firewood and charcoal for urban dwellers increases. This also limits the supply of wood available for home construction.

Large peat deposits are located in several parts of the country. With AID assistance, peat is now being exploited as an alternative fuel source to the use of charcoal. This development is particularly important since importation of fossil fuels is prohibitively expensive, and, as mentioned above, extensive wood-cutting for charcoal has depleted forests. Extensive reforestation projects are underway, but without other fuel sources these will not be sufficient to stop the reduction in the tree cover because of the increasing fuel needs of the rapidly growing population.

Serious soil erosion has been caused by the deforestation as well as by the traditional farming measures and the lack of proper erosion control measures and terracing.

C. ECONOMIC OVERVIEW

While the economy of Burundi is small and relatively simple, it is one of the better managed economies in Africa. It has grown modestly in the last few years despite depressed market prices for coffee, the major

export crop, increased demand for expensive petroleum products, transportation disruptions and other structural problems which have had a serious impact on the ability of Government to sustain growth. However, unlike a number of other African countries, the Burundi Government has repeatedly demonstrated that it has a general willingness to analyze and face up to its structural problems, and a prudent, conservative, relatively pragmatic approach to dealing with its economic development needs. Also on the plus side, debt servicing is relatively low, and there has been no need for IMF intervention.

Nevertheless, the structural problems remain formidable. The physical environment is such that the Burundi population's food needs cannot be met using current production methods. Population pressure on land and current limitations on food production capability have caused pre-harvest food shortages, increased erosion, and reduced soil fertility. Deficient nutrition and environmental sanitation have helped to create poor health conditions. Firewood and charcoal have become scarce and expensive. Severe food and fuel shortages can be expected before the end of the century unless prompt action is taken.

In summary, domestic structural problems, as well as international economic and political events, constrain the Burundi economy and the ability of the Government to improve economic performance.

1. Economic Output

In the 1977-1982 period of the Third Five Year Plan real GDP at market prices increased an average of 3.7 percent per year (see Table III.1). During 1979 and 1980, the country experienced low growth rates (2.7 and 0.2 percent respectively) due to a drop in coffee prices and production, poor weather, the second "oil shock," and transport disruptions caused by political disturbances in neighboring countries. In 1981, real GDP soared 8.4 percent due to excellent weather, a record breaking coffee crop, and the recovery of the construction and light industries which had been severely affected by transportation problems of the previous year. Preliminary figures for 1982 indicate that real GDP growth slowed to 3.6 percent as a result of low world prices for coffee that practically eliminated the margin between producer prices and export prices. Consequently, economic activity slowed as the Government reduced capital investment spending due to lower tax revenues from coffee.

The GDP for 1982 is estimated to have reached US\$1,121 million or \$282 per capita based on the estimated population of 4.4 million. In the 1977-1982 Five Year Plan Period, per capita income increased only an average of 1.4 percent per year vs. a 3.7 percent increase per year in the GDP. As long as the Burundi population continues to increase at a rate of 2.7 percent, subsistence agriculture (representing 50 percent of GDP) grows only modestly, and coffee prices remain weak, per capita income cannot be expected to increase significantly in the next few years.

TABLE III.1

GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT (GDP)

CONSUMPTION AND INVESTMENT

in Burundi Francs (FBu)

	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982*
GDP (BN FBu) (MARKET PRICES)	49,979	55,460	72,489	89,358	100,481	109,015
1. REAL GDP (BN FBu) (MARKET PRICES, in CONSTANT 1970 FBu)	26,673	27,613	28,349	28,413	30,002	31,913
REAL % GROWTH in GDP	10.8	3.5	2.7	.2	8.4	3.6
REAL GDP PER CAPITA	6,928	7,017	7,049	6,913	7,334	7,434
2. REAL GROSS DOMESTIC EXPENDITURE (MN FBu 1970 PRICES)	30,830	32,090	33,590	32,934	35,247	36,510
CONSUMPTION						
PRIVATE	(23,137)	(22,925)	(24,024)	(24,714)	(24,294)	(25,492)
PUBLIC	(2,792)	(3,105)	(2,923)	(2,875)	(3,326)	(3,448)
GROSS FIXED CAPITAL FORMATION	(2,910)	(3,347)	(3,482)	(3,330)	(3,245)	(4,245)
INVENTORY CHANGES					(823)	(-364)
RESOURCE GAP (1 minus 2) (as % share of GDP)	4,157 15.6	4,477 16.2	5,241 15.3	4,521 15.9	5,245 17.5	4,597 14.4

SOURCE: Ministère du Plan, Gouvernement du Burundi, Bujumbura, Burundi, 1982

* Provisional

1 US \$ = 90 FBu

TABLE III.2

GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT by INDUSTRIAL ORIGIN
in 1970 PRICES, 1979-1982
(in millions of Burundi Francs)

<u>Primary Sector</u>	1979	1980	1981	1982*
Agriculture-Foodcrops	12,312	12,555	12,970	12,713
Agriculture-Export Crops	1,516	1,329	3,078	1,432
Livestock, Fishing, Forestry	1,688	1,941	2,332	2,359
<u>Secondary Sector</u>				
Agroindustry	76	70	120	83
Food Processing	1,626	1,836	1,892	1,200
Construction	1,180	1,371	1,344	1,561
Other Industries	655.9	745	704.4	1,043
<u>Tertiary Sector</u>				
Transport and communications	600	563	600	912
Commerce	1,882	1,912	2,030	2,391
Other Private Services	788	801	850	999
Public Services	1,097	1,082	1,196	1,261
Private nonprofit institutions	854	871	860	894
Foreign aid	723	781	860	894
GDP at Factor Cost	24,997	25,910	28,846	28,552

SOURCE: Ministère du Plan, Gouvernement du Burundi, Bujumbura, Burundi, 1982

* Provisional

1 US \$ = 90 FBu

Output in the primary sector during the 1977-1982 period increased only modestly, an average of 0.7 percent per year, and, in fact, declined 10.2 percent in real terms in 1982. Since the agricultural sector normally represents over 60 percent of output, this weak performance is particularly critical to the Burundi economy. The magnitude of the problem is evident considering the fact that 95 percent of the population feed themselves almost entirely from subsistence farming. Unless agricultural production, in particular, food crops, increases in real terms at the same or a greater rate than the increase in population, the vast majority of Burundians face serious food shortages in coming years. While the Burundi Government has emphasized development of the agricultural sector, progress has been slow. In the 1977-1982 period, agriculture for export and livestock production increased an average of 8.9 and 10.7 percent per year respectively. However, food crops, which represent about 77 percent of all agricultural production, declined 0.9 percent per year. Furthermore, any increases in total food production have resulted from increased planting rather than the technological shift necessary for increased yield per hectare and Burundi is running out of arable land. These facts underline the magnitude of the fundamental problem facing Burundi--meeting the basic food needs of a primarily rural population.

In contrast, the smaller secondary and tertiary sectors showed strong gains, increasing annually 9.2 and 6.0 percent respectively, in real terms, in the 1977-1982 period. However, these sectors only represented about 15 and 23 percent of output respectively in recent years. Increases were more modest in the last three years when industry faced higher import costs due to transportation problems and the Government slowed expenditures as a result of lower coffee revenues.

Consumption by the private sector declined to 79.9 percent of real GDP in 1982 after reaching a peak of 87.0 percent in 1980, as the Government tried to slow the growth of imports for consumption and stressed investment. Consumption expenditure by Government has remained steady at about 10-11 percent of real GDP in the last five years. After declining for two years, gross capital formation has increased to an estimated 14.9 percent of GDP in 1982, despite a shortfall in Government investment expenditures (see Table III.3).

The rural sector share in capital formation has declined from 16.3 percent in 1979 to an estimated 11.4 percent in 1982. However, considering the difficulties of launching a program from the very low levels of development expenditure that existed prior to 1976, with very limited human resources, the Burundi government has implemented a surprisingly high level of investment in economic and social development to benefit the rural population. For example, since 1979, 23 new health centers/dispensaries have been built, paved truck roads have expanded from 100 to 546 kilometers and other major routes have been upgraded, and communal tree nurseries are being planted throughout the countryside. Numerous other rural development projects are being undertaken with substantial foreign assistance.

TABLE III.3

GROSS FIXED CAPITAL FORMATION BY SECTOR
AS PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL, 1979-1982

	<u>1979</u>	<u>1980</u>	<u>1981</u>	<u>1982*</u>
Rural Sector	16.3	14.6	15.2	11.4
Mining and Energy	13.3	11.6	11.9	15.3
Industry	9.5	12.6	8.0	13.3
Roads & Airports	13.9	19.5	19.9	17.5
Transport & Telecommunications	8.1	6.3	3.3	3.6
Housing	5.9	13.5	10.8	11.7
Commerce, Banking and Tourism	4.1	4.5	5.5	6.0
Social & Admin. Infrastructure	28.8	17.3	25.4	21.5
<hr/>				
Gross Capital Formation as % of GDP	14.5	12.9	11.8	14.9
Housing as a % of GDP	.9	1.7	1.3	1.8

Source: Ministère du Plan, Bujumbura, Burundi, 1982

* Provisional

Capital expenditures, as a percent of GDP, have varied from year to year reflecting transportation problems, changes in coffee revenues, and limits in absorptive capacity to implement projects. However, investment increases in energy, industry, roads and airports, and housing have been significant since 1979 (see Table III.3). Much of this growth results from foreign assistance.

Housing capital expenditure more than doubled from 1979 to 1980 as the Government pursued a policy of providing housing for Government functionaries through the parastatal SIP. Transportation bottlenecks which affected the importation of construction materials slowed construction somewhat in 1981, but housing construction rose again in 1982. Removal of rent control in Bujumbura contributed to growth in private sector rental housing construction during the last two years. Private housing construction stagnated during the years rent control was in effect.

The Burundi Government has launched major efforts to mobilize its own resources for development. Between 1975 and 1980, the percentage of GDP collected as government revenues increased from 9 to 14 percent, but this figure dropped in 1981 due to Government losses on coffee. Total receipts dropped by about 5 percent in 1981. The Government has tried to compensate by raising taxes on beer by more than 100 percent in less than three years, increasing indirect taxes, raising the transaction tax from 3 to 6 percent, and increasing the cost of vehicle and shipping registration. The increase in the beer tax resulted in a sharp decline in beer sales, and therefore revenues have been less than expected.

The 1983 Ordinary Budget has been set at 15.08 billion FBU (\$167 million), an increase of 11.7 percent over 1982. This increase will be primarily absorbed by the Defense, Education and Planning Ministries and by growing debt repayment requirements, while all other ministries will be held to levels close to those of 1982. Revenues are expected to be 14.58 billion FBU (\$162 million), indicating a shortfall of about \$5 million.

The Extraordinary Budget which covers proposed investment in infrastructure and development programs was fixed at 6.4 billion FBU (\$71 million) for 1983. About 1.1 billion FBU (\$12.3 million) will be used to cover commitments from the 1982 budget, and a large part (\$27.7 million) will go to the Ministry of Public Works, Energy and Mines for construction, roads, electrification projects and mineral exploration and development. Housing and housing related capital expenditures are budgeted at 9.2 percent of the 1983 total or about US\$5.4 million. Actual investment will be substantially higher because these budget figures do not include foreign donor assistance.

Foreign development assistance has and will continue to be a very large ingredient in the economic development of Burundi, given the country's

structural problems, dependence on volatile coffee earnings and landlocked location. Burundi has successfully been able to obtain substantial assistance from a number of countries at very concessionary terms. In 1981, foreign assistance surpassed ordinary budget revenues (see Table III.4) and the Government in the Fourth Five Year Plan (1983-1987) is projecting major increases in foreign assistance. The prudent, conservative management of the economy increases the likelihood that foreign assistance will continue and increase subject to the absorptive capacity of the country.

TABLE III.4

DEVELOPMENT ASSISTANCE IN BURUNDI
1981 DISBURSEMENTS BY DONORS

(in \$US millions)

A. MAJOR DONORS

	<u>GRANTS</u>	<u>TECH. ASSISTANCE(1)</u>	<u>TOTAL</u>
1. Belgium	\$12.7	\$14.7	\$25.4
2. France	4.8	11.9	16.7
3. W. Germany	19.1	6.8	25.7
4. UN Agencies	16.3	9.7	26.0

B. MINOR DONORS (selected)

1. U.S.	9.3 (PL480 Food)	.6	9.9
2. FED (of EEC)	9.6	.4	9.1
3. USSR	0	1.5	1.6
4. Netherlands	.2	.9	1.1

C. TOTAL DEVELOPMENT ASSISTANCE

1. Grants.....	63.0
2. Tech. Assistance.....	49.9
3. Loans(2).....	144.4
4. GRAND TOTAL DEVELOPMENT ASSISTANCE.....	257.3 (3)

Source: UNDP Annual Report for 1981, December 1982.
Charts prepared by U.S. Embassy, Bujumbura.

- (1) Expatriate personnel salaries and benefits.
- (2) Major lenders are: IDA of the World Bank (60% of total), The Arab African Development Bank, Kuwait Fund, OPEC, and the African Development Fund.
- (3) Total GRB ordinary budget revenues were \$105 million; foreign assistance (including loans) surpassed GRB sources of revenue for their ordinary budget.

2. Inflation

Inflation rates in Burundi have evolved as shown in the following table.

TABLE III.5

INFLATION RATES IN BURUNDI
(% increases per year)

	<u>1978</u>	<u>1979</u>	<u>1980</u>	<u>1981</u>	<u>1982</u>
Bujumbura Cost of Living	23.4	25.5	14.0	8.0	4.8
Imported Goods Price Index	21.1	33.5	23.2	3.0	5.4

Source: Banque de la République du Burundi, Rapport Annuel.

Several factors contributed to high inflation rates in 1978 and 1979 which show the impact of international events on the Burundi economy. The money supply expanded as a result of higher import prices especially for oil, and increased Government expenditures in expectation of continued high coffee prices. Both led to Government deficits. In addition, as a result of transportation difficulties in neighboring countries, supply scarcities occurred and transportation costs increased. Import supply problems continued in 1980, but the domestic economic slowdown as a result of imported material supply scarcities and lower coffee revenues lessened the domestic inflation component by weakening demand. Slowing of worldwide inflation and better coffee harvests as well as tighter controls on imports have helped keep inflation levels below 10 percent for the last two years.

In addition, in 1981 and 1982, the appreciation of the U.S. dollar (to which the Burundi franc rate is fixed) against the currencies in which Burundi imports goods, contributed to lower inflation. Whether these lower rates can be sustained depends primarily on the level of price increases for imported goods and sales revenues from coffee.

3. Employment

A very small portion (6 percent) of the population is employed in the modern sector, which is experiencing a slow growth rate. From 1980-1981, jobs in the modern sector grew an estimated 4 percent. The overwhelming majority of the population continues to work in subsistence agriculture, with some cash income realized from the sale of coffee and tea.

4. Money Supply and Balance of Payments

The money supply of Burundi is largely dependent on coffee production and prices as well as public sector operations. Each coffee crop necessitates a major credit financing operation to pay growers. This financing need declines as export payments are received. The money supply increased relatively modestly until 1976-1978 when it increased rapidly with worldwide record coffee prices and growing government expenditures. After modest growth in 1979-1980, money supply soared again in 1981 as a result of the record coffee crop. In 1982, the money supply also increased because of the need to finance unexported coffee and a substantial inflow of foreign assets.

Money supply growth has also generally exceeded the inflation rate. In general, when revenues have dropped, the government has been able to reduce spending by cutting back on capital investment and postponing the start up of new investment projects which has had a dampening effect on money supply increases. For the coming few years, Burundi may continue to experience unavoidable budget and balance of payments deficits, but the Government has already taken actions to reduce unnecessary imports and should be able to finance its budget deficits through domestic borrowings and additional taxes already levied.

Although the export sector (primarily coffee) usually accounts for five percent of GDP at factor cost, it has a much larger impact on foreign exchange availability representing 90 percent or more of Burundi's export earnings. Burundi had a large balance of trade surplus in the mid-1970s which vanished as world coffee prices declined and the Third Development Plan expenditures increased imports. Coffee earnings dropped sharply in 1980 decreasing foreign exchange inflow and transport bottlenecks increased foreign exchange needs in 1981. The value of imports dropped slightly in 1981 and increased by an estimated 9 percent in 1982, while export revenues increased only modestly in 1981 despite a large increase in volume. Slightly higher coffee prices in 1982 resulted in another modest increase in export revenue in 1982 even though coffee sales declined by about 2,000 metric tons.

The balance of payments continued in deficit in 1982 despite actions taken by the Government to reduce imports of consumer goods. Official foreign exchange reserves declined from nine months of imports in December 1979 to about 6 months in December 1981, three months in 1982, and even less in 1983, reaching about \$26 million at March 31, 1983. Part of this is due to the country's dependence on a single crop (efforts to diversify to tea and cotton exports have had limited success) and the irregularity of receipts from its sale. The foreign exchange problem is a manifestation of the basic long term structural problems of the Burundi economy and the overall difficulty in financing over a long term both the recurrent and investment expenditures required for economic development.

Outside of some small commercial loans remaining from the previous government (1966-70), borrowings consist of long-term development loans from international organizations such as OPEC and the IDA, and from donor

countries. These loans have been made on highly concessionary terms with an estimated grant element of 70 percent. The debt service ratio is relatively low at about 10 percent, now when export revenues are weak. This is up from 1977-79 when it was at about 3 percent and from 1980-81 when it was slightly over 7 percent. According to recent estimates by USAID, this debt service ratio is expected to remain relatively unchanged for the next few years, with export fluctuations causing some distortion in the figures from year to year. Burundi as yet has not required IMF assistance. The possibility of a standby Extended Funding Facility is being discussed which would give Burundi several years access to funds if required.

In line with Burundi's conservative economic management, the Government has shown no indication of planning to borrow on the international financial markets, in face of unpredictable coffee revenues. The Government is actively pursuing donor assistance to meet its development needs, and, as previously mentioned, is projecting increased assistance in the Fourth Five Year Plan period (1983-1987).

5. Near Term Outlook

U.S. State Department and U.S. Embassy economists expect coffee earnings to remain relatively stable in the next few years, as world prices are not expected to rise because of large coffee supplies worldwide. As a result of programs underway to modernize and increase production, Burundi will probably be able to produce coffee sufficient to meet its entitlement as a member of the International Coffee Organization, subject to favorable weather conditions. The structural problem of dependence on costly imports will result in continued current account deficits and continued dependence on foreign assistance. While the Fourth Five Year Plan has not been published yet, it is expected to stress the same objectives as the Third Five Year Plan, namely emphasizing agricultural production especially to meet food requirements, economic growth to provide employment, import substitution, and arresting deforestation.

In addition, mineral resources such as phosphates, vanadium and nickel have been discovered in Burundi and commercial exploitation is under study. The British Sulphur Corporation is carrying out a \$1.2 million feasibility study for exploiting phosphate deposits. If the project is viable, it will provide fertilizer for the farmers and the underlying carbonate could provide for local cement production substituting for the 50,000 tons of cement imported each year. The UNDP has identified vanadium deposits of up to 10 million tons. A Finnish company has estimated the ore to be 85-90 percent recoverable and is apparently interested in making an investment. While Burundi has enormous nickel deposits, the prospects for exploitation may be viable only by the end of the century.

The foregoing economic summary is based primarily on documents from the Central Bank of Burundi, Ministry of Planning and World Bank (see bibliography), as well as on discussions with officials in Burundi.

D. POPULATION CHARACTERISTICS

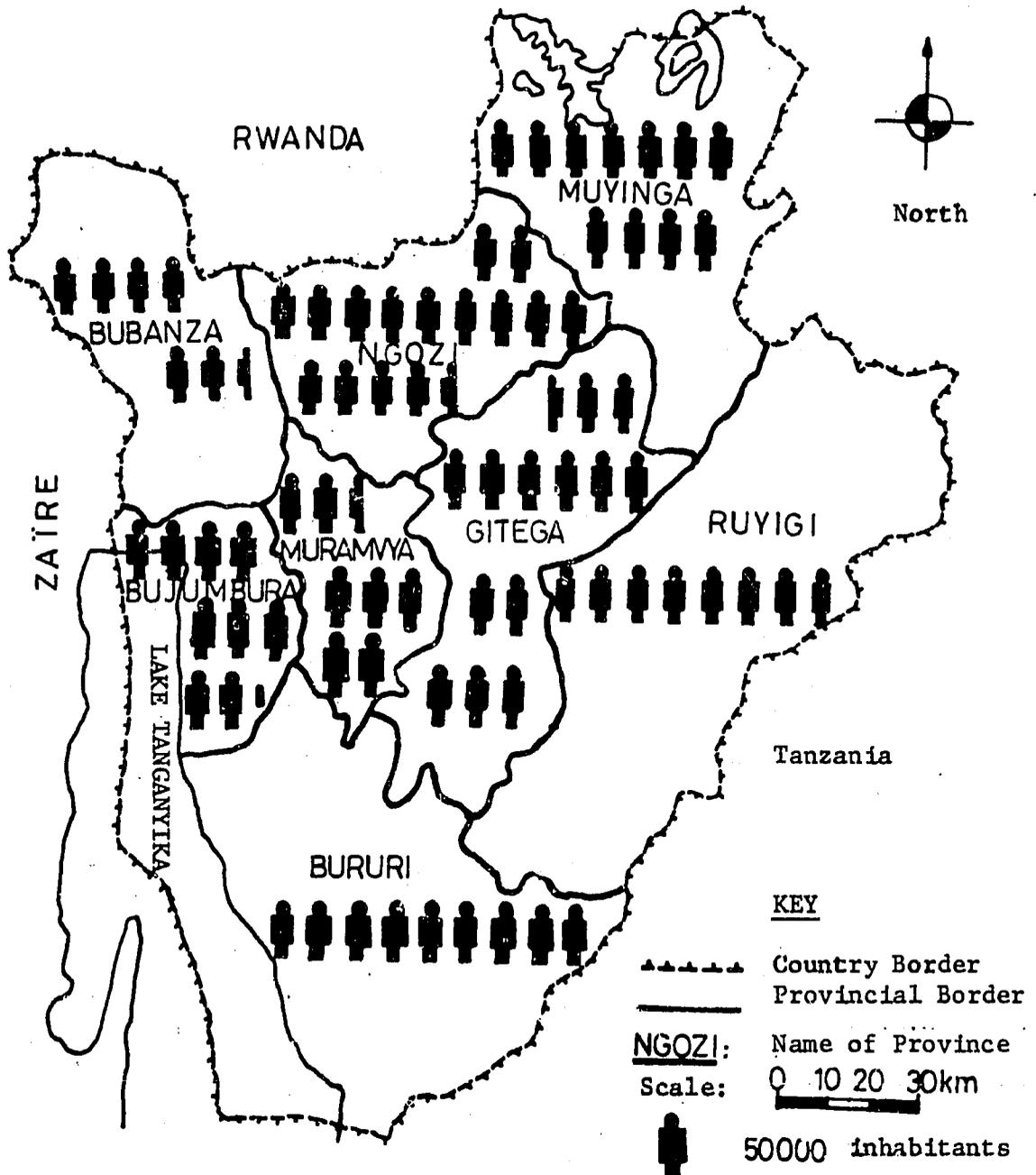
1. Population Characteristics

The first general census of the population of Burundi was taken in August 1979. The general census, as well as a pre-census survey and a post-census survey taken within three months of the census, accumulated the first specific information on age, sex, marital status, birth place, nationality, religion, education, employment and housing. Prior to this United Nations-assisted census, all population estimates were based on projections from small sample studies taken in 1970-71. All historical data on population, therefore, are subject to large margins of error and the data from the two surveys (1971 and 1979) should be considered independently of each other. Final data from the 1979 census have been published by the Census Bureau, in the Ministère de l'Intérieur (Ministry of the Interior) only for the national level. Individual reports for each province are being prepared and will be published shortly. Data from the post-census survey, completed three months after the census, were published in "Incomplete Raw Data of the Post-Census Survey 1979."

Burundi is the second most densely populated country in Africa, after Rwanda, with over 154 people per km². Further, the population of 4,400,000 is unequally distributed between the heavily populated central and northern areas of the country and the relatively under-populated areas of the south and border areas near Tanzania. Thus, density in some areas of the country is as high as 287 inhabitants per km² (Table III.6).

A graphic portrayal of national population distribution is provided on the accompanying map (Figure III.1). Approximately 65 percent of the population lives within the triangular area defined by Bujumbura, Ngozi, and Ruyigi, where population density far exceeds the national average. Ngozi is the most densely inhabited area of the country (287 inhabitants per km²), followed by Muramvya (246.3 inhabitants per km²), and Bujumbura (excluding the capital), with 225.5 persons per km². On the other hand, Ruyigi, in the east, with 69 people per km², and Bururi with 92.3 persons per km², have populations far below the average (see Table III.6). The regions traditionally most densely populated (the Zaire-Nile crestline and the central plateaus) are losing population to the capital city of Bujumbura and its surrounding area or to the less densely inhabited provinces of Bubanza in the northwest and Muyinga in the northeast.

DISTRIBUTION OF THE POPULATION IN BURUNDI, 1979



Source: Résultats Définitifs au Niveau National, Département de la Population Ministère de l'Intérieur.

TABLE III.6

BURUNDI: DENSITY OF POPULATION AND NUMBER OF COMMUNES AND COLLINES, 1979 1/

<u>PROVINCE</u>	<u>POPULATION</u> ('000)	<u>AREA</u> (km ²)	<u>DENSITY</u> (Persons/km ²)	<u>NUMBER OF</u> <u>COMMUNES</u>	<u>NUMBER OF</u> <u>COLLINES</u>
Bubanza	330.5	2,670	121.9	5	142
Bujumbura*	298.6	1,253	225.5	8	176
Bururi	457.7	4,678	92.33	11	285
Gitega	681.6	3,326	197.7	11	383
Muramvya	380.7	1,510	246.3	9	227
Muyinga	546.4	3,495	147.7	10	338
Ngozi	777.4	2,592	287.2	15	542
Ruyigi	393.1	5,444	68.7	10	367
BURUNDI	4,028.42		154.3	<u>79</u>	<u>2,460</u>
For reference					
Bujumbura city	162.3				

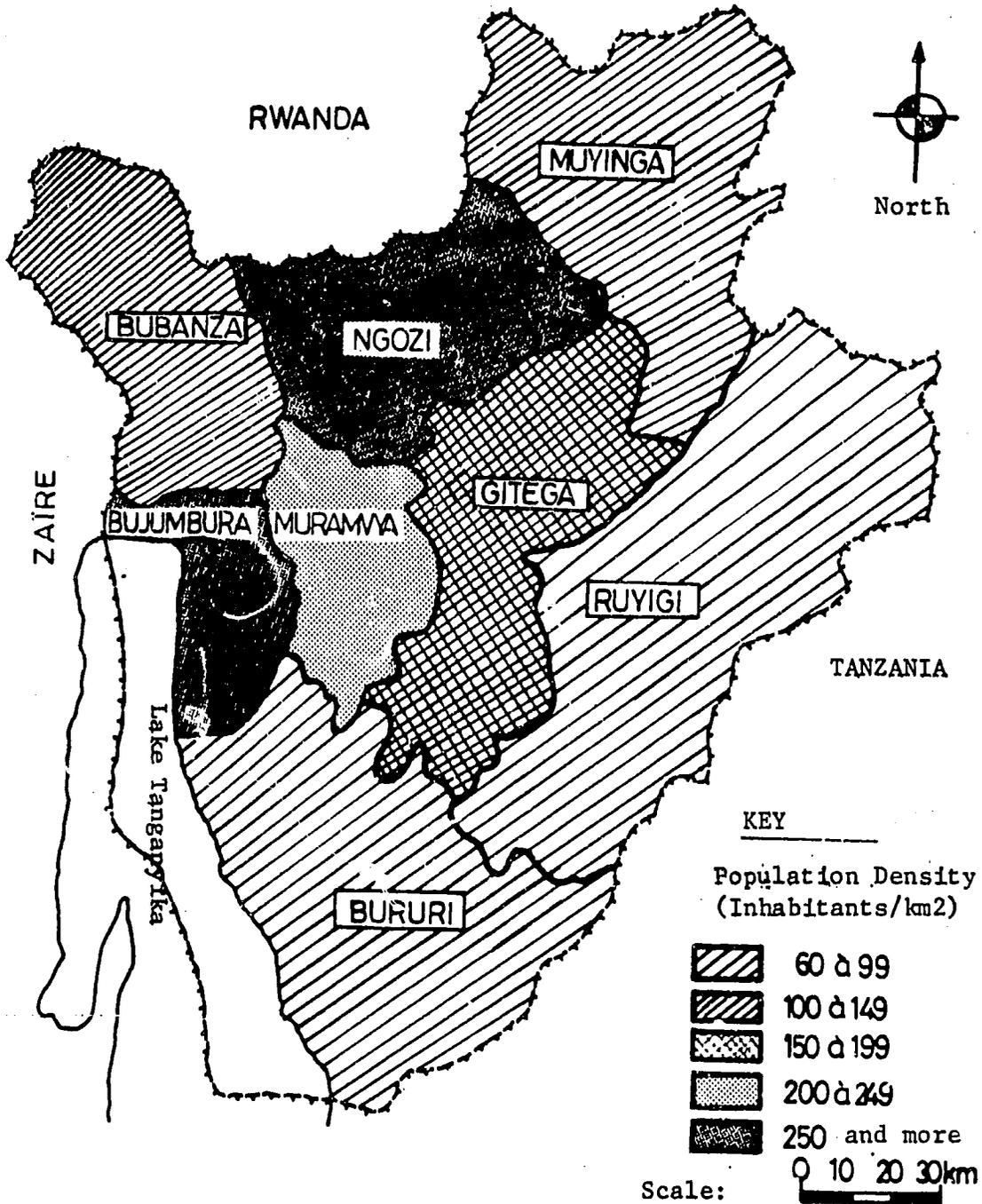
* Without the capital.

1/ Area of Lake Tanganyika excluded.

Source: Résultats Définitifs au Niveau National, Recensement Général de la Population (1979), Département de la Population, Ministère de L'Intérieur, August 1982

FIGURE III.2

POPULATION DENSITY BY PROVINCES, BURUNDI, 1979



Source: Résultats Définitifs au Niveau National, Département de la Population Ministère de l'Intérieur.

TABLE III.7

POPULATION DENSITY AND GROWTH RATES BY REGION

	Density, 1979 <u>(persons per sq km)</u>	Annual Growth Rate, 1970-79 <u>(percent per annum)</u>
Bubanza	123.2	4.5
Bujumbura (province)	367.4	3.8
Bururi	97.8	2.1
Gitega	205.3	1.6
Muramvya	251.9	-0.3
Muyingi	156.3	3.0
Ngozi	298.3	1.4
Ruyigi	72.0	1.0
<u>BURUNDI</u>	<u>154.0</u> ^{1/}	<u>2.0</u>
 <u>For Reference:</u>		
Bujumbura city	<u>738.9</u>	<u>5.0</u>

Source: IBRD Economic Memorandum (see bibliography for full reference).

^{1/} Area of Lake Tanganyika excluded.

The population of Burundi is characterized by a large proportion of people under 15 years of age. As shown in Table III.8 below, 42.8 percent of the population in the country, excluding the capital, is less than 15 years old. The figure is slightly lower for the capital, where 37.7 are younger than 15.

TABLE III.8
DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION IN BURUNDI
BY LARGE AGE GROUP

<u>Age Group</u>	<u>Burundi</u> <u>(Without Bujumbura City)</u>	<u>Bujumbura City</u>
0 - 14	42.89%	37.72%
15 - 54	43.89	58.26
54+	8.72	4.02
TOTAL	100.00	100.00

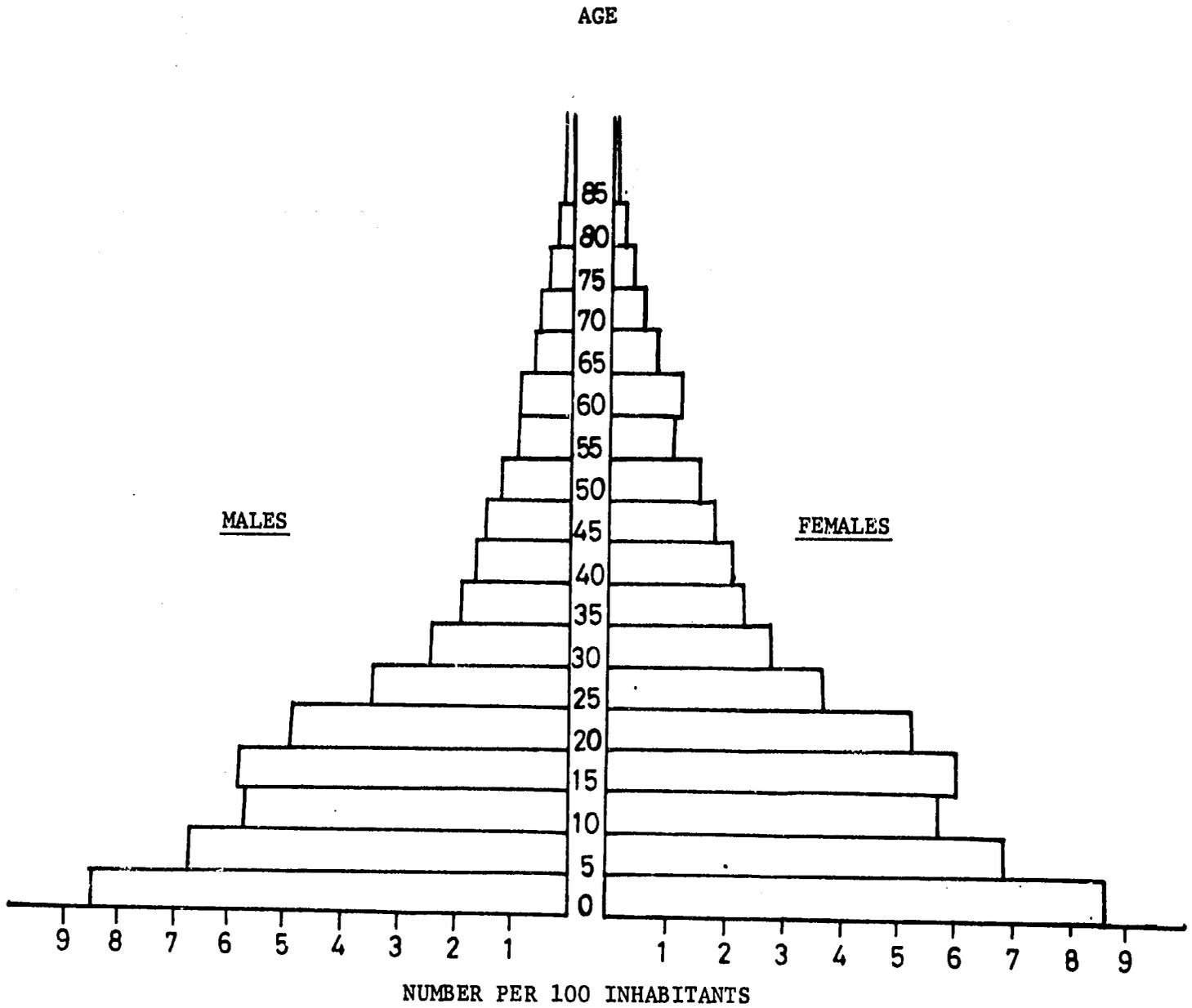
Source: Résultats Définitifs au Niveau National, Département de la Population, Ministère de l'Intérieur, 1983.

However, the capital has a larger number of males in the age group 15-55 (58.2% compared with 48.3 nationwide), confirming a preponderance of adult males migrating to the city. Regional differences in population breakdown by sex also confirm the fact that a number of men are migrating to Bujumbura in search of wage labor. Many establish informal households there (13 percent of all households in the capital by a 1977 estimate) and thus must divide their income between urban and rural families. There is also evidence of seasonal migration to large agricultural projects at seeding and harvest times and of international migration to Tanzania and Uganda for wage labor. Since their husbands return only infrequently, one of every three women in areas such as Ngozi functions as a permanent head of household.

Population growth is high. Although discrepancies exist over the exact figure, the rate is currently estimated at 2.7 percent. In the short and medium run, population growth rates are expected to remain high. The population is predicted to double over the next thirty years, reaching over nine million people by the year 2012.

FIGURE III.3

POPULATION PYRAMID FOR BURUNDI, 1979



Source: Résultats Définitifs au Niveau National, Département de la Population, Ministère de l'Intérieur.

The population is also characterized by a large component of women in the child bearing age group of 15-44 (in absolute numbers, more than 864,000), and a very small number of women leaving the child bearing age, indicating a continued high fertility rate. Although infant mortality remains high compared with the developed world (estimated at between 140-150/1000), the mortality rate is declining. However, if present efforts to reduce infant mortality are successful, but are unaccompanied by a reduction in fertility, population growth rates will actually increase.

Family size continues to be high. There is very little attempt to limit family size because of custom and because migration has been the traditional response to problems of land shortage. An important aspect of demographic behavior in Burundi is that the average rural family wants more children than it currently has (eight as opposed to six). Assistance to one's parents is regarded by two-thirds of all Burundians as the child's main purpose; thus, a woman's value is closely associated with her fertility. Daughters will do agricultural work and then go to live with their husbands' families after marriage, thus decreasing the number of those inheriting land. Sons, on the other hand, are expected to seek work elsewhere or find their own land. In addition, between one-half and three-fourths of the population profess no knowledge of contraceptive methods, and most of those who do so rely on separation or abstinence. Although women's attitudes towards fertility appear highly influenced by those of their husbands and strongly correlated with educational level, women seem to be receptive to more information on the reproductive process.

No data are available on the number of Burundians who have migrated to other countries. After the conflict in 1972, a large number of Hutus left for Rwanda and other countries. In recent years, however, Burundi has been receiving immigrants from other countries such as Zaire, Rwanda, Uganda and Tanzania. The census figures show that nearly 45 percent of the residents of Bujumbura are not citizens of Burundi.

2. Urbanization Pattern

Burundi is essentially a rural country. In 1979, with a population of over 4,400,000 inhabitants, the country had an urban population of about 250,000 people. Two-thirds of the urban residents (180,000 people) were located in Bujumbura, the capital, and the rest were scattered among 20 population centers of 2,000 or more people. Only one, Gitega, had close to 20,000 people.

Nearly 95 percent of the country's inhabitants live in "rugos" (rural homesteads) that are randomly dispersed throughout the mountains. As a result of the mountainous terrain and the historical social structures, the country's population has resisted becoming urbanized, or even settling in farming villages.

A few villages have grown up along the coast of Lake Tanganyika, where communities of fishermen and farmers live. These areas have been influenced strongly by the migration of Zaireans who have brought with them a different lifestyle than the traditional isolated Burundi style of the highland. Rumonge, one of the most active, with a population of 7,668, has a variety of budding economic activities (fishing, palm oil and commerce) and is viewed by the government as an important center for development activities.

The secondary centers in the interior of the country are population groupings around a central market area. Many are also the provincial capitals, and thus the offices for the governor of the province and his administrative staff are also located there. The largest of these secondary centers is Gitega, with a population of approximately 20,000 people. Located in the central plateau area of the country, Gitega was the first capital of the country. It was replaced by Bujumbura along Lake Tanganyika by the Belgian colonial administration. At present, new government office buildings are being completed in Gitega to house several ministries scheduled to move from Bujumbura. At the time of the study, specific information on which ministries and how many people would move was not available. However, new housing built for government functionaries is completed, and the move appears firm. This is expected to give Gitega the impetus to develop more fully and to serve as an alternative pole of attraction for rural migrants.

The secondary cities currently are experiencing a slow growth rate primarily because the employment opportunities are very limited. Thus, rural immigrants searching for better opportunities are more likely to go to the capital, or to other parts of the country where more land is available.

Bujumbura, the capital, is not yet a complex city and its problems are still manageable by comparison to most primary cities of developing countries. Rural migration has not been as heavy as in other African countries, but as the rural population grows, and more and more citizens seek employment in the urban centers, it could continue to rise. The growth rate is currently estimated at 7 percent, up significantly from 4.7 percent in 1979. Some demographers suggest it may be even as high as 9.7 percent.

In the last 15 years, the population within the old boundaries of the city doubled. During the 1970s, and again after the census, new areas were included in the city limits, making it difficult to compare city population figures.

