Modelling Expansion and Densification in Peri-urban Areas: The Case of Goba Ward, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania

Neema Abiael Munuo^{*} & Juma Mohamed Matindana^{*}

Abstract

Modelling expansion and densification of peri-urban areas may potentially help local authorities and planners to develop intervention strategies for addressing urban planning challenges. This paper employs satellite images information extracted between 2005 and 2020 to predict future expansion and densification trends in Goba ward (Dar es Salaam). 231 grids were established to allow the extraction of data. Each grid was examined from 2005 to 2020 for four periods of five-year intervals. Multiple regression modelling was applied to develop two models (expansion and densification) targeting built-up area and the number of buildings. The results suggest that an increase in the number of buildings will lead to the expansion of a built-up area. High building density in Goba ward has been observed in some areas where economic activities take place (around main centres and main roads). Predictions for expansion and densification show that areas in main centres like Kinzudi, Tegeta A and Goba; and areas around main roads will experience more expansion and densification by 2035. These results inform town planers, decision- and policy-makers to understand the past, current and future situations of expansion and densification; and take proper decisions for enhancing sustainable urban development.

Keywords: expansion, densification, peri-urban areas, multiple regression modelling

1. Introduction

Achieving sustainable development in cities remains one of the most important goals for many developing countries. Cities are becoming denser and overcrowded due rapid population growth that is accelerated by rural-urban migration and increasing fertility rate (Cobbinah et al., 2015). This situation triggers the growth of peri-urban areas as people are forced to reside in peri-urban areas in the search for bigger and vacant lands for settlement development (Kombe, 2005).

Nuhu, (2018) noted that peri-urban areas expand and even densify when urban residents search for prime and low-cost land for residential and commercial purposes due to existing pressure of land in urban centres. Many cities have weak capacities and lack resources—both financial and human—which leads

© Department of Geography, UDSM, 2022

^{*} Institute of Human Settlement Studies, Ardhi University, Tanzania: <u>Neema.munuo08@gmail.com</u>

^{*} College of Engineering (CoET), University of Dar es Salaam, Tanzania

to unguided peri-urban expansion and densification (Mkalawa & Haixiao, 2014; Hill et al., 2010). Uncontrolled trends of expansion and densification pose a challenge to the sustainability of peri-urban areas, in that, they exert pressure on social, economic and environment aspects (Martellozzo et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2019). This situation threatens the attainment of sustainable development goals, particularly Goal 11 that emphasizes safe, inclusive, resilient and sustainable settlements (Smith, 2020).

Moreover, there is an increasing concern that peri-urban expansion brings more challenges, particularly on the environment, such as the destruction and decline of ecosystem services, loss of green cover and open spaces, and increased pressure on natural resources such as water and land (Nduwayezu et al., 2021; Basse, 2014). Shao (2021) added that, peri-urban expansion has led to negative impacts such as diminished agricultural productivity due to loss of land, lack of hygiene and sanitation infrastructure, industrial effluence, air pollution, greenhouse emission, noise pollution, inadequate provision of basic services and infrastructure, and accumulated solid waste. On the other hand, peri-urban expansion has made positive contribution in changing the economic status and employment structure (Puplampu & Boafo, 2021). Mushi (2008) pointed out that population growth in cities contributes much to the growth of peri-urban areas as it influences more building construction that led to an increase in the number of buildings, hence built-up areas and densification.

Planned urban densification is linked with sustainability, resilience, and economic growth of urban areas, as it reduce costs of service delivery and facilitate infrastructure provision (Roch et al., 2020; Amer, 2017; Dunnning, 2020). However, unguided densification is associated with the eruption of informal settlements with poor social services and amenities; and are responsible for generating environmental pollution, poor sanitation, housing congestion and high rates of social crimes (Nkwanyana, 2015).