Much of the new population growth has occurred in the several low income neighborhoods. The older neighborhoods like Ewiza and Buyenzi have become extremely densely populated. Other neighborhoods have sprung up more recently, like Musaga and areas to the north, where over 50,000 residents live. (Figure III.4 and Table III.10)



VIEW OF THE CITY OF BUJUMBURA ON THE SHORES OF LAKE TANGANYIKA



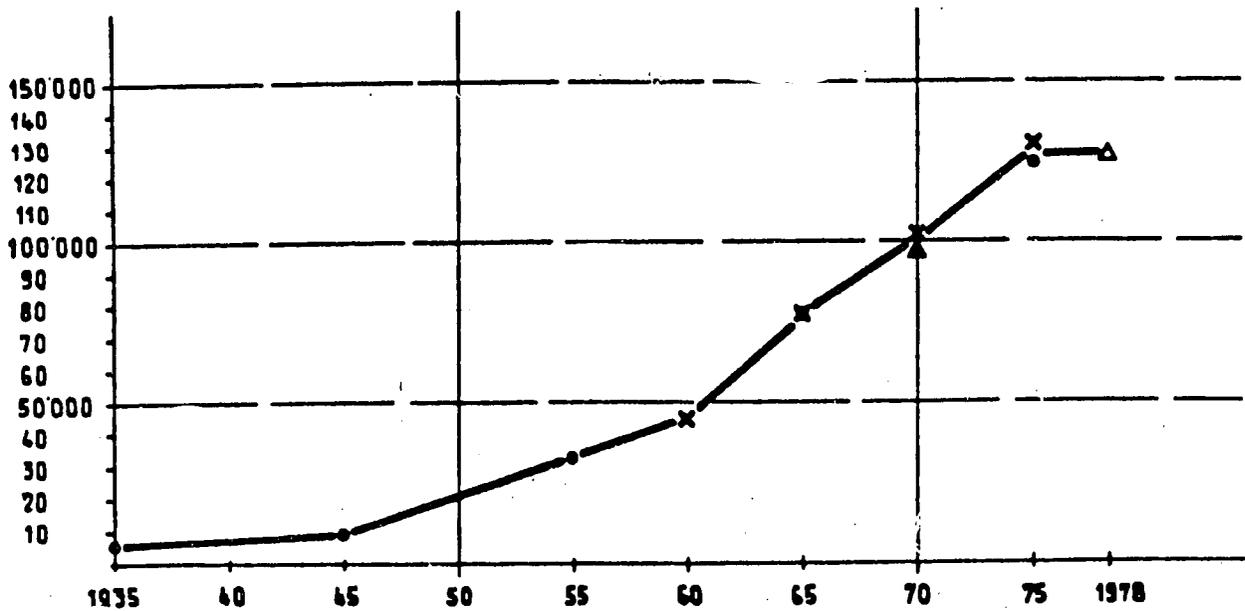
SWAHILI VILLAGE IN GITEGA, SECOND LARGEST TOWN IN BURUNDI



TRADITIONAL RUGO IN RURAL BURUNDI

TABLE III.9

EVOLUTION OF THE POPULATION OF BUJUMBURA



Sources : ● NIZIGIYAMANA
× GATALI
△ BDI/78/004

Sources: Daniel NIZIGIYAMANA : La Main d'Oeuvre dans la ville de Bujumbura, mémoire ENS 1976

J.B. GATALI: le développement spatial de Bujumbura, Mémoire ENS 1978.

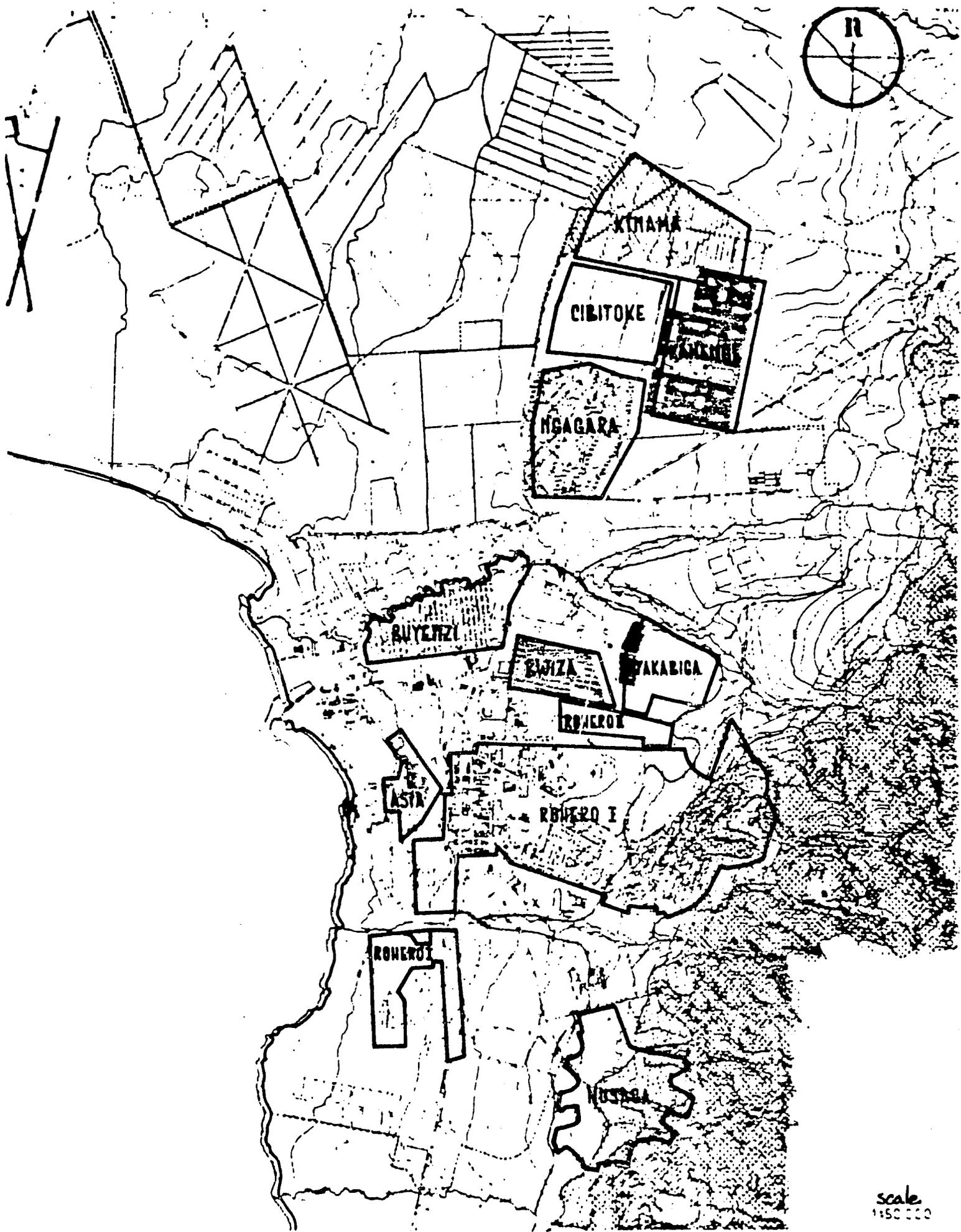


TABLE III.10

ANNUAL GROWTH RATE OF LOW INCOME NEIGHBORHOODS OF BUJUMBURA

	Population 1970	Population 1978	Annual Growth Rate	Population Growth
Buyenzi	22,000	25,500	1.9 %	3,500
Bwiza	15,000	21,000	4.3 %	6,000
Nyakabiga	4,000	11,500	14.1 %	7,500
Ngagara	10,500	13,500	3.2 %	3,000
Cibitoke	7,500	15,000	9.1 %	7,500
Kamenge	12,500	16,500	3.5 %	4,000
Kinama	11,900	15,000	2.9 %	3,100
Musaga	3,800	8,500	10.6 %	4,700
Total (8 neighborhoods)	87,200	126,500	4.8 %	39,300
Other Neighborhoods	8,100	11,000	4.4 %	2,900
Total Bujumbura	95,300	137,500	4.7 %	42,200

Source: *Projet de Développement Urbain du Burundi, Vols. I and II. URBAPLAN, August 1982.*

Spontaneous squatter settlements do exist in Bujumbura, but they have not reached nearly the proportions found in other African capitals. Until recently, Musaga was considered the fastest-growing spontaneous area in the city. In 1978, the population was estimated at 8,500 inhabitants. It was recently chosen as the site for the UN funded upgrading/new housing program, and included within the city limits.

A squatter settlement of present concern to local authorities is Gasenyi, located to the north of the city near the new university hospital. The settlement, which spans both sides of the highway, is totally lacking in infrastructure and services and is growing rapidly. Other small squatter settlements are forming in Mutakara and Buterere. Settlements have also developed up the mountains behind the affluent neighborhoods.

The Government has supported a decentralization policy designed to slow urban growth in Bujumbura. This policy includes efforts to develop secondary centers (see Urban Development policies), regroup the rural population into villages (see the Rural Program), and an informal policy of restricting migration from the rural areas.

3. Social Structure and Cultural Characteristics

The current social organization in modern Burundi stems from the traditional Tutsi-Hutu caste system involving a complex (though clear) ranking system of superiors and inferiors based upon hierarchical lord-vassal relationships which operated through a feudal land system.

This hierarchy was said to have been ordered by IMANA, the spiritual Supreme Being who is the source of all good in Burundi life. The people's fatalistic attitude and resignation to his will have always been important elements and residuals of those beliefs still affect attitudes towards life. The present day government leaders are aware of these persistent influences as evidenced by the following quote found in the introduction to the Economic and Social Five Year Development Plan for 1978-1982.

"The efforts of the government in those areas closely connected with rural development education must have as a final objective, change in our society toward... mental liberation from fatalism and the spirit of servitude."

Historically, among human beings, the MWAMI, the king, was superior to all others. The Mwami had absolute power: the entire country with all its goods was his private property. No individual had the right to power, land or cattle except as granted by the Mwami. He distributed power and property to his BAGANWA (princes) who became his vassals. They distributed the same to the BATWARE (Captains), the vassals to the Baganwa. In turn, the Batware procured vassals for themselves by giving small plots of land and cattle to their inferiors.

Under the Mwami there were three castes, the Tutsi, the Hutu, and the Twa. These delineations are in place today, and the relationships among the castes continue to play a significant role in the development of Burundi in the 1980s.

The Tutsi (approximately 14 percent of the population) have always had the highest social ranking, and currently control the government. They were traditionally the masters of the Hutu (approximately 85 percent of the population) and the Twa (1 percent of the population). The Tutsi are said to be of Hamitic origin, whereas the Hutu are of the Bantu culture; the Twa are a pygmoid people.

The Tutsi were and continue to be herders of cattle, an important element of their traditional superior status. While they are said to have been formidable warriors, pre-independence studies indicate they had no need to conquer the Hutu by force upon their arrival three hundred years ago. The Hutu, traditional tillers of the soil of the hoe culture, willingly became the serfs of the Tutsi in order to receive cattle. The feudal system of granting favors in return for services did provide mobility for all involved, including the Hutu. And, in fact, a Hutu could become the political superior of a Tutsi, but the Hutu status as socially inferior has never changed. Within the tradition, the Hutu farmer was considered the born servant of the superior Tutsi.

In 1972, conflict erupted between the two tribes and a large number of Hutus were killed. National reconciliation between the two major tribes, in the years following the conflict of 1972, has been a major objective of the current government and some observers of the national scene suggest that nationalism, not ethnicity, may be emerging as the more important factor.

The pattern of superior/inferior relationships still permeates many facets of Burundi life. Within each caste there are superior and inferior patrilineages reflecting an individual's rank within his own caste. Men and women together at the higher levels are superior to those, both men and women, of inferior levels. Within each caste men are superior to women, and in general, the old are superior to the young.

The clan, a group of individuals related to one another through a patrilineal line, traditionally was a powerful social grouping. The chief of the clan was the absolute patriarch of all members. Generally, members of a clan lived within a close proximity of one another. In recent years, clan members have scattered and the nuclear family is the basic social unit.

In recent years, immigration from Zaire, Tanzania, Rwanda and Uganda have increased the non-Burundi population to nearly half in the capital. Most have been granted refugee status, not citizenship, and thus are denied access to many government-provided services, such as housing and education.

The villages emerging along the shore of Lake Tanganyika also have a large foreign population. Their influence is seen in the style of house as well as the more marked tendency to live in village groupings. The extent to which these differences would affect both real demand for housing and the provision of related services is an important element to consider in any housing project.

4. Employment Opportunities and Income Distribution

Formal employment is centered in Bujumbura and largely in the public sector which provides almost two-thirds of the 114,500 modern sector jobs. This figure represents only 6 percent of the jobs in the country. An additional 1,790,000 jobs are available in the informal sector, including agricultural workers in the rural areas. As a result of many part-time positions being held by two people (Table III.11), the total labor force in 1980 was 2,700,000 people, representing 58 percent of the economically active population.

TABLE III.11

NUMBER OF JOBS IN FORMAL AND INFORMAL SECTOR IN BURUNDI

	<u>Permanent Full-Time Jobs</u>	<u>Part-Time Jobs</u>	<u>TOTAL</u>
Formal Sector	69,300	45,200	114,500
Informal Sector	1,790,000		1,790,000

Source: Ndayiziga, Tiburce. Etude Globale du Secteur des Métiers Artisanaux, février, 1983.

The major sectors of formal employment in the country are listed in Table III.12. Aside from the fact that the highest concentration is in public administration, it is particularly striking to observe that nearly 40 percent of the modern sector jobs are in agriculture.

The large number of modern sector jobs connected with agriculture and the large traditional sector underlines the importance of agricultural production in the Burundi economy. The higher salaries in the commerce, transport, banking and service sector reflect the concentration of these jobs in Bujumbura and the need to have skills for many jobs in these sectors.

TABLE III.12

MODERN SECTOR EMPLOYMENT BY NUMBER OF JOBS AND MONTHLY SALARY

	<u>Jobs</u>	<u>% of Modern Sector</u>	<u>Average Salary Per Month (FBu)</u>
Primary sector	45,066	39.3%	8,690
(Agriculture)	(40,023)	(34.9)	(3,620)
Mining	3,052	2.7	7,830
Manufacturing	5,491	4.8	7,830
Energy	583	.5	N/A
Building & Public Works	18,912	16.5	8,090
Commerce, Restaurants, Hotels	5,139	4.5	12,430
Transport & Communications	2,378	2.1	10,140
Banking, Insurance & Business	2,029	1.8	19,780
Services			
Services	24,497	21.4	10,380
Other	7,397	6.5	N/A

Source: Ministère des Affaires Sociales et du Travail, "La Situation de l'Emploi en 1980," Revue de Statistiques du Travail, No. 3 (Bujumbura, December 1981), and Ministère du Travail.

Of the small number of modern sector jobs, 54 percent are unskilled and only 46 percent skilled. Of the 46 percent skilled workers, 37 percent are employees and workers, 6 percent are in administrative and technical jobs, and 3 percent in management. These figures illustrate the problem in Burundi of the small number of people who have the skills and education to direct and implement economic development activities. Men held 89.9 percent of the positions, leaving women with 10.1 percent of the jobs. Women are concentrated principally in service-related areas, especially in education. These figures also show the small numbers of people with salaries who can receive housing credit.

Some formal sector employment is found in the secondary centers. A recent study estimated the employment in 20 centers as reaching 7,686. These positions are principally government employees involved in communal administration (Table III.13).

TABLE III.13

EMPLOYMENT FIGURES FOR TWENTY SECONDARY CENTERS IN BURUNDI

	<u>Provincial Headquarters</u> (14)	<u>Others</u> (6)	<u>Total</u>
Public Employees	3,917	903	4,820
Religious Missions	2,024	211	2,235
Commerce	511	120	<u>631</u>
			7,686

Source: Runner, P. M. Ministère des Travaux Publiques (Ministry of Public Works), Bujumbura, Burundi.

Ninety-four percent of the population earns a living from subsistence agriculture, which is augmented by some planting of tea or coffee as a cash crop. A recent study of small artisans suggests that the subsistence farmer may cope during crisis periods (when crops fail) through the efforts of his wife and children in some type of non-farm activity. Some suggest that in the rural areas, it is not uncommon to find artisans dividing their time between agricultural work and the family workshop.

Employment and the Urban Poor

The more fortunate of the urban poor have acquired jobs at the lower end of government service as chauffeurs, janitors, doormen, etc. A small number are employed in the few factories in and near the industrial zone of the capital. There is a near total absence of modern sector employment in the low-income neighborhoods to the north, where nearly 60,000 people live and in Musaga and Kanyaska to the south of the city.

Thus, the informal sector is the source of income for a large portion of the urban poor. No detailed studies have been made of this sector, although the Faculty of Economics and Business Administration of the University of Burundi will begin such a study in June 1983, under the auspices of the World Bank. Preliminary data are expected to be available in January 1984. Earlier case studies on low income neighborhoods, however, have provided some data on the informal sector.

The problem of scarcity of jobs is compounded for the poor by the relatively long distance from their homes to places of employment. Transportation is poor in the capital, and expensive, accounting for nearly 10 percent of some household budgets.

In Bujumbura, a large number of men work as day laborers in construction as masons, carpenters, etc. Many have their own workshops adjacent to their homes as well. A sizeable group is engaged in petty vending, commerce on a small scale, and other service activities. The occupations tend to be grouped by neighborhood, so, for instance, in Bwiza and Buyenzi, a large number of individuals are small merchants, whereas in Kamenge and Cibitoke, one finds a larger number of self-employed artisans. Of significance is the large portion of individuals who continue to list farming as their principal occupation, even though they are living in the capital. Urban agriculture is a major activity in several neighborhoods, reaching as high as 34-36 percent of the economically active population in neighborhoods like Cibitoke and Kinama. In addition, for many households, farming is done as a secondary or complementary activity to increase household revenue (see Table III.14).

Unemployment

Statistics on unemployment are not available, but some informed sources estimate it may reach as high as 40 percent among the urban poor. Those most seriously affected are young men who have not been able to finish school or learn a trade. Burundi is beginning to feel the effects of the desire of young people to leave farming behind to seek a job in the city. Although rural immigration is restricted, a large number of young men continue to migrate to the capital. At the same time, job opportunities are scarce in the capital and many heads of household have indicated they would return to the interior if employment were available.

TABLE III.14

EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES IN LOW INCOME NEIGHBORHOODS OF BUJUMBURA

	Agriculture % engaged in urban	Artisans	Services	Industry & Construction	Government Workers	Commerce
MUSAGA	9.3%	-	25.5	16.3	-	-
KINAMA	36.7	-	-	-	-	-
CIBITOKÉ	34.2	10.5	13.3	28.6	12.4	1.0
KAMENGE	19.3	13.6	15.0	20.6	12.9	10.0
BWIZA	8.9	4.8	21.2	15.8	9.6	14.4
BUYENZI	16.9	9.0	12.9	15.7	10.1	10.7
N° AKABIGA	5.7	8.6	25.7	14.3	14.3	14.3
NGAGARA	3.3	5.0	8.3	8.3 *	43.5	8.3
				*23.3 teachers and other professionals		

Source: Dayer, M. Bujumbura 1978, Une Enquête Socio-Economique de la Faculté des Sciences Economiques et Administratives. Résultats et Commentaires, Zurich, 1979.

A major goal of the government as expressed in the present Five Year Plan is to increase employment opportunities. Employment generation should be included in any housing project undertaken, but it is especially critical for projects in the secondary cities where few employment opportunities exist outside the public administration sector.

Income Distribution

Rigorous data on income and income distribution are not available for Burundi. Several case studies have collected information on income in Bujumbura, and all emphasize the difficulties in obtaining accurate answers to questions about revenues. The task is further complicated in Burundi where 94 percent of the population earns a living in the informal sector or through subsistence farming and only 6 percent earn wages or salaries.

The most useful data are found in the Urbaplan consultants' study of Bujumbura. These figures (Tables III.15 and III.16), however, are only an estimate of income based on a self-reporting of household expenses, gathered during the University survey of the city. (They were increased to compensate for a suspected underestimation.) Therefore, they should be taken as only an attempt to specify income, not as absolute figures.

According to these estimates, 50 percent of the urban population earns 13,200 FBu (US\$145) or less a month. In 1979, the poverty level was estimated by the World Bank to be 13,500 FBu (US\$150), suggesting that 50 percent of the urban population falls below the poverty level.

Income in the low-income neighborhoods is unequally distributed as well. In the six neighborhood studies by the Urbaplan consultants, residents of Bwiza and Nyakabiga were found to have incomes above the average. Fifty-one and 53 percent of the inhabitants of Kamange and Buyenzi were below the poverty line. However, in Cibitoke and Kinama, residents' incomes were considerably below the average; 61 and 77 percent respectively fell below the poverty level.

These figures may reflect a serious under-estimate of the total income for a household. First, there is a heavy reliance in Bujumbura on secondary employment (odd jobs, commerce and trading) from other family members besides the head of household. This tends to be under-reported. One estimate suggests this could increase a family's income by 10-20 percent every month. It may be even higher in many cases.

Second, as noted earlier, a considerable proportion of the urban population, but especially the poorest, continue to farm. The produce is primarily consumed by the family, which effectively increases a family income by 3,500 FBu (US\$39) a month.

Finally, the directors of both the World Bank and United Nations low income housing projects report that the income of many of the beneficiaries

TABLE III.15

INCOME DISTRIBUTION OF HOUSEHOLDS IN
BUJUMBURA AND IN SIX LOW-INCOME
NEIGHBORHOODS IN BUJUMBURA, 1979

Estimated Income, by group	TOTAL, SIX Low-Income Neighborhoods ¹⁾		Bujumbura (including Musaga)	
	% by group	% cumulative	% by group	% cumulative
0- 2,914	7.3	7.3	6.7	6.7
2,915- 5,829	13.1	20.4	11.7	17.7
5,830- 11,659	23.8	44.2	21.8	39.5
11,660- 17,489	19.6	63.8	18.2	57.7
17,490- 23,319	11.9	75.7	10.9	68.6
23,320- 40,809	14.1	89.8	15.5	84.1
40,810- 58,299	5.9	95.7	7.6	91.7
58,300- 87,449	3.2	98.9	5.3	97.0
87,450-115,599	0.6	99.5	1.6	98.6
116,600 and over	0.5	100.0	1.4	100.0

Source: Project de Développement Urbain du Burundi Rapport Intermédiaire, volume 1, Texte, URBAPLAN Consultants, August 1979.

1) Includes Buyenzi, Bwiza, Nyakabiga, Kamenge, Cibitoke and Kinama

NOT UPDATED TO 1983

TABLE III.16

PERCENTILE DISTRIBUTION OF MONTHLY INCOME BY HOUSEHOLD
FOR BUJUMBURA AND FOR SIX LOW-INCOME NEIGHBORHOODS, 1983 *

Percentile distribution of the population	Income* Six low-income Neighborhoods	Income* Bujumbura Total Population
0 - 10%	0 - 3,600	0 - 4,100
10 - 20	3,600 - 6,300	4,100 - 7,100
20 - 30	6,300 - 8,700	7,100 - 9,500
30 - 40	8,700 - 11,900	9,500 - 12,400
40 - 50	11,900 - 13,500	12,400 - 14,300
50 - 60	13,500 - 15,000	14,300 - 17,300
60 - 70	15,000 - 20,600	17,300 - 27,100
70 - 80	20,600 - 31,400	27,100 - 45,500
80 - 90	31,400 - 45,400	45,500 - 59,500
90 -100	45,400 and over	59,500 and over

Source: Project de Développement Urbain du Burundi Rapport Intermédiaire, volume 1, Texte, URBAPLAN Consultants, August 1979.

* Income was derived by taking 1979 data and projecting to 1983 by a factor of 2 percent per annum, the minimum raise allowed by law in formal sector employment per year.

seems to be considerably above what was projected by the study. For example, in some cases, families paid cash for their houses, or paid off the fifteen-year loan within the first year. This not only suggests under-reporting of income, but also the possibility of hoarding, in the sense that people have more cash than is reflected in the savings rate of the country. It is also possible that an informal distribution of income occurs since wealthier family members often help less fortunate members of their extended family. Income figures are a crucial element in determining the target population for a housing project. It is also a crucial variable in designing a house that is affordable to the target group.

5. Health and Nutrition

The four most frequently reported diseases in 1979 for the country as a whole were malaria, influenza (includes pneumonia and other serious respiratory diseases), measles and severe diarrheas. Other diseases with a high incidence include whooping cough, cholera, typhus, poliomyelitis, intestinal parasites and schistosomiasis. The incidence of these diseases throughout the country differs in relation to the four major geographic-ecological zones.

The climate of the western lowland plains in the south and along the Ruzizi River is tropical, fostering the breeding of mosquitoes and the growth of snails in the numerous streams and irrigation ditches. In addition, this area has experienced considerable immigration to the capital, Bujumbura, near the north end of Lake Tanganyika, leading to the growth of densely populated semi-urban populations on the periphery. Sanitary conditions are poor as provisions for water supplies, drainage and human waste disposal have not kept pace with the population increase. Thus, the plains area has a high incidence of malaria, diarrheas, intestinal parasites and schistosomiasis. It is also vulnerable to the spread of acute intestinal epidemics, such as cholera, because of the high density.

In the highlands area, the climate is cool and often cold. Frequent rains and relatively low temperatures combined with inadequate clothing make the population susceptible to chilling. Respiratory infections, bronchitis and pneumonia are the most frequent adult diseases. Measles and whooping cough are frequent in infants.

As the population in this area lives on homesteads dispersed on hills (collines), water is obtained from a variety of small sources, often natural springs, and is less susceptible to pollution. Thus, diarrheas and other intestinal diseases are less frequent and more confined to children and small kinship groups. Hookworm is high because of the contamination of the soil by feces. Mosquito density is relatively low at the high altitude and it is generally accepted that malaria transmission does not occur. Malaria cases are common, however, because of the frequent movements of the population to the plains.

The northeastern region has a higher elevation, yet malaria remains high. This area and the swampy lowland areas near the Rwanda border are

infested by the tsetse fly, which transmits trypanosomias (African sleeping sickness). Fewer than ten cases have been reported in recent years, but the tsetse fly has become established and a potential problem of recurrence remains.

The quality of information regarding nutrition and food consumption in Burundi is poor. No nutrition surveys or other reliable data on the nutritional status of the population in different areas of the country are available, so that only the most general information can be provided.

As reported earlier, the per capita income is very low in Burundi. Nevertheless, abject poverty as manifested by widespread malnutrition due to food shortage is not evident as over 95 percent of the population are rural farmers who consume nearly all of what they produce.

Information from the FAO and the World Bank confirms the dominance of sweet potatoes, cassava, beans and bananas in total agricultural production. Beef and pork consumption is low as meat is not produced in great quantities. Fish production is underdeveloped, given the abundant resources of Lake Tanganyika.

The daily caloric intake is 1,900 calories. One report suggested that food consumption varies between men and women. They suggest that caloric intake by an adult female could be 10-15 percent less than that of an adult male in the same family. Traditional customs allow men to eat first, to consume greater quantities and have the best of the food available. Men also have more calories as a result of the banana and sorghum beer they consume.

Women from 24-34 have the most variation, a potentially serious problem since most are pregnant or nursing during this age period. Also, Burundi women work considerably more hours than men, increasing the nutritional problems stemming from a lower caloric intake.

The extent of malnutrition, protein-caloric deficiency, among children is not clear. Abruptly weaned children, whose weaning foods are composed of high carbohydrates, and children affected by measles suffer from malnutrition. Observations by health personnel and members of the AID Health Sector Assessment team report that classic kwashiorkor is rare. This may be a result of bias from only seeing children brought to the clinics. Also, while the death rate for children is high because of disease, it is not clear if a prior state of malnutrition precipitated the susceptibility to the disease.

Malnutrition varies also by region, income and season. In the western plains, caloric-protein malnutrition is lower than in most other parts of the country. This is due to the fertility of the soil and availability of fish from the lake. In the central highlands, the high population density has led to over-cultivation of the land, excessive grazing and erosion and

thus a decreasing fertility of the land. Food production is marginally meeting the needs of the people. In the eastern plains, the population is dense but the land is also poorer, leading to evidence of primary protein-caloric malnutrition, especially among toddlers.

IV. SHELTER SECTOR DESCRIPTION

A. GOVERNMENT AND ITS RELATION TO SHELTER AND URBAN DEVELOPMENT

1. The Organization of Government

Burundi is a republic with a President as head of both the Government and the single political party, the National Union for Progress (UPRONA). Ultimate political power rests in the Central Committee of the party which consists of the President and 48 other members. The Central Committee was selected by the 1979 National Congress of the UPRONA party, replacing the Supreme Revolutionary Council, composed of 29 senior military officers, which ruled Burundi from 1976-1979. A cabinet of 19 ministers is appointed by and responsible to the President.

The country is divided into 14 provinces, each administered by a governor who is appointed by the Central Government and is under the direction of the Ministère de l'Intérieur (Ministry of the Interior). The provinces are divided into a total of 104 communes (equivalent to a small county), each of which contains an average of about 50,000 people. The communes are further divided into a total of 2,460 collines (a hill or group of hills), which are the basic socio-geographic units of the country. The UPRONA party structure parallels the administrative framework and is described in the community organization section.

The institution of government most directly involved in shelter and urban development is the Ministère des Travaux Publics, de l'Energie et des Mines (MTPEM - Ministry of Public Works, Energy and Mines). This ministry is in charge of carrying out the government's housing and urban development policies and contains the planning and technical expertise either within its divisions or within the parastatals, which the Ministry also directs. A second important institution related to housing is the Ministère du Développement Rural (Ministry of Rural Development), which is responsible for implementing Burundi's ambitious rural housing program. The Ministère de l'Intérieur (Ministry of Interior) is the parent agency for local authorities and oversees their development expenditures. Public agencies involved to a limited extent in housing finance are the Caisse Centrale de Mobilisation et de Financement (CAMOFI - the bank which mobilizes funds from and reallocates them to parastatals), the Banque Nationale pour le Développement Economique (BNDE - National Bank for Economic Development), and the Caisse d'Epargne du Burundi (CADEBU - Savings Bank of Burundi). These institutions are described in detail in the Institutional Analysis Section.

2. The National Development Plan

The Government's underlying philosophy is to institute socio-economic reforms in an effort to achieve economic development, improved living conditions for the rural poor, and ethnic reconciliation from the civil strife.

ORGANIZATION CHART

MINISTRE DES TRAVAUX PUBLICS DE L'ENERGIE ET DES MINES (MTPEM)
(Ministry of Public Works, Energy and Mines)

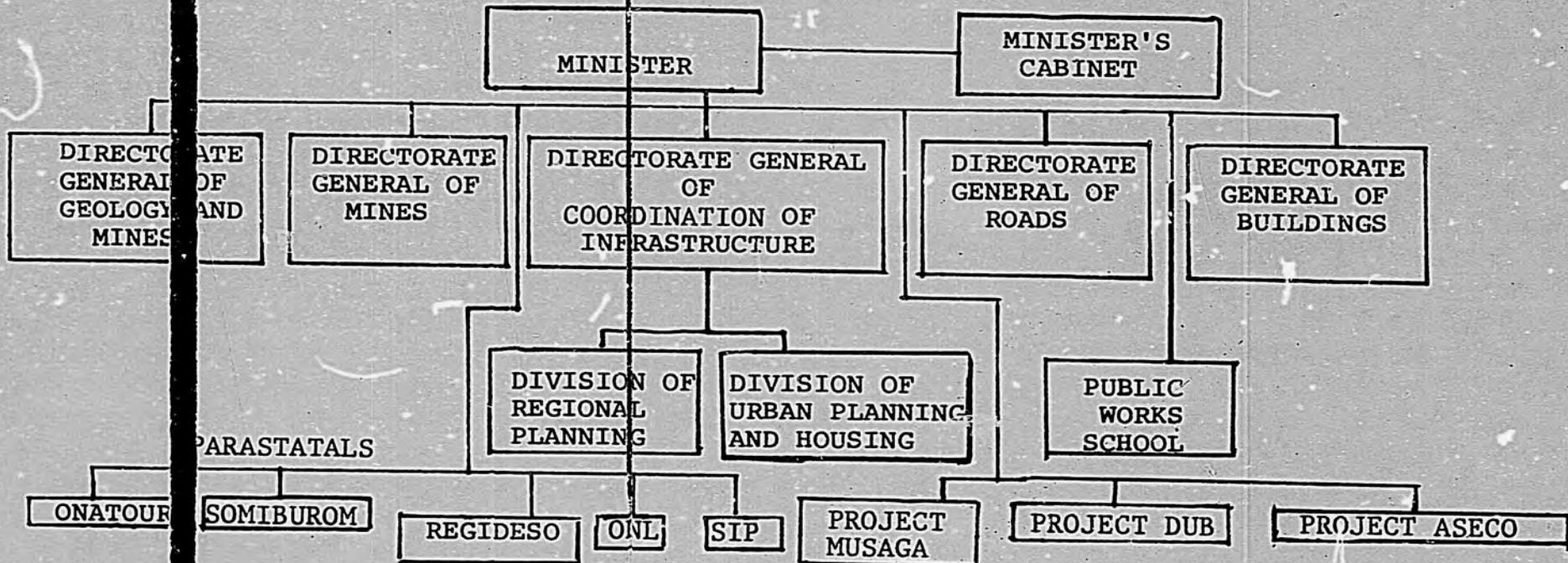


FIGURE IV.1

of 1972-1973. The Ministère du Plan, the National Planning Ministry, has responsibility for authorizing all investment projects and all investment budget expenditures. A Fourth Five Year Economic and Social Development Plan currently is being prepared under this agency's direction for the 1983-87 period. In Burundi, the Development Plan is revised annually to provide flexibility and take into account the performance of the previous year. The National Planning Ministry integrates the work of sub-commissions, technical ministries and local authority representatives, and has as its major objectives to increase agricultural production, economic growth, investment, public participation in the economy, housing and decentralization of development activities.

With respect to housing and urban development, the Fourth Five Year Plan continues some of the policies of earlier five year plans, including improvement of existing neighborhoods, increasing the supply of serviced land, strengthening secondary centers, and improving the coordination of urban investments. Although the Government has made considerable progress in implementing the policies of earlier plans, implementation has been neither even, nor altogether successful, and has become increasingly constrained by macroeconomic conditions. Perhaps the most important achievements have been the creation and strengthening of key institutions over the past three years and initial direct experience with shelter programs targeted for the urban poor (the UN-financed Musaga I and World Bank-financed project "DUB," both described in the Institutional Analysis section). Thus, a foundation has been set for the Government to move ahead with realistic development objectives for the next five years.

The principal shelter and urban development objectives of the Fourth Five Year Plan are basically sound, consistent with, and supportive of the overall economic and social development policies of the Government. The policies are quite general, however, and lack specific targets. The Government's shelter and urban development policy objectives, as outlined in the Plan, can be summarized as follows:

a. Urban Development Policies: The major objective is to promote urban growth in different areas of the country so as to provide for the needs of rural development, promote regional equity, and provide alternatives to Bujumbura for the absorption of population migration from rural areas. A balancing of investments between Bujumbura and the various secondary centers is to be achieved. This decentralization will be encouraged in two ways. First, selected secondary centers, unspecified at this time, will receive significantly more investments in housing, roads, and other social and economic infrastructure. Second, regional development companies called Sociétés Régionales de Développement (SRDs) are to be established in many areas for the purposes of integrating rural economic development activities, promoting commune level organization which is responsible for urban centers, and decentralization of government services. The intent of the Government's and where it will be accomplished are lacking.

Concomitant with the emphasis on urban development in secondary centers and regional development project coordination, the Government is actively pursuing a policy of "villagization." The objective of villagization is to encourage rural families to regroup efficiently in new planned villages in order to provide services such as potable water, electricity and schools to rural areas, as well as conserve valuable farm land. This is a major task assigned to the Ministry of Rural Development and implemented through the Division of Rural Housing.

b. Urban Housing Policy: The Fourth Five Year Plan identifies housing as one of the important components of the Government's efforts to alleviate poverty and provide for the basic needs of the population. The private sector will continue to provide for the needs of upper-income groups, with the Government providing incentives to the private sector to meet housing needs of all categories through the development of housing finance mechanisms. The public sector will continue to play a direct role in providing housing for civil servants and for low-income groups. The civil servants will apparently continue to benefit from the present policy of extensive subsidies via housing programs built through SIP (see discussion of SIP in Institutional Analysis). Low-income housing needs are to be met through a combination of neighborhood upgrading efforts, sites and services projects and housing rehabilitation programs. The construction sector is to be augmented by continued support for the production and use of local building materials and by the formation of training programs in various construction technologies.

c. Urban Development Planning and Coordination: As indicated earlier in this section, the Government has established a general framework of national institutions to address the needs of urban growth. The key institution at the national level is the MTPEM which houses most of the policy and implementation responsibilities for developing urban centers outside of those assigned to local governments (communes).

From a planning and policy perspective, there are two key divisions within MTPEM. A recently created Division de l'Aménagement Régional (regional planning division) is to be responsible for the development of urban spatial policy, i.e., identification of a secondary growth centers policy, analysis of the role individual urban centers should play in meeting regional economic development needs and related matters. The Division de l'Urbanisme et de l'Habitat (urban planning and housing division) has been in existence for several years and has the primary responsibility for preparing long range plans for Bujumbura and secondary centers, developing urban housing policy and programs, as well as the review and approval of subdivisions. Long range plans have been prepared for Bujumbura, Gitega and Rumonge (see Land Use Planning section).

Insofar as implementation of projects is concerned, the MTPEM also directs several important parastatals. Development of civil servant housing is the responsibility of the parastatal SIP. The Office National du Logement (ONL), the parastatal national housing construction office, has been recently reorganized to complement the small capacity of the private sector in the construction of government housing. The national water and electrical authority (REGIDESO) plans, builds and maintains water, sewer, electricity and street lighting networks in major towns. Interurban road construction and maintenance fall in the domain of MTPEM's Direction Générale des Routes (Roads Division), and the design, construction and maintenance of public buildings within that of the Direction Générale des Bâtiments (Buildings Division).

Responsibility at the national level for other urban facilities and services such as schools, health clinics and community centers falls within the related sector ministry. Overseeing of local authority finances and fiscal review of urban investments is the responsibility of the Ministère de l'Intérieur (Ministry of the Interior).

Coordination between ministries and among the various divisions of the MTPEM related to housing and urban development is not well established at this time. Most funds available for investment in development projects are allocated by the central government to the various ministries who in turn allocate to their divisions and, in the case of MTPEM, to their parastatals. These units of government appear to make decisions unilaterally about their individual development programs.

As a consequence, the sectoral development programs tend to move forward at the rate dictated by the availability of resources without the need to coordinate with other projects to avoid costly delays or to consider whether the basic needs and highest priorities of the urban center are actually being met. This shortcoming is, of course, as much a result of the absence of strong local governments and "bottoms-up" planning as it is the method of central government planning and coordination.

In recognition of this matter the government has taken several steps to improve urban investment coordination at the national level. It is expected that, after an initial start-up period, the new Division of Regional Planning, with the Division of Urban Planning and Housing, will serve as the coordinating points for planning and implementation within their respective areas of responsibility. Urban development policy coordination is to be achieved in part by the National Urban Commission, a body comprised of representatives of all ministries with an interest in urban development which meets at the request of the Minister of MTPEM. The Commission's role is to review urban projects under preparation and provide broad policy guidance on the direction of urban growth. Though various interviewees did not attach great significance to this Commission's deliberations, it is important to note that an

interministerial policy-making framework is in place. With strengthening and proper staff support, the Commission could facilitate the screening of urban investments in the forward budget process, provide a forum for ensuring inter-project consistency, and undertake monitoring and evaluation of urban development and shelter projects to improve the effectiveness of their design and implementation.

d. Local Government: The current structure and organization of local government results from a 1979 decree. The Mayor is appointed by the provincial governor who in turn reports to the Minister of the Interior. As shown in the following organization chart of the commune of Bujumbura, the mayor is supported by a council. The city is divided into districts or neighborhoods (quartiers) and larger areas called zones, each with an administratively appointed "chef." Many of these officials are also representatives of the UPRONA political party.