A number of studies have examined urban expansion and densification in different perspectives using different methods and techniques. For instance, some have focused on urban expansion and form (Chai & Li, 2018; Seto et al., 2011; Zeng et al., 2017; Liu & Wang 2016; Xu et al. 2019); urban sprawl and its impact on sustainable urban development (Shao et al., 2020); urban expansion and its implication on cultivation (d'Amrou et al., 2016); dynamics of peri-urban densification (Wang et al., 2019); urban expansion and application of remote sensing imagery (Ramachandra et al., 2012), etc. The specified studies employed different methods and techniques to quantify peri-urban expansion and densification such as spatial modelling in geographical information system (GIS) and cellular automata (Basse et al., 2014; Cosentino et al., 2018); auto logistic regression simulation and GIS (Hill & Lindner (2010; Tang, 2020); spatial logistic regression Martellozzo (2018), and grid-cell-based analysis (Bagan &

Yamagata, 2012; Hou et al., 2016). On their part, Zhang and Su (2016) employed multivariable linear logistic regression to look at the determinants of urban expansion and their importance, while Cheng and Masser (2003) used logistic regression for the same purpose. Moreover, some studies have concentrated on land use/land cover change (Cobbinah & Aboagye, 2017; Coulter et al., 2016; Kleemann et al., 2017); and urban land use change and geographical regression modelling (Sharifu et al., 2010). Of the above, only a few studies—such as (Lupala, 2015) on the determinants of peri-urban expansion—have touched on peri-urban expansion and densification.

In Tanzania, Dar es Salaam is the fastest growing city beleaguered with insufficient planned and serviced land (Gwaleba, 2018; Kombe, 2005). Due to this situation, most people tend to buy and build in cheap land in peri-urban areas, hence leading to unguided city growth, expansion and densification (Gwaleba, 2018; Kombe, 2005). Peri-urban areas in Dar es Salaam city includes areas like Mbezi, Kinyerezi, Bunju, Goba, Chanika, Mbagala Rangi Tatu, Nyantira, Kigamboni and Pugu, which are currently experiencing intense expansion and densification due to a large influx of population from the city centre.

This paper aims at developing a multiple regression models for quantification of past peri-urban expansion and densification based on changes observed in a period that extends from 2005 to 2020. It also predicts future expansion and densification for the next 15 years—up to 2035—of the Goba ward in Dar es Salaam city.

2. Peri-urban Areas, Expansion, Densification: A Theoretical Underpinning

2.1 Peri-urban Areas

Peri-urban areas are defined in different ways. Many scholars provide their own definitions depending on the locality, culture, discipline and purpose of their studies (Nuhu, 2019). Tanzania's Land Act No. 4 of 1999 defines periurban land as one that is within a radius of 10km outside the boundaries of an urban or semi-built-up area, or within any large radius that may be prescribed in respect of any particular urban area (URT, 1999). Adamu (2014) defines periurban areas as those areas that contain activities, agriculture, and settlements. According to Nuhu (2018), peri-urban areas are areas that are found outside the boundary of a city, and outside the legal jurisdiction of any urban local body. Furthermore, Marshall et al. (2009) define a peri-urban area as a place, concept or process. As a place, it refers to an area located at an urban fringe, and geographically at the edge of a city; as a process it refers to the movement of goods from rural to urban areas; and as a concept it refers to the boundary between rural and urban activities and institutions. Abebe (2013) noted that peri-urban areas are characterized by vacant and farming land with lower population densities, less dynamic processes of land use change, and low rate of daily commuting to urban areas. For Mushi (2008), peri-urban areas are

those that are attached to inner urban areas with buildings that are positioned within 200m; and having local shops and services, parks and gardens. Marshall (2009) noted that peri-urban areas are not sustainable as they face problems that exert intense pressures on resources that result to slum formation, the lack of adequate services such as water and sanitation, and poor planning and degradation of farmland due to urban expansion and densification.

2.2 Expansion

Tang (2020) defines expansion as the physical pattern of low density growth of an urban area. This definition is close to that of Zeng et al. (2017) who define urban expansion as a pattern that is not coordinated at a periphery of a city, and is characterized by uncoordinated growth, low density, and poor connectivity. Puplampu and Boafo (2021) define urban expansion as the process of developing a built-up environment in a limited space. Urban expansion takes place in different forms. Zhang and Su (2016) explain that new expansion occurs with the same densities (persons per square kilometre), increased densities, or with reduced densities. Liu et al. (2016) indicate that urban expansion takes place along corridors, which results into a star-shaped, elongated or circular city, particularly in areas closest to city centres. Linear expansion is another type of expansion that follows existing corridors of circulation like highways, railways or transit lines due to easy accessibility offered by these infrastructures (Liu et al., 2016). These peri-urban forms are embraced by the existence of environmental, social, economic and geographical forces that attract people to move in peri-urban areas with those characteristics.