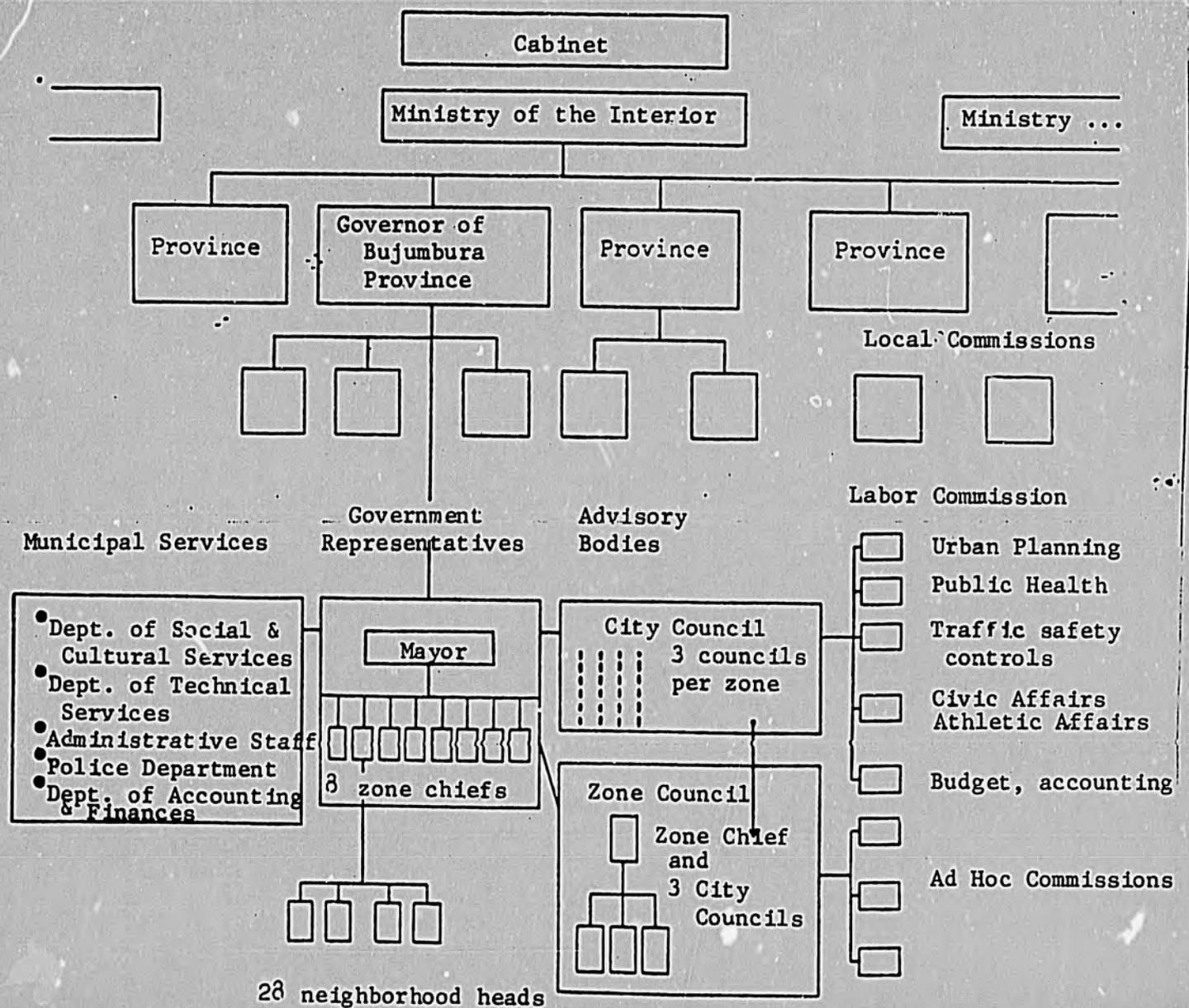
Communes have held little power in modern Burundi. Most planning and public investments in buildings and infrastructure are carried out by MTPEM and other central government ministries, with little or no contribution from the local level. The functions of communes are presently administration, finance, local policy, garbage collection, and maintenance of local roads and streets, public buildings, water supply, public lighting and public markets. Most of the communes (including Bujumbura) are insufficiently staffed and trained to carry out these functions. They also lack basic equipment to carry out maintenance tasks. The principal source of revenue for Bujumbura and the secondary centers is market taxes which typically constitute 40 to 50 percent of municipal revenues with property and commercial taxes and fees contributing the rest.

Often commune revenues exceed expenditures. The savings of communes, including Bujumbura, are placed in a frozen government account (under the Ministry of the Interior's discretion), ostensibly to be used at some later date for construction of offices or other approved investments. Thus, the communes intervene very little in local economic development. Furthermore, it is apparent from field trips in Bujumbura and to secondary centers that the communes have been unable to carry out their maintenance responsibilities in an adequate fashion. Typically, markets are run-down, drainage canals are plugged, water standpipes broken or in unsanitary conditions, and buildings are in a sad state of repair. The inability of communes to maintain their fixed assets is a result of lack of equipment and skilled manpower, as well, possibly, as their own lack of control over budget expenditures.

Although official government policy has consistently affirmed the important role of communes in national development and the intention to strengthen them, a strategy for the latter has not been developed. For example, 1979 legislation decentralized selected administrative functions (primarily internal security) to the communes but did not adequately address their lack of preparedness to assume new functions. While ambiguity about

FIGURE IV.2

ORGANIZATION OF THE COMMUNE OF BUJUMBURA



Source: Urbaplan

These commissions have practically never been operational.

the precise role and the strengthening of communes is understandable during times when the central government is facing serious economic problems in other sectors, inaction will only render communes increasingly weak in their support role for the Government's economic development strategy. The Government must define financial and urban planning procedures which support communes and allow them to raise revenues and expend money commensurate with their obligations. Appropriate training of staff will be necessary. The government will also need to maintain a flow of development funds to communes which is in line with other priorities in the economy.

3. Government Shelter Sector Expenditures

In the shelter sector, the Third Five Year Plan (1978-1982) called for the creation of 2,023 new urban units in both the public and private sectors and the expenditure of 4,814 million FBu (US\$53 million). Only 1,799 units, excluding privately built low-income units which were not included in the Plan, were constructed in the period, but expenditure exceeded projections at 5,547 million FBu (US\$67 million). Units for higher income families exceeded targets by over 100 percent largely because of much higher private sector construction which was stimulated by the removal of rent control in Bujumbura during the period. Only one hundred of the 1,200 low income housing units projected to be built by the public sector were in fact constructed. The low income housing was to have been primarily constructed with foreign assistance. The first units from these projects were constructed near the end of the plan period.

Government housing resources in the Third Five Year Plan period were concentrated in providing housing for civil servants. Capital expenditures for housing were projected at 7.4 percent of the capital budget, but actually averaged 8.2 percent plus 1.4 percent for interest subsidies for civil servant housing in 1978-80.

The preliminary Fourth Five Year Plan (1983-87) under consideration projects a need for expenditure of about 11,500 million (US\$128 million) in constant 1981 FBu of which 21 percent is needed for rural housing and 79 percent for the urban sector. These figures include 6,500 new units for Bujumbura of which 1,150 will be low income units constructed in the UN, World Bank and Swiss Cooperation projects. The public sector would provide about 1,700 units in Bujumbura and 516 in other centers, representing about a third of expenditures required.

Subsidies for civil servant housing represent the primary government expenditure in the housing sector. Subsidies are provided to supplement modest government salaries to enable the educated elite who are almost exclusively employed in the civil service to obtain modern housing. The view seems widespread that the Government should provide quality housing to civil servants with subsidies, especially since civil servant salaries have been

frozen, and other sources for housing finance outside the SIP which administer Government subsidized civil servant housing programs do not exist for anyone but the highest level civil servants. Cutting back civil servant housing poses a dilemma for the Government unless salaries are raised. There is some evidence that civil servants are leaving government service for the private sector because of dissatisfaction with frozen salaries. Since experienced staff, and managers in particular, are limited in number, the Government cannot afford to lose this experienced personnel and effectively manage development.

Briefly, the housing subsidies are the following. The Government pays 20 percent of the cost of housing construction up front from the Government's Capital Budget and also pays 100 percent of the interest on the construction loan during the construction period. The Government then pays the total amount of the interest on the loan financing the house (now 10.8 percent) while the beneficiary repays the principal, generally over fifteen years, by paying up to 50 percent of his or her salary. In effect, the 50 percent salary payment is also subsidized. The 50 percent is made up of the 25 percent of income that is added to the base salary to cover housing needs (in effect a housing or rental allowance), the 5 percent of income which is deducted as compulsory savings for all salaried workers, and an extra 20 percent contribution by the individual for the privilege of improving his or her housing situation. In addition, the entire cost of land preparation and infrastructure, including water/sewage installations, as well as recurrent costs, are not accounted for in the sales price and thus can be considered indirect subsidies.

Indirectly, the Government also provides subsidies by selling land at below market prices, or, in secondary centers in particular, by giving the right of occupancy on Government land at no cost to the beneficiary (see Land Analysis). Estimates of these costs to the Government are not available.

The administration of the subsidies is described in detail in the Institutional Analysis section where the SIP programs are discussed.

The Government has recognized the high cost of providing civil servant housing in this way and expenditures through SIP in 1981 and 1982 were substantially below the levels of the three prior years. For 1983, the Government has allocated about US\$4.2 million for civil service housing, a considerable reduction over 1982 (US\$6.5 million).

Government expenditure in the low income housing area is limited to small amounts of counterpart funds for the World Bank and UN projects. The preliminary Fourth Five Year Plan for 1983-1987 expects resources for low income housing to continue to be provided via foreign assistance.

B. ANALYSIS OF CURRENT HOUSING STOCK AND PROJECTED DEMAND

1. Introduction

In the last four years, several major studies of the housing sector in Burundi were completed in preparation for the two low income housing and urban development projects sponsored by the World Bank and the United Nations HABITAT.

The first, Bujumbura 1978: Une Enquête Socio-Economique de la Faculté des Sciences Economiques et Administratives was undertaken by the Economics Department under the direction of Marcellin G. Dayer, a professor of Economics at the University of Burundi. In this seminal work, a sample survey was conducted in Bujumbura covering four major areas: population and employment; income and expenditures; housing issues; and general problems of the low income neighborhoods.

A consulting group from Paris, URBAPLAN, later undertook a comprehensive review of the shelter sector, Projet de Développement Urbain: Rapport Intermédiaire. This was done in preparation for the World Bank's project in the country. In March 1979, the United Nations also prepared a feasibility study for the UN HABITAT project in Bujumbura, building on the data collected by Dayer. This study, entitled Etude de l'Habitat à Bujumbura, focused on the physical problems of housing and related infrastructure, and building materials.

These studies were followed by an analysis of supply and demand in the housing sector, Etude sur la Politique de l'Habitat au Burundi, done by Mr. Populus in January 1981. A complete analysis of the urban and housing sector in two secondary centers (Rumonge and Gitega) was completed in 1982 by a team of international students associated with the Centre Opérationnel de Liaison, Recherches et Documentation in Bujumbura and the Agence de Coopération et d'Aménagement in Paris.

Finally, a 1979 post-census sample survey collected data on housing characteristics by rugo and by household. The information by rugo included the source of water, toilet location and occupant status. Data by household included the shape and type of homes, building materials for walls, roof and flooring and the method of home lighting. These data have not been completely analyzed by the Department of Population in Burundi, and thus the statistics used in this report are preliminary.

This section on the current status of housing draws heavily from these sources. In addition, the shelter sector team utilized current information from various government departments and from site visits to the low income neighborhoods in Bujumbura and several secondary sectors.

2. Housing Stock

Rural Housing: In a country like Burundi where the overwhelming majority of the houses are located in the rural area, it is difficult to

separate the discussion of rural housing from the general discussion of housing stock. This is especially true since houses in the peripheral neighborhoods of Bujumbura exhibit many of the characteristics of the houses in the rural area.

As noted earlier, in 1979, nearly 95 percent of the population lived on rugos (homesteads) dispersed throughout the countryside on "collines" (hills). The census revealed that on the 2,400 collines, there were 638,070 rugos housing 884,880 households, or an average of 1.4 households per rugo. The average number of people per household was 4.7, making an average of 6.4 persons per rugo. Residents of one compound generally include a father, mother and their unmarried children, or a father, mother, unmarried children, one or more married sons, sons' wives and their children. Married sons can build their own compounds near their father's home if there is sufficient land to be shared or they may go elsewhere in search of land. Whether or not fathers and sons share the same compound or colline after a son's marriage depends on how well they get along with each other, as well as on factors such as land scarcity and family size. Upon marriage, sons may move laterally across a colline (hill) since each individual homestead tends to use vertically defined strips of land extending from hilltop to valley. Hilltops are frequently uncultivated because they are too rocky, bare of trees, or badly eroded and therefore infertile.

Homesteads may consist of one or more huts surrounded by a bush fence (particularly in areas where livestock production is important) or surrounded by banana trees in areas emphasizing agricultural production. Agricultural land or grazing fields for cattle are located outside the enclosure. As a result of the extremely high density of the population, especially in the north and central highlands, rugos, while not grouped in villages, are nevertheless very close together. Over half of the rugos are located less than 50 meters from another rugo. Only 7 percent are isolated at a distance of over 500 meters from another rugo. A series of dirt paths connect the rugos on a hill or between hills. While rugos are not built along the paths, they are never very far away from the path.

Homes are traditionally round, the walls are made from the wood of local trees (often bamboo) covered with mud. The roof is covered with straw or banana leaves and the floor is dirt. Houses are generally divided into three rooms, a central foyer area and two small bedrooms, one for children and one for the parents. According to census data, the average number of rooms per house in the country, excluding the capital, was 3.24 with the average size of the house estimated at 26 m². Thus, in rural Burundi living space averages 5.8 m² per person. (See Table IV.3.)

The kitchen is located outside the house. Small charcoal stoves are the primary cooking utensil. A pit latrine is located at the back of the rugo at some distance from the main hut. No rural houses were reported as having running water, although abundant water is often available from natural springs. There is little natural light inside the house as the huts are

FIGURE IV.3

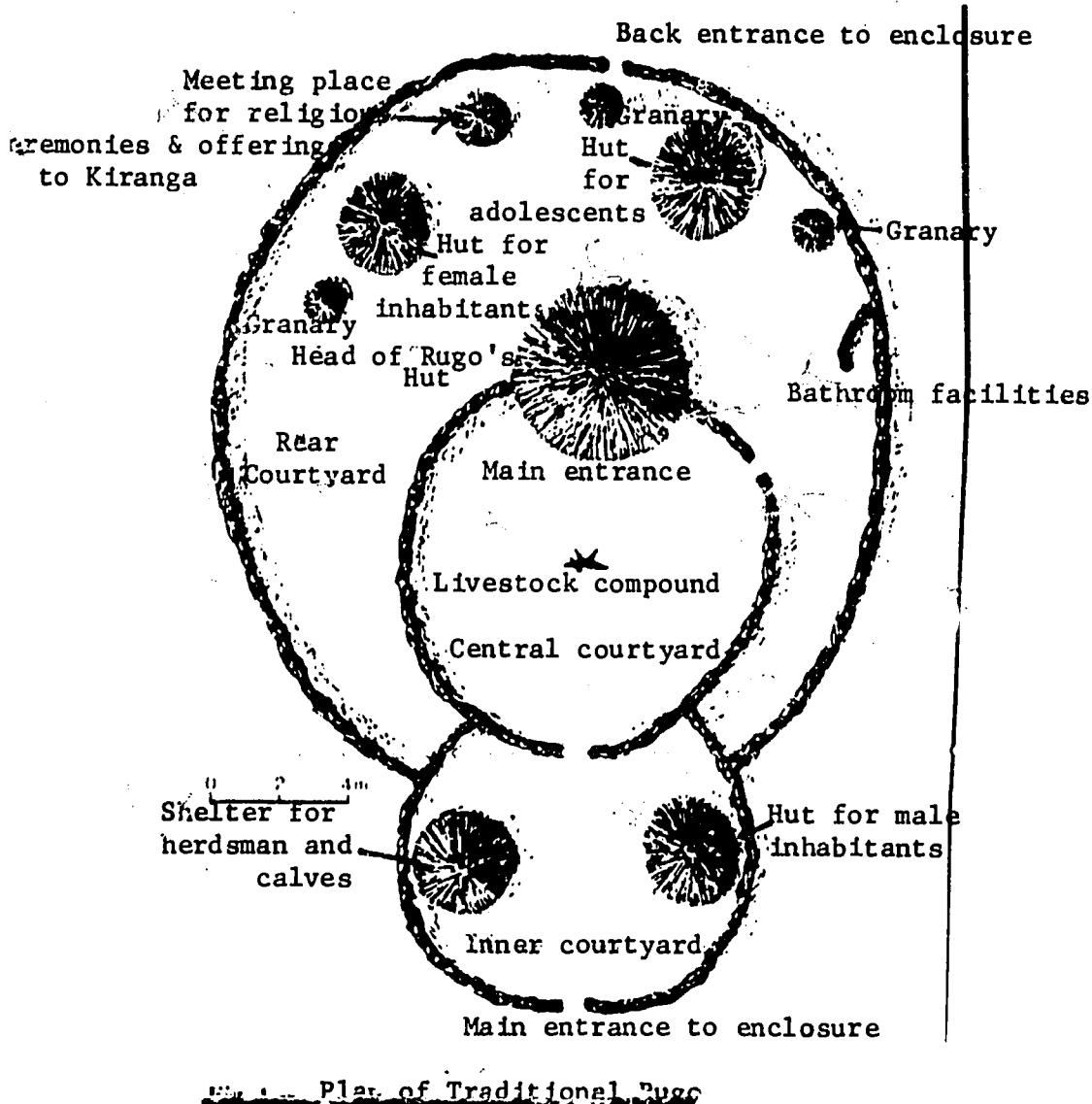
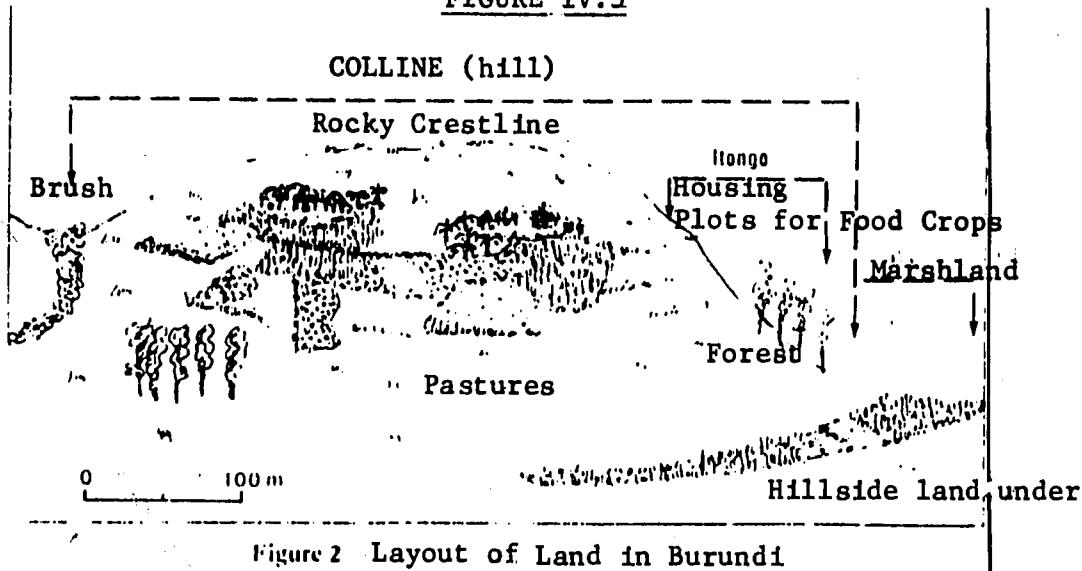


TABLE IV.1
BURUNDI
(WITHOUT BUJUMBURA CITY)
SUMMARY CHARACTERISTICS
OF HOUSING UNITS AND RUGO
IN *

<u>HOUSING</u>		<u>ROOF</u>	
1. <u>HOUSE TYPE</u>			
a. Traditional	88%	a. Eternit	7%
b. Modern	12	b. Tile	5
		c. Straw	87
2. <u>HOUSE SHAPE</u>		d. Other	1
a. Square/Rect.	71	5. <u>FLOORING</u>	
b. Round	28	a. Cement	2
c. Other	1	b. Earth	96
3. <u>WALLS</u>		c. Other	2
a. Stone/Brick	7	6. <u>LIGHTING</u>	
b. Mud	64	a. Electricity less than	
c. Reed/Bamboo	26	1	
d. Other	3	b. Oil/gas	26
(886,495 HOUSES)		c. Firewood	73

<u>RUGO</u>			
1. <u>SOURCE OF WATER</u>		2. <u>LOCATION OF TOILET</u>	
a. Running	11%	a. Inside	3%
b. Capped spring	35	b. Outside	95
c. Wells	6	c. None	2
d. Spring/river	48		
		3. <u>STATUS OF OCCUPANT</u>	
		a. Owner	99%
		b. Renter	.5
		c. Other	.5
(524,308 RUGOS)			

Source: "Incomplete Raw Data of the Post-Census Survey, 1979," as prepared by the Burundi Health Sector Assessment, AID, April 1981.

TABLE IV.2

BUJUMBURA CITY

SUMMARY CHARACTERISTICS

OF HOUSING UNITS & RUGO *

IN %

<u>HOUSING</u>		<u>HOUSING</u>	
1. <u>HOUSE TYPE</u>		4. <u>ROOF</u>	
a. Traditional	94 %	a. Eternit	84 %
b. Modern	4	b. Tile	-
2. <u>HOUSE SHAPE</u>		c. Staw	16
a. Square/Rect.	98	d. Other	-
b. Round		5. <u>FLOORING</u>	
c. Other	2	a. Cement	54
3. <u>WALLS</u>		b. Earth	46
a. Stone/Brick	83	c. Other	-
b. Mud	17	6. <u>TYPE OF LIGHTING</u>	
c. Reed/Bambo	-	a. Electricity	2
d. Other	-	b. Oil/gas	98
(23,645 HOUSES)		c. Firewood	-
<hr/>			
<u>RUGO*</u>			
1. <u>SOURCE OF WATER</u>		2. <u>LOCATION OF TOILET</u>	
a. Running	28 %	a. Inside	27 %
b. Capped springs	70	b. Outside	72
c. Wells	1	c. None	1
d. Spring/river	1	3. <u>STATUS OF OCCUPANT</u>	
		a. Owner	70 %
		b. Renter	29
		c. Other	1
*RUGO = Lot			
(12,929 lots)			

Source: "Incomplete Raw Data of the Post-Census Survey, 1979," as prepared by the Burundi Health Sector Assessment, AID, April 1981.

TABLE IV.3

AVERAGE NUMBER OF ROOMS PER HOUSE,
BY GEOGRAPHIC LOCATION AND TYPE OF HOUSE

<u>Geographic Location</u>	<u>Type of House</u>	<u>Average Number of Rooms</u>
City of Bujumbura	Modern House	2.92
	Traditional Hut	2.16
	TOTAL	2.89
Burundi, without the City of Bujumbura	Modern House	3.85
	Traditional hut	3.16
	TOTAL	3.24
Burundi Total	Modern House	3.68
	Traditional Hut	3.16
	TOTAL	3.24

Source: Recensement de la Pcpulation, Département de la
Population, Ministère de l'Intérieur, Bujumbura,
Burundi, April, 1979.

usual' built without windows. The sanitary conditions are often poor as a result of humidity, lack of fresh air and sharing of living space with animals. Most rural households own very few modern consumer items such as hurricane lamps, furniture, or kerosene and charcoal cooking stoves. For lighting, they depend upon small, self-made, tin lanterns which burn very small quantities of kerosene.

Rural housing is beginning to change. Recently there has been an evolution towards square houses and more durable building materials, such as locally-made bricks, tiles and sheet iron. This is a result of the influence of the religious missions as well as increasing deforestation resulting in a scarcity of traditional building materials. A survey done in 1970-71 showed that the number of round and square houses in the country was nearly even. In 1979, round houses accounted for only 28.9 percent of the houses in rural areas. (Tables IV.1-2.)

In the lowlands, housing along Lake Tanganyika reflects a heavy influence from Zaire. Residents have abandoned the characteristic enclosure which isolates one rugo from another, in favor of small communities, such as Rutunga, south of Kitaza along the coastal highway. Larger village-like settlements are found in Katumba, Kajaga, Magara, Minago, Resha, Rumonge, Kigwena and Nyanza-Lac.

In these areas, houses are predominantly rectangular, with two-sided roofs and more durable building materials. Living space is more likely to be grouped along the outside walls, with an interior central court yard. Living space for the head of household and immediate family is located in one area. Extended family members are housed separately, yet still within the family compound. Other space is used for food storage, cooking and sanitary purposes. This type of housing appears to have been inspired by the Swahili population. This style of house has carried over into the larger emerging population centers like Gitega, Ngozi, Rumonge, and Bururi where the entire neighborhoods are named "Quartier Swahili" (Swahili neighborhood).

Another type of rural housing is found on the plains of Ruzizi, an area which was relatively uninhabited until 1950. At that time, the Belgian colonial administrators established a series of agricultural communities (paysannats) for the cultivation of rice and cotton. The houses are still dispersed, but they are aligned in a grid pattern along a straight road.

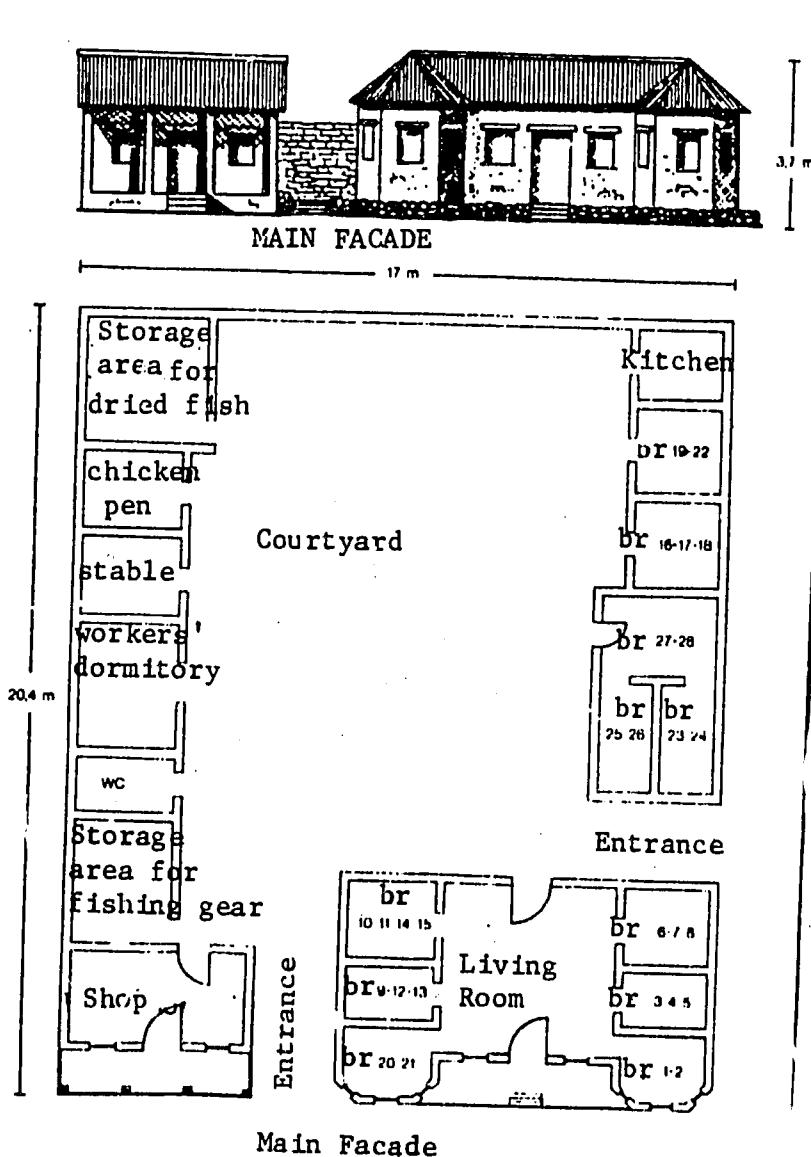
A large percentage of the rural population, however, remains attached to the purely traditional form of housing construction because it lacks the means to change. Other factors which are more complex and less easily identifiable enter into the situation and make it more difficult to effect changes in the structure. A study done in 1978 in Gitega found that many people in rural areas do not want large windows (which would improve living

FIGURE IV.4

RURAL HOUSING ALONG LAKE TANGANYIKA



Fig. 10 Housing Construction Influenced By the Swahili Population



Main Facade

Source: Rassere, Guy. Atlas du Burundi, Bordeaux, 1979.

conditions) because this would make the house more vulnerable (less secure), and reduce family intimacy and cohesion. Also, people did not want to display their wealth for fear of jealousy from their neighbors.

b. Urban Housing:

i. Housing Stock: The census data indicate that in 1979 there were 11,590 "parcelles" (lots) with a total of 28,020 households in Bujumbura. As will be discussed in detail below, more than one house is often located on a lot. The current (1983) estimate of the housing stock in the capital is 27,000 units. This number represents only slightly more than 2 percent of the housing stock of the entire country, yet considerably more diversity exists in the housing stock of the city than in the rural areas.

The various housing types reflect the differences in the urban neighborhoods described earlier. Housing in the Commercial Zones is generally incorporated into a commercial building. The residents are usually in the middle to high income groups, often of Asian or other foreign origin (Quartier Asiatique). Housing based on non-traditional western styles adapted to the tropical zone is found exclusively in the wealthy neighborhoods (Rohero I and Rohero II). Housing for government functionaries is generally a standardized duplex with verandas such as units built by the Government in Ngagara and Mutanga (see Figure IV.5).

The most numerous are the traditional houses most often found in the low income neighborhoods (Bwiza, Buyenzi, Musaga, Kamenge, Citiboke, and Kinama).

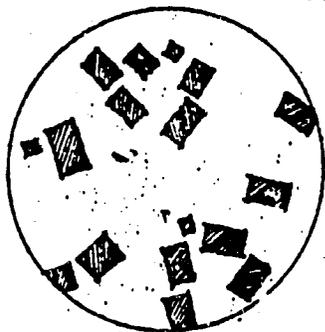
Two forms of construction typically found in the rural areas have been adopted in the urban setting. The first structure is characterized by walls made from a wooden framework with lattice work of branches or bamboo covered with mud. The flooring is packed dirt, and the roof is thatched or sometimes corrugated iron or scrap material. Strictly speaking, the housing has no foundation. The second structure has supporting walls made from non-fired earthen bricks with a covering of mud. The floor is also made of packed earth, the roof is thatched, or made of corrugated iron or scrap material. The foundation consists of a substructure of non-fired earthen bricks.

ii. Use of Space in Urban Housing: In the urban setting, the round house of the rural rugo has been replaced by the rectangular house. The post-census survey shows that in Bujumbura, 98 percent of the houses are rectangular. This trend is considered an evolution toward a more spacious dwelling of solid and durable construction. It is easier to replace the thatched roof of a rectangular house with corrugated iron. Also, the square design is more open, easier to clean and maintain, and therefore more hygienic.

The basic core of the house used by the urban poor is fairly uniform, although it has been adapted by the various ethnic groups in Bujumbura.

FIGURE IV.5

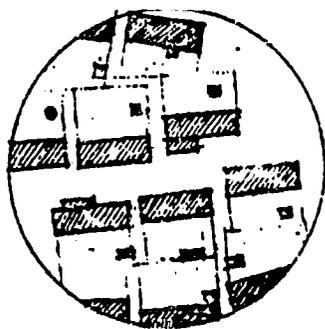
LAND USE PATTERNS IN SEVERAL NEIGHBORHOODS
IN BUJUMBURA



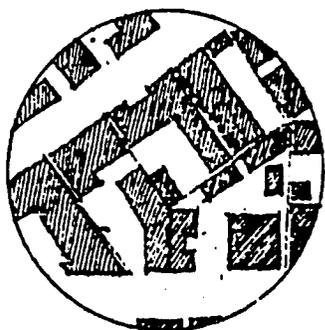
MUSAGA I and pockets of
spontaneous squatter
settlements



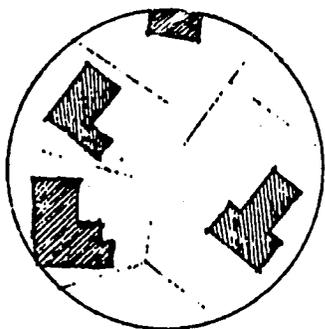
BUYENZI, PWIZA, KINAMA,
KAMENGE, CIBITOKÉ,
NYAKABIGA



NGAGARA



ASIAN NEIGHBORHOOD



ROHERO I, ROHERO II

The house begins with two or three rooms as shown in the sketch from the Musaga neighborhood (Figure IV.6). Dimensions of the rooms are often determined by the length of the wood and sheet iron available on the market at the time the house is built. As the house expands, additional rooms are added, beginning generally with a multi-purpose area (kitchen, storage, etc.).

Most low income houses are built around a central courtyard with the back of the house on the property line. It is common for most of the household's activities to take place outside the house. Meals are generally prepared outside, although occasionally the kitchen is inside. The latrine is located in a far corner of the lot.

On large urban lots, several houses may be built around the courtyard, as shown in Figures IV.6 and IV.7. The result is progressively increasing density per square meter. Often the rooms are occupied by extended families, although it is common to find rooms rented to non-family as well. In this latter case, the owner lives in the principal residence and rents out single rooms. This pattern of building around a central courtyard is followed even in the squatter settlements, although the use of the space is less clearly defined.

A deviation from this pattern exists in some low income neighborhoods where a type of boarding house is found. In this case, the basic three-room unit is modified to produce a long rectangular building of several adjoining single rooms, each with access to the outside. Single men and families (often 4-5 members) are renting rooms in these structures. Large numbers of these structures are found in the low income community of Musaga in particular. No data were found, however, to indicate what percentage of the total housing stock they represent. These units pose a serious health problem because of the overcrowded conditions.

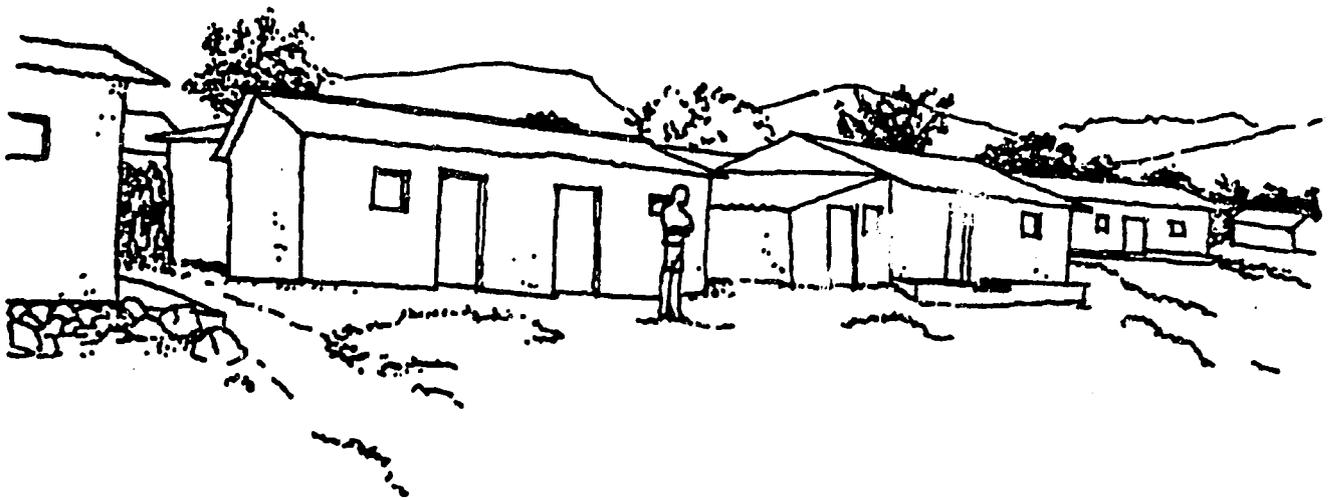
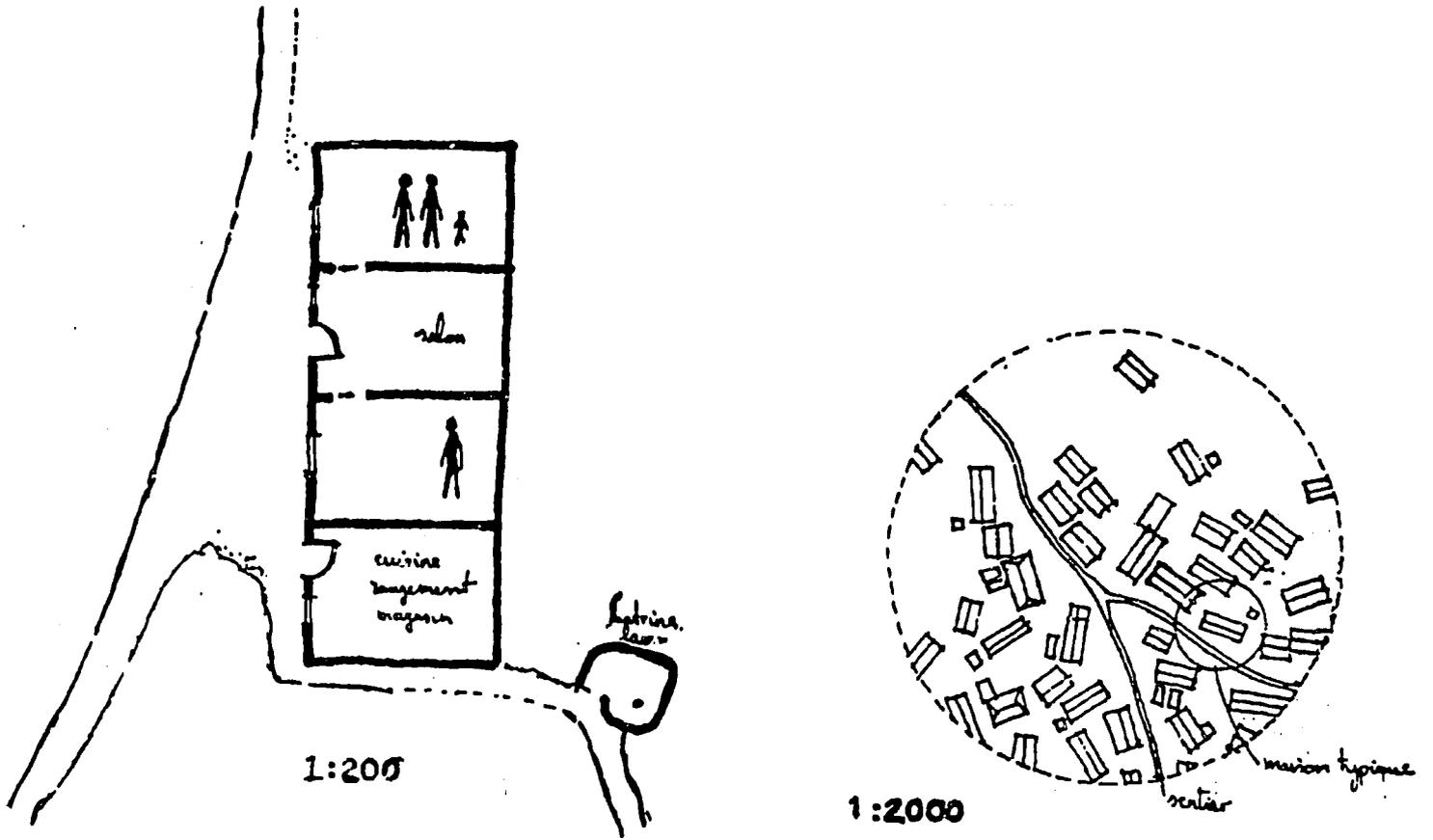
iii. Density: Population density varies widely from neighborhood to neighborhood. In the affluent neighborhoods, for example, density is low at 24 persons per hectare. In the most densely populated neighborhoods housing the urban poor, the number of people living on one hectare increases substantially. The highest is found in Bwiza, the oldest low income neighborhood of the city, with 340 inhabitants per hectare.

The average number of people per household varies by area also, although it does not necessarily correspond to the differences in income levels. In Bwiza, for example, the number of persons per household is lower (4.49) than the number of persons living in an affluent household in Rohero (5.73). The population density and household size for a number of Bujumbura neighborhoods is shown in Table IV.4.