Environmental driving forces for peri-urban expansion include good climate, flat terrain, and the existence of drillable water aquifers (Wu & Zhang, 2012). Economically, peri-urban areas expand depending on household income that enables people to acquire big land for housing, gardening and carrying out other functions. According to Abebe (2013), proximity driving forces—e.g., easy accessibility to services such major roads, economic centres, social services such as health and education, institutions, open spaces, and reliable markets—also influence the expansion into peri-urban areas.

2.3 Densification

Densification refers to the number of buildings per the unit area occupied (Newman, 2014). Erick (2017) describes densification as the proportion of urban land to buildable areas. Delmelle (2014) defines it as infill of open areas left within settlements, or extension of building structures. Marique (2014) perceives densification as an increase of two different forms: population, and built-up area within a defined area. In this paper, densification is perceived as the increase of buildings per unit area.

Nkwanyana et al. (2015) discuss socio-economic factors that influence the densification of peri-urban areas. These include land price, zoning, accessibility

to local amenities, and population density. In this paper, the driving force for densification are the number of: buildings per unit area, residential buildings per area, business activities per unit area, road kilometres per unit area, buildings around centres, and of institutions per unit area. These driving forces can be quantified to determine their significance, and predicted using multiple regression modelling. The multiple regression modelling technique is a quantitative tool as it provides mathematical evidences and proper prediction for future decision-making (Thomassen, 2010). This predictive model examines which driving forces are significant for the densification and expansion of periurban areas (Hou et al., 2016). Also, the technique assists engineers, planners, and policy-makers with the best solutions in the sustainable development of peri-urban areas. According to Hassan and Lee, (2015) sustainable development is referred to as a dynamic process in social, economic and ecological aspects aimed to meet the needs of current and future generations.

3. Context and Methods

3.1 Study Area

This paper employs data from a study was carried out in Goba ward, Kinondoni, in Dare es Salaam city; 20km from the city centre as shown in Figure 1.



Figure 1: Goba Ward in Kinondoni District in Dar es Salaam Source: Google Earth (2016)

The ward has a population of 42,667 people, and an area of about 4716.5ha, with a density of 903h/km² (URT, 2013). It comprises of 8 sub-wards: Kinzudi, Tegeta A, Kibururu, Matosa, Goba, Muungano, Kulangwa and Goba Kunguru. The ward is located at Latitude 6.732738^o and Longitude 39.158878^o; and is bordered by Makongo, Mbezi, Saranga, Mbezi-Juu and Wazo wards.

3.2 Data Types and Sources

Spatial variables for model development were selected based on established criteria. The criteria for variable selection were as follows:

- a) Variables that have spatial data and can be easily observed in satellite image and toposheets, hence their information can be detected and extracted from the satellite image and toposheets;
- b) Variables that show a trend of change from year to year, hence can be used in predictions for future years; and
- c) Availability of data from various sources.

A total of six variables were selected, including the number of: buildings, business activities, institutions, road kilometres, buildings from the main centre within 1km, and of buildings from main roads within 250m. Selected spatial variables were observed to be more influential factors in expansion and densification as they were capable of indicating a trend of change from time to time, and provide adequate information in the study. Spatial data were collected from a satellite map, and were verified through field observation 2020.

3.3 Methods

3.3.1 Data Collection

Data collection methods included observation, document review, and extraction of spatial data from satellite images of 2005, 2010, 2015, and 2020 using the Arc Map 10.1 software. Satellite images were obtained from the Department of Survey and Mapping of the Ministry of Lands, Housing and Human Settlement Development, in Tanzania, as standard products. A total of 231 grids were established throughout the entire Goba ward, and each contained 500×500 m distances within which data were collected. Data were extracted from each grid and recorded in an attribute table to determine possible changes in a period extending from 2005 to 2020. A total of 231 checklists were prepared and filled-in with information extracted from each grid on specified maps (for each year and for every model). Expansion data were obtained through the measurement of a polygon that covered the whole built-up area for each cell; while densification was measured through polygons that covered the concentrations of buildings in each locality for the specified period of time. Observation was employed as a primary method for verifying densification and expansion data from the satellite images.

3.3.2 Expansion and Densification Modelling

Multiple regression analysis (Hou et al., 2016) was employed to develop expansion and densification models. The dependent variables for the models were built-up area, and number of buildings; and the dependent variable for densification was building density (the number of buildings per unit area). The independent variables for the models are shown in Table 1.

Type of variable	Variables			Abbrev.	Description	
Dependent	v	D	:		D.: 14	
	built-up area			DUA	Built-up area	
	Y – Expansion in terms of			NB	Number of buildings	
	number of buildings V – Densification in terms			BD	Building density (Number of	
	of number of buildings			DD	building per area)	
Independent	Expansion in terms of built-up area					
	X_1	NB	Number of build	dings		
	X ₂ NBA Number of business activities				ies	
	X_3	X ₃ NI Number of institutions				
	X_4	X4 KK KOad Kilometres X NDMD Number of buildings from main reads with 250m buffer range				
	\mathbf{X}_{6}	X_5 NBMR Number of buildings from main roads with 250m buffer zone X_6 NBMC Number of buildings from main centre with 500m buffer zone				
	Exp	Expansion in terms of the number of buildings				
	X ₁ NRB Number of residential buildings					
	X_2	NBA	Number of business activities			
	X_3	NI	Number of insti	tutions		
	X_4	RK Road kilometres				
	X_5	NBMR Number of buildings from main roads with 250m buffer zone				
	X ₆ NDMC Number of buildings from main centre with 500m burier zone					
	Densification in terms of building density					
	λ_1 V	RBD	Residential buil	laing densit	Ly .	
	\mathbf{X}_{2}	ID	Institution den	sity		
	X_4	RD	Road density	5109		
	X_5	MRBD	Main road build	ling density	7	
	X_6	MCBD	Main centre bui	ilding densi	ty	

Table 1: The Models for Independent Variables

Source: Researcher's illustration, 2020

3.3.3 Expansion and Densification Models Assumptions and Limitations

- (a) The number of buildings, built-up area and building density can be used as dependent variables to measure expansion and densification, and can also be used as independent variables with expansion and densification;
- (b) The number of buildings, built-up area and building density have been selected as dependent variables due to their convincing power to measure expansion and densification with influencing ability;

- (c) All variables have a trend of change over time and can easily be detected and computed using Arc Map 10.1 software;
- (d)Selected independent variables were easily observed in satellite imagery, hence easy to extract information;
- (e) There was no change of use of any building and all uses have remained the same since 2005 to 2020;
- (f) A buffer zone of 1km for main centre, and 250m for main roads, was satisfactory for observing changes as it captures more buildings, which indicate development prevailing in those areas; and
- (g) All independent variables seemed to be most influential factors for expansion and densification.

3.4 Definition of Models

3.4.1 Built-up Area and Number of Buildings Expansion

The two models use the same model equation. Built buildings occupy spaces, hence an increase in the number buildings means an increase in built-up area. Similarly, an increase of one building contributes to the increase of the number of buildings.

Equation 1 is a model for built-up area and the number of building expansion:

$$Y = \sum_{0}^{t} (b_{0} + b_{1} \sum_{1}^{231} X_{1} + b_{2} \sum_{1}^{231} X_{2} + b_{3} \sum_{1}^{231} X_{3} + b_{4} \sum_{1}^{231} X_{4}) + b_{5} \sum_{1}^{231} X_{5} + b_{6} \sum_{1}^{231} X_{6} + C$$
(1)

Whereby: Y = expansion in terms of built-up area, a dependent variable; b_1 to $b_n = \text{coefficients}$ of the determination of independent variable X_1 , X_2 , X_3 , X_4 , X_5 and X_6 ; $X_1 = \text{number}$ of residential buildings; $X_2 = \text{number}$ of business activities; $X_3 = \text{number}$ of institutions; $X_4 = \text{number}$ of total road kilometres; $X_5 = \text{number}$ of buildings in major road of 250m buffer; X = number of buildings in main centre of 1km buffer; C = Y-intercept

Equation 2 define densification model equation:

$$Y = \sum_{0}^{t} (b_{0} + b_{1} \sum_{1}^{231} \frac{X_{1}}{A} + b_{2} \sum_{1}^{231} \frac{X_{2}}{A} + b_{3} \sum_{1}^{231} \frac{X_{3}}{A} + b_{4} \sum_{1}^{231} \frac{X_{4}}{A} + b_{5} \sum_{1}^{231} \frac{X_{5}}{A} + b_{6} \sum_{1}^{231} \frac{X_{6}}{A}) + C$$
(2)

Whereby the independent variable are: X_1 = number of residential buildings; X_2 = number of business activities; X_3 = number of institutions; X_4 = number of total road kilometres; X_5 = number of buildings in major road buffer; X_6 = number of buildings in main centre buffer; A = area of a cell/grid; C = Yintercept; and b_1 to b_n are as defined in equation (1).