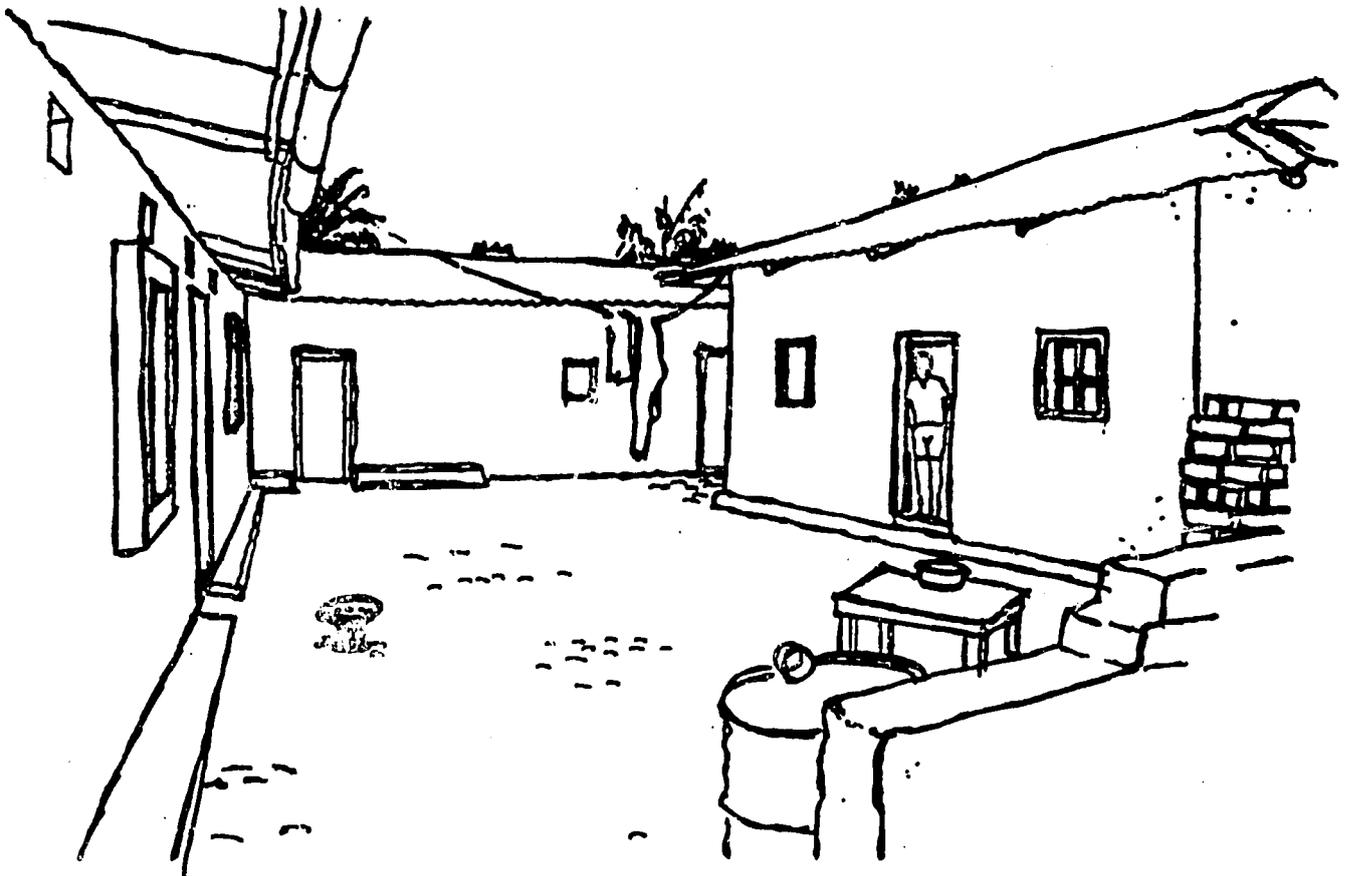
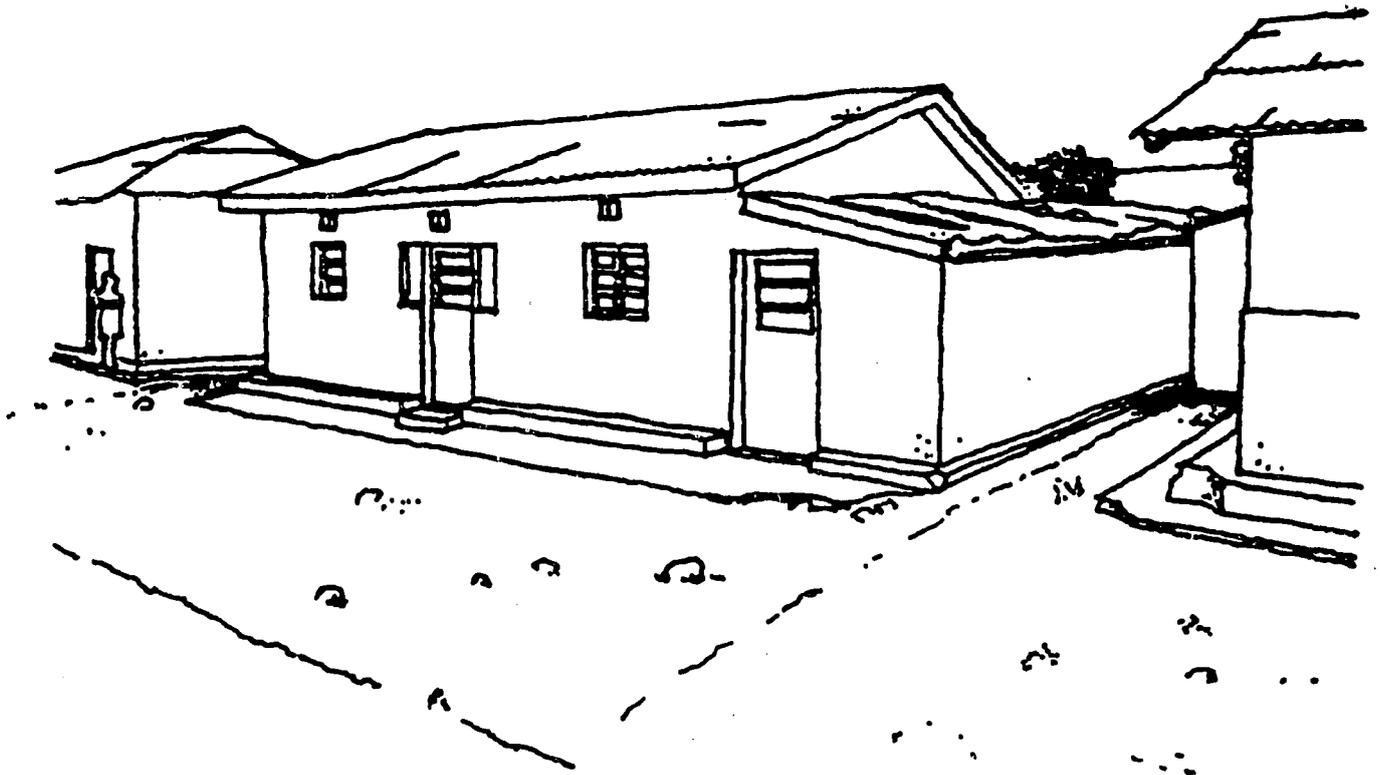
Of more significance is the number of households living on each lot. In many low income neighborhoods (as shown in Table IV.4) the number of

FIGURE IV.6

LAND USE PATTERN IN MUSAGA NEIGHBORHOOD



EXTERIOR VIEW OF HOUSES IN BUYENZI NEIGHBORHOOD



households per lot is three and four times that of the affluent neighborhoods, resulting in severe overcrowding.

TABLE IV.4
AVERAGE NUMBER OF PERSONS PER
HOUSEHOLD AND PERSONS AND HOUSEHOLDS
PER LOT/BY NEIGHBORHOOD IN THE CITY OF BUJUMBURA 1979

<u>Neighborhood</u>	<u>Population</u>	<u>Number of Households</u>	<u>Number of Persons Per Household</u>	<u>Number of Households Per Lot</u>	<u>Number of Persons Per Lot</u>
BUYENZI	29,839	6,215	4.80	4.06	19.5
BWIZA	23,390	5,208	4.49	4.74	21.3
MUSAGA	18,023	4,472	4.03	1.53	6.2
KAMENGE	17,927	3,715	4.83	2.10	10.1
CIBITOKÉ	16,355	3,144	5.20	1.69	8.8
KINAMA	14,545	3,226	4.51	1.33	6.0
NYAKABIGA	12,909	2,746	4.70	2.17	10.2
NGAGARA	12,665	1,931	6.56	3.07	20.1
ROHERO	12,278	2,144	5.73	1.07	6.1

Source: Incomplete Raw Data from the Enquête Post-Censitaire, Département de la Population, Ministère de l'Intérieur, Bujumbura, Burundi, 1979.

The seriousness of the overcrowding is particularly clear when the size of the homes is considered. First, the average square house, which predominates in the city, was calculated to be on the average 32 m². Since the city has many large homes in the suburbs, it should be assumed that many low income houses are in fact smaller than this. Also, in urban areas, the average number of rooms per house averages about 2.9. Rooms are very small and the amount of living space is minimal (6.5 m²) per person.

In the traditional lifestyle, the small size of the house was compensated for by using the outdoors for living space, cooking and recreation. As urban areas became more densely populated, as is the trend in Bujumbura, this option is less and less available and serious overcrowding results.

3. Public Utilities

a. Electricity: In Bujumbura, less than a quarter of the homes have electricity. Virtually no homes in the low income neighborhoods have

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TABLE IV.5

NUMBER OF HOUSEHOLDS PER LOT IN BUJUMBURA,
BURUNDI, BY NEIGHBORHOOD

<u>Neighborhood</u>	<u>Number of Households</u>
BUYENZI	4.06
BWIZA	4.74
MUSAGA	1.53
KAMENGE	2.10
CIBITOKÉ	1.69
KINAMA	1.33
NYAKABIGA	2.17
NGAGARA	3.07
ROHERO*	1.07
TOTAL For Bujumbura	2.13

Source: Recensement de la Population, Département de la
Population, Ministère de l'Intérieur, Bujumbura,
Burundi, April, 1983

*Includes Rohero I, II and Asian Neighborhood.

electricity and public streetlighting is practically non-existent or insufficient where provided. Light for the other seventy-five percent of the homes is provided from kerosene and/or butane gas which is used principally for cooking.

b. Water and Sanitary Facilities: Access to water in the cities is a far more serious problem than in the rural areas. In Bujumbura, only 28 percent of the houses have running water. The majority of the population only has access to water via public fountains which pose several problems. The majority are not clean, not well-maintained and are difficult to get to because of the abundance of stagnant water. Also, there are too few fountains to service the population, and this has been a source of tension and conflict in the neighborhoods.

Only 26.7 percent of the population has indoor plumbing facilities. Nearly three-quarters of the city's residents, therefore, use outdoor latrines. One latrine is often shared by several families, depending on the neighborhood. The potential for serious health problems exists. As the population increases, there will be less and less space for new latrines, and the danger of contamination of drinking water supplies becomes a possibility.

At one point, REGIDESO, the public utility company, had planned to build a new network which would permit individual water connections to be installed. It was envisioned that the public standpipes would then be progressively removed. This project was suspended after the President of the Republic visited the neighborhoods and confirmed that the residents were not in favor of removing the standpipes. The general belief of technicians is that individual service to homes should be avoided until such time as the city is able to provide and maintain an efficient network of sewage drains.

c. Sewage and Garbage Disposal: The drainage system in the city is inadequate for the needs of the population. The lack of drainage systems is made even more serious by the use of the land to make mud bricks for house construction. In some cases, the dirt is taken from the sidewalks which, over time, leads to a lowering of the road level and the foundations of the houses are left exposed. In other cases, the dirt from the lot is used for construction which over several years results in the house being below the street level, forming a hollow or depression in which water collects.

No regular garbage collection service exists in the city. In the neighborhoods located near the center (Bwiza, Buyenzi, Nyakabiga and Ngagara), garbage is thrown on the streets in a haphazard fashion and is cleared away by residents when the zone chief considers it excessive. This is an unsatisfactory system which constitutes a real public health danger. In the less densely populated areas on the periphery, garbage is buried in 1 to 2 meter troughs on the individual lots. These deposit areas fill up with water when it rains and are a very inadequate solution. A city dump

was established near Butare, on the outskirts of the city, but it is not yet well organized and is not very accessible, with the result that trucks dump the garbage along the side of the road.

The poor condition of the physical infrastructure in the low income neighborhoods reflects insufficient investment to install the needed facilities, compounded by a lack of proper maintenance of the existing infrastructure. The Mayor, who is responsible for this task, is aware of the situation, but has few financial resources to carry it out. In 1979, for example, the city had four trucks to collect the garbage in the entire city and to provide maintenance as well. Additionally, there were no trained technicians who could supervise the work. The World Bank project is addressing some of these problems, but has had limited success to date.

4. Community Services

The community facilities available to the low income neighborhoods in Bujumbura are mediocre in quality and few in number, but they are not totally deficient, as shown in Table IV.6, which lists all the facilities available in each neighborhood.

The Government has not been able to provide a sufficient number of schools and teachers for the number of school-age children. In 1979, the percentage of children in school throughout the country was 20 percent; in the capital it was 50 percent. From 1972-1979, no new school was built in the city by the National Education Department. Further, the schools were not evenly distributed throughout the city. As a result, private schools have proliferated which provide a curriculum which does not meet the official program, often have precarious sanitary conditions and are expensive.

Health services are provided through hospitals, health centers and dispensaries. In principle, each zone should have a dispensary or a health center, where basic health care is provided at low cost. In fact, the health facilities are unequally distributed throughout the city, leaving several areas of the city without access to medical care. Those who do have access to dispensaries complain of long waits, and a lack of medicine as the principal problems, necessitating a visit to private drugstores which are often understocked in medicine. Traditional medical practitioners are found in every neighborhood, however. In each, two or three healers are consulted by local residents, although these healers are not recognized by health officials.

Playing fields for sport activities are seriously lacking in all neighborhoods except Ngagara. Under pressure from the residents, however, several basketball courts are being prepared in several areas. The action was precipitated by the Zone Heads who were supported by the Mayor.

The city has a daily central market which is used by all residents of the city, including those living a considerable distance away. The central market offers a wide choice of goods, such as imported produce, and local handicrafts as well as foodstuffs, but it is inconveniently located for many people.

TABLE IV.6

Community Facilities Found in the Low Income Neighborhoods of Bujumbura, 1979

	Population 1978 1)	Health facilities 3)	Education		Community centers built by the Party	Surfaces	
			School-age children 2)	Number of Schools 3)		Markets 4)	Sport 3)
BUYENZI	25,500	CS/hospitals P.R.C.	4,335	4	1	0,4	f
BWIZA	21,000	CS/hospitals P.R.C.	3,570	1	-	-	b
NYAKABIGA	11,500	..	1,995	2	1	0,15	f
NGAGARA *	13,500	CS	2,295	7	1	0,7	f/b
CIBITQKE	15,000	-	2,550	1	1	-	-
KAMENGE	16,500	-	2,805	2	1	0,15	-
KINAMA	15,000	CS	2,550	3	1	0,15	f

Abbreviations:

CS Health Centers
 PRC Prince Regent Charles Hospital
 f Soccer Field
 b Basketball Court

Sources:

- 1) Bouda: L'Etude de l'Habitat
- 2) Urbaplan study based on Dayer study, 1978.
- 3) Survey of the Heads of Zones, 1979.
- 4) Calculations made by Urbaplan, based on 1975 aerial photographs and a field survey.

* Ngagara also has a social center and production workshop for women.

Smaller markets limited primarily to foods are found in many, although not all, neighborhoods. The smaller markets vary considerably in size and importance to the population. Some officials have suggested that creation of a second important market is needed in the rapidly growing northern part of the city. Spontaneous markets have sprung up in response to popular demand such as the market in Nyakabiga. The Mayor's office is responsible for servicing the market, collecting a daily tax, and providing minimal maintenance to the official markets.

The national party, UPRONA, has built a center in each zone to be used for the literacy program and for cultural and other types of meetings. The meeting centers can hold between 200 and 300 people. The centers were financed by the Party with the profits from the sale of crops from community land which was cultivated through the UPRONA Party's collective work program. The actual location of each building was chosen with a view toward grouping several official buildings together in the future. The aim of the Mayor and the zone councils is to create a type of "village square" within each of the ten urban zones where a variety of activities would take place (literacy programs, job-related training programs, handicrafts programs, and administrative and information functions).

5. Household Expenditures

The most recent data systematically collected on household expenditures are reported in the Household Survey of Bujumbura, 1978-79 (Enquête auprès des Ménages de Bujumbura), conducted by the Ministry of Planning. A similar survey covering the rural area of the country will begin in May 1983. Thus, the data discussed refer primarily to the capital.

In 1979, housing represented a relatively small portion of household expenditures, averaging only 12 percent of a family's budget. The amount spent on housing varied considerably, however, depending upon the neighborhood. In one of the poorest neighborhoods in the capital, housing represented only 5.5 percent of a family's budget compared with 19.1 percent in the most affluent neighborhood.

There was not a strict correlation between degree of affluence of the neighborhood and the percent of income spent on housing. High percentages were also found in two lower income areas (Bwiza and Buyenzi) and a low percentage (6.5%) was found in Rohero II, a high income neighborhood. This is partially explained by the fact that housing is very scarce in Bwiza and Buyenzi, but extremely desirable because of the proximity to the center of town and employment opportunities. Two studies completed in 1978 report lower figures for housing expenditures. Dayer and Urbaplan both reported that in 1978, expenditures on housing averaged 4.1 percent in the capital, with a low of .3 percent in poor neighborhoods and a high of 9.1 percent in the high income neighborhoods.

The amount reportedly spent on housing as a percentage of household expenditures may be low for the 30 percent of the urban population who are renters, due to a strict rent control law in effect at the time the previously cited studies were conducted. This law was eliminated in 1981 and rents have risen dramatically. A single room rents for 3,000 Fbu-5,000 Fbu (\$33.50-\$55.80). Data are not available on a large scale but case studies indicate that families may be paying four times as much in rent as before.

Applicants for the World Bank DUB Project reported paying from 50 to 60 percent of their income on rent. Although this high percentage may be due to a partial under-reporting of income, it is still substantially above the 27 percent budgeted by project officials as the maximum a family could afford to pay for rent.

Food expenses were reported in 1979 to consume nearly 40 percent of a family's budget citywide. The urban poor, however, spent over half of their income on food. In some of the poorest areas, Dayer reported food costs as representing two-thirds of the family budget (Musaga 61.7 percent, and Kinama 65.1 percent). This contrasted sharply with the affluent areas where only one-third of a household budget is spent on food.

If housing costs have risen to over one-half of a family's budget, it can be assumed that the amount spent on food has decreased. This suggests strongly that the urban population which rents housing may be increasingly underfed. Some sources even suggest that many people, such as domestic workers, may be spending nearly their entire salary for housing. The major source of food is from the crops they are able to grow on small parcels of land in the city or produce sent by family in the rural areas. In Burundi where malnutrition and protein-caloric deficiency among the poor are already high, this trend in the urban areas must be viewed as an extremely serious issue.

Rural expenditure levels are quite low. The commonly purchased foods are few, and include salt, palm oil for cooking, rice on special occasions, and some potatoes and peas. Common non-food household purchases include soap, small quantities of kerosene for lighting, and supplies such as pencils, notebooks and books for school children. Little money is spent on housing as 99 percent own their own houses and building materials are locally produced or free (trees and mud).

Firewood and charcoal for cooking also consume a substantial portion of a family's resources. One study of the forestry subsector indicates that wood consumption, usually in the form of charcoal, is disproportionately higher in urban areas. In the rural areas, there is a heavy dependence on agricultural wastes for fuel.

TABLE IV.7

STRUCTURE OF CURRENT HOUSEHOLD
EXPENDITURES IN BUJUMBURA, BY
% OF TOTAL EXPENDITURES, 1979

Neighborhood	Food	Clothes	Household Goods	Housing	Personal Care and Health	Recreation and Leisure	Miscellaneous	Total
BUYENZI	48.0%	10.3%	7.6%	12.1%	2.7%	4.1%	14.3	100%
BWIZA	38.6	11.1	4.4	5.5	2.4	6.8	30.8	100
KAMENGE	48.5	17.0	8.0	12.6	1.7	8.9	3.3	100
CIBITOKÉ	50.0	15.5	10.1	5.5	1.7	12.2	5.0	100
KINAMA	52.7	22.0	7.3	8.0	.7	4.0	5.3	100
NGAGARA	37.6	17.4	4.2	19.0	1.8	8.8	11.2	100
NYAKABIGA	44.0	16.8	6.5	19.3	3.1	5.7	4.5	100
ROHERO I	34.1	77.2	1.4	19.1	3.0	25.0	10.1	100
ROHERO II	37.3	4.9	2.2	6.5	2.1	11.7	35.2	100
TOTAL	39.4%	10.2%	4.0%	12.0%	2.2%	12.6%	19.4%	100%

Source: Enquete Aupres de Ménages de Bujumbura 1978-79, Ministry of Planning, Bujumbura, Burundi, October, 1981

In Bujumbura, charcoal is very expensive at FBu 20-25 (US\$.22-.28) a kilo. It must be transported a distance of 50 to 60 kilometers since virtually no trees remain in areas close to the city. Some estimate that the urban poor may pay up to 20 percent of their monthly income to purchase charcoal. Time, rather than money, is expended in the rural areas, where it is estimated that rural women devote at least two days a week to the gathering of fuel.

Recent innovations in the design of the traditional charcoal burning stove used by most families for cooking have significantly reduced the amount of fuel needed for cooking. The DUB project staff, which is responsible for the new design, reported initial problems with acceptance of the design, however, and they are working on strategies to improve the marketing in order to help reduce the cost of fuel for urban families.

6. Housing Needs

There is a serious need for new housing stock, affordable to the lower and middle income groups in Burundi. Housing is scarce for both groups and the supply cannot keep pace with the demand.

The principal supplier of housing for the middle income group of government employees, the Société Immobilière Publique (SIP), cannot keep pace with the demand. Approximately 1,700 government officials, who had the right to government-provided housing, had not been serviced (nor, according to data provided by Nkrusi in her study of SIP, did they receive private bank loans). Further, she stated that the average number of new civil servants hired every year is double the number of houses being built by SIP.

The middle income group is constrained from building houses privately, according to Nkrusi, by two key factors: the high cost of construction compared with their incomes, and the lack of available credit in local institutions.

Low income people are also finding housing scarce for several reasons. First, housing construction in the formal sector is primarily for the upper income group. (According to the evaluation of the Government's Third Five Year Plan, of the 1,799 units built, 1,699 were for upper income families; 100 units were for low income families.)

Second, the low income population does not have access to credit, and cannot afford to buy the houses being built by the private sector when they are available. Further, as a result of the elimination of rent control in 1981, there has been a proliferation of construction of units for rental, not for sale. Also as a result of the elimination of rent control, rents have risen dramatically and many low income families are currently paying a substantial portion of their income for housing. Many of the beneficiaries

of the government-sponsored low income projects (financed by the World Bank and the United Nations) are actually paying less in mortgage payments than they were in rent. Others waiting for housing in these projects are willing to pay more than the project's current price because they believe it is the only way they will be able to buy a house.

The housing in the low income areas and squatter settlements in the urban areas is of poor quality and in need of renovation. The housing stock in Burundi has been classified into three types, based upon the materials used in their construction, durable, semi-durable, and non-durable. Nearly 80 percent of the current housing stock in the capital is made from semi-durable or non-durable building materials (generally mud) and has an average duration of eight to ten years. In the low income neighborhoods nearly all homes are constructed from semi-durable or non-durable materials. Moreover, in the two poorest neighborhoods, Kinama and Cibitoke, over 75 percent of the houses are constructed from non-durable materials. Further, projections made by Populus in his study, Etude sur la Politique de l'Habitat au Burundi, indicate that while there are currently a larger number of houses made from semi-durable materials, the number of non-durable houses is increasing at a more rapid rate.

Houses constructed from non-durable materials are considered inadequate for the urban environment because of the non-permanent nature of the structure, the unsanitary conditions and their inability to withstand fire and inclement weather. They are frequently found in the semi-urban areas on the periphery of the city, where there are many farmers and new arrivals. They should be considered as only a transitory solution to the needs of urban residents, and in need of replacement if the goal of decent housing for citizens is to be reached. With certain modifications, this housing could move to the semi-durable category, which is considered by some as minimally acceptable for the urban environment.

All the low income neighborhoods suffer from a serious deficiency in basic infrastructure (potable water, electricity and drainage systems) as well as the social infrastructure (schools, clinics, community centers, recreational facilities). Government policy strongly supports universal education and preventive health care for the population, but given the current economic situation of the Government, it is unlikely and unrealistic to expect substantially increased expenditures in these areas in the near future.

Home ownership is valued in Burundi, yet 30 percent of the population in the capital are currently renting. Thus, the renters represent an important market for a future project.

Renters are not equally distributed throughout the city, as shown in the results of Dayer's study. Surprisingly, home ownership is higher among the poor, as the high income neighborhoods have far more civil servants who live in government-provided houses. In the low income neighborhoods, the

TABLE IV.8

CLASSIFICATION OF HOUSES IN BUJUMBURA BY TYPE OF CONSTRUCTION

Neighborhood	Type of House	Number of Houses	% of Housingstock	Size of House in m ²
BUYENZI	A. Durable	150	5%	80m ²
	B. Semi-Durable	2010	73	50
	C. Not-Durable	600	22	45
BWTZA	A. Durable	250	11%	80m ²
	B. Semi-Durable	1660	75	40
	C. Not-Durable	300	14	40
MUSAGA	A. Durable	30	2%	50m ²
	B. Semi-Durable	1020	49	35
	C. Not-Durable	1010	49	30
KAMENGE	A. Durable	20	1%	80m ²
	B. Semi-Durable	1970	82	40
	C. Not-Durable	420	17	35
CIBITOKÉ	A. Durable	0	-	-
	B. Semi-Durable	600	22%	40m ²
	C. Not-Durable	2120	78%	40
KIMANA	A. Durable	0	-	-
	B. Semi-Durable	600	23%	40m ²
	C. Not-Durable	2000	77	35
NYAKABIGA	A. Durable	80	5%	80m ²
	B. Semi-Durable	1300	85	40
	C. Not-Durable	150	10	40
NYGAGARA	A. Durable	2300	100%	70m ²
	B. Semi-Durable	0		
	C. Not-Durable	0		
ROHERO I & II	A. Durable	1460	100%	200m ² -250m ²
	B. Semi-Durable			
	C. Not-Durable			
Quartier ASIATIQUE	A. Durable	200	90%	200m ²
	B. Semi-Durable	30	10	80m ²
	C. Not-Durable			
TOTAL	A. Durable	4490	22%	138m ²
	B. Semi-Durable	9180	46	39
	C. Not-Durable	6600	32	37
TOTAL NUMBER OF HOUSES		20270		

Source: Annex No. 7, M. Population. Etude Sur la Politique de l'Habitat au Burundi, Janvier, 1981

percentage of renters varies. The two oldest and most densely populated neighborhoods, Bwiza and Buyenzi, have a high percentage of renters. This suggests that land is no longer available in these areas, and families are doubling up or living in single rooms in order to be close to the center of the city.

TABLE IV.9

PERCENTAGE OF HOUSEHOLDS WHO RENT OR HAVE FREE USE OF
A HOUSE, BY NEIGHBORHOOD, IN BUJUMBURA, 1979

<u>Neighborhood</u>	<u>% Renting</u>	<u>% Free Use of House</u>
Bwiza	50.7	5.5
Buyenzi	30.9	2.2
Cibitoke	28.6	1.9
Kamenge	22.9	2.2
Kinama	5.8	0
Musaga	18.6	2.3
Nyakabiga	60.0	2.9
Ngagara	36.7	3.3
Rohero I	16.0	4.8

Source: Marcelin Dayer. Enquête Socio-Economique de Bujumbura, 1979.
Bujumbura, Burundi.

Accurate information on need for housing in the secondary cities was difficult to obtain. Squatter settlements of substantial size were observed by the shelter sector team during field visits to four secondary cities. The problem appears most serious in the urban centers such as Gitega and Ngozi in the north and central highlands where the population density is the highest in the country. If the Government policy to strengthen secondary cities is implemented soon, it is reasonable to assume that demand for housing will increase in these areas.

Squatter settlements have begun to occur on Government land on the periphery of Bujumbura, along the major highway and to a lesser degree on the mountains behind the affluent residential neighborhoods. Information obtained from the newly-formed Ministère de la Condition Féminine suggests that a large number of households in these squatter areas are headed by women. These women are faced with a serious housing need aggravated by extremely low incomes. Also, a large number of single women are migrating to the capital in search of work and face serious problems in finding adequate and affordable housing.

The Government's current Five Year Plan estimates the need for rural housing at 548,500 by 1987. This is based on an estimated demand of 233,500 houses for newly-formed households and an estimated 285,000 which need renovation or replacement.

In the Five Year Plan, the need for urban housing is estimated at 16,053. This includes 8,545 new houses in the secondary centers and 7,508 new/renovated houses in Bujumbura (6,500 new houses and 1,008 renovated houses).

Demand for housing in Bujumbura is elastic and will depend upon the ability of the Government to implement its stated policy of developing secondary urban areas as alternate growth poles, thus reducing the population growth in the capital. The Division of Urban Planning in the Ministry of Public Works (MTPEM) prepared estimates of housing need, for the year 2002, based on two assumptions about the growth rate in Bujumbura. Assuming a low growth rate (4%) in the capital, and current density per unit of 7.5 persons, they project the need for housing at 37,565 by the year 2002, or approximately 2,000 houses a year (27,430 for new households and 10,135 to upgrade or replace existing housing stock).

Using a high growth rate for Bujumbura (7%), and lowering unit density to 6.5 persons, demand is estimated at 64,465 new houses needed by the year 2002, or approximately 3,400 a year. (53,100 are estimated for new households and 11,365 to upgrade or replace existing housing stock.)

While the number of rural houses needed is greater in absolute numbers, the urban need is serious. A much larger proportion of the urban dwellers do not own their own homes (30 percent compared with .5 percent in the rural areas). Density per room is higher in the urban areas and increasing, and density per m² is also higher. This, combined with the lack of adequate sanitary conditions, presents a very real public health problem in the urban centers, as evidenced by the cholera epidemic of 1978.

TABLE IV.10

PROJECTED DEMAND FOR HOUSING IN BUJUMBURA BY THE YEAR 2002SCENARIO IEstimated population of Bujumbura 410,700

<u>Persons per Household</u>	<u>Number of Houses</u>	<u>Number of New Units</u>	<u>Number of Houses Needed to Replace Existing Stock</u>	<u>Number of Houses Needed to replace/ Renovate Stock</u>	<u>Total Needed</u>
a) 7.5 persons	54,760	27,430	8,815	1,320	37,565
b) 6.5 persons	63,180	35,850	8,815	1,720	46,385

SCENARIO IIEstimated population of Bujumbura 522,800

a) 7.5 persons	69,710	42,380	8,815	2,035	53,230
b) 6.5 persons	80,430	53,100	8,815	2,550	64,465

Source: Peter Bohr, Technical Advisor to the Division de l'Urbanisme, Ministère des Travaux Publics.

Estimate of existing houses in Bujumbura in 1982
164,000
 6 persons per household = 27,330

C. LAND ANALYSIS

1. Land Ownership, Values and Availability

In Bujumbura and in the secondary centers, the Government retains ownership of a large amount of raw land suitable for residential development. Some individual parcels are sold each year to private citizens, and larger tracts are provided as needed for civil servant housing estates.

Private land ownership is distinguished by a dual system of customary rights and full legal title. An 1888 colonial decree had recognized customary rights, expropriated all vacant land to the state and offered certain lands for private legal title. In 1961, a law was passed which retained in the public domain all vacant, unimproved land as well as land on which families lived under customary rights. This law failed, however, to clearly address the procedures by which customary rights could be transformed into legal title, and the issue remains confused to this day.

Private urban land in commercial and upper income residential areas is held most often in legal title, whereas land in lower income neighborhoods and all rural residential areas is held under customary rights. In practice, the customary rights, at least in the older established low income neighborhoods, offer adequate security of tenure and may be transferred. Apparently, the status of title has not affected the extent of investment in housing construction within individual neighborhoods. There are, however, many unanswered questions regarding the status of such land in the case of death, bankruptcy, etc. Further, it is unlikely that land held in customary rights could be used as collateral for construction loans when and if a loan program were to be established in a financial institution. Squatters in the newer settlements of Bujumbura have less secure tenure than those living in the established low income neighborhoods. An executive order to establish the conditions under which a citizen can transform land title has been discussed, but no action has been taken.

In the upgrading neighborhoods of the World Bank-financed project "DUB" (a description of this project can be found in the Institutional Analysis section), the granting of full title to customary rights plotters is not a project objective in part because of the high costs of cadastral registration. Owners desiring full legal title will be allowed, however, to use the house construction loans to cover costs of survey and title transfer.

In the case of public housing programs undertaken by agencies such as SIP, the Government transfers title of land gratis to the agency. In several of SIP's projects (Ngagara, Mutanga and Kirindo), the civil servants for whom the housing was constructed have the right to purchase ownership of the house but without well-defined rights to the parcel.

Legal title to an individual parcel offered for sale by the Government can be acquired by successfully completing a house and making full payment of the sales price of the land. During the period of construction of the house, the plotholder pays a rental fee which is then deducted from the sales price of the parcel upon completion.

The pricing of government-owned lands has been set by a 1963 decree and not modified since. Artificially low sales prices for residential land parcels have caused social inequity and an inability of the Government to recover the costs of substantial investments in infrastructure. A recent study of Government land sales in Bujumbura over a 21-month period in 1980-81 indicates that of 220 total parcel sales, 184 were large, well-serviced lots in the upper income neighborhoods of Rohero I and Rohero II. These parcels were all sold at the fixed price of 60 FBU (US\$1.67) per square meter. The study compared these government sales prices to private land sales in the low income, poorly serviced neighborhood of Bwiza where small plots are sold for up to 1,200 FBU/m² (US\$13.41). A further inequity is that, as discussed earlier, full legal title is not registered in the lower income, customary rights neighborhoods such as Bwiza, but is granted free of charge to Rohero plotholders upon completion of their house.

The fact that very large financial outlays for infrastructure and services in such neighborhoods as Rohero are not being recovered by this artificially low pricing of land nor by any other means is of serious concern to development of a shelter program. An urban tax measure which would have brought at least a small measure of equity and recovery of social investments has failed to this date to be approved by the Government. Although discussion is underway, no action has been taken on a restructuring of Government land sales pricing.

In the development of a shelter program for Bujumbura and secondary centers, attention needs to be given to security of land tenure for the very poor, particularly to those newly arriving in urban areas who do not enjoy even customary title to land on which they are settling. This may best be addressed by the programming of serviced sites in or near spontaneously settled areas which thereby offer the possibility of ultimate secure title.

Only sketchy information could be obtained regarding the rights of women to acquire title to land. Certainly in traditional life, Burundian women had few legal rights and could not inherit land outright. A 1980 family code has taken a more progressive attitude toward women's rights regarding inheritance and other matters, but the extent to which this has influenced their actual access to land title could not be ascertained.

2. Land Use Planning

Planning for the use of land in Bujumbura and the secondary centers is primarily the responsibility of the Division de l'Urbanisme et de l'Habitat

(Division of Urban Planning and Housing) within the Ministère des Travaux Publics, de l'Energie et des Mines (MTPEM) (see description in the Organization of Government Section (IV.A.1). This responsibility encompasses both long range planning of urban lands as well as the day to day review and approval of subdivisions. A land use plan has been prepared for Bujumbura and an urban and regional mapping program has been initiated through French bilateral aid. Also with French assistance and under the Division's overall direction, plans for two secondary centers, Gitega and Rumonge, have been recently completed. These documents were prepared by students from many African countries as part of their academic program with the Agence de Coopération et d'Aménagement in Paris.

The Division has not begun land use plans for other secondary centers; however, the above-referenced mapping program will provide the base for such work.

The Division is very short of staff and at present without any Burundian professionals. Efforts to attract Burundians have been frustrated by the absence of an academic program in planning at the national university, the low Government salaries, and the great need for those few qualified Burundians to manage other development programs.

D. INSTITUTIONAL ANALYSIS

This section describes the programs which are currently providing housing to the citizens of Burundi, under the auspices of the Ministry of Public Works, Energy and Mines (the Ministry is described fully in Section IV.A, Government and Its Relation to Shelter and Urban Development). First, the Société Immobilière Publique, which develops housing for middle and upper income civil servants, is described. Second, the donor-assisted projects for the low income population of Burundi are reviewed. Also discussed in this section are housing finance and financial institutions. Finally, the community organizations providing related services are reviewed.

1. Société Immobilière Publique (SIP)

As early as 1977, the Government's annual reports referred to the need for a housing policy covering all levels of the population, and referenced the constraints then inhibiting satisfactory shelter construction and delivery. Among the elements mentioned were the weak savings capacity of most of the population, the lack of bank credit for housing, and the lack of knowledge of affordable low cost housing techniques.

To address the problem of persistent housing shortages, the Government created the Société Immobilière Publique (SIP-Public Building Society) in 1979 as a parastatal organization. SIP was to be the principal formally-structured Government executing agency to study, implement and manage all

housing operations, directly or indirectly, which are concerned with the improvement or development of urban and urban periphery housing in Burundi. Priority was to be given to meeting the housing needs of the population with modest incomes.

SIP was created with registered capital of about US\$4.4 million of which US\$3.3 million was a capital contribution of properties by the Government, making the latter the majority stockholder. Other stockholders are the Banque de la République du Burundi (BRB - the Central Bank) and the Caisse Centrale de Mobilisation et Financement (CAMOFI - a parastatal which mobilizes parastatal resources and re-lends them to meet public development needs).

SIP's main office and administrative center is in Bujumbura and is staffed by approximately 110 employees. It also has a small agency in Gitega, staffed by 7 employees, which provides technical assistance to private construction firms implementing SIP housing programs in that city.

Since its creation, SIP has operated basically as a developer of civil servant housing implementing the Government's policy of providing housing to civil servants on a subsidized basis. It manages the finance lease system for civil servant housing and is, in effect, a civil service housing authority. SIP has not as yet undertaken any projects to meet low income housing needs. In fact, the housing developed by SIP so far is affordable only to higher level civil servants. Over 50 percent of civil servants cannot afford SIP-developed housing even with substantial government subsidies. However, SIP is looking also at ways to produce housing at lower cost which could be affordable to a greater range of civil servants.

SIP carries out no construction operations for its own account but contracts out its building programs to the private sector. SIP operates like a U.S. residential property developer and property manager, except that it does not become involved in property or land acquisition.

During the Third Five Year Plan period (1978-1982) SIP built about 900 units. In 1982, SIP constructed about 100 housing units and 48 small apartment units (part of a 348 unit project which is almost complete) in Bujumbura and 29 units in Gitega. The Gitega units were unoccupied at the time of the Shelter Sector team visit because the public utility authority, REGIDESO, has not yet provided water and other infrastructure facilities. The coordination and payment for infrastructure have been persistent problems for SIP.

Currently, SIP has programs under construction in two areas. A major project for 350 houses for mid-and-upper-level civil servants in the Kinindo area is planned but funding still has not been finalized. In addition, SIP is doing feasibility studies for an office building to be

used by SIP and CAMOFI. In summary, none of the SIP projects implemented thus far nor those in the planning stages meet the needs of the low income urban population.

SIP manages two financing programs, individual credit (crédit individuel) and lease/purchase (location/vente), which are described below and also described in detail in Robbins & Connor's Analysis of SIP (see bibliography). In addition, SIP manages the housing construction programs of other Government or foreign assistance agencies which have their own funds for investment in shelter for their staffs.

Individual Loans: SIP manages this Government support program for individuals who are civil servants and want to construct their own homes. These individuals have already secured a loan commitment from a commercial bank or CADEBU and have come to the SIP to negotiate the level of Government support. Upon presentation of documents that include construction cost estimates, infrastructure cost estimates, certification of salary and certification that the family does not already own a home, the SIP establishes the maximum loan value (coût forfaitaire - CF) that the Government will support for this individual. The maximum value is established by a formula taking into account the individual's monthly income and the term of the loan (current bank loan terms vary from 7 to 15 years). If the individual needs more than the amount calculated, the funds must be generated from non-Government sources.

The Government then pays 20 percent of the CF to the lending bank, through the SIP, as an up-front subsidy. The Government also commits to pay all the interest generated during a construction period limited to six months and to pay the interest (10.8 percent on a CADEBU loan) on the purchase financing throughout the life of the loan. The individual only repays the principal. The SIP manages the government commitment presenting claims for the subsidy funds to the Budget Office. The lending bank retains title to the house until the loan has been paid.

Lease/Purchase: The principal difference between the individual loan and the lease/purchase processes is that in the latter, the SIP holds title to the property, and a loan term of 15 years is used by the Government or parastatal agencies while the bank loan term for an individual credit may be shorter. Lease purchase loans are made to the SIP, not the beneficiary, and carry a 10.8 percent interest rate now.

The principle of the two programs is the same -- sharing by the government employee and the Government of the costs of home construction and purchase. The formula for payment calculation remains the same. Lease/purchase may be applied to already existing housing stock or to new production. Lease/purchase accounts for the largest number of people being served by these two programs. Fewer than 150 individual credits have been approved, whereas SIP manages over 1,200 lease/purchase contracts.

In both programs a contribution of 50 percent of the beneficiary's salary is assumed to go towards the cost of a dwelling. It is assumed also that this 50 percent is made up of the 25 percent of income that is the additional sum added to the base salary to cover housing needs (formerly used for payment of simple rent), the 5 percent of income that must be deducted as compulsory savings (but is now to be returned to the Government directly) and an extra 20 percent contribution by the individual. As in the case of individual credit, the 50 percent sum is deducted at the source of employment, by the Ministry of Civil Service (Fonction Publique) or the parastatal involved.

In terms of cash flow, for SIP-developed housing under the lease/purchase program, SIP first negotiates a loan for the project with a major State lender, generally CAMOFI or the BNDE for 15 years. SIP amortizes this loan annually, drawing on government funds set aside in the Capital Budget (Budget Extraordinaire d'Investissement). These funds are made up in part from the contributions of the beneficiaries, but the Government contributes over 50 percent of the construction cost of each unit from its own resources, as has already been mentioned. The Government also covers the infrastructure investment. The SIP uses 20 percent of the cost of each unit put up by the Government to initiate project work and then draws down the loan as needed. As a result, there is a bridge period between the investment in the unit and the start of beneficiary contributions. Once the units are occupied, SIP monitors the reimbursement by the beneficiaries and the Government.

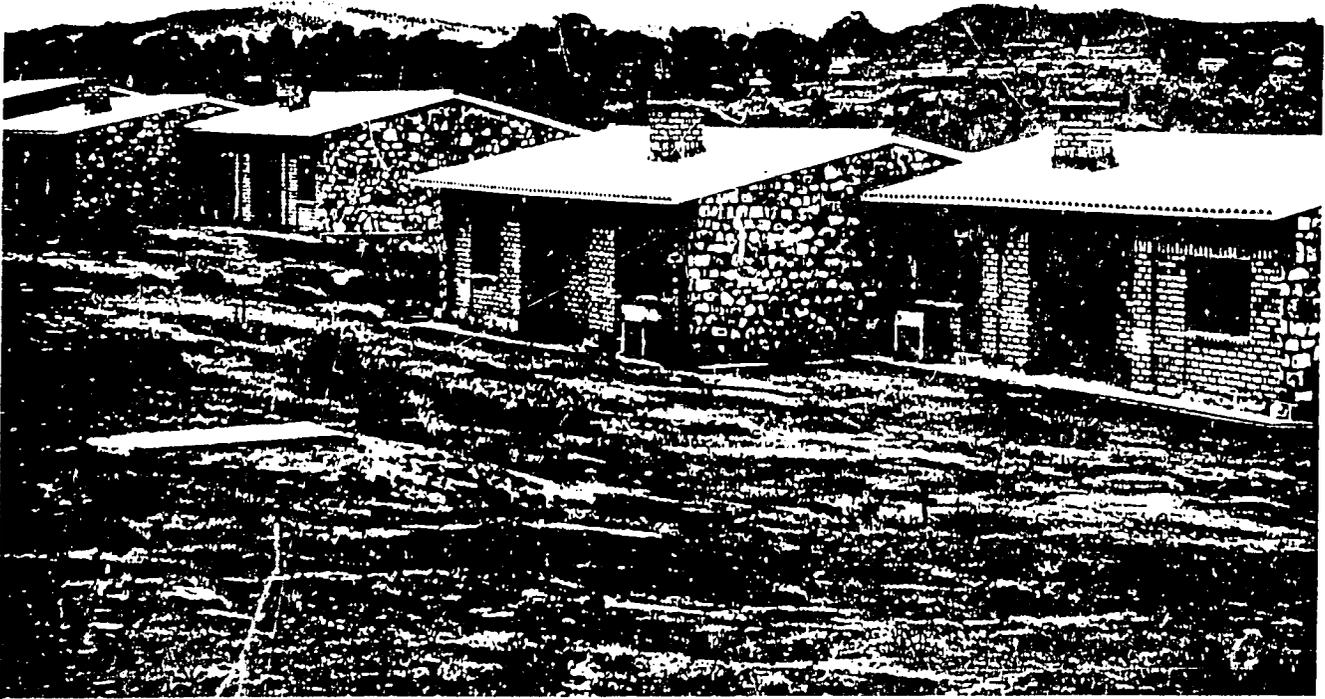
The Government is seriously in arrears in payments to SIP, thus causing SIP serious cash flow problems. The lack of resources experienced currently by the Government is expected to continue and be an ongoing source of financial difficulty for SIP. Since SIP is now organized mainly to operate on subsidies, when those subsidies are not converted into cash, serious financial problems arise (which puts SIP in jeopardy if the goal is to have SIP continue as a going concern). In 1983, the capital budget allocation to SIP was cut from US\$6.5 to about US\$4.2 million, which will limit SIP's capacity to undertake projects now planned.

Furthermore, SIP's accounting, administrative and management system currently are weak and need to be strengthened. As is the case in many areas of Government in Burundi, sufficient experienced staff is not available to assure smooth functioning of the organization. For SIP to be an effective developer of civil servant housing and to develop the potential for eventually assuming responsibility for housing projects for other groups, the administrative and management problems must be corrected. The cash flow problem stemming from slow Government payments also must be solved.

2. Donor-Assisted Low Income Housing Projects

The Government is currently sponsoring two major low income housing/upgrading projects. A third, smaller, project was recently completed. All

Top: HOUSING FOR GOVERNMENT FUNCTIONARIES,
BUILT BY THE SOCIETE IMMOBILIERE
PUBLIQUE (SIP) IN GITEGA



Below: PROTOTYPE HOUSING (UNDER CONSTRUCTION) IN THE
"DUB" -- WORLD BANK LOW INCOME PROJECT, BUJUMBURA



three are funded through foreign donor assistance, one by the UN with bilateral participation, the second through the World Bank with IDA financing, and the third through Swiss cooperation. Second phases are being considered for the two large projects. While these projects are actively supported by the Burundi Government, the Government has no plans at present to undertake other projects using its own resources.

The two major projects in progress involve upgrading of seven low income neighborhoods and two sites and services areas with home construction loans for over 850 units. The upgrading areas encompass virtually all of the low income neighborhoods within Bujumbura.

Both projects are housed in the MTPEM as separate project units which report directly to the Minister. Other units of Government are also involved. The municipality will be involved in collections and maintenance; REGIDESO provides utility infrastructure; and other ministries staff community facilities.

Both projects have made substantial contributions in several areas of low income housing. New serviced lots have been provided along with loans for home construction. Both have successfully called attention to the crucial issues of cost recovery and maintenance which the Government must deal with quickly. Each included a community development component. While both units are functioning now, initial planning focused heavily on the technical aspects of the projects to the detriment of the social and community organization aspects. This caused delays in the work with the communities, which, given the general lack of experience in the country with community-based organizations, was unfortunate.

Musaga more successfully incorporated the community into the upgrading process and into the sites and services project from the beginning, and, despite the difficulties of community organization in Burundi, has had successes. They also had a larger staff (2 sociologists and 4 social work assistants). They also have constructed the community facilities, some of which are being staffed (schools) by the appropriate ministries. Their example in community development could serve as a useful model for other projects.

Both projects suffered from the lack of accurate data on revenues and built houses which were too expensive for the lower income population. People with incomes below 10,000 FBu (US\$111) cannot afford the houses in these projects, suggesting the need for less expensive solutions. Given the precariousness of the income data, however, an income of 10,000 FBu may in fact be closer to the 15th percentile than the 35th percentile.

At the same time, some purchasers have been able to repay the loan within the first year. This suggests that people have more income than reported and this may mean that middle class purchasers are buying down, due to the unavailability of houses elsewhere. This may have an effect on future projects if the market for this group improves, or if the group

is small and easily satisfied. However, in Burundi, the qualitative difference in lifestyle and income between those of the lower middle class and the poor may be so slight as to be immaterial. Even given that this is the case, it may be difficult to design affordable solutions with full cost recovery, down to the 15th percentile.

a. World Bank Project "Développement Urbain de Bujumbura" (DUB-Urban Development of Bujumbura): The comprehensive World Bank project has four major objectives. First, it aimed at upgrading the infrastructure and community facilities in six low income neighborhoods in Bujumbura. This was seen as a first step in bringing all neighborhoods up to the same service standard. Second, it sought to demonstrate the feasibility of building housing affordable to the low income population on a site near the city center. Essential services and loans for home building were to be provided in this phase. Third, the project would train local artisans and provide credit for the artisans to establish their own business. Fourth, it would strengthen municipal services and municipal institutions in order to assure adequate maintenance and cost recovery of the infrastructure. The project was estimated to cost US\$16.7 million in 1980 Fbu dollar equivalent. An IDA loan for US\$1.5 million was to be supplemented by a US\$1.7 million Burundi Government counterpart contribution.

The major project components are as follows:

- (i) Neighborhood Upgrading: provision of basic infrastructure to 6 low income neighborhoods, affecting about 16,700 households. The neighborhoods are Cibitoke, Kamenge and Kinama on the northern periphery of Bujumbura and Buyenzi, Bwiza and Nyakabiga in the center.
- (ii) Serviced Plots: preparation of 750 serviced plots at Kwijabe, a 33 hectare government-owned site, and with unpaved roads, storm drainage, public water and electricity.
- (iii) Building Loans: Provision of loans for house construction and improvement, and their administration at the local level.
- (iv) Promotion of Artisans: Provision of advice and training in basic recordkeeping, supply, marketing and entrepreneurial skills; credits for acquisition of equipment, materials, tools and working capital; technical training to improve product quality; and training of apprentices by the artisans themselves, together with granting installation credits after training. The program expects to reach 500 artisans and 90 apprentices (carpenters, metal workers, masons and tailors).

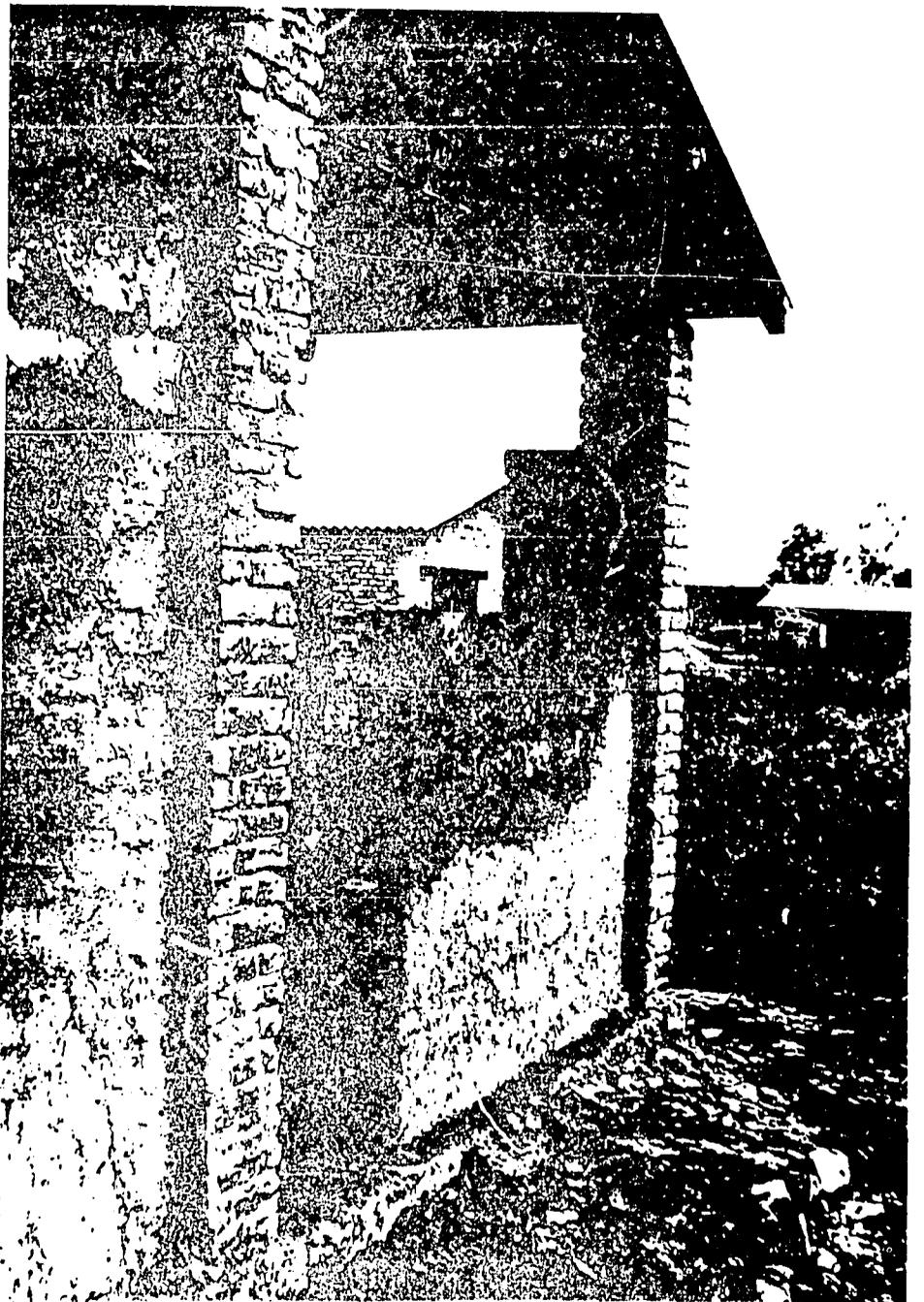
- (v) Community Facilities: Construction and equipping of three primary schools, two with workshop units for post-primary technical education and renovation of 11 existing schools.
- (vi) Improvement of Municipal Services: provision of vehicles and equipment for maintenance of streets and drains, maintenance of public buildings, and garbage collection; and establishment of a municipal collection bureau.

At the time of the shelter sector team's visit, upgrading had been completed in only one neighborhood. Although completed over one year ago, the two major objectives of cost recovery and maintenance by the municipality have not been reached. The World Bank project, and the UN project as well, are the first attempts to have the cost of infrastructure fully recovered and to have project beneficiaries contribute to this cost. These efforts have been severely hindered by the lack of any tradition for payment of public services, as well as by the lack of appropriate legislation.

Recovery was to be achieved through taxation based on house size and type of construction. The World Bank proposed a reform of municipal taxes a year and a half ago, which would have assured the municipality of resources both for maintenance and future projects. The proposal simplified the tax code and provided a base for additional revenue by making taxes more equitable between income groups. The new tax code was defeated by the National Assembly several months ago, but tax reform is expected to be discussed again in September. Also, a land tax has been on the books since 1975, but since this law has never been implemented, it is not known whether it could be effectively utilized to obtain funds for maintenance.

Both cost recovery efforts and maintenance are hampered by the lack of sufficient trained staff and organizational capacity. The project staff has assisted the municipality to set up a collections department and a technical services section to collect garbage and maintain the roads, drains, etc. These new sections have not yet performed to the needed level. Although upgrading activities are scheduled to resume in July 1983, unless the maintenance cost recovery problem is solved, the project may not go forward.

The sites and services portion of the project is located on about 35 hectares provided by the Government in a prime area near a higher income section of Bujumbura. The area contains 750 plots ranging in size from 250 m² to 400 m². Beneficiaries are responsible for seeing that their homes are constructed and may do so either by building the houses themselves or by bringing in small contractors and laborers to build using materials supplied by DUB. Less than 20 percent of the purchasers (8 of 45-50) have built their own houses. The rest have selected small contractors.



PROTOTYPE HOUSING (UNDER
CONSTRUCTION) IN THE "DUB" --
WORLD BANK LOW INCOME PROJECT,
BUJUMBURA

While purchasers can present their own house designs for approval, five basic house types have been designed for the project and three new prototypes are being built. All are small rectangular buildings varying from one to four rooms. Most purchasers have chosen DUB designs, modifying details and furnishings. Basic building standards have been set by project staff, as building codes for low cost housing have not been established for Bujumbura.

The housing types have improved as the project progresses. A 20-unit section built by a small construction firm was unsuccessful because of high costs and, as a result, this option will not be used again in the project. Construction of up to four adjoining units is being permitted, but only free-standing houses have been chosen by people thus far.

Local building materials are being used to the maximum extent possible. No traditional structures of mud are being built because of the short life of the buildings relative to their costs and because the soil at the site was not suitable. Wall construction has been of several types and designs, including mud and clay bricks with various surface treatments. Brick supply problems have been encountered due to varying quality and shortage of supply when needed. As a result, the DUB project is having a brick kiln built to increase Burundi brickmaking capacity.

Originally, locally produced clay tile was to have been used for roofing material. However, problems of quality, the need for more wood in the roof support structure, and lack of beneficiary acceptance of tile, caused a change to "Eternit" metal roofing. Eternit is locally produced, using some imported materials. Some of the foreign exchange cost is offset, however, since Burundi now exports Eternit roofing.

Construction costs have not gone up with inflation because local construction material prices have remained stable and changes in house design have kept costs down. Approximately 40-50 units have been occupied, and about 25 a month are being completed. The project is scheduled for completion by June 1985.

Water is supplied through standpipes, each with four taps and a siphon pump. Only the primary road has a packed earth surface; other pathways are to be constructed by the purchasers working jointly. Public street lighting will be provided and about 30 percent of the lots eventually would be able to have electric hookups. A small amount of masonry drainage is provided.

Land title has been a problem for the project (this issue is discussed in the Land Section). The DUB project managers believe that uniform procedures should be followed that first establish provisional title of occupation where it does not yet exist and when a cadastral survey is done, full, real title can ultimately be given. A cadastral survey will begin in late 1983 using people trained by the Institut Supérieur des Techniciens de l'Aménagement et de l'Urbanisme.

When beneficiaries were being selected, the project was announced via radio, newspaper ads and word of mouth throughout the city. Applicants were screened and eligibility determined based on four criteria. Houses were sold only to heads of household, male or female, with children. No single adults without children qualified, but single parents did. The beneficiaries must have resided in Bujumbura during the last two years and own no other property. Finally, family income was limited to a minimum of 6,800 Fbu (US\$76) and a maximum of 27,000 Fbu (US\$304) a month (the 65th percentile). Originally, all residents of the capital were to be eligible. When the final selection was made, non-Burundi citizens did not qualify.

From all the applications received, 1,500 people actually qualified for the program. The 750 beneficiaries were selected by a random drawing of names from the list of 1,500. Demand was high and continues to be high. In addition to the 750 not selected who still want houses, project staff receives letters daily from people who want to buy a lot.

Once selected, individuals began to choose their lots and proceed to construct their houses. The loans for land were set at 12 percent interest for 25 years and housing loans at 12 percent for 15 years, with the combined monthly payment not to exceed 30 percent of a family's income. No down payment is required; however, savings can be used as a down payment in order to obtain a larger loan to construct a larger house. The land purchase loan cannot be prepaid and the house cannot be sold for 15 years. These measures were taken to avoid speculation, and legal action may be taken for non-payment. No serious payment problems have been encountered so far, principally because as soon as a family is in arrears one month, the community development worker makes a home visit to determine the problem. If none is found and payment is not forthcoming, the family is reported to the local authorities.

After the project was initiated, it became apparent that the income figures were inaccurate. The income range was based on revenue studies done by Urbaplan consultants in 1979 and was estimated to cover from the 15th to the 60th percentiles. Experience from the program suggests that these data were incomplete because a number of families with limited declared income have made substantial down payments, have prepaid loans and added rooms to their houses in a short period of time.

On the other hand, 281 people selected for the project have declared incomes below 10,000 Fbu (\$112) a month, and cannot afford to purchase and construct even the smallest house. The community development worker has interviewed a sample of these families and determined that they in fact have no other sources of income than those declared and cannot afford the project houses.

Community facilities for the sites and services are not included in the initial project and have not yet been provided by the appropriate ministry. The staff is currently seeking private funding for the health clinic.

Concerning the promotion of artisans component of the project, the program for masons is operational. Space, technical assistance, tools and credit have been provided for carpenters. So many carpenters want to use the community space and tools that demand has far outstripped the capacity. In order to help more people, credit is now being extended to individuals so that they can establish their own workshops independently. The metal-workers program, which was to have emphasized production of a newly-designed, more fuel efficient charcoal cooking stove, has not yet started due to delays in receiving equipment. A tailor program will be starting soon.

b. Project Musaga: Project Musaga is being implemented by the United Nations Center for Human Settlements (UNCHS-HABITAT), with funding provided by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and the United Nations Capital Development Fund (UNDCF). Bilateral assistance from China (primary road), Germany (water supply) and the Netherlands (health center) is also being given.

The overall objective of the project is to provide technical and administrative support to the Burundi government in order to strengthen its planning, coordinating and executing capacity for upgrading and low cost housing projects. At the same time, the training of Burundi nationals as counterparts is emphasized.

Musaga, the neighborhood chosen for this pilot project was a spontaneous settlement with poor quality housing stock, little infrastructure and community facilities and poor access to employment areas. The project was designed to improve the housing and infrastructure services in the already populated areas and to develop 104 new serviced lots and provide construction loans for house construction.

A surfaced primary road has been completed throughout the neighborhood connecting Musaga to the center of Bujumbura. Two loop roads in the area were also paved. Standpipes have been located along these roads which supply the area with potable water from a water line constructed along the access road. Electric street lighting and basic drainage systems were installed along the roads. This work is basically completed. As in the World Bank project, DUB, however, questions remain as to how costs will be recovered and how maintenance will be assured.

In the sites and services area, 104 small plots averaging 150 m² have been laid out, fountains and basic drainage provided and compost toilets built for each plot. Plots are small to enable low income families to purchase them and also to cut the infrastructure costs. The houses are smaller and less expensive than the DUB houses. Three simple exterior house designs are available with 20 m², 30 m², and 40 m² of inhabitable space. Houses are constructed of mud brick with corrugated metal roofs and simple wood windows and doors.

The loan for purchase of the land is over 25 years at 9 percent; the construction loan is for 9 years at the same rate. Payment is made directly to the municipal collections office (Recette des Finances). No significant repayment problems have been experienced. Rather, the problem is that not all purchasers are building within the six month allotted time.

Self-help housing, where the housing cooperative members build their own houses with the help of a construction supervisor, was initially expected to be the preferred approach. In fact, only one of the 104 houses was actually built by the owner himself. The rest chose the alternative of paying from their savings to hire laborers to build the house for them (20,000 FBu (US\$223) for a 20 m² house; 30,000 FBu (US\$335) for 30 m²; and 40,000 FBu (US\$447) for 40 m²). A down payment of 1,000 FBu (US\$11) per square meter of constructed area was required by those using small contractors.

The majority of the beneficiaries were at the upper end of the income range and were more likely to have access to the money required to hire laborers. They were also more likely to have acquired a degree of prestige by being among by the relatively few in Burundi who have salaried jobs, if only as janitor or chauffeur. As a result, they were extremely reluctant to work with their hands, as required in self-help programs.

Further, although the building construction techniques were simple, they were different from the traditional techniques and there may have been some reluctance to try the new. Project staff indicated that this could be overcome in future projects by providing a training program and increasing the number of construction supervisors.

In future projects, it was felt that more emphasis should be given to the self-help aspect of the program, which would enable more people at the lower end of the income range (5,000 FBu - US\$56 per month) to participate. The staff also felt that the beneficiaries at this level would be more willing to build the house themselves than those who are aspiring to the middle class.

Beneficiaries qualified for the Musaga project based on four criteria. They could not own other residential property, they needed to join the housing cooperative and they had to have an income between 5,000 FBu (US\$56) and 20,000 FBu (US\$222) per month. Originally, the beneficiaries were to be selected from current Musaga residents, but this was dropped after not enough interest was shown in the houses by Musaga residents.

Estimating income correctly and designing a house affordable to the beneficiary population has also been a problem in the Musaga project.

Estimating income correctly and designing a house affordable to the beneficiary population has also been a problem in the Musaga project. Although the income range is lower for this project than the DUB project, the average income is 11,500 FBu (US\$128), with very few at the lower end. Again, undeclared income plays a role in the purchasing, as people are repaying loans within the first year. Once again, the poorest group is not involved.

The Musaga project emphasizes the training of Burundian professionals. The project director is a Burundian who works with a UN development expert. The Musaga I community development staff includes one Burundian economist, one Burundian sociologist and four Burundian social worker aides who work with two expatriate sociologists. Their work is focused in two specific areas: formation of a housing cooperative which would serve as the organization through which social and community organization could be undertaken, and the organization of the larger community to cooperate in building and maintaining the upgrading of the physical infrastructure in the entire community (footpaths, drainage systems and standpipes).

The housing cooperative is functioning, serving as the vehicle through which community and social development is carried out. Given the lack of experience most Burundians have with voluntary association, it is not unexpected that making such an organization operational is a long-term task. For the foreseeable future, direct staff involvement in the day to day operation is necessary.

The major community development task facing the project at the moment is the construction of the footpaths. The initial idea was to mobilize the community to actually construct the paths. This has not been successful, although it is significant that residents have voluntarily contributed private land for the footpaths. The project staff is still hopeful that the community can understand the need to maintain the new services, for it is unlikely that the municipality will be able to undertake this soon.

As the project is so new (only 20 houses are completed), most of the community facilities are not yet in operation. A primary school is being enlarged and another built to serve Musaga. Also, a health center and community center are being constructed. A medical doctor from the Netherlands will be the principal staff person in the clinic, assisted by community leaders trained along the barefoot doctor approach. The Ministry of Education is providing teachers for the schools. Programs being planned for the community center will stress participation of the community, including adult programs for employment generation and youth groups. While the municipality will own the community center, responsibility for its maintenance has not yet been assigned.

A second sites and services project is under consideration for a nearby 118 hectare area where 2,000 to 3,000 units could be constructed. Because of higher land and services costs, small lots may again be created. Another option being considered is mixing plots of various sizes for a

range of income groups. Market prices would be charged for the larger plots and in effect support the lots for the lowest income levels. Funding is the most significant issue to resolve if a Musaga II project is to go forward. In addition, the Burundi Government has expressed interest in another sites and services development in nearby Kanyosha, which is primarily agricultural land.

c. Projet "Cellule d'Architecture, Formation et Recherche" (Architecture, Training and Research Pilot Project): This project is the third low income project underway in Bujumbura. In May 1982, a small project of 40 houses near Kamenge, a low income neighborhood in the northern part of Bujumbura, was begun through the auspices of the Direction Pour la Coopération au Développement et l'Aide Humanitaire (DDA), a Swiss agency for development cooperation and humanitarian aid. In cooperation with the Ministry of Public Works, the goal of this pilot project was to build houses affordable to low income people, using simple construction techniques and to integrate basic infrastructure (water, school, and health clinic) into a housing project.

The houses were geared to people whose income ranged from 7,000 FBu (US\$78) to 20,000 FBu (US\$223), including skilled workers, employees and low level government workers as well as artisans and small merchants. Construction costs were approximately 400,000 FBu (US\$4,469) and the houses were sold with a 12 to 15-year mortgage. The average monthly payment is 4,000 FBu (US\$45), which is the payment on a 400,000 FBu loan at 9% for 15 years.

Houses were built around a commercial and administrative center, which had space for several workshops for small artisans. The neighborhood was to be divided into four units of 40 houses, each with one standpipe. (Only one unit was completed.) The houses were built by a local construction firm, using local building materials and construction techniques that could be used in similar projects.

d. Division of Rural Habitat: The Division of Rural Habitat in the Ministry of Rural Development is responsible for implementing the Government's policy of regrouping the dispersed population into villages in order to facilitate the provision of services to the rural population. The program also upgrades the houses.

The program was initially begun in 1976, designed by an interministerial commission which studied several village models and chose three for Burundi. The commission was dissolved when responsibility was turned over to the Division of Rural Habitat.

The program works with residents of a "colline" (hill), to restructure the physical layout of the colline. First, a team of technicians works with the zone chief and colline residents to explain the process and help them understand the purpose in moving to a different location on the hill. When a consensus is reached, the roads are laid out and built. Then, people are encouraged to move to new lots which abut the road, leaving the

rest of the land free for agriculture. In this stage, they are offered building material loans to rebuild their homes. Three models were chosen for redesigning the colline. The first, "modèle court-ligne" (short-line model) is used in the Imbo plains area and features short streets (600 m) with intersecting transversals. The second, called "modèle paysannat," was also used in the plains area where rice and cotton are grown. This features houses built along a long street. The third design, "modèle alignement le long de la piste" aligns the houses along the road and is used for the hilly areas where the road will wind up a colline.

Over 15,000 homes have been completed on over 173 collines. Financing has come from external assistance provided by Belgian Cooperative and the Grand-Duchy of Luxembourg. Assistance from the latter comes in the form of building construction materials which are shipped to Burundi, warehoused by the staff of the Rural Habitat program and disbursed as needed. A Belgian technical expert is provided to the Division by the Belgian Government. The Burundi Government makes a substantial contribution to the program as well.

This program actually surpassed the goals that had been set in the Third Five Year Plan. Scheduled to complete 6,000 in the five-year period, they in fact completed 7,079. The need, however, is far beyond what the program could accomplish in the near future, given the rate at which it is now completing. An estimated 584,000 houses need improvement on over 2,000 hills. The program is also constrained by a lack of financial assistance and an insufficient number of trained staff for the enormity of the task.

In the rural sector, the sole program providing funds to housing is the Fonds de l'Habitat Rural (FHR - Fund for Rural Housing). The FHR is a new organization, which started operations in 1980. Its primary objective is to assist the rural population to obtain decent housing. This is a large task given that over 90 percent of the population lives scattered in rural areas.

As part of the government policy of encouraging regrouping people into villages, the FHR provides building materials that are not available locally to people who agree to move to a village. These people then repay the cost of the building materials over time. Specifically, a commune administrator prepares a list of those people who are moving to the village and this is forwarded to FHR. All people on the list become eligible for a building material loan. To obtain the building materials, the house must be constructed in the village. Inhabitants, through the commune administrator, arrange transport of the materials from the warehouse and sign a loan agreement for the specific materials received. The commune administrator is responsible for collections and making sure that the materials were used for their intended purpose. The ability of the commune administrator to manage the program, especially collections at the local level, is clearly

key for the program to be a success. Because the program is so new, it is not yet clear to what extent cost recovery is being achieved.

The building material loans are made at the cost of the materials plus an 8 percent administrative fee. Also, a 2,000 FBu (US\$22) accounting fee is charged, payable in the first year. The loan itself is repayable over 4 years. The average loan is for 30-35,000 FBu (US\$333-389), and 68,000 FBu (US\$756) is the maximum loan given so far.

The FHR has limited resources. In 1981, 50 million FBu (US\$556,000) was expended, and 100 million FBu (\$1.1 million) was budgeted in 1982. At the end of 1982, 180 million FBu (US\$2 million) had been invested. The FHR budget has been cut to 50 million FBu (US\$560,000) for 1983 because of limited government resources. In addition, Belgium and Luxembourg have provided resources, primarily building materials.

With a staff of only 21 people, FHR must depend heavily on rural administrators to organize and distribute materials and collect loans. As the number of loans is large (3,024 new loans), for example, the administrative burden and cost could well become heavy, especially if recovery mechanisms are not totally effective. So far, repayment delays have occurred, but the newness of the program makes it difficult to determine what actual losses might be. As a young program, the FHR seems to be well conceived; however, for the FHR to obtain additional resources from foreign sources or the Government, cost recovery must be assured.

3. Private Organizations

Approximately ten private non-profit organizations have undertaken development projects in the country working primarily in the areas of education, health, and rural development. As far as could be ascertained, none are working in the housing sector.

4. Housing Finance

The Housing Finance section which follows is divided into three parts. The first part discusses the issues regarding the availability of funds for housing. The second describes the financial institutions operating in Burundi and their role in financing housing. The third section describes how informal sector housing finance functions.

a. Availability of Housing Finance: No institutions exist which have the primary objective of providing funds for housing. The three Burundi commercial banks, operating primarily like commercial banks in other countries, provide short-term credits to finance the Government coffee purchase operations and other business activities in the private and public sectors. However, some medium and long-term loans are made for housing, mainly in support of the Government-assisted housing program for civil servants managed by SIP. The Burundi savings bank, CADEBU, also makes some housing loans, again for

SIP housing. CAMOFI, the organization set up to mobilize resources from the parastatal organizations and re-lend these funds to meet development needs, provides housing funds as the primary construction finance lender to SIP. The Banque Nationale du Développement (BNDE), the Burundi national development bank, also lends for housing, primarily by financing SIP projects. The Government also funds SIP civil servant housing through substantial subsidies.

The commercial banks and CADEBU, CAMOFI and BNDE can provide housing credit to individuals, as well as institutional loans for SIP housing development for civil servants. Such lending has been limited, however. Generally, it has been available only to individuals with substantial income for high quality single family homes or rental units. No financial institutions provide credit to lower-middle and low income families. The only housing credit available to low income families is for the purchase of lots in the World Bank and the UN-supported low income housing projects in Bujumbura. These credits are administered through project offices in the Ministry of Public Works.

The creation of a housing finance institution to facilitate private construction and mobilize existing financial institution resources to support it is being considered as an element of the Fourth Five Year Plan. Also under consideration are promotion of private developers, a private building society, and creation of a mechanism for providing small equipment and local construction material loans. No specific commitment has yet been made by the Government to these efforts.

The success of such institutions and programs will depend on sufficient financial resources and administrative expertise being available. Given the Government's current lack of financial resources, these programs will need to mobilize private domestic resources and perhaps foreign resources, and have efficient collection mechanisms in place.

In Burundi, the Central Bank (Banque de la République du Burundi - BRB) sets interest rates on deposits and credits for all financial institutions; including the three private commercial banks. In 1981, these rates were raised and made minimum rates rather than maximums as had been the case previously. In fact, the minimums are the rates generally in effect.

Savings rates range between 4.5 and 8.5 percent depending on terms and type of deposit. Rates on certificates and term deposits over 24 months and advance notice deposits over 12 months are not fixed. Medium-term (7 years) commercial bank housing loans are set at 8.5 to 13 percent, the rate being dependent on whether the loan is for construction or acquisition, for a primary residence or a rental unit, or whether it can be discounted or not. Development Bank (BNDE) housing loans are set between 6 and 8.5 percent medium term and 7.5 and 13 percent long term (15 years). Interest rates throughout the economy are detailed in Annex IV.

It is difficult to determine with accuracy if these rates in any way reflect market conditions. Clearly in years when inflation rates exceeded 20 percent, real interest rates were negative; however, in 1982 when inflation was officially about 5 percent, these rates may not be seriously out of line. There are no indications that the Government is contemplating removing interest rate controls.

The need to mobilize savings, in particular from the private sector, was recognized by the Sous Commission de Planification des Ressources Financières (Financial Resources Planning Sub-Commission composed of representatives of Burundi financial institutions) in a report prepared in September 1980 on current savings and ways to increase savings. The report suggested that opening more branches would not result in significant increases in savings because the population did not yet appreciate the benefits of savings in financial institutions nor understand how they operate. The possibilities of additional savings from rural areas was also questioned because of the low monetary revenues of most rural inhabitants. They did suggest that offering additional savings products such as life insurance, contract savings with a loan available after a certain period of savings, and savings certificates could attract funds. Also, favorable tax treatment for savings income might be useful. In the modern sector, however, in order to increase savings, interest rates must be competitive with other investment opportunities, especially rental housing. Any increases in savings rates would require increases in loan rates also if financial institutions were to remain profitable. Interest rate changes, therefore, would have to be carefully studied.

Currently, the major source of individual savings is an obligatory savings scheme. Five percent of salaries in the modern sector are deposited with CADEBU and each rural family must purchase, at a minimum, a 500 FBu (US\$5.59) 3-year bond each year which earns a modest 3 percent interest. While the obligatory savings serves to promote monetizing of the rural economy, the costs of administering the scheme are so high that they exceed what can be earned on these savings.

In general, the small size of the modern, monetized sector suggests that the potential for substantial domestic private savings is limited in the near future.

b. Financial Institutions:

(i) Commercial Banks: Three commercial banks with a total of six branches in the secondary centers, currently operate in Burundi: the Banque Commercial du Burundi (BANCOBU - the Commercial Bank of Burundi); the Banque du Crédit de Bujumbura (BCB - the Credit Bank of Burundi); and the Banque Belgo-Africaine (BBA - the Belgian-African Bank). All are over 50 percent foreign owned. At December 31, 1980, the commercial banks controlled 20.6 percent of the assets of the financial system on an unconsolidated

basis; at year-end 1982 they had 60.2 percent of all deposits and 88.5 percent of sight deposits. All three banks are profitable and well-managed and loan delinquencies are low.

The commercial banks operate very much like commercial banks elsewhere. They collect sight and term deposits, particularly from commercial establishments and public sector institutions, and they make loans primarily to businesses on a short-term basis. Each year, the three banks form a consortium which finances the coffee crop sales.

The commercial banks have attracted individual deposits which equalled 20.1 percent of their deposits at year-end 1982. The banks have made more medium-term loans in recent years, particularly to industry, transport and commerce. This comes partially as a result of being able to discount some loans after 1977 and partially as a result of the requirement instituted in 1981 that a minimum of 8 percent of loans be made medium or long term.

The commercial banks' participation in lending for housing has been limited. Between 1978 and 1982, only 118 housing loans were made to individuals, totalling 490,557 FBu (US\$0.6 million). In addition, BCB lent 88,140,000 FBu (US\$979,000) to SIP in 1981 for civil servant housing.

While the commercial banks could develop the administrative capacity to make longer term housing loans, including loans to low income families, there is no incentive to use their own funds given the short term nature of the deposit base and the relatively low fixed interest rates for loans.

(ii) Caisse d'Epargne du Burundi (CADEBU): Established in 1964, CADEBU, as the primary public popular banking institution, has a twofold statutory objective: to promote savings by individuals in Burundi and to use these savings to promote the economic and social development policies of the country. It presently has eight branches and two agencies throughout the country. The state owns 60 percent of CADEBU, and other parastatals own the remaining 40 percent. CADEBU operates under the general control of the Minister of Finance, but can also accept deposits from public institutions and non-profit organizations.

The CADEBU had assets of FBu 2,330 million (US\$26 million) at year-end 1980, 6.7 percent of the total assets of the financial institutions. The CADEBU is the primary popular banking institution of the country. Eighty-nine percent of its liabilities are made up of sight and term deposits largely from individuals and small businesses; 98 percent of the transactions were housing or consumer loans (1980 figures). CADEBU has made loans for construction, home improvement, equipment, real estate for public institutions and cooperatives, and for consumer durables for private individuals.

It is the largest supplier of individual housing credit and has twice as much consumer credit outstanding as the Development Bank (BNDE), the second

most active in this field. CADEBU at year-end 1982 had made 113 housing loans. Long-term housing credits totalled 361.7 million FBu (US\$4 million) and medium-term 94.6 million FBu (US\$1 million). A number of the short-term loans may also be for housing. Currently, CADEBU does not have the administrative capacity to meet loan demand. Twenty loan requests of all types are received daily, approximately 3,000 a year, but CADEBU has the ability to process only 1,000 loans a year.

CADEBU had 45 percent of the term or passbook savings deposits in the banking system as of December 30, 1982. CADEBU has risen to prominence in attracting deposits largely because of a compulsory savings scheme initiated by the Government in the late 1970s. Five percent of the monthly pay check of all salaried employees is retained and deposited with CADEBU. In addition, small businesses, professionals and merchants must pay in from FBu 500 (US\$6) to 15,000 FBu (US\$167) per year and other individuals (principally small farmers) must buy a FBu 500 (US\$6) bond each year. Since the compulsory bond scheme pays only 3 percent after three years, it is more of a tax than a savings scheme.

CADEBU, however, has made considerable effort to mobilize voluntary savings on which it pays between 3 and 5 percent per annum, depending on the term. CADEBU management does not believe substantial voluntary deposits from the modern sector can be garnered unless interest rates are raised very high to compete with returns on other investments such as urban real estate rentals. In 1981, the compulsory savings accounted for 64 percent of the savings attracted by CADEBU. The rural obligatory bond scheme deposits are stagnating and represent only 5 percent of CADEBU's deposits, yet they are the source of a much larger share of administrative expenses.

At present, CADEBU is operating at a loss that is absorbed by the Government. The institution has grown rapidly because of the compulsory savings, but administrative costs outpace earnings. For CADEBU to become a viable savings and housing finance institution, the administrative burden of the obligatory savings schemes must be cut and controlled. Improved systems must be instituted, and personnel trained to meet existing needs before any expansion can take place.

(iii) Caisse de Mobilisation et de Financement (CAMOFI - Bank for Mobilizing Funds and Financing): Established in 1979, CAMOFI is another addition to the financial system made in the late 1970s. It was established to mobilize the resources of the parastatal organizations and apply them more effectively to national investment needs. By year-end 1981, CAMOFI had FBu 2,718 million (US\$30.2 million) in assets. Principal assets were composed as follows:

Cash	11%
"Call Money" (a line of credit government agencies can use for liquidity needs)	10%
Treasury Bonds	41%
Long Term Credits	23%
Other	15%

CAMOFI's liabilities were 90 percent deposits, mostly sight and term, from parastatal institutions, though some seven-year bonds are included, as are the remittances of foreign companies that must remain blocked for a certain time prior to repatriation.

CAMOFI is specifically directed to lend to financial institutions and to make direct project loans with Government guarantees. However, it cannot compete with the institution which originates a project; rather, it can join a project when it is clear that additional resources will be needed. The Government has priority access to CAMOFI resources. CAMOFI can also discount the loans of other institutions, including those of the commercial banks, using the "call money" at 5 percent, a charge that is one-half of one percent below the BRB, causing the BNDE, for example, to prefer the CAMOFI window.

CAMOFI is also specifically directed to lend to public housing agencies (in effect, the SIP), and is the primary source of SIP construction financing for which it charges 8.5 percent. From 1979 through 1981, CAMOFI lent SIP 635,360,000 FBu (US\$7.1 million) (BNDE lent another 206,022,000 FBu (US\$2.3 million with CAMOFI) for construction of 546 civil servant housing units.