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 Expansion Model by the Increase in Built-up Area

It was observed that expansions tend to occur along major roads, main centres, institutional areas, business activity areas and along minor roads. In Figure 2, Map 2010 shows some centres like Kinzudi, Goba-centre and Tegeta A have started to emerge, densify and expand; compared to Map 2005 that had a low rate of expansion and densification.



Figure 2. Trend of Built-up Area for Year 2005 to 2020 Source: Researcher illustration, 2020

The built-up area at Goba ward increased to 100ha from 2010–2015, whereby a large part of Kinzudi, Goba centre and Tegeta A sub-wads experienced a high rate of expansion. The current situation in Goba reveals that the ward has changed from open areas to built-up areas, especially along the main roads and main centres. Built-up areas were largest in 2020 (about 1800ha), indicated by increased construction coupled with rapid rate of peri-urbanization.

Similarly, XU et al. (2019) found that built-up areas in all African cities increased by 5 percent per annum during the 1999–2014 period. This is a slight increase compared to the results of this paper, which depicts a rapid increase during the 2010–2015 period. Findings by Fenta et al. (2017) in the evaluation of the dynamics and spatial pattern of the expansion of Mekelle city in Ethiopia for three decades (1984–2014) revealed that the built-up area increased from 531ha in 1984 to 3524ha in 2014. This situation in Africa calls for the need for a planning and surveying land strategy, which will ensures that affordable, planned, surveyed and serviced land is available for housing development.

The model for the prediction of built-up area explain about 96.2% of the increase in building to be influenced by the tested variables as shown by the coefficient of determination of 0.962 ($R^2 = 0.962$). The model equation was found to be:

 $Y = 503.386 + 0.181344X_1 + 0.131996X_2 + 0.145325X_3 + 1.118189X_4$ $+ 0.166944X_5 + 0.1753924X_6$ (3)

The prediction in this paper (Figure 3) suggests that built-up areas will continue to expand around main roads, main centres of Goba, Kinzudi, Tegeta A and Matosa; and extend outwards of its surroundings by 2035.



Figure 3: Predicted built-up area in Goba ward by 2035 Source: Field data, 2020

The expansion will be outwards of Goba centre, Kinzudi and Tegeta A centres, and around the main roads. Figure 3 shows the maximum built-up area for Goba will be 4700ha in 2045, with open spaces and landscapes within it, indicating the limits to which all parts of Goba ward will be covered by buildings and roads.

Shariff et al. (2010) applied a simulation to predict the urban growth of Pune city by 2030, and found that the chances of the city's expansion towards the north and east direction could be higher than in the other directions. Sirueri found a substantial increase in the built-up area between 1986 and 2001 by 403,598.3ha (20.8%); later (2008) noting that the built-up area was predicted to expand significantly by 590,274.1ha (37.8%) in 2014. Similarly, Nduwaye (2015) predicted that the Kigali city in Rwanda will expand to double by 2040 if the current trend of expansion rate continues. These findings are in the same trend as those of the Goba ward: implying that expansion in African cities tend to increase over time.

The predicted amount of built-up area in Goba ward entails negative effects if proper measures are not taken. Chai (2018) explains such problems to include the loss of highly productive agricultural land, destruction of biotopes and habitats, and a decline of ecosystem services. In addition to these, Seto (2017) adds inadequate shelter provision, growth of informal settlements, pressure on urban infrastructure and services, increasing unemployment, poverty and informal sector activities, and the deterioration of urban social services. Similarly, Sirueri (2015) argues that urban expansion involves fragmented buildings, which are associated with more traffic on the roads that increases public costs and cost of infrastructure. These problems might infringe the sustainability of Goba ward in 15 years to come.

4.2 Expansion Model by the Increase in the Number of Buildings

The number of buildings kept increasing from 2005–2020; and were concentrated on the major roads, main centres, institutional areas, business activities, and along other minor roads as shown in Figure 4.

Changes noted from 2010–2020 show that the most increased number of buildings were particularly in large part of Kinzudi, Goba centre and Tegeta A sub-wards. This is the same in areas around 250m from the main roads in the same period due to the ease of accessibility that attracts people to access shops, services and other commercial needs.