For certain state agencies, such as the Social Security Institute (INSS), CADEBU, and the Coffee Stabilization Fund, CAMOFI pays interest on sight deposits ranging at present from 4 to 5.5 percent (a formula tied to BRB rates is used). For other institutions, CAMOFI pays 2 percent. Term deposit rates begin at 2.5 to 3 percent. Medium and long-term loans carry rates between 6 and 11 percent.

Additionally, CAMOFI has set up a finance training center that is now being used by a wide range of financial institutions with apparent success. Plans are being made to expand the level of training for financial managers if funding can be found.

CAMOFI is a well-managed institution with the administrative capacity to manage its existing portfolios. Loans to the Government and to SIP represent a certain risk to CAMOFI. Government resources are now very limited, which also affects SIP's ability to repay loans from CAMOFI, since it also depends on government subsidies and payment of a percentage of civil servant salaries directly from the Government.

(iv) Banque Nationale pour le Développement Economique (BNDE - National Bank for Economic Development): The major objective of the BNDE, the national development bank established in 1967, is to provide medium and long-term credit privately for commerce, industry, tourism, agriculture and housing. The Government and the public sector control about 42 percent of BNDE, the commercial banks 9 percent, foreign interests 46 percent, and the Burundi brewery 3 percent. Approximately 36 percent of BNDE's loan portfolio at year-end 1981 was devoted to individual housing loans. From 1967 to 1981,

BNDE made 338 housing loans for a total of 847,681 million FBu (US\$9.4 million), and, in 1982, made 37 loans to individuals totalling 109.3 million FBu (US\$1.2 million). The largest percentage of the housing loan volume is comprised of large loans to SIP, but in absolute numbers, the largest numbers are to individuals. Set terms and interest rates on housing loans are similar to those charged by the commercial banks.

The BNDE has essentially served as an intermediary to finance projects prepared and supported by the Government, rather than seek loans on its own initiative. As a result, a large portion of loans are guaranteed by the Government, and the BNDE has not until recently spent much effort on evaluation and supervision of its loan portfolio. The BNDE is minimally profitable and well-managed.

Resources of the BNDE at year-end 1981 included 12.2 million FBu (US\$140,000) in advances on discounted loans from the Central Bank (7 percent of resources), and 497 million FBu (US\$5.6 million) in long-term loans from foreign sources (27 percent of resources at an average cost of 6.3 percent), the major loans being from the African Development Bank. The BNDE also makes use of CAMOFI "call money."

While BNDE is a source for medium and long-term housing credit, its small size, limited profitability and attachment to financing Government projects do not make BNDE a likely candidate to undertake substantially more housing loans, especially to individuals. BNDE, however, could develop the capacity to administer such loans on a fee basis.

(v) Banque de la République du Burundi (BRB - the Central Bank of Burundi): The Central Bank of Burundi, the BRB, had assets of 19.1 billion FBu (US\$212 million) at year-end 1981. The BRB exercises full financial jurisdiction over the operation of all financial institutions in Burundi. While it does not always do so, the BRB has the right to review any loan application that would make the total to one borrower over 3 million FBu (US\$33,300). The BRB has a discount window available to all members of the system. The present discount rate is 5.5 percent. In addition, the BRB regulates the interest rates applied by the commercial banks and the BNDE on deposits and credits.

The BRB has been the primary lender to the Government in recent years as the Government share of total credit grew from 7 percent in 1977 to 32 percent in 1980, primarily through loans from the BRB. Most of the credits to the Government are for financing coffee exports; however, the BRB has also lent to finance shortfalls in the capital investment budget. These loans to the Government are for terms of 30 to 50 years and are made at no interest.

(vi) Other Financial Institutions:

- Institut National de Sécurité Sociale (INSS) is the national social security system which administers the retirement and disability pensions for salaried employees, day workers and domestics. Seventy percent of the contributions are from civil servants. Despite not being able to make all collections from the private sector, the INSS averaged 281 million FBu (US\$3.1 million) in receipts each year in the 1977-1980 period. Apparently operating at a loss, with low returns on money invested with CAMOFI and the Treasury, INSS is considering direct investments such as commercial office space and residential buildings in order to increase its returns. INSS may make housing and vehicle loans to individuals (6 percent of assets in 1980). If INSS were able to increase its effectiveness in making collections, it could be a source of housing finance. However, because of the need for experienced staff to make such loans, who are now in limited supply in Burundi, INSS might be more effective by participating in the credits of other financial institutions and the banks.
- SOCABU is the national insurance monopoly, which draws most of its resources from premiums on the compulsory auto liability insurance. It has substantial reserves placed on deposit with the commercial banks and CAMOFI, and has modest equity investments in BANCOBU and BCB. It is also a shareholder of the new Société Burundaise de Financement (SBF) (see below).
- Société Holding Arabe-Libyenne Burundaise (the Arab Libyan Burundi Holding Group) reported assets of 347 million FBu (US\$3.9 million) at year-end 1980. Soc. Holding, 60 percent owned by the Government and 40 percent by the Libyan Government, invests in specific projects, including a commercial firm (100 percent), a milling company (40 percent), and a hotel (22 percent). Soc. Holding is not a major factor in the daily movement of resources through the financial system, nor is it a potential resource for the shelter sector.
- Office des chèques Postaux (CCP) accounted for 165 million FBu (US\$1.8 million) in assets at year-end 1980, and figured only slightly in the overall system deposits at December 31, 1982 (.7 percent). It does have some deposits from financial institutions and the GRB, but very little from the public, and does not appear marked for an increased role in the system at present.

- Société Burundaise de Financement (SBF - the Burundi Finance Corporation) is an institution created in 1981 with its capital to be owned 55 percent by the Government and 45 percent by private investors. As mentioned earlier, SOCABU has taken a piece of the government share, and another piece is to be provided by the Fonds de Promotion Economique. The SBF capital is to be built up to Fbu 630 million (US\$7 million).

The objective of creation of the SBF is to increase the resources available for investment in industrial, commercial and agricultural ventures. The SBF will take equity positions and then sell them. It will not be able to accept deposits but can issue bonds for sale in both domestic and international markets.

- Fonds de Promotion Economique (FPE) was also established in 1981 with the following objectives:
 - to participate in the share capital of industrial, agricultural and commercial ventures;
 - to make long-term loans to such ventures;
 - to finance project studies;
 - to subsidize interest rates for priority investments;
 - to finance technical assistance and training for financial institutions; and
 - to guaranty loans to approved projects.

The FPE resources are to be based on a tax levied on beer sales, plus the revenue generated by certain BRB fees, Government budget allocations, and international grants and loans. FPE was organized to support the activities of the SBF.

- Agricultural Credit: The formation of an agricultural and rural bank is under consideration. This bank could replace CADEBU in the role of mobilizing rural savings and thus reduce the administrative burden on CADEBU.

c. Informal Sector Financing: As previously discussed, no formal housing finance facilities exist for the vast majority of the urban population. Likewise, no savings contract/loan programs exist. Apparently, most people obtain land and build a house through personal savings and borrowing from wealthier relatives. Such loans are informal and relatives do not always expect to be repaid. No evidence was found that money lenders were

operating in the housing market. The high cost of housing, particularly in durable materials, clearly precludes many people from home ownership. The fact that among salaried workers, women earn less than men would, suggests that women heads of household would have even greater difficulty saving to have a house built, although several women have purchased houses in both the DUB and Musaga projects. In Burundi, few people actually do their own housing construction, which would lower the cost and make a house more affordable.

5. Community Organization

a. Burundi Social Structure: Burundian society is unusually lacking in the structures usually found in other countries. The population has traditionally been isolated on "collines," and until very recently, operated within a hierarchical feudal land system. There are no villages with a traditional governing body to which members owe loyalty, respect and obedience. Rather, the individual and his/her family have been the "community" to which its members owe loyalty and from which they receive protection. Each family remained self-sufficient and isolated in this respect.

The clan was the most powerful social grouping, made up of a group of individuals related to one another through a patrilineal line. The chief of the clan was the absolute patriarch of the members who generally lived in close proximity of one another.

In recent years, the influence of this grouping has been greatly reduced as members scattered at greater distances from one another. While the chief of a clan may still call the members together to make important decisions, the most important unit of social organization, and also the smallest, is the nuclear family. With the clan's influence waning, the base for any collective action, even based on family ties, has been substantially narrowed. This isolation has been reinforced even more since the conflict in 1972 which reportedly resulted in many people retreating to the security of the small family on the colline.

In spite of the individualistic nature of Burundi society, collective action among neighbors in rural Burundi was the accepted way to build houses, even as recently as twenty years ago. Following this practice, a group of people would build a house for one family who would in turn contribute towards building houses for other members of the group. This practice is rarely found in the countryside today and is virtually non-existent in Bujumbura.

It may be that the people who participated in these groups were in fact members of the same clan and that the practice has declined as family members scattered. Also, the economy in the rural areas has become increasingly monetized with the introduction of cash crops. Thus, bartering for services may have given way to purchasing services, which reduces the need for collective action.

The current Government has recognized the need to build new structures for collective action which will help provide mechanisms to other services and promote a sense of nationhood among the majority of the population. Several programs have been established to help accomplish this goal.

b. UPRONA Party Structure: The National Party (UPRONA) is organized at all levels of society, in both the rural and urban areas. In spite of the scattered household pattern of social organization, and the almost total lack of a village structure, the Party system has proven to be efficient and capable of reaching all levels of the rural population. In all, every individual in Burundi is reached through the Party. They know exactly who is on the hills and who is in the cities and, in fact, it is through the Party structure that the individuals receive permission to leave the rural areas.

The organization begins with rugos as the smallest social unit. Ten rugos are organized into a cell and an appointed Party member, called a "colline representative," is responsible for these ten homesteads. He is directly responsible to the chief of the zone, an appointed Party official responsible for ten cells. He, in turn, is answerable to the Party chief of the commune. There are 104 communes in Burundi which roughly correspond to small U.S. counties. The number of zones per commune varies depending upon the population.

The urban areas are also divided in a similar fashion, with approximately ten households in a neighborhood corresponding to the cell. The Party members in charge of the households in a zone report to the zone chiefs who respond to the Mayor's council (see Organization Chart for city government).

The colline representatives are from the local areas which they serve, not outsiders, and thus not only have positions of authority, but are intimately involved in the area where they serve. Unlike colline representatives, zone chiefs may be transferred to other areas if, for example, they become too influential in the area they are servicing. Administrators above the zone level generally are less permanent and come from outside the area they serve.

The Party is currently involved on a limited basis in community and health related activities. It is through this system that the one day per week obligatory community work (travaux communautaires) program is implemented. They have mobilized mothers for a pilot vaccination program in the Muramvya province, built community centers in several neighborhoods in the capital, assisted the villagization program in organizing the colline and participated in rural road maintenance programs.

c. Cooperatives: The Ministry of Rural Development through the Division of Cooperatives is actively encouraging the development of both consumer and producer cooperatives throughout the country. The Centre de Formation Coopérative (Center for Cooperative Training), begun with ILO (International Labor Organization) assistance, provides training for staff who work with the cooperatives. The Division is hopeful of obtaining funds to provide more extensive training for the coop members and leaders, particularly in the areas of management and finances. Approximately 100 cooperatives have been established through this program, primarily as consumer cooperatives in the rural areas. It is felt that the needs of the rural population are greater than the urban population, and, therefore, it is not as urgent to work in the cities. The only cooperative working directly in housing is the Musaga cooperative. Several cooperatives provide building materials to their members, however, as part of a large consumer cooperative.

The cooperative movement, however, faces logistical and social obstacles. The Ministry itself lacks sufficient agents in the field. Farmers often expect cooperatives to be run exclusively by people of high status and tend not to question their decisions. Managers are sometimes expected to share income from the cooperative with their families, and cooperatives are often run like personal businesses.

Many cooperatives in the country have also been run with the help of the religious missions, with priests overseeing management and funds. In 1975, they were organized under the Fédération de Coopératives Populaires du Burundi (FECOBU - Federation of Popular Cooperatives in Burundi), which currently has 37 cooperatives with 10,000 members. A majority are consumer cooperatives, which provide basic imported goods at lower prices, and purchase food crops for resale off-season at fair prices. In addition, they oversee the harvesting and sale of approximately 20 percent of the coffee production, eliminating the problems of intermediaries who pay less than the market price.

FECOBU serves as a logistical and financial intermediary which can buy food at wholesale and transport it to the member cooperatives. FECOBU also borrows from the banks to finance the cooperative member's purchase of coffee from the individual growers. Many of the cooperatives are financially viable as a result of their role in coffee marketing due to good management.

d. Foyers Sociaux (Social Service Centers): The Ministry of Social Affairs and Labor is actively engaged in implementing activities aimed at reaching the rural population, although budgetary constraints inhibit many of their activities. The primary delivery mechanism for these activities are the "foyers sociaux" and "foyers d'animations" (social service centers), which are rural training centers (predominantly for women) in such areas as agriculture, nutrition, and literacy. There are 99 Foyers Sociaux in Burundi; 60 of these are run by the Government and 39 are privately operated by Catholic and Protestant Missions. There are eight principal Foyers Sociaux (one per province), and a growing number of secondary Foyers Sociaux at the commune level.

The Foyers Sociaux program includes general courses for all members in reading, math, nutrition, health, religion, French, and child welfare. In addition, individuals select practical courses in agriculture, livestock, masonry, carpentry, cooking, sewing, and knitting. The Foyers Sociaux course does not provide officially recognized academic value but provides a certificate which is a means of distinguishing literates from illiterates. Most Foyers Sociaux graduates are expected to remain in and help develop their rural settings. There are approximately 200 extension agents connected to Foyers Sociaux. The Foyers Sociaux graduates could provide a network of community-based leaders who could be used in some aspects of community development work in housing projects.

e. Religious Missions: Aside from assisting the cooperative movement, religious missions fulfill a very diversified role in the rural areas. In certain cases, small farmers have shown acceptance of new techniques transmitted by demonstrations, campaigns, group meetings and individual contacts. The missions constitute the second largest source of formal employment (37 percent) after the civil service. The Yagamukama (literally, "talk with the Lord") basic education centers provide instruction in reading, writing, improved cultivation of food crops, health, nutrition and environmental sanitation to an estimated 270,000 children and nearly 40,000 adults who cannot be served by the state system. Instruction by means of basic Kirundi texts and educational materials is reinforced by practical work sessions in individual ruzos and the health lectures and demonstration given at dispensaries and foyers sociaux (social welfare centers). In addition to curative services, mission dispensaries also provide weekly consultations for mothers and children which emphasize nutrition, hygiene and basic information on the fertility cycle. Missions seem to have obtained good results in training school dropouts as paramedical personnel and as instructors for the Yagamukama schools (when proper training and supervision were available). The missions seem to constitute an important decentralized organizational network promoting social and economic changes by working in close contact with the rural population.

E. CONSTRUCTION SECTOR

1. The Formal Sector

Burundi's construction industry is small, dominated by foreign-controlled contractors, and concentrated in Bujumbura. Its development is hindered by an absence of local materials, costly and unreliable transport of imported materials, lack of skilled manpower, lack of financing, and other factors. Although construction represents less than 5 percent of Burundi's Gross Domestic Product, it does account for over one-half of total investments and nearly one-fifth of formal sector employment.

Most large civil works and technically complex projects representing at least 70 percent of overall construction output, is accomplished by the large

foreign-controlled contractors. Government construction, including the civil works of the parastatal REGIDESO and the government housing projects of the parastatal ONL, accounts for another 13-15 percent of overall construction output. The balance of construction activities, including housing and smaller civil works and buildings, is shared by domestic or expatriate-owned small scale enterprises and by religious missions.

According to staff of the World Bank-financed project "ASECO" (Aide du Secteur de la Construction - see description in Building Materials section), seven of the foreign-controlled contractors are subsidiaries of large companies, mostly Belgian and Italian, and all command adequate equipment and skilled manpower to accomplish the major construction works. There are three medium-scale (200-1,000) staff enterprises under Burundian ownership and management. Of the small scale (20-200 staff) enterprises, twelve are owned by expatriates and about seventeen are owned by Burundians.

The local enterprises work mostly on small government buildings and public housing projects. The small scale enterprises, in particular, suffer from shortages of materials and a lack of finance and skilled manpower. This lack of qualified manpower in formal sector construction hampers development of the local construction industry and contributes to continued foreign domination. Until recently, local technical schools produced very few graduates in the construction trades. By 1987 an IDA-supported construction school project, however, will be graduating approximately 80 middle-level technicians and 125 skilled workers per year - a level which, it is hoped, will turn the tide.

The parastatal, Office National du Logement (ONL), was created to complement the present small capacity of the private sector in the construction of government housing. ONL has a permanent staff of 250 and about 1,500 laborers. They are producing about 300,000 FBU (about US\$3,333,000) of construction this year. According to ONL officials, their housing output now amounts to nearly one-half of present formal sector urban housing output which is estimated to total about 500 housing units per year. Other private contractors complete the remaining 250 units.

2. The Informal Sector

The largest contributor to the housing construction sector in terms of numbers of units is the informal sector. This sector is comprised of small contractors (artisans) and self-help builders. In Bujumbura alone, informal sector builders averaged almost 700 housing units per year between 1970 and 1978. The houses built by individual families and artisans typically have mud brick walls and a corrugated iron roof, and cost about 150,000 (US\$1,667) to 170,000 FBU (US\$1,889), as compared to 2,500,000 FBU (US\$27,778) for a modern house built by the formal sector. A description of the level of standards and type of building materials as well as an analysis of costs of informal housing construction is found in the following sections.

Small contractor activities in Bujumbura and secondary centers are quite varied and include masonry, woodworking, brickmaking and metalworking. In 1983, ASECO project staff estimated the number of construction artisans to be 2,800 in Bujumbura alone. They lack tools and the technical and financial resources to operate efficiently, and their competence is uneven. One element of the World Bank-financed urban project "DUB" is the provision of technical and financial assistance to approximately 200 of Bujumbura's artisans.

3. Building and Land Development Standard and Codes

The construction of low-cost housing in Burundi is not hampered by obsolete codes and inordinately high standards as is so often the case in other countries. In fact, codes and standards scarcely exist at all. Only large construction works come under the purview of regulations which are based on pre-independence Belgian legislation and apparently are seldom enforced. The foreign contractors which build the majority of Burundi's large construction projects refer to current European standards, but for housing and small construction projects, contractors receive only those instructions pertaining to the special conditions of government contractors.

Government direction regarding land development (setbacks, densities, etc.) for housing projects and other public works is arrived at by consultation with affected agencies including the MTPM Division of Urban Planning and Housing, REGIDESO, and Bujumbura Office of Hygiene. The World Bank and the UN low income projects have jointly established a simple set of guidelines applicable to these two projects which could form a basis for guidelines for building and land development adopted to local realities and appropriate to low cost housing which would benefit contractors and home-builders.

It should be noted that government procurement procedures are straightforward and satisfactory. Locally advertised competitive bidding is required for contracts of more than 1 million FBu.

4. Building Materials

Lack of local building materials has long plagued the development of the construction industry. Although bricks, stones, sand, gravel, tiles and some wood products are produced locally, Burundi has had to rely heavily on imported construction materials. Ninety percent of the materials used by the formal sector are imported and, even in informal sector housing (excluding temporary structures), the proportion of imported materials is over 40 percent. Adding further to the cost of construction are the import difficulties landlocked Burundi faces as a result of poor overland transport facilities. Damaged and stolen goods, late delivery, and insurance problems are everyday events for contractors and result in disorganized construction programs, excessively high operating costs and project delays.

TABLE IV.11

PRINCIPAL IMPORTED CONSTRUCTION MATERIALS, 1979

Materials	Net Weight (tons)	Value c.i.f. Millions FBu	% in Value c.i.f.
Portland Cement	26,790	381	39.1
Galvanized and Corrugated Sheet	4,110	309	25.9
Reinforced Rods	995	51	4.2
Pipes and Tubes	799	82	6.8
Hot and Cold Rolled Shapes	661	45	3.7
Wire, with no connection outlets	237	62	5.1
Wood	536	31	2.5
Asbestos-cement	401	27	2.2
Glass	667	65	5.4
Lamps	205	16	1.3
Wire	114	11	0.9
Cast Iron Pipes and Tubes	55	25	
Other Materials	436	88	7.0
TOTAL	36,006	1,193	100.00

Source: Central Bank Statistical Office

As can be seen from Table IV.11, three key materials are used in housing construction: cement, reinforcing bar, and galvanized sheeting used primarily for roofing in low income housing. It is clear from these figures that priority must be placed on development of indigenous building materials that can partially replace the use of cement.

5. Cost of Building Materials

A 1981 study by M. Populus, "Etude sur la Politique de l'Habitat au Burundi," listed the approximate costs of building materials in three categories: those local materials used principally in low income housing; those materials that are produced locally from imported materials; and those materials that are only imported. Many materials prices listed below in Table IV.12 are updated as of March 1983 based on cost reports from the ONL and from the World Bank-financed project "DUB."

Another study prepared in 1979 by Urbaplan Consultants described the materials used in different types of informal sector housing construction and analyzed the cost of construction and manpower for each house type. There are eight housing construction types, described on the following pages, and they are grouped in three general categories of building life: non-durable, semi-durable and durable. Types D, E and G suggest innovations that would upgrade and extend the life of non-durable and semi-durable houses.

As can be seen from these graphics, the proportion of building materials costs varies considerably with the durability category of the houses. The percentage of shelter cost represented by building materials in the non-durable housing types ranges from 40 to 60 percent; for the semi-durable, from 60 to 75 percent; and for the durable, from 75 to 85 percent.

The role of imported materials in the cost of construction is also proportional to the quality of the house. Populus estimated that while few or no imported materials are used in non-durable houses, approximately 24 percent of the materials of semi-durable houses are imported, and 40 percent of the materials in durable houses. Certainly, if imported materials can be substituted with less expensive indigenous building materials, cost of housing would be reduced and better houses could be built with the same expenditure.

TABLE IV.12

COST OF BUILDING MATERIALS

I. Local Materials Used in Low Income Housing

Material	Unit	Price/FBu
bricks 5 x 9 x 19	piece	5
gravel	m ³	1,590
sand	m ³	954
quarry stone	m ³	1,590
lime	kg	22
timber	not listed	
eucalyptus poles	piece	55
bamboo	m	11
pozzolanic cement	ton	13,750
thatch	piece	275

II. Materials Produced Locally From Imported Materials

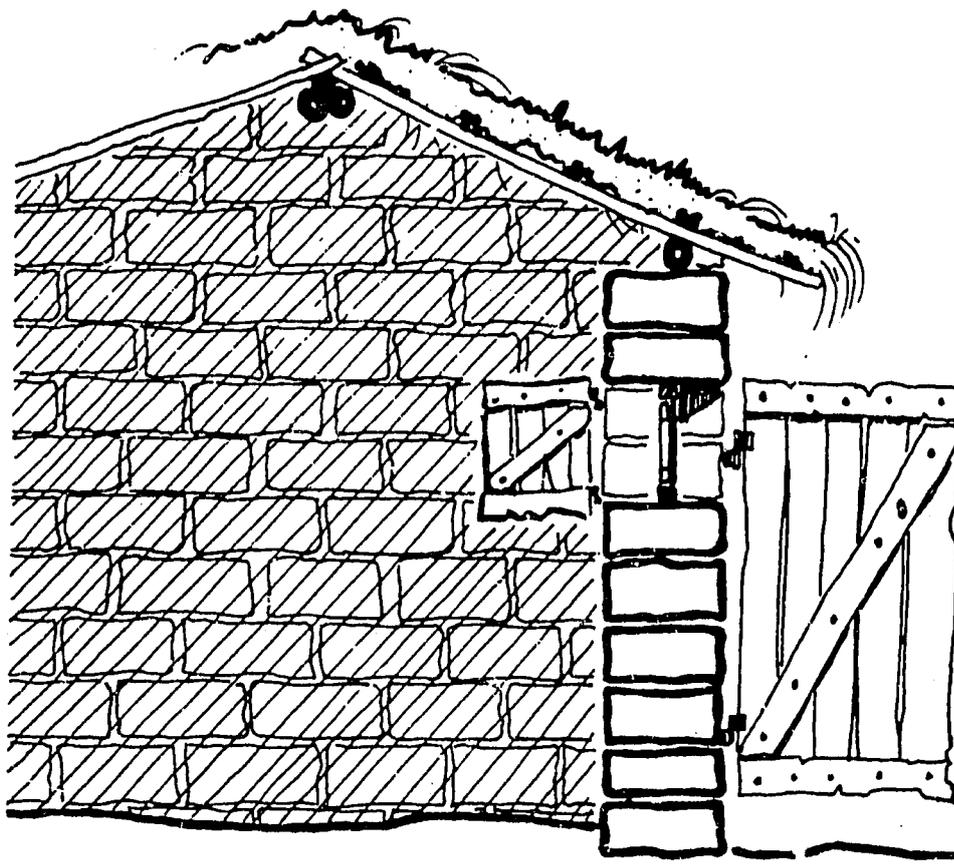
Material	Unit	Price/FBu
concrete	m ³	up to 12,000
mortar	m ³	up to 9,600
corrugated sheeting (183 x 109 x .45)	piece	1,007
waterbased paint	liter	390
oil based paint	liter	520
electric wiring	m	20 to 40
metal doors	piece	9,375
wood doors	piece	4,100
bathtub	piece	25,422

III. Miscellaneous Imported Materials

Material	Unit	Price/FBu
cement	ton	24,900
reinforcing bars	ton	88,000
framing steel	kg	200 to 250
galvanized corrugated sheeting (5 mm)	m ²	707
nails	kg	150
galvanized piping	m	300
lumber	m ³	21,500
window glass	m ²	1,760

Source: Populus, "Etude sur la Politique de l'Habitat" 1981, updated costs from ONL and World Bank DUB Project.

FIGURE IV.9



TYPE A

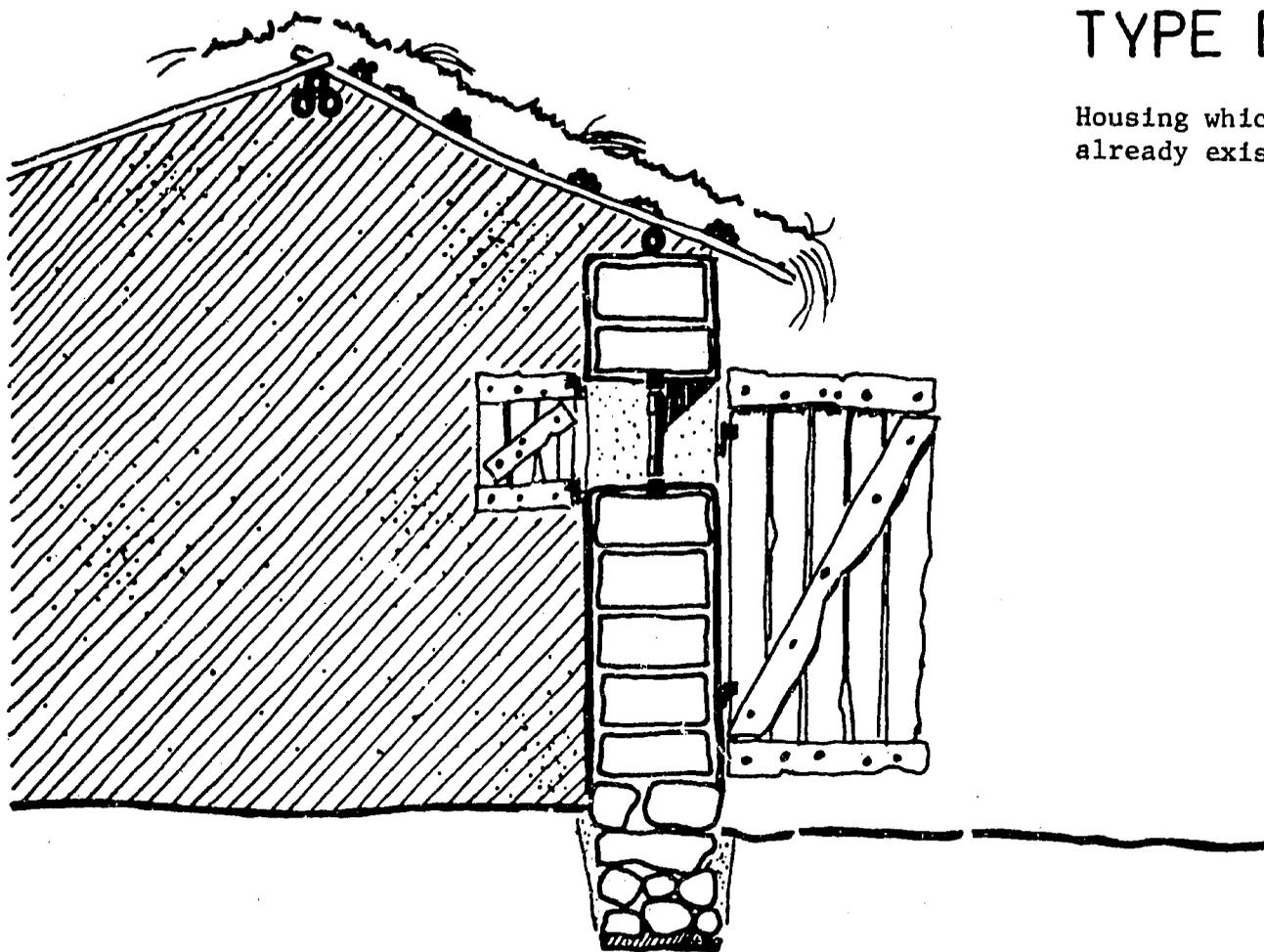
Housing which
already exists

Non-Durable

ELEMENT	DESCRIPTION	Self-Help		Small Private Contractor	
		Cost Per M2	Cost Per House	Cost Per M2	Cost Per House
Foundation	None	-	-	-	-
Walls	Banco without plaster	-	-	450	21,600
Floors	Compacted Earth	10	480	150	7,200
Roofing	Bamboo Thatch	300	14,400	350	16,800
Woodwork	1/2 weight wood	300	14,400	300	14,400
Paint	None	-	-	-	-
	48 m2 dwellings: TOTAL	610	29,280	1,250	60,000

TYPE B

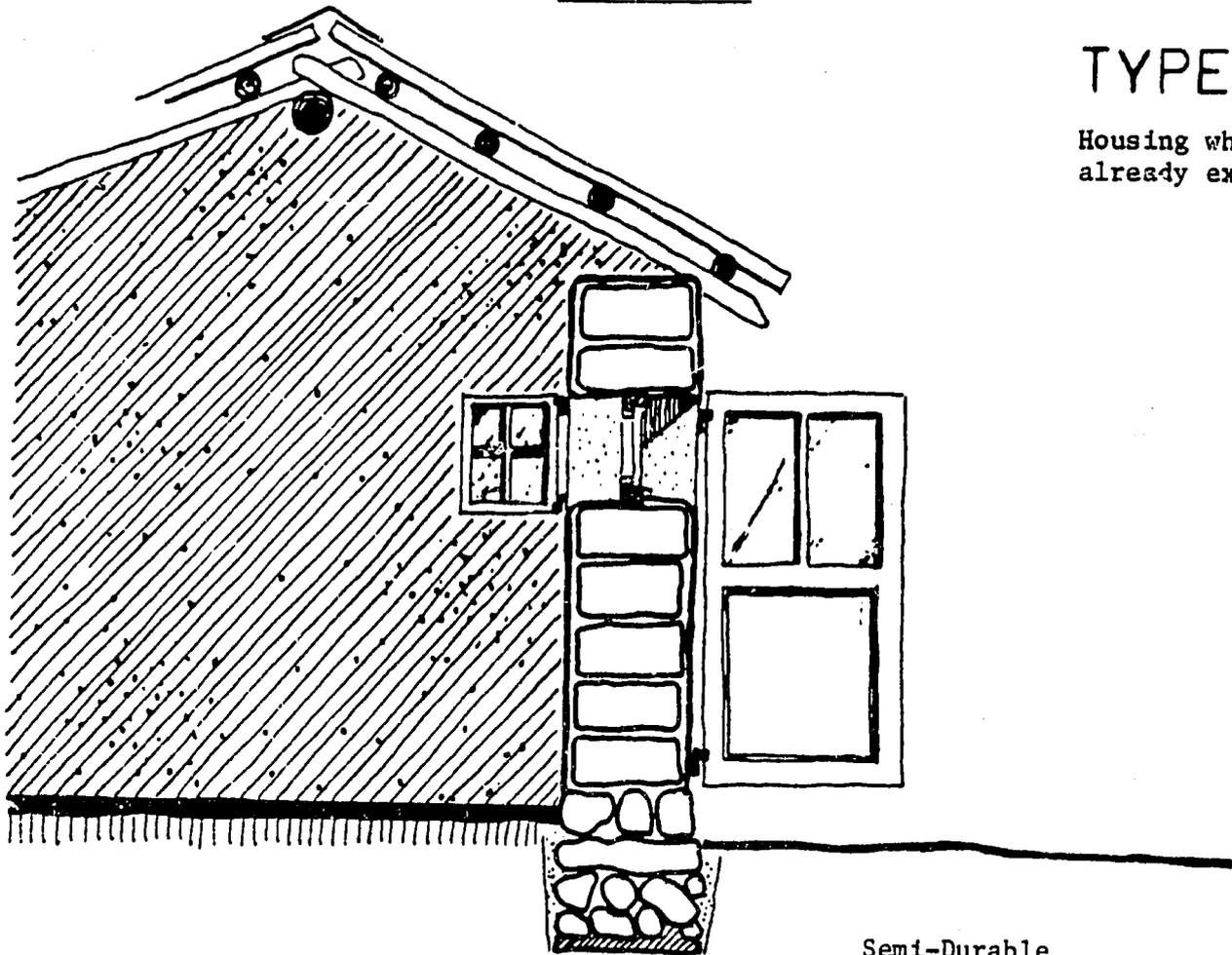
Housing which
 already exists



Non-Durable

ELEMENT	DESCRIPTION	Self-Help		Small Private Contractor	
		Cost Per M2	Cost Per House	Cost Per M2	Cost Per House
Foundation	Compacted Sand Stone	700	33,600	850	40,800
Walls	Banco Plaster/Earth	50	2,400	750	36,900
Floors	Compacted Earth	10	480	150	7,200
Roofing	Bamboo Thatch	300	14,400	350	16,800
Woodwork	1/2 weight	300	14,400	300	14,400
Paint	Lime-washed	40	1,920	140	6,720
48 m2 dwellings: TOTAL		1,400	67,200	2,540	121,920

FIGURE IV.11



TYPE C

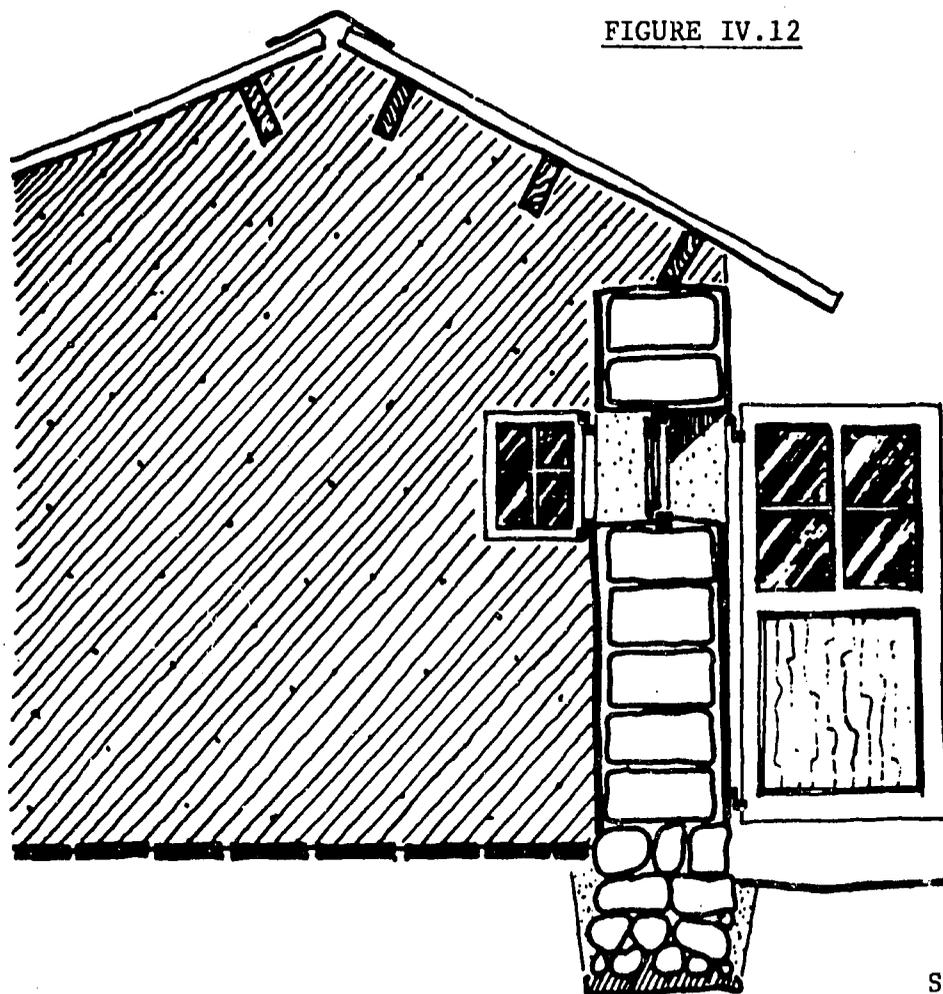
Housing which already exists

Semi-Durable

ELEMENT	DESCRIPTION	Self-help		Small Private Contractor	
		Cost Per M2	Cost Per House	Cost Per M2	Cost Per House
Foundation	Sand Stone	700	33,600	850	40,800
Walls	Banco Plaster/Earth	50	2,400	750	36,000
Floors	Cement coated	550	26,400	700	33,600
Roofing	Eucalyptus Corrugated sheeting	500	24,000	500	24,000
Woodwork	Wood	550	26,400	550	26,400
Paint	Lime-washed	40	1,920	140	6,720
	48 m2 dwellings: TOTAL	2,390	114,720	3,490	167,520

FIGURE IV.12

TYPE D



PROPOSED
*INNOVATIONS

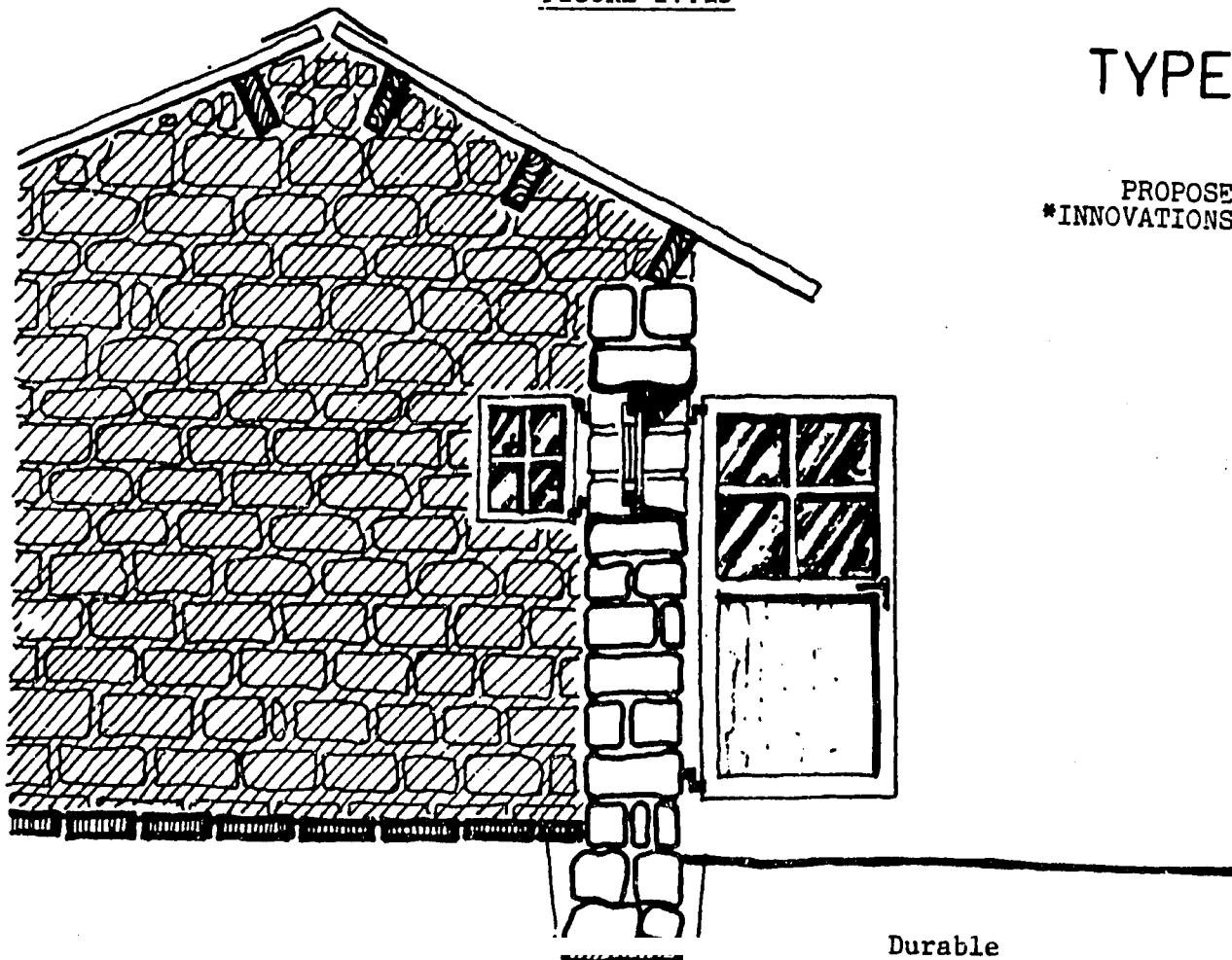
Semi-Durable

ELEMENT	DESCRIPTION	Self-Help		Small Private Contractor	
		Cost Per M2	Cost Per House	Cost Per M2	Cost Per House
Foundation	Sand Stone	700	33,600	850	40,800
Walls	Banco *Stabilized Plaster/Earth	450	21,600	1,400	67,200
Floors	*Cement *Cassons *Baked tiles	500	24,000	700	33,600
Roofing	*Timber Corrugated sheeting	800	38,400	800	38,400
Woodwork	Wood	550	26,400	550	26,400
Paint	Walls: whitewashed cement Woodwork: Latex	70	3,360	160	7,680
		10	480	20	960
	48 m2 dwellings: TOTAL	3,080	147,840	4,480	215,040

FIGURE IV.13

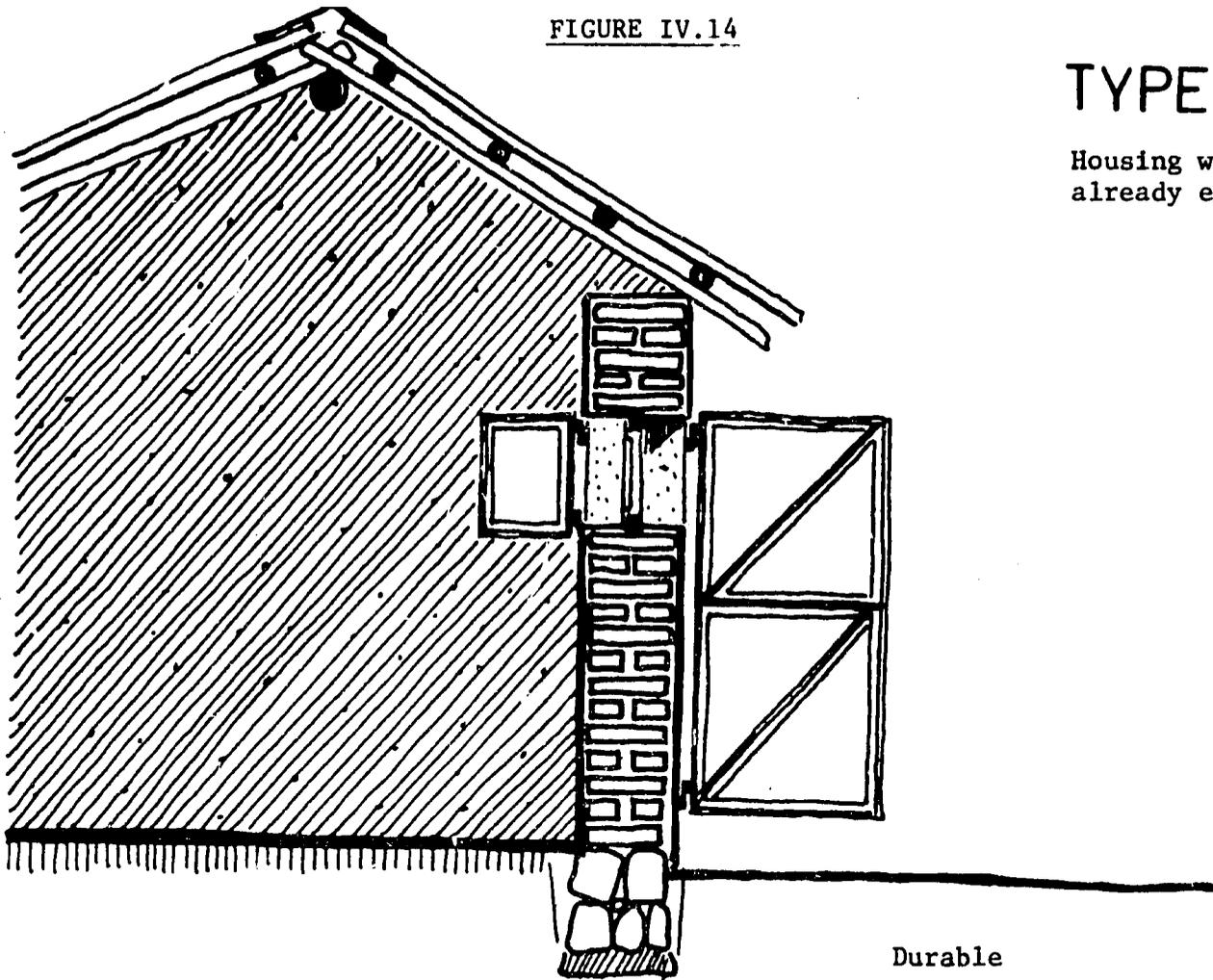
TYPE E

PROPOSED
*INNOVATIONS



ELEMENT	DESCRIPTION	Self-help		Small Private Contractor	
		Price Per M2	Price Per House	Price Per M2	Price Per House
Foundation	Stone	700	33,600	850	40,800
Walls	Stone Mortar *Cement jointing	1,200	57,600	2,100	100,800
Floors	Cement-coated Brick	550	26,400	700	33,600
Roofing	Timber Corrugated Sheeting	800	38,400	800	38,400
Woodwork	Wood	550	26,400	550	26,400
Paint	Woodwork: Latex	10	480	20	960
	48 m2 dwellings: TOTAL	3,810	182,880	5,020	240,960

FIGURE IV.14



TYPE F

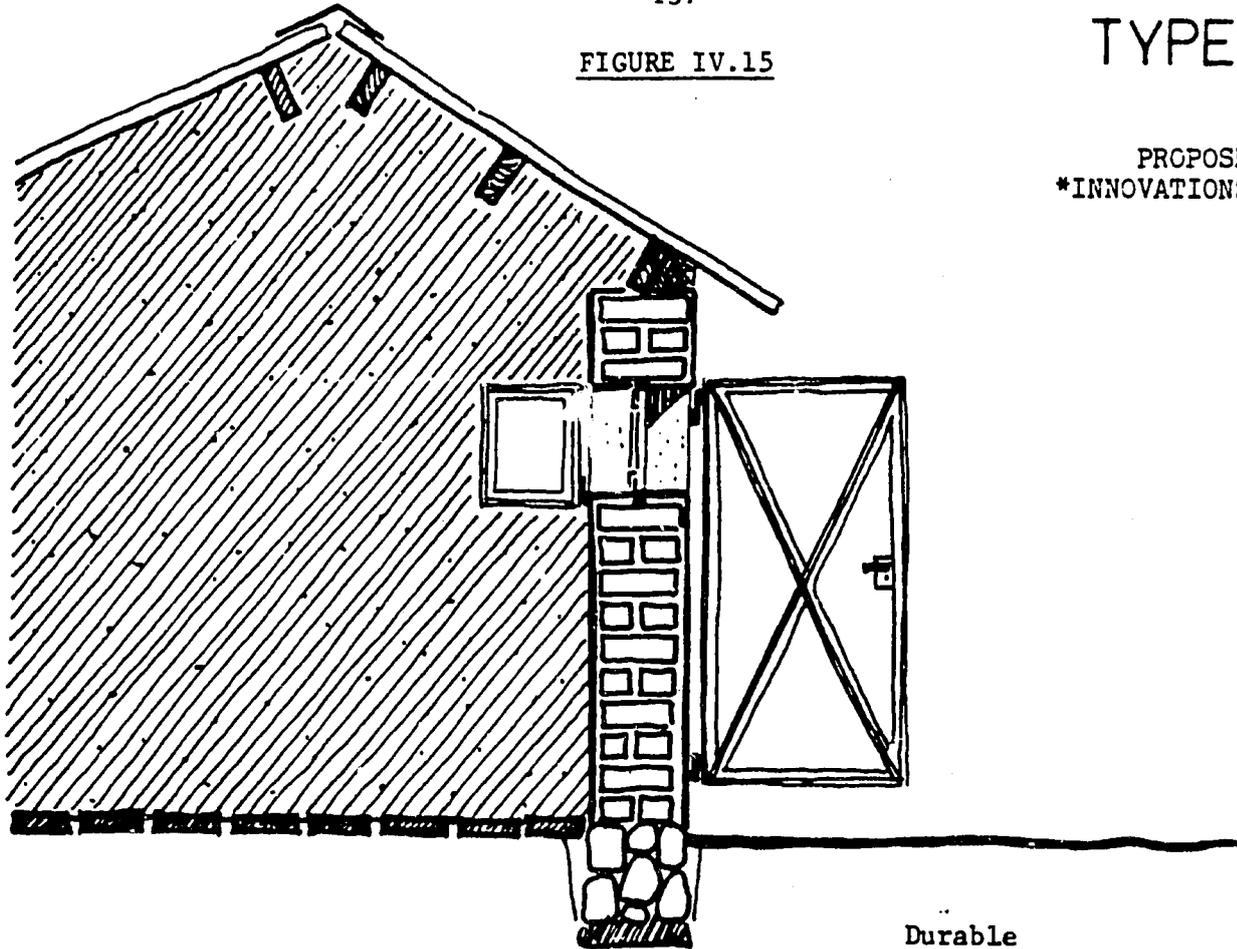
Housing which already exists

Durable

ELEMENT	DESCRIPTION	Self-help		Small Private Contractor	
		Cost Per M2	Cost Per House	Cost Per M2	Cost Per House
Foundation	Compacted sand Stone	700	33,600	850	40,800
Walls	Brick Plaster Mortar	2,000	96,000	2,500	120,000
Floors	Cement-coated	550	26,400	700	33,600
Roofing	Eucalyptus Corrugated sheeting	500	24,000	500	24,000
Woodwork	Metal	800	38,400	800	38,400
Paint	Walls: Latex Woodwork: Anti-rust	120	5,760	220	10,560
		50	2,400	60	2,880
	48 m2 dwellings: TOTAL	4,720	226,560	5,630	270,240

FIGURE IV.15

TYPE G



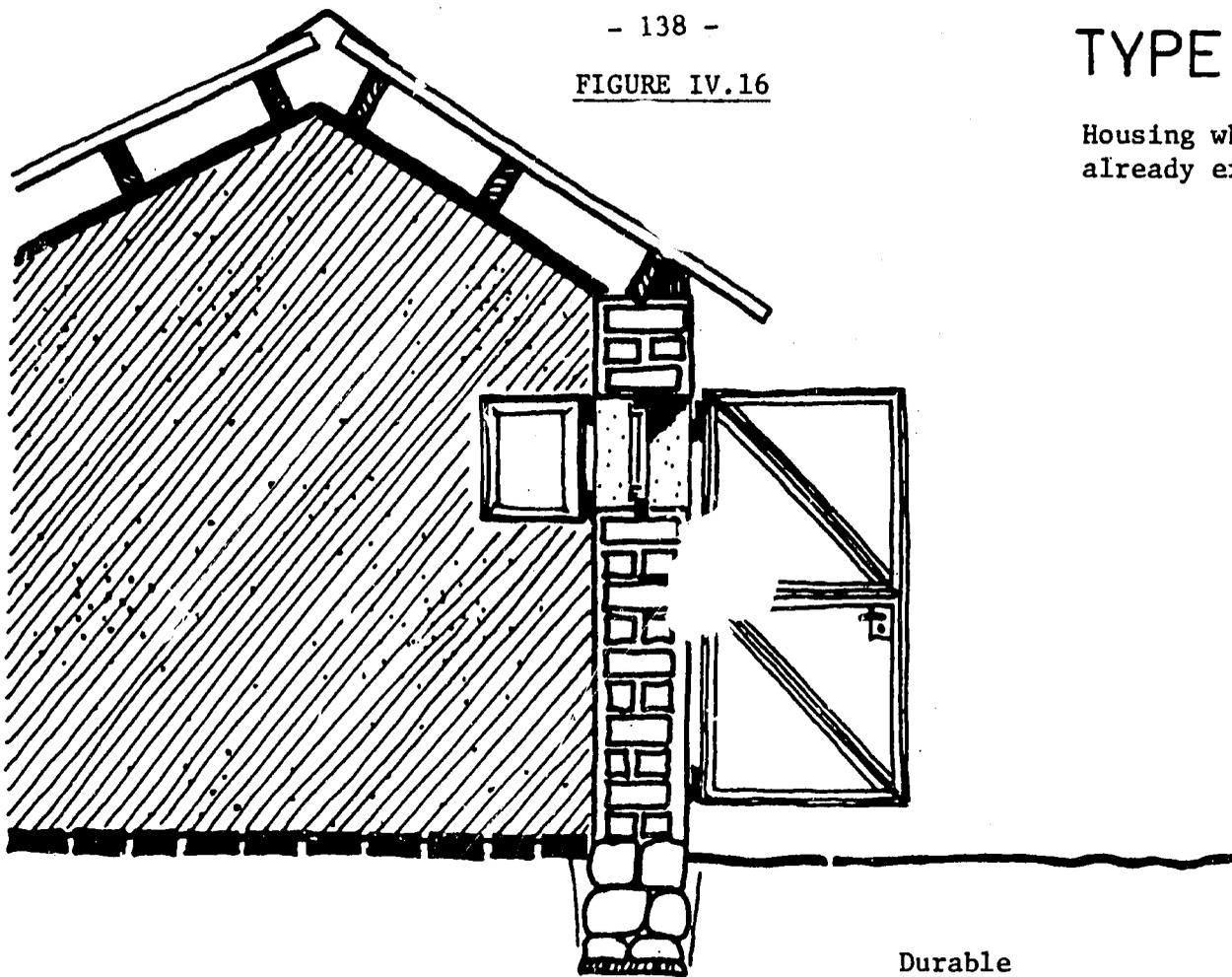
PROPOSED
*INNOVATIONS

ELEMENT	DESCRIPTION	Self-help		Small private Contractor	
		Price Per M2	Price Per House	Price Per M2	Price Per House
Foundation	Compacted sand Stone	700	33,600	850	40,800
Walls	*Industrial Brick Mortar Plaster/Cement	1,600	76,800	2,200	105,600
Floors	*Cement *Cassons *Baked Tiles	500	24,000	600	28,800
Roofing	Timber Corrugated sheeting	800	38,400	800	38,400
Woodwork	Metal	800	38,400	800	38,400
Paint	Walls: Latex	120	5,760	220	10,560
	Woodwork: Anti-rust	50	2,400	60	2,880
	48 m2 dwellings: TOTAL	4,570	219,360	5,530	265,440

FIGURE IV.16

TYPE H

Housing which already exists



Durable

ELEMENT	DESCRIPTION	Self-help		Small Private Contractor	
		Price Per M2	Price Per House	Price Per M2	Price Per House
Foundation.	Compacted sand Stone	700	33,600	850	40,800
Walls	Brick Mortar Plaster /Cement	2,400	115,200	2,900	139,200
Floors	Baked brick	550	26,400	800	38,400
Roofing	Timber Corrugated sheeting False ceilings Unalit/Triplex	1,150	55,200	1,200	57,600
Woodwork	Metal	800	38,400	800	38,400
Paint	Walls: Latex	120	5,760	220	10,560
	Woodwork: Anti-rust	50	2,400	60	2,880
	Roofing: Anti-rust	250	12,000	280	13,440
	48 m2 dwellings: TOTAL	6,020	288,960	7,110	341,280

6. Expansion of Local Building Materials Production

The Government has initiated a number of significant measures that are expected to reduce the dependency upon imported materials, develop the capacity of local production of building materials, and increase employment opportunities. Exploitation of Burundi's large deposits of limestone is being pursued by a public mining company (SOMIBUROM) created in 1978 to direct the geological exploration and development of all mineral resources. The United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO) is assisting the building of three lime kilns that are to produce about 4,000 tons of lime annually. A new public company has also been established to rehabilitate and operate a cement plant and bring its production capacity to 20,000 tons of pozzolanic cement a year.

The Government is also attempting to expand the production and improve the quality of locally-produced bricks. ONL has initiated development of a 300,000,000 FBu industrial brick plant which will produce higher quality, stronger and more consistent bricks. This project and other assistance planned to local brick producers will lead to a larger utilization of bricks in construction in both the formal and informal sectors.

The World Bank is attempting in its ASECO project (Aide du Secteur de la Construction - Aid to the Construction Sector), a project within the MTPEM, to provide comprehensive financial and technical assistance to the domestic construction industry. This project has a number of interrelated parts. It will foster the production of local materials by providing assistance in the construction and operation of two lime kilns and by financial, technical and managerial assistance to brick manufacturers to improve their operations and the quality of bricks produced. Technical assistance is being provided to the MTPEM to strengthen their capacity to supervise the implementation of construction projects. And, finally, the project is assisting the development of small and medium-sized contractors and producers of various local building materials through provision of financial and technical assistance.

In summary, various significant efforts are now underway to increase the production of construction materials with a view towards replacing costly imports, particularly cement, and increasing employment opportunities. The Government has demonstrated a strong interest in tackling at least the priority needs of the construction industry, and one should expect to see from these efforts a positive impact on the balance of payments, growth of industrial activity, and reduced costs of housing and other construction.

F. ENVIRONMENT

Burundi's principal environment problems are extreme population pressure on the near-saturated agricultural lands; extensive erosion of its fragile soil; near exhaustion of its forest resources; environmental health problems (contaminated water supplies, protein-caloric malnutrition, malaria, etc.); likely extinction of rare and endangered species; and sick and unproductive livestock. In the population centers, the most important environmental problems are poor garbage collection and drainage, inadequate water supplies, and a lack of sewage facilities. These factors have in recent years contributed to high urban mortality due to the severe cholera epidemics. Another urban environmental problem has been the depletion of urban area fuelwood supplies as a result of the concentration of charcoal users in the urban centers.

Despite the significance of the environmental problems, there is notably little legislation of environmental standards addressing these issues. Where several items of legislation do exist, as, for example, water quality protection, enforcement has apparently been ineffective. Growth of the population centers has not been regulated, and poor health and sanitation conditions have proliferated in recent years, particularly in Bujumbura's spontaneous settlements. Visits to these settlements revealed many examples of blocked drainage canals (when they existed at all), standing water, insufficient water standpipes, and uncollected garbage.

Several recent government efforts have begun to address the paucity of environmental standards, codes, and legislation. A national environmental conservation institute (Institut National pour la Conservation de la Nature, INCN) was established slightly over one year ago for the purpose of developing environmental policy and recommending national legislation. This office has indicated that several environmental research programs are now underway that will provide the basis for policy development. No specific activity in urban environmental policy is underway, but policy guidelines are planned for the future. The Director General of the INCN stressed the need to address the lack of potable water supplies, the deforestation around population centers, the retention of some open space on public lands within population centers, and the rehabilitation of squatter settlements.

A second effort relating to urban environmental problems is contained in the World Bank-financed project DUB. As a part of shelter-related assistance for Bujumbura, this project will support the commune's ability to dispose of solid waste through the purchase of necessary equipment and provision of manpower.

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Mr. David Ntagwarara, Chef des Services Financiers

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Mr. Paul Buda
Mr. Jacques Servain

U.S. Embassy, Burundi

Mr. Thomas Bullington, Ambassador
Mr. Ravic R. Huso, Economic Officer

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BURUNDI: Population by Province, 1970-79^{1/}
(in thousands)

	<u>1970</u>	<u>1971</u>	<u>1972</u>	<u>1973</u>	<u>1974</u>	<u>1975</u>	<u>1976</u>	<u>1977</u>	<u>1978</u>	<u>1979</u>	<u>Annual Growth Rate 1970-79</u>	<u>Annual Growth Rate 1978-79</u>
Bubanza	220.0	223.7	257.4	234.8	248.4	262.8	278.1	294.2	311.3	329.1	4.5	5.8
Bujumbura	330.0	335.6	447.2	352.0	368.2	385.1	402.8	421.4	440.8	460.3	3.8	4.6
Bururi	380.0	386.0	331.0	405.6	413.7	422.0	430.4	439.0	447.8	457.5	2.1	2.0
Gitega	590.0	560.0	600.9	629.8	638.0	646.3	654.7	663.2	671.8	683.0	1.6	1.3
Muramvya	390.0	396.6	273.7	416.3	410.1	403.9	397.8	391.9	386.0	380.3	-0.3	-1.5
Muyinga	420.0	427.1	496.4	448.3	463.1	478.4	494.2	510.5	527.3	546.4	3.0	3.3
Ngozi	680.0	691.5	756.6	725.9	733.2	740.5	747.9	755.4	762.9	773.3	1.4	1.0
Ruyigi	340.0	345.8	306.9	362.8	367.5	372.3	377.1	382.0	387.0	392.0	1.6	1.3
<u>Total</u>	<u>3,350.0</u>	<u>3,366.3</u>	<u>3,407.1</u>	<u>3,575.5</u>	<u>3,647.0</u>	<u>3,719.9</u>	<u>3,794.3</u>	<u>3,870.2</u>	<u>3,947.6</u>	<u>4,021.9</u>	<u>2.1</u>	<u>2.0</u>

^{1/} 1979 data consist of provisional census results; earlier data based on 1970-71 demographic survey.

Source: Département des Etudes et Statistiques (Ministère du Plan),
Bureau Central de Recensement (Ministère de l'Intérieur) and mission estimates.
Table prepared by IBRD; Economic Memorandum, The Burundi
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BURUNDI: Population by Sex and Province, 1979
(in thousands)

<u>Province</u>	<u>Males</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Females</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Total</u>
Bubanza	164.0	49.8	165.0	50.2	329.1
Bujumbura	238.5	51.8	221.8	48.2	460.3
Bururi	222.1	48.5	235.4	51.5	457.5
Gitega	323.0	47.3	360.0	52.7	683.0
Muramvya	183.5	48.2	196.8	51.8	380.3
Muyinga	256.4	46.9	290.0	53.1	546.4
Ngozi	369.4	47.8	404.0	52.2	773.3
Ruyigi	187.7	47.9	204.3	52.1	392.0
<u>Total</u>	<u>1,944.6</u>	<u>48.4</u>	<u>2,077.3</u>	<u>51.6</u>	<u>4,021.9</u>
<u>For reference:</u>					
Bujumbura (city)	78.5	55.7	62.5	44.3	141.0

Source: "Résultats Provisoires du Recensement Général de la Population", Bureau Central de Recensement (Ministère de l'Intérieur).
Table prepared by IBRD: Economic Memorandum. The Burundi Economy: Current Situation and Institutional Constraints, Feb. 1981, p. 76.

BURUNDI: Population by Age and Sex: 1971, 1975 and 1978
(in percentages)

<u>Age</u>	<u>1 9 7 1</u>			<u>1 9 7 5</u>			<u>1 9 7 8</u>		
	<u>Males</u>	<u>Females</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Males</u>	<u>Females</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Males</u>	<u>Females</u>	<u>Total</u>
0 - 4	8.4	7.9	16.4	8.7	8.2	16.7	8.2	8.3	16.5
5 - 9	7.1	7.5	14.6	6.9	7.3	14.2	7.0	6.9	13.9
10 - 14	6.7	7.1	13.8	6.6	6.6	13.2	6.2	6.2	12.4
15 - 19	5.4	5.3	10.7	5.2	5.5	10.7	5.8	6.4	12.2
20 - 29	7.1	8.1	15.2	6.5	7.7	14.3	7.5	8.5	16.0
30 - 39	6.1	6.6	12.7	5.7	6.6	12.3	4.3	5.2	9.5
40 - 49	4.2	4.6	8.7	4.1	4.7	8.8	3.4	4.1	7.5
50 - 59	2.2	3.2	5.3	2.4	3.3	5.8	2.5	3.0	5.5
60 - 69	0.8	1.3	2.0	1.3	1.7	3.0	1.6	2.3	3.9
70 +	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.6	1.0	1.4	1.2	2.6
<u>Total</u>	<u>48.1</u>	<u>51.9</u>	<u>100.0</u>	<u>47.6</u>	<u>52.4</u>	<u>100.0</u>	<u>47.9</u>	<u>52.1</u>	<u>100.0</u>

Sources: "Enquête Démographique Burundi", 1970-71
World Health Organization, 1975
"Recensement Pilote", 1978
Table prepared by IBRD: Economic Memorandum.
The Burundi Economy: Current Situation
and Institutional Constraints, Feb. 1981, p. 77

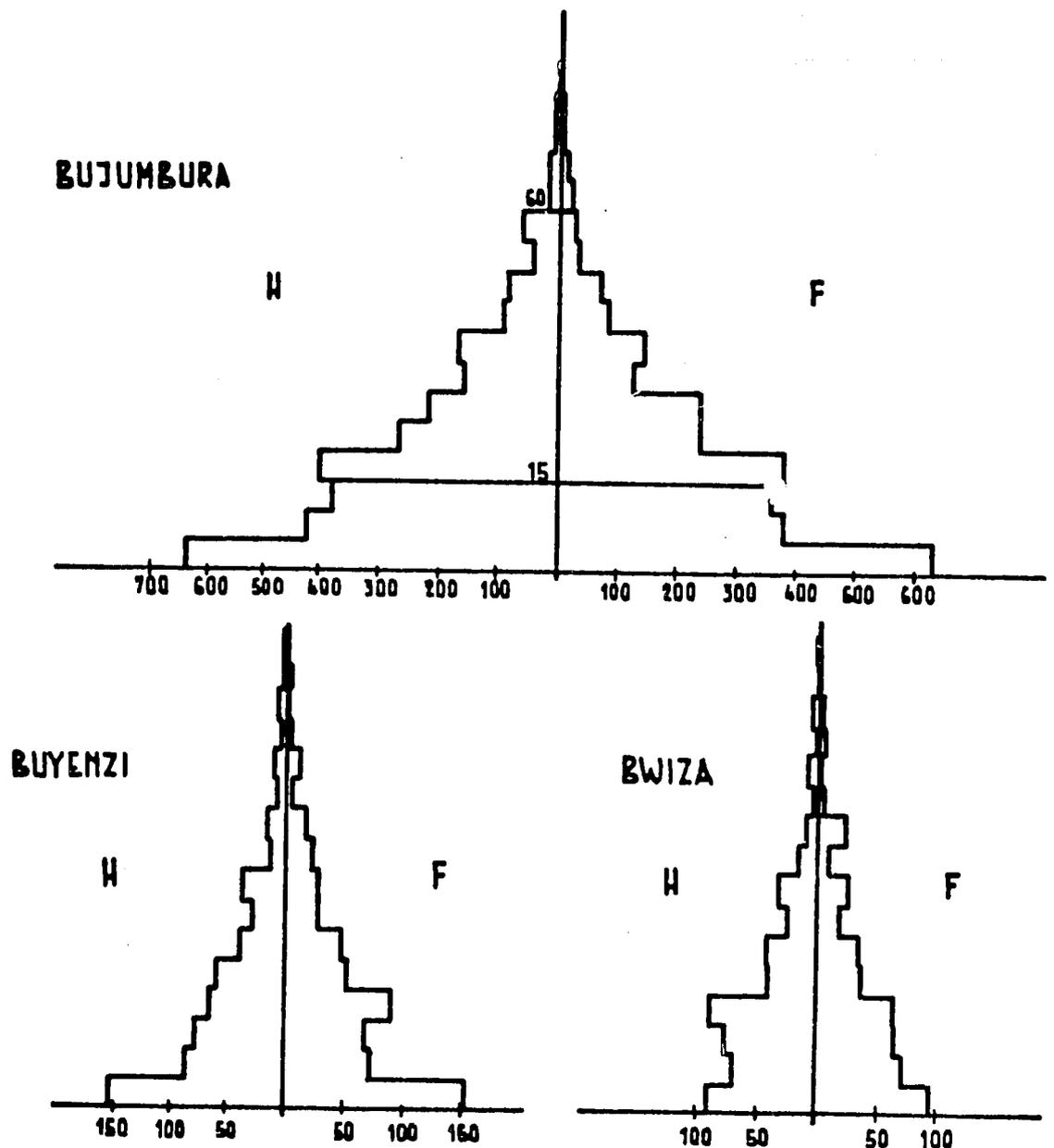
**BURUNDI: Average Number of Persons per Household
and Persons and Households per Rugo by
Province, 1979**

<u>Province</u>	<u>Population</u>	<u>Number of Households</u>	<u>Number of Rugos</u>	<u>Number of Persons per Household</u>	<u>Number of Households per Rugo</u>	<u>Number of Persons per Rugo</u>
Bubanza	329,060	69,280	53,400	4.7	1.3	6.2
Bujumbura ^{a)}	460,310	67,520	49,440	6.8	1.4	9.3
Bururi	457,510	93,380	66,970	4.9	1.4	6.8
Gitega	682,990	154,130	104,150	4.4	1.5	6.6
Muramvya	380,320	80,470	47,240	4.7	1.7	8.1
Muyinga	546,390	130,840	106,200	4.2	1.2	5.1
Ngozi	773,330	173,800	131,910	4.2	1.3	5.9
Ruyigi	392,000	87,540	67,170	4.4	1.3	5.8
BURUNDI	4,021,910	856,860	626,480	4.7	1.4	6.4
For reference:						
Bujumbura (city)	141,040	28,020	11,590	4.7	2.4	12.2

Source: "Résultats Provisaires du Recensement Général de la Population", Bureau Central de Recensement (Ministère de l'Intérieur) Table prepared by IBRD: Economic Memorandum. The Burundi Economy: Current Situation and Institutional Constraints, Feb. 1981, p. 79.

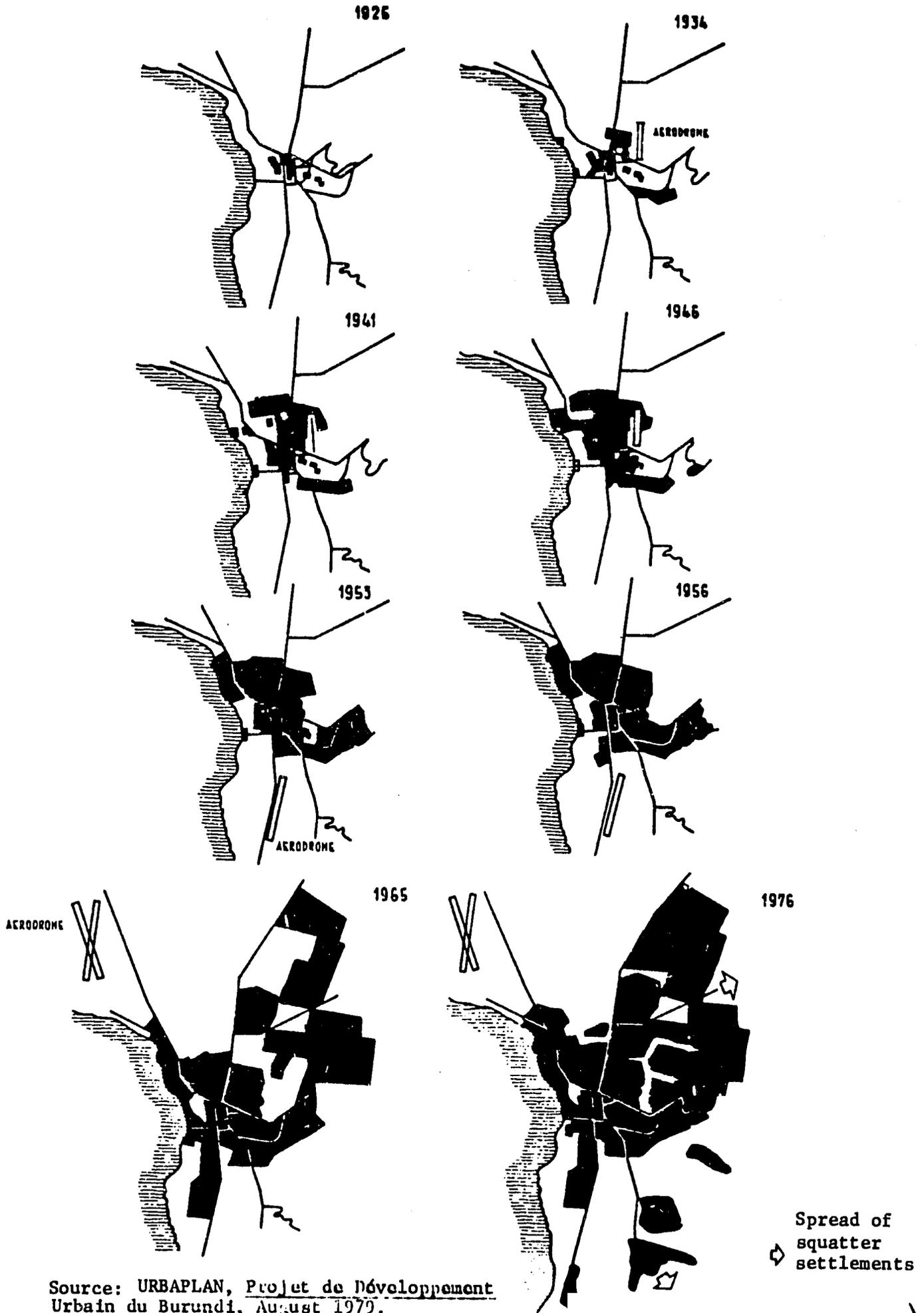
a) does not include the City of Bujumbura

POPULATION PYRAMIDS BY NEIGHBORHOOD IN BUJUMBURA



Source: Dayer, Bujumbura 1978, Une Enquête Socio-Economiques et Administratives. Graphs from URBAPLAN, Projet de Développement Urbain du Burundi, August 1979.

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Source: URBAPLAN, Projet de Développement Urbain du Burundi, August 1979.

COMPARISON OF SALARIES PAID TO TECHNICAL AND
ADMINISTRATIVE WORKERS BY BRANCH OF ACTIVITY AND LEVEL OF QUALIFICATION

COMPARAISON DES SALAIRES VERSES AUX TRAVAILLEURS TECHNICIENS
ET ADMINISTRATIFS AFRICAINS PAR BRANCHE ET NIVEAU DE QUALIFICATION

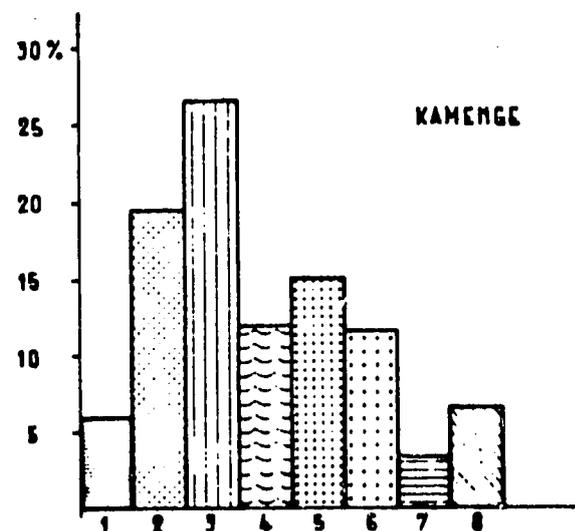
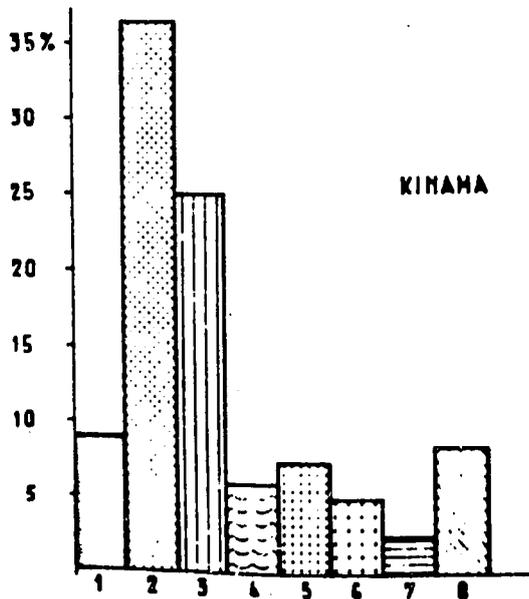
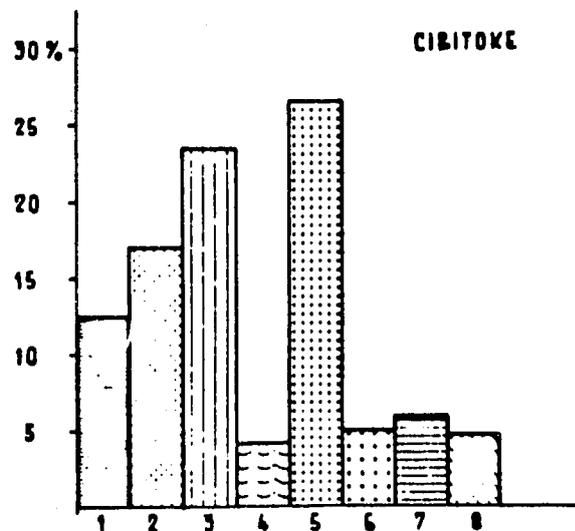
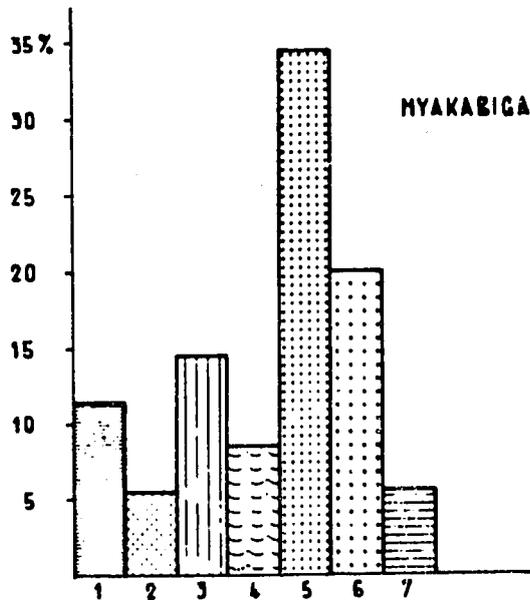
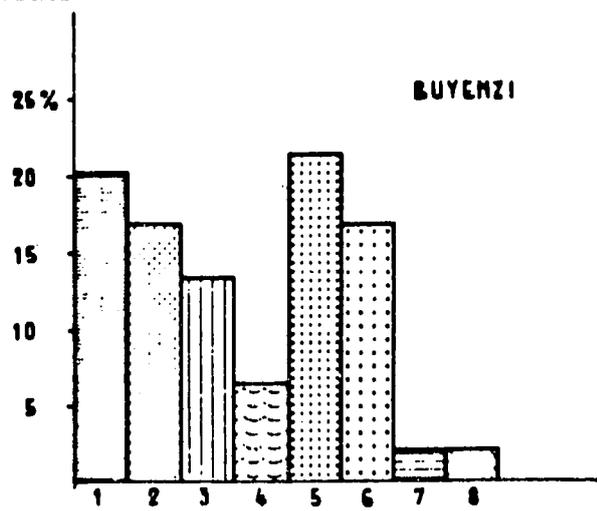
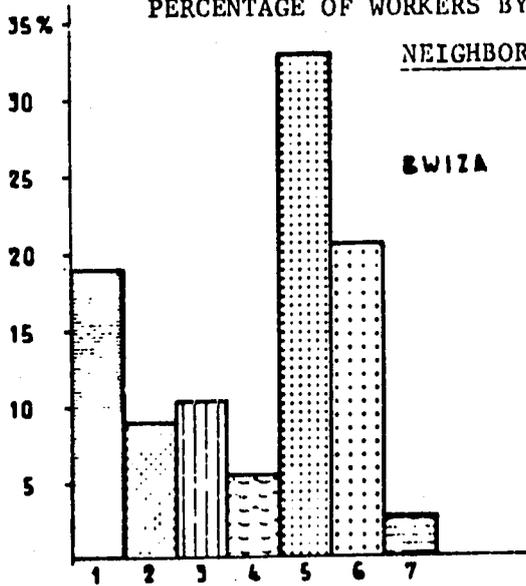
Direction	VI			V			IV			TOTAL			
	Adm.	Techn.	Total	Adm.	Techn.	Total	Adm.	Techn.	Total	Adm.	Techn.	Total	
Agriculture	-	47.000	53.000	50.000	-	-	-	17.000	14.500	15.000	26.000	34.000	20.000
Industries Manufacturières	65.000	46.000	42.000	44.000	25.000	26.000	25.500	17.500	15.000	16.200	28.500	27.000	31.000
Construction	155.000	57.000	65.000	61.000	26.500	22.500	24.200	19.200	19.600	10.500	35.500	35.500	38.000
Commerce	135.000	57.000	81.000	63.000	32.000	37.000	33.000	21.000	18.000	19.800	34.500	34.500	36.500
Transport	90.000	53.000	39.000	46.500	28.500	28.500	28.500	20.000	16.500	18.000	30.000	23.000	29.500
Banques et Assurances	145.000	50.000	-	50.000	31.000	-	31.000	20.000	-	20.000	33.200	-	40.000
Services	55.000	-	45.000	45.000	18.000	18.000	17.000	15.000	14.000	12.500	16.000	22.500	26.000
Total	115.000	53.300	51.000	55.000	29.500	27.000	29.000	19.500	17.500	18.750	32.750	31.300	35.000

Source: Ministère des Affaires Sociales et du Travail, Enquête Salariale
dans les Secteurs Mixte et Privé de Bujumbura, September 1979

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PERCENTAGE OF WORKERS BY ECONOMIC ACTIVITY IN LOW INCOME

NEIGHBORHOODS IN BUJUMBURA



- Group 1 Unemployed
- 2 Agriculture-Animal Husbandry-Fishing
- 3 Artisans
- 4 Other-Occupations in Industry/Services/Construction

- 5 Administrative occupations-public & private/Health-related/Miscellaneous
- 6 Commerce - Restaurants
- 7 Domestic workers
- 8 Unskilled workers

Professions/activités principales des chefs de ménages

PROFESSIONS AND PRINCIPAL ACTIVITIES OF HEADS OF HOUSEHOLD IN BUJUMBURA

		6 zones	Including Ngugara	Bujum- burn	
10% + of heads of household	• 1 unemployed	14 %	15,6 %	13,3 %	
	• 2 agriculture	18,5 %	17,3 %	15,4 %	
	• 15 administrative (public & Private)	18,8 %	20,9 %	23,1 %	
	• 16 commerce and restaurants	13,0 %	12,8 %	12,7 %	
between 5 and 10%	-	-	-		
from 3-5%	• 3 tailors	3,2 %	3,1 %	3,3 %	
	• 7 carpenters	3,6 %	3,4 %	3,1 %	
	• 9 masons	3,2 %	2,9 %	2,6 %	
	• 10 service station attendants/mechanics	4,8 %	4,7 %	4,3 %	
	• 12 other T K in industry	3,0 %	2,9 %	3,3 %	
	• 13 other service occupations	3,2 %	3,1 %	3,1 %	
	• 18 domestic workers	3,2 %	2,9 %	3,5 %	
	• 20 unskilled workers	3,9 %	3,7 %	3,5 %	
	from 0-3%	• 4 millers	0,4 %	0,4 %	0,3 %
		• 5 electricians/radio repairmen	1,1 %	1,0 %	0,9 %
• 6 welders-blacksmiths- locksmiths		1,5 %	1,4 %	1,2 %	
• 8 brickmakers		0,1 %	0,1 %	0,1 %	
• 11 other occupations in crafts		0,8 %	0,9 %	0,8 %	
• 14 other occupations in construction		0,8 %	0,8 %	0,9 %	
• 17 health-related occupations		1,8 %	1,9 %	2,0 %	
• 19 miscellaneous (including cooperative personnel & diplomats)		1,0 %	1,0 %	2,4 %	

Source: URBAPLAN, Projet de Développement Urbain du Burundi, August 1979.

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NUMBER OF PERSONS IN INFORMAL SECTOR OCCUPATIONS IN BUJUMBURA, BY NEIGHBORHOOD

TRADE	Musaga	Rohero Centre ville Q. Asiatique	Nyakabiga	Bwiza	Buyenzi	Ngagara	Cibitoke	Kamenge	Kinama	Total
Carpentry-Cabinetmaking	20	6	10	40	8	2	20	35	10	151
Wood-carving		10		2	1	1	4	10	3	31
Ironsmithing-Welding		13	10	20	35	3	14	50	50	182
Basket-making		10		100					20	130
Weaving-Embroidery-Macrame		10		20	20				50	100
Sewing-Knitting	60	200	25	50	43	25	2	45	30	480
Brick and Tile-Making		15			5		2			22
Baked Goods	4		2	1		2		1		10
Tanning								3	5	8
Shoemaking & Repair	6	15	20	5	10	7	3	20	5	91
Jewelry		2		10						12
Service Stations		3	4	15	2	5	2	3		34
Hairdressing	3	18	5	6	25	5	1	5	2	70
Painting			3	4				2		9
Watch Repair	4	15		1	10	1	2	4	5	42
Manufacturing-Mbabula				3	6				50	59
Radio Repair	3	20	4	3	8	1	2	5	10	56
Flour-Mills	1		3	6	10		9	5	4	38
Electricity	30	3	6	10	28			4		81
Laundry	5		3	15	36	3		10		117
Brush-Making				1						1
TOTAL	181	340	95	312	247	55	48	202	244	1724

Source. Etude Globale du Secteur des
industries artisanales. Ministère du Travail, Février, 1983.

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WORKING POPULATION EMPLOYED AS OF DECEMBER 31, 1980 (Number of Jobs and Corresponding Number of Workers)

BRANCHES OF THE ECONOMY	MODERN SECTOR		Total Number of Jobs	Number of Workers	INFORMAL SECTOR		TOTAL NUMBER OF JOBS	NUMBER OF WORKERS
	Permanent Jobs	Temporary Jobs (# of workers)			Total Number of Jobs	Number of Workers		
Branch 1. Agriculture, animal husbandry, forestry, fishing	11.810	33.250 (61.040)	45.060	72.850	1.552.580	2.173.770	1.597.740	2.246.620
Branch 2. Extraction industries	940	2.110 (3.790)	3.050	4.730	-	-	3.050	4.730
Branch 3. Manufacturing, small trades production	4.980	510 (1.040)	5.490	6.020	135.860	135.050	189.350	189.880
Branch 4. Energy	920	-	920	920	9.130	9.130	10.050	10.050
Branch 5. Construction and TP	11.920	6.990 (13.980)	18.910	25.900	37.500	37.500	56.410	63.400
Branch 6. Commerce, hotels & restaurants	4.760	380 (740)	5.140	5.500	21.370	26.330	26.510	31.830
Branch 7. Transportation and Communications	2.120	260 (630)	2.380	2.750	3.050	4.090	5.410	6.840
Branch 8. Banking, insurance and service industries for business	2.030	-	2.030	2.030	-	-	2.030	2.030
Branch 9. Public and personnel services	23.020	1.730 (3.120)	24.750	26.140	27.340	34.370	52.090	60.510
Branch 10. Occupations not included in other categories	7.400	-	7.400	7.400	5.730	5.730	13.130	13.130
TOTAL	69.900	45.230 (84.340)	115.130	154.240	1.940.540	2.474.780	2.055.770	2.629.020

Source: Castagnos, J.C. Détermination des Besoins d'Emploi comme
Element de la Planification de l'Education du Burundi.
Etude Réalisée a la Requête du Gouvernement du Burundi, octobre, 1982.

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BURUNDI
(WITHOUT BUJUMBURA CITY)

POPULATION

TYPE OF DWELLING ACCORDING TO DIFFERENT
CHARACTERISTICS OF HOUSING UNITS

(POPULATION EXTRAPOLATED)

DESCRIPTION	CHARACTERISTIC	TYPE		TOTAL
		MODERN	TRADITIONAL	
1. DWELLING	NUMBER OF HOUSE, HUTS	104,014	782,481	886,495
2. SHAPE OF DWELLING	SQUARE/RECTANGULAR	97,232	530,697	627,929
	ROUND	6,662	249,803	256,465
	OTHER	120	1,981	2,101
3. WALL MATERIAL	STONE/BRICK	31,150	26,589	57,739
	MUD	61,100	509,690	570,790
	REED/BAMBOO	11,464	221,954	233,418
	OTHER	300	24,248	24,548
4. ROOF MATERIAL	ETERNIT SHEETING	40,393	21,547	61,940
	TILE	22,988	25,028	48,016
	STRAW/BANANA LEAF	39,973	730,984	770,957
	OTHER	660	4,922	5,582
5. TYPE OF FLOORING	CEMENT	15,065	3,601	18,666
	EARTH	87,929	764,715	852,644
	OTHER	1,020	14,165	15,185
6. TYPE OF LIGHTING	ELECTRICITY	420	-	420
	FIREWOOD	39,553	604,161	643,714

Source: Incomplete Raw Data of the Past Census Survey, 1979, table prepared by the Burundi Health Sector Assessment and Strategy, Dim. Assoc., Inc. New York-Washington, April 1981

TYPE OF DWELLING ACCORDING TO DIFFERENTCHARACTERISTICS OF THE RUGO

BURUNDI WITHOUT BUJUMBURA CITY

DESCRIPTION	CHARACTERISTICS	TYPE		
		MODERN	TRADITIONAL	TOTAL
1. NUMBER OF	RUGO	78,086	546,722	624,808
	DWELLINGS	400,513	2,476,185	2,876,698
	HOUSEHOLDS	100,714	775,338	876,052
	PEOPLE	495,345	3,288,196	3,783,541
2. SOURCE OF WATER	RUNNING WATER	16,806	49,636	66,442
	CAPPED SPRINGS	19,746	199,687	219,433
	WELLS	6,062	30,910	36,972
	SPRING/RIVER	35,472	266,483	301,955
3. LOCATION OF TOILET	INSIDE	9,843	10,984	20,827
	OUTSIDE	67,703	526,255	593,958
	NONE	540	9,483	10,023
4. STATUS OF OCCUPANT	OWNER	75,325	545,222	620,547
	RENTER	2,521	720	3,241
	OTHER	240	780	1,020

Source: Incomplete Raw Data of the Past Census Survey, 1976, prepared by Demiplex Associates Inc. New York-Washington, April 1981.

TYPE OF DWELLING ACCORDING TO DIFFERENT
CHARACTERISTICS OF HOUSING UNIT

BUJUMRURA CITY

(POPULATION EXTRAPOLATED)

DESCRIPTION	CHARACTERISTICS	TYPE		
		MODERN	TRADITIONAL	TOTAL
1. DWELLING	NUMBER HOUSES, HUTS	22,709	936	23,645
2. SHAPE OF DWELLING	SQUARE/RECTANGULAR	22,478	705	23,183
	ROUND	-	-	-
	OTHER	231	231	462
3. WALL MATERIAL	STONE/BRICK	19,141	418	19,559
	MUD	3,491	518	4,009
	REED/BAMBOO	11	-	11
	OTHER	66	-	66
4. ROOF MATERIAL	ETERNIT SHEETING	19,636	110	19,746
	TILE	55	-	55
	STRAW/BANANA LEAF	2,720	749	3,469
	OTHER	298	77	375
5. TYPE OF FLOORING	CEMENT	12,698	33	12,731
	EARTH	9,967	903	10,870
	OTHER	44	-	44
6. TYPE OF LIGHTING	ELECTRICITY	5,330	-	5,330
	OIL/GAS	17,313	936	18,249
	FIREWOOD	66	-	66

Source: Incomplete Raw Data of the Past Census Survey, 1970, table prepared by the Burundi Health Sector Assessment and Strategy, Dimplex Associates, Inc. New York-Washington, April, 1981.

TYPE OF DWELLING ACCORDING TO DIFFERENT
CHARACTERISTICS OF THE RUGO
IN BUJUMBURA CITY

DESCRIPTION	CHARACTERISTICS	TYPE		TOTAL
		MODERN	TRADITIONAL	
1. NUMBER OF	RUGO	12,632	297	12,929
	DWELINGS	66,352	2,026	68,379
	HOUSEHOLDS	25,759	1,189	26,948
	PEOPLE	142,850	5,077	147,927
2. SOURCE OF WATER	RUNNING WATER	3,623	-	3,623
	CAPPED SPRINGS	8,910	165	9,075
	WELLS	55	11	66
	SPRING/RIVER	44	121	165
3. LOCATION OF TOILET	INSIDE	3,436	11	3,447
	OUTSIDE	9,185	286	9,471
	NONE	11	-	11
4. STATUS OF OCCUPANT	OWNER	8,789	253	9,042
	RENTER	3,766	44	3,810
	OTHER	77	-	77

Source: Incomplete Raw Data of the Past Census Survey, 1979, table prepared by the Burundi Health Sector Assessment and Strategy. Dimplex

TYPE OF DWELLING ACCORDING TO DIFFERENTCHARACTERISTICS OF HOUSING UNITS

IN BURUNDI

(POPULATION EXTRAPOLATED)

DESCRIPTION	CHARACTERISTICS	TYPE		TOTAL
		MODERN	TRADITIONAL	
1. DWELLING	NUMBER HOUSES, HUTS	126,723	783,417	910,140
2. SHAPE OF DWELLING	SQUARE/RECTANGULAR	119,710	531,402	651,112
	ROUND	6,662	249,803	256,465
	OTHER	351	2,212	2,563
3. WALL MATERIAL	STONE/BRICK	50,291	27,007	77,298
	MUD	64,591	510,208	574,799
	REED/BAMBOO	11,475	221,954	233,429
	OTHER	366	24,248	24,614
4. ROOF MATERIAL	ETERNIT SHEETING	60,029	21,657	81,686
	TILE	23,043	25,028	48,071
	STRAW/BANANA LEAF	42,693	731,733	774,426
	OTHER	958	4,999	5,957
5. TYPE OF FLOORING	CEMENT	27,763	3,634	31,397
	EARTH	97,896	765,518	863,514
	OTHER	1,064	14,165	15,229
6. TYPE OF LIGHTING	ELECTRICITY	5,750	-	5,750
	OIL/GAS	81,354	179,256	260,610
	FIREWOOD	39,619	604,161	643,780

Source: Incomplete Raw Data of the Past Census Survey, 1979, table prepared by the Burundi Health Sector Assessment and Statistics

TYPE OF DWELLING ACCORDING TO DIFFERENTCHARACTERISTICS OF THE RUGO

IN BURUNDI

DESCRIPTION	CHARACTERISTICS	TYPE		
		MODERN	TRADITIONAL	TOTAL
1. NUMBER OF	RUGO	90,718	547,019	637,737
	DWELLINGS	466,866	2,478,211	2,945,077
	HOUSEHOLDS	126,473	776,527	903,000
	PEOPLE	638,195	3,293,273	3,931,468
2. SOURCE OF WATER	RUNNING WATER	20,429	49,636	70,065
	CAPPED SPRINGS	28,656	199,852	228,508
	WELLS	6,117	30,921	37,038
	SPRING/RIVER	35,516	266,610	302,126
3. LOCATION OF TOILET	INSIDE	13,279	10,995	24,274
	OUTSIDE	76,888	526,541	603,429
	NONE	551	9,483	10,034
4. STATUS OF OCCUPANT	OWNER	84,114	545,475	629,589
	RENTER	6,287	764	7,051
	OTHER	317	780	1,097

Source: Incomplete Raw Data of the Post-Census Survey, 1979, table prepared by Health Sector Assessment and Strategy, Simplex Associates, New York, April, 1981.

HOUSING STOCK IN SIX BUJUMBURA NEIGHBORHOODS

ANNEX IV.C

Le parc des maisons dans les 6 quartiers

	HOUSING STOCK IN SIX NEIGHBORHOODS							
	TOTAL NUMBER OF HOUSES	HOUSES DURABLE CONSTRUC- TION	HOUSES SEMI- DURABLE	HOUSES NON- DURABLE	SURFACE [m ² /			
TOTAL HOUSES					HOUSES DURABLE	HOUSES SEMI- DURABLE	HOUSES NON- DURABLE	
INAMA	2.600	0	600	2.000	94.000	0	24.000	70.000
IBITOKÉ	2.720	0	600	2.120	108.800	0	24.000	84.800
IMENGE	2.410	20	1.970	420	177.840	1.600	161.540	14.700
INYENZI	2.760	150	2.010	600	139.500	12.000	100.500	27.000
IVIZA	2.210	250	1.660	300	98.400	20.000	66.400	12.000
IKABIGA	1.530	80	1.300	150	64.400	6.400	52.000	6.000
TOTAUX :	14.230	500	8.140	5.590	682.940	40.000	428.440	214.500

Source: URBAPLAN, Projet de Développement Urbain du Burundi, August 1979.

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Best Available Document

NUMBER OF COLLINES COMPLETED UNDER RURAL REGROUPMENT PROGRAM, BY PROVINCE

Province	Commune	Location	Number of Lots and Houses Surveyed	Road Layout	Houses Constructed	Observations
BUBANZA	MUNDA	Murungesa			125	Court-ligné
		Mugerero (FREDI)			165	Long-ligné
	MURIGATI	Mitakataka			190	Long-ligné
BUJUMBURA	KABEZI	Gakungwe	84	700 m		Le long des pistes
		Bamba S/o Nyumugari	190	938 m	20	Court-ligné
	KANYOCHA	Buroroze - Mutanga	116	6.395 m		Court-ligné
	MUGONGO - KANGA	Kwira - Kico	82	2.867 m		Le long des pistes
	MHUTA	Nagara	118		50	Court-ligné
	MUTAMBU	Kivungwe	31	1.200 m		Le long des pistes
		Ganyzi	23	690 m		Le long des pistes
	MUTI EUZI	Gatumba	1.378		134	Court-ligné
		Maramvya	86			Court-ligné
		Mubone	262		40 (2)	Court-ligné
	Kiyango	68		17	Court-ligné	
BURURI	BURURI	- Nyugero	91	1.250 m		Le long des pistes
		- Maramvya	18			Le long des pistes
	MATANA	- Matana	37			Court-ligné
		- Kiroka		12.000 m	76	Long-ligné
		- Bitazi		15.000 m	135 (1)	Court-ligné

Source: Division of Rural Habitat, Ministère de développement rural, Bujumbura, Burundi, 1983

- (1) Une partie a été financée par le Budget National, une autre partie par la Belgique.
- (2) La moitié des maisons (20) a été financée par un O.N.G.

.../...

Province	Commune	Localité	Nombre de parcelles loties & maisons arpentées	Pistes tracées	Maisons construites		
BURUNDI	MATAHA (1)	- Mugano		12.000 m	32	Le long des pistes	
		- Mahango		10.000 m	27	Le long des pistes	
		- Ruhanga			94	" " "	
		- Kavuzza			47	Long-lignes	
		- Gasenyi			28	Le long des pistes	
		- Nyarusukuru- churu			6	Le long des pistes	
		- Nigirere				18	Le long des pistes
		- Nkero				25	" " "
		- Ruzira				23	" " "
		MUGALBA	Vyuya	32	2.000 m	7	" " "
	Kigina - Mugomera		165		10	" " "	
	Gitaramuka		5			" " "	
	Gataka		14			" " "	
	Coma		17		15	" " "	
	Mugendo-Midengo		18			" " "	
	Mugendo-Ruko		29		6	" " "	
	Nyakigano		29			" " "	
	Muyange - Kavuma		6			" " "	
	Fuhinga		10	42.000 m		" " "	
	Muramba	17			" " "		
	MURONGE	Lirimba	187			Court-lignes	
		Cabera	250		238 (2)	Court-lignes	
		Gatete	474		413	Court-lignes	
Karonda		300		153 (2)	Court-lignes		
Kigwena		300		200 (3)	Court-lignes		

.../...

(1) financé par l'aide extérieure de la Belgique
 (2) financé par l'aide extérieure du Luxembourg
 (3) financé par l'aide extérieure de l'O.N.G.

Province	Commune	Localité	Nombre de parcelles loties & maisons arpentées	Pistes tracées	Maisons construites	
BURURI	RUTOVU (1)	Matangaro	171		60	Le long des pistes
		Muzenga	92	200 m		Le long des pistes
		Muhweza	24	880	38	Le long des pistes
		Musagara	58	400		" " " "
		Kiririsi			24	" " " "
		Kivubo	82	1.500 m		" " " "
	Condi	44	275 m		" " " "	
	SONGA (1)	Ndago-Janda			57	" " " "
CANKUZO	KIGAMBA	M ₁ remera	153			Court-ligné
CIBITOKES	RUGOMBO (1)	Mparambo	722		561	Paysannat
		Buganda	275	1.725 m	70	Le long des pistes
GITEGA	BUKIRASAZI	Kibuye	16			Le long des pistes
		Mugano	38			" " " "
		Musebonyi	27			" " " "
		Muhinda	29			" " " "
		Kavumu	35			" " " "
		Gasongati	21			" " " "
	ITABA	Kugitega	2	2.000 m	22	" " " "
		Kirambi	80		10	" " " "
		Mutanga	33		23	" " " "
		Karemba	18		8	" " " "
		Nkima	16		8	" " " "
		Ruhanza	84			Court-ligné
		Kibogova	39		21	Le long des pistes
	Bihamagara	25		20	Le long des pistes	
	GITEGA	Mungwa	135		112	Court-ligné
Gacaca		12	± 2.000 m		Le long des pistes	
Nyarunzi-Kirara			± 2.000 m	41	Le long des pistes	

(1) financé par l'aide extérieure de la Belgique

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Best Available Document

Province	Commune	Localité	Nombre de parcelles loties & maisons arpentées	Fistes tracées	Maisons construites	
GITEGA	GITEGA	Bukoba	30		79	Le long des pistes
		Bwoga	61			Long-ligné
		Rutoko		720 m	61	Le long des pistes
		Nyanugari			32	Le long des pistes
	MAKEBUC	Makebuko	69		95	Long-ligné
		Buyegano	83		45	Long-ligné
		Nworo-Navuvu	15	3.000 m	34	Long-ligné
		Ruzagara	15		15	Long-ligné
		Rwesero	14		63	Long-ligné
		Rwanda	5		8	Long-ligné
		Nbita	2		60	Le long des pistes
		Kiyenge		800 m	29	Le long des pistes
	NYABIRABA	Nyangwa (Mirango)	46		36	Le long des pistes
		Bukoro	196	3.200 m		Le long des pistes
		Yanza	214	1.120 m		Le long des pistes
	BUGENDANA	S/o Mutovi	213	3.840 m		Court-ligné
		Mirama	100		80	Le long des pistes
		Mugitaga	31		30	Le long des pistes
		Kigabiro	68			Le long des pistes
		Mutanya	50			Le long des pistes
		Mugitanga	52			Le long des pistes
		Gitongo	9			Le long des pistes
Rugozá		19			Le long des pistes	
Gitwa		12			Le long des pistes	
Gutare		2			Le long des pistes	
Kiberi		154			Le long des pistes	
GIRITA	Nirenera					
	Gisuru			196	Le long des pistes	
MUTAHU	Mutaho	148	.000 m		Court-ligné	
KARUZI	NYABIRERE	Nyabikero		2.000	Le long des pistes	

(1) 37 maisons ont été construites avec l'aide de l'Entraine et Fraternité.-

Province	Commune	Localité	Nombre de parcelles: loties & maisons arpentées	Pistes tracées	Maisons construites		
NYANZA	RANGO	Nyarusanga	20			Le long des pistes	
		Kerehe	12			Le long des pistes	
		Kigarika	12			Le long des pistes	
		Butanyerera	18			Le long des pistes	
KAKAMBA	KIBAGO	Kiyanga	300	60.000 m		Court-ligné	
		KAKAMBA	Nyanga	170	1.250 m		Le long des pistes
			Gasanga-Murango	197		44	Le long des pistes
			Gasaka	174	800 m	48	Le long des pistes
	NYANZA-LAC	Mugerana-Dukeye	364		156	Le long des pistes	
KIRUNDO	BWAHA-	Vumasi	948		59	Le long des pistes	
	RANGWE	Bisoni			127	Court-ligné	
MURAMBYA	KIGANDA	Kashingwa		1.000 m			
		Mutegeza	85	8.000 m	16	Le long des pistes	
		Kivoga	60	4.585 m	6	Le long des pistes	
		Nyarurambi	22	500 m	20	Le long des pistes	
		Songa		2.000 m		Le long des pistes	
		Kiganda		8.000 m	395	Le long des pistes	
		Cumba	52	3.801 m	18	Le long des pistes	
		Bupfunda		7.500 m		Le long des pistes	
		Nyarumazi		7.000 m	26	Le long des pistes	
		Mpira	102	2.334 m	50	Le long des pistes	
		Munanira	20	3.767 m	73	Le long des pistes	
		Nkonyovu			51	Le long des pistes	
		Murambi			12	Le long des pistes	
		Nyarukere	72		21	Le long des pistes	
		Kaniga-Eusama		2.180 m		Le long des pistes	
		Kigabiro-Bihororo		974 m		Le long des pistes	
		Munyinya		1.500 m		Le long des pistes	
		Kigezi	18			Le long des pistes	
		Kanegwa		2.000 m			
Martyazo	12						
Nyagisosi	10						

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Province	Commune	Localité	Nombre de parcelles loties & Maisons arpentées	Pistes tracées	Maisons construites	
BURUNDI	BURUNDI	Kibogora	37			Le long des pistes
		Lusimba	17			Le long des pistes
		Kayogoro-Birara	102		66	Long-ligné
	BUKEYE	Guhaga	20			Le long des pistes
		Hiruba-Kiganda	5			Le long des pistes
	NDAVA	Nyamurenge	15	2.000m		
	KAKAMBA	Périphérie Gisozi			34	Le long des pistes
	MBUYE	Mubuga	36			Le long des pistes
		Madabwera	37	500m	7	Le long des pistes
		Gahera	13	500m	10	Le long des pistes
		Mabanza-Kabamba	7	500m	20	Le long des pistes
		Rutoke		2.000m	2	Le long des pistes
		Mkingu	37	1.000m	4	Le long des pistes
		S/c Mumpora	38			Le long des pistes
		Mutwe	21	2.000m		Le long des pistes
		Muyaga	209	1.017m		Le long des pistes
		S/o . Nigezi				Le long des pistes
		. Buhindana	138	3.000m		Le long des pistes
		Muyaga-Mumpara	34	1.560m	1	Le long des pistes
		S/o Nyakero	24			Le long des pistes
		Mukinye	53			Le long des pistes
		Mbuye	38	1.560m		Le long des pistes
		Gatabo	5		5	Le long des pistes
		Kivoga	713		83	Le long des pistes
	Mamas	144			Le long des pistes	
	Gasenyi	32			Le long des pistes	
	BISORO	Nyabisiga	25		59	Le long des pistes
		Kabaza	37		2	Le long des pistes
		Musumba-Munini	75		412	Le long des pistes
		Kavumu-Gitwa			91	Le long des pistes

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Province	Commune	Localité	Nombre de parcelles		Pistes tracées	Maisons construites	
			loties & maisons arpentées				
MUYINGA	MUYINGA	Muyinga				147	Le long des pistes
		Kibongera	300		2.000 m	35	Le long des pistes
		Karungwe	120		2.300 m		Le long des pistes
	BUHINYUZA	Kiremba				21	Le long des pistes
	BUTIHINDA	Mugano	500			165	Court-ligné
	GASORWE		Kizi-Kiremba				75
Ngogoza						149	Le long des pistes
NGOZI	TANGARA	Karanyva	174			244	Le long des pistes
	NGOZI	Butumyerera	18				Le long des pistes
	MWUMBA					300	Le long des pistes
MUYIGI	MUYIGI	-				200	Le long des pistes
		Ngerama	206				Court-ligné
	EWERU	Kayongozi	51			200	Court-ligné
	GISURU	-				200	Le long des pistes
TOTAL GENERAL			14.328		265.822	9.896	

(1) Une partie est financée par le Budget National, une autre partie par la Belgique.

(2) Les autres communes ont été financées par l'Association du Limbourg.-

1/1

ANNEX IV. I

**PERCENTAGE* OF HOUSEHOLDS IN LOW INCOME NEIGHBORHOODS
WITH ACCESS TO PUBLIC UTILITIES**

	Buyenzi	Bwiza	Nyakabiga	Ngagara	Cibitoke	Kamenge	Kinama	Musaga
Households with electricity	11%	9%	-	36%	-	-	-	-
Households with running water	7%	3%	-	78%	-	1%	1%	7%
Households using public fountains	92%	96%	97%	2%	100%	98%	96%	70%
Households which get water from stream or lake	2%	-	3%	-	-	1%	3%	21%
Households supplied by neighbors	-	-	-	18%	-	-	-	-
Households with indoor latrines	4%	3%	3%	80%	-	1%	1%	-
Households with latrine in courtyard	75%	76%	66%	12%	81%	74%	83%	53%
Households using latrines outside courtyard	16%	13% 1%	23%	5%	12%	22%	10%	47%
Households without latrines	6%	8%	9%	3%	7%	3%	7%	-
Households with kitchens	36%	32%	43%	78%	23%	33%	34%	28%

Source: Dayer, Enquête Socio-Economique de Bujumbura, 1978. Université du Burundi, as reported in Bouda, "L'Etude de l'Habitat à Bujumbura."

* All figures represent a percentage of the total number of households interviewed in each neighborhood.

ANNEX IV.J

LOCATION OF LATRINES AND SANITARY FACILITIES IN THE
LOW INCOME NEIGHBORHOODS OF BUJUMBURA

Zone	Indoor	In Courtyard	Outside Courtyard	No Latrine	Total
BUYENZI	3,9 %	74,8 %	15,7 %	5,6 %	100,0 %
BWIZA	2,7	76,1	13,0	8,2	100,0
NYAKABIGA	2,9	65,7	22,9	8,5	100,0
NCAGARA	80,0	11,7	5,0	3,3	100,0
CIBITOKÉ	-	81,0	12,4	6,6	100,0
KAMENGE	1,4	73,6	22,1	2,9	100,0
KINAMA	0,8	82,5	10,0	6,7	100,0
MUSAGA I	-	53,5	46,5	-	100,0

Source : Université du Burundi (enquête soc. écon. 1978)

**INTEREST AND COMMISSION RATES ON LOANS FROM
COMMERCIAL BANKS**

Taux de Commissions et d'Intérêts Débiteurs Maxima des Banques Commerciales (en p.c. par an)						TABLEAU 64
	Crédits non mobilisables (Taux effectif, commission comprise) (1)		Crédits mobilisables (Taux effectif, commission comprise) (1)		Taux de mobilisation	
	avant le 01.10.81	après le 01.10.81	avant le 01.10.81	après le 01.10.81	avant le 01.10.81	après le 01.10.81
	1. CREDITS A COURT TERME					
- Crédits d'importation						
- Biens de production, d'équipement et biens de consommation de base	10,8	11	6,9	7	5,5	5,5
- Autres produits	11,4	14	8,05	10	6,5	8,5
- Dépassements sur limites et déclassements	12	15	-	-	-	-
- Crédits à l'exportation						
- Collette, usinage, stockage	-	-	5,75	6	4,5	4,75
- Expédition	-	-	5,75	6	4,5	4,75
- Escompte de lettres de change et crédits de mobilisation de créances commerciales	10,8	12	7,475	8,5	6	7
- Avances sur marchés publics	10,8	12	7,475	8,5	6	7
- Crédits de trésorerie						
- Crédits de campagne à l'agriculture	10,8	11	6,325	6,5	4,5	4,5
- Crédits d'équipement 2 ans maximum	10,8	11	8,05	8,5	6	6,5
- Ventes à tempérament et prêts personnels	10,8	15	-	-	-	-
- Dépassements sur limites individuelles et déclassements, accords de mobilisation refusés	12	15	-	-	-	-
- Autres crédits de trésorerie	10,8	15	8,05	10	6	8
- Stockage ONC	-	-	5,75	droit commun	5	droit commun
2. CREDITS A MOYEN TERME						
- Equipement agricole						
- Entreprises nationales	10,2	11	5,75	7	4,5	5,75
- Autres entreprises	10,8	11	6,325	7	5	5,75
- Autres crédits à l'équipement						
- Entreprises nationales	10,2	12	6,325	9	4,5	7
- Autres entreprises	10,8	12	6,9	9	5	7
- Habitat						
- Construction, logement familial (2)	9,6	10	6,9	8,5	5	6,5
- Construction, autres logements	9,6	12	6,9	11	5	9
- Acquisition, logement familial	12	10	-	-	-	-
- Acquisition, autres logements	12	13	-	-	-	-
3. CREDITS A LONG TERME						
- Equipement						
- Habitat, logement familial (2)						
- Habitat, autres logements						
- Crédits agricoles						
	A fixer cas par cas par la BRB.					

(1) Les commissions et autres frais sont limités à 15 p.c. l'an du taux d'intérêts appliqué sur les crédits mobilisables et à 20 p.c. l'an sur les crédits non mobilisables. Ces commissions sont à percevoir sur les utilisations réelles et/ou sur les dépassements moyens constatés sur une période déterminée.

(2) Premier financement bancaire.

Source: Banque de la République du Burundi, Rapport Annuel, 1981

INTEREST AND COMMISSION RATES ON LOANS FROM THE
BANQUE NATIONALE POUR LE DEVELOPPEMENT ECONOMIQUE DU BURUNDI
(National Bank for Economic Development of Burundi)

TAUX DE COMMISSIONS ET D'INTERETS DEBITEURS MAXIMA DE LA BNDI (en p.c. par an)						TABLEAU 65
	Crédits non mobilisables (taux effectif, commission comprise) (1)		Crédits mobilisables		Taux de mobilisation	
	avant le 01.10.81	après le 01.10.81	Avant le 01.10.81	après le 01.10.81	avant le 01.10.81	après le 01.10.81
	conditions libres (2)		taux fixés lors de l'examen de chaque demande d'accord de mobilisation.			
1. CREDITS A COURT TERME						
2. CREDITS A MOYEN TERME						
- Equipement agricole						
- Entreprises nationales			6	7	4,5	4,5
- Autres entreprises			6	7	4,5	4,5
- Autres crédits à l'équipement						
- Entreprises nationales			6	9	4,5	6,5
- Autres entreprises			6,5	9	5	6,5
- Habitat						
- Construction, logement familial (3)			6	8,5	5	6
- Construction, autres logements			6	11	5	8,5
3. CREDITS A LONG TERME						
- Equipement			8,5	11	6	7,5
- Habitat, logement familial (3)			8,5	11	6	7,5
- Habitat, autres logements			8,5	13	6	9,5
- Crédits agricoles			7	9,5	4,5	6

(1) Les commissions et autres frais sont limités à 15 p.c. l'an du taux d'intérêts appliqué sur les crédits mobilisables et à 20 p.c. l'an sur les crédits non mobilisables. Ces commissions sont à percevoir sur les utilisations réelles et/ou sur les dépassements moyens constatés sur une période déterminée.

(2) Sans excéder 15 p.c. l'an.

(3) Premier financement bancaire.

Source: Banque de la République du Burundi, Rapport Annuel, 1981

INTEREST RATES PAID ON DEPOSITS BY COMMERCIAL
BANKS AND OTHER FINANCIAL INSTITUTIONS

<u>TABLEAU 66</u>		
TAUX D'INTERETS CREDITEURS MINIMA DES BANQUES ET DES AUTRES INSTITUTIONS FINANCIERES (en p.c. par an)		
	Taux avant le 01.10.81	Taux après le 01.10.81
DEPOTS A VUE	<i>Pas de rémunération</i>	
COMPTES SUR CARNETS (exclusivement ouverts aux particuliers)		
- Dépôts jusqu'à 200.000 F	5	7
- Au-delà de 200.000 F	4	6
COMPTES A TERME ET BONS DE CAISSE NOMINATIFS OU AU PORTEUR		
- De 1 à 3 mois	2,5	4,5
- Plus de 3 mois jusqu'à 6 mois	3	3
- Plus de 6 mois jusqu'à 12 mois	3,75	6
- Plus de 12 mois jusqu'à 18 mois	4,5	7
- Plus de 18 mois jusqu'à 24 mois	5,25	8,5
- Plus de 24 mois	Rémunération libre	
COMPTES A PREAVIS		
- 1 mois	2,75	5
- 3 mois	3,25	6
- 6 mois	4	7
- 12 mois	4,75	8
- Plus de 12 mois	Rémunération libre	

Source: Banque de la République du Burundi, Rapport Annuel, 1981

FOREIGN LOAN AGREEMENTS, BY SOURCE, 1975-1985

Les accords d'emprunts, 1975 à 1985

(en F.Bu)

Tableau 1

	: Crédits privés :		: FIDA : BAD :							: Pays : Pays :		: TOTAL :	: Total :
	: Crédits fournisseurs :	: et banques privées :	: IDA :	: FED :	: FAD :	: BADEA :	: OPEP :	: OUEST :	: CHINE :	: SFI :	: Emprunt :		
1975 :	128	: 410	: -	: 1.167	: -	: -	: 128	: -	: -	: 1.705	: 1.833		
1976 :	--	: 675	: -	: 486	: -	: 194	: -	: -	: -	: 1.355	: 1.355		
1977 :	284	: 1.206	: -	: 270	: 360	: 702	: 360	: -	: -	: 2.898	: 3.182		
1978 :	160	: 1.260	: -	: 96	: 550	: -	: 150	: -	: -	: 2.056	: 2.216		
1979 :	93	: 549	: 420	: -	: -	: 405	: 60	: 3.300	: -	: 4.734	: 4.827		
1980 :	-	: 3.393	: 1.330	: 2.097	: -	: 828	: 1.490	: -	: -	: 9.138	: 9.138		
1981 :	816	: 5.697	: 1.036	: 3.943	: 900	: 1.860	: 591	: -	: -	: 14.027	: 14.843		
1982 :	466	: 468	: 130	: 2.280	: -	: 2.385	: 4.345	: -	: -	: 9.608	: 10.074		
1983 :	1.910	: 7.000	: 1.100	: 2.200	: 900	: 2.400	: 1.900	: 4.000	: 20.500	: 22.700			
1984 :	1.500	: 4.500	: 1.100	: 3.000	: 1.000	: 4.000	: 1.000	: -	: -	: 14.600	: 16.100		
1985 :	1.500	: 5.000	: 1.500	: 3.000	: 1.000	: 5.000	: 2.000	: -	: -	: 17.500	: 19.000		

NB. : 1975 - 1982 : réalisations; 1983 - 1985 : prévisions.
 NOTE: 1975 - 1982 : actual; 1983 - 1985 : projected

Source: Ministère du Plan

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Number of Production Units in Construction Sector and Number of Jobs

BRANCHE 5. Bâtiment et travaux publics

Métiers		BUBANZA	BUJUMBURA	BURUNDI	GITEGA	MURAMVYA	MUYINGA	NGOZI	RUYIGI	S/total BUJA		TOTAL
										rural	Urbain	
● Masons	U.P.	850	830	470	2.150	1.250	1.170	1.960	1.150	9.830	180	10.010
	E.	1.870	1.830	1.030	4.730	2.750	2.570	4.310	2.530	21.620	610	22.230
● Brickmakers	U.P.	1.160	1.320	3.430	2.000	2.090	1.940	3.030	710	15.680	30	15.710
	E.	6.070	6.900	17.940	10.460	10.930	10.140	15.840	3.710	81.990	220	82.210
● Carpenters	U.P.	340	380	350	1.040	650	1.040	340	350	4.490	-	4.490
	E.	750	830	770	2.280	1.420	2.280	750	770	9.850	-	9.850
● Painters	U.P.	190	180	300	650	210	250	430	140	2.350	-	2.350
	E.	420	390	660	1.420	460	550	940	310	5.150	-	5.150
● Other Construction	U.P.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	110	110
	E.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	270	270
S/total	U.P.	2.540	2.710	4.550	5.840	4.200	4.400	5.760	2.350	32.350	320	32.670
	E.	9.110	9.950	20.400	18.890	15.560	15.540	21.840	7.320	118.610	1.100	119.710

Source: unknown

U.P. - Unité de Production (Production Unit)

E. - Emploi (jobs)

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Demand For Skilled Craftsmen By Trade

BESOINS (Demand)	PERIODE 1981-1985	PERIODE 1986-1990	PERIODE 1991-2000	RECAPITULATIF 1981-2000
METIER (Trade)				
ARTISAN MACON (Mason)	2 516	2 793	6 121	11 430
ARTISAN MENUISIER (Carpenter)	3 579	3 973	8 706	16 258
ARTISAN FORGERON (Blacksmith)	786	875	1 923	3 584
ARTISAN POTIER (Potter)	3 562	3 950	8 642	16 154
ARTISAN BRIQUETIER (Brickmaker)	3 942	4 372	9 565	17 879
ARTISAN MECANICIEN (Mechanic)	100	113	342	555
ARTISAN ELECTRICIEN (Electrician)	20	22	75	117
ARTISAN VANNIER (Basket-maker)	4 407	4 890	10 698	19 995
DIVERS (Miscellaneous)	8 573	10 389	22 636	41 598
TOTAL	27 485	31 377	68 708	127 570

Source: Castagnos, J.C. Détermination des Besoins d'Emploi comme Element de la Planification de l'Education du Burundi, October 1982.