The model of the prediction of the number of buildings explain about 97.1% of the increase to be influenced by the tested variables. The model equation is shown by coefficient of determination of 97.1% ($R^2 = 0.971$).

Neema A. Munuo & Juma M. Matindana



Figure 4: Trend of Number of Buildings from 2005 to 2020 Source: Researcher's illustration, 2020

Here, the model equation was found to be:

$$\begin{split} Y &= 503.386 + \ 0.181344X_1 + \ 0.131996X_2 + \ 0.145325X_3 + \ 1.118189X_4 \\ &+ \ 0.166944X_5 + \ 0.1753924X_6 \end{split}$$

Independent variables in this model include the number of residential buildings (X_1) , number of buildings within 250m of main roads (X_5) , number of building within 1km from main centres (X_6) , number of business activities (X_2) , number of road kilometres (X_4) , and the number of institutions (X_3) . The number of institutions (X_3) had less *p*-value at significant levels, while the number of business activities (X_2) and the number of road kilometres (X_4) were not significant to the model. The number of residential buildings (X_1) proved to be the most significant variable. A unit increase of residential buildings (X_1) increases the number of buildings by 0.181344 residential units. It was found that areas of 250m from main roads (X_5) experience more buildings than others. Physical observations revealed such places to be occupied by different economic activities like shops, bus stands, cafeterias, etc.

Also, a unit increase of one building causes changes in the total number of buildings by 0.166944 units. The same applied to areas within 1km from main centres (X_6), whereby a unit increase of residential buildings within a centre

caused changes in the number of buildings in Goba ward by 0.1753924 residential units. The number of road kilometres (X_4) led to changes of the number of buildings by 0.145325, through a unit increase of one institution building. On the other hand, the number of business activities (X_2) and the number of institutions (X_3) were less significant in bringing more changes in buildings.

Mustafa (2018) found that land-use policy, slope, and distance to roads are the most important determinants of the expansion of cities. These finding differ from those of this paper which identified roads and the number of residential buildings as the foremost determinants of the expansion of peri-urban areas. Nduwaye (2015), on the other hand, finds that expansion tends to occur in areas around local and big centres (CBD), on wetlands, and on low-slope sites. This is in line with the results of this paper: most buildings were concentrated around the centres of Kinzudi, Tegeta A and Goba centre.

Figure 5 shows that while the numbers of buildings at Goba ward were 18,000 in 2020, they were predicted to rise up to 38,000 by 2035. The maximum expansion in terms of the number of buildings is predicted to be 55,000 in 2045. The expected increase in the number of buildings brings environmental problems, and threatens the wellbeing of peri-urban areas.



Figure 5: Predicted Number of Buildings by 2035 Source: Researcher's illustration, 2020

5. Densification of Buildings in Goba Ward

A high density was seen to be at the Goba and Kinzudi centres, and a slight density was observed at Tegeta A and Matosa centres. High density was mainly found along the main roads, and slightly dispersed further from the roads. Figure 6 illustrate how Goba was transforming from more vacant spaces to concentrated settlements.

Neema A. Munuo & Juma M. Matindana



Figure 6: Densification Trend in Terms of Building Density (2005–2020) Source: Researcher illustration, 2021

The presence of more buildings at centres and around main roads have attracted more people to build and settle in; and as a result the ward building density increased in 2015 compared to 2000. These centres are concentrated with business activities like retail shops, wholesales, *genges*, carpentries, welding, bricks-making, *mama lishe*, cafeterias, and transport services like tricycles and motorcycles.

The final model for building density is the number of buildings per unit area. The model equation explains about 94% of the densification of buildings in Goba ward, as shown by the coefficient of determination of 0.943 ($R^2 = 0.943$).

The model equation was found to be as follows:

$$Y = 11.67778 + 0.1983508X_1 + 0.137839X_2 + 0.97594X_3 + 1.029494X_4 + 0.17875X_5 + 0.19432X_6$$

The significant variables were residential density (X_1) , road density (X_4) , main road building density (X_5) , and main centre building density (X_6) ; while business density (X_2) and institution density (X_3) were not significant to the model.

Residential density (X_1) is one of the most significant variables to cause changes in building density as revealed in the model that a unit increase of one residential density amounts to an increase of building density by 0.1983508 residential densities. Also, a one unit increase of road density (X_4) will amount to an increase of building density by 1.029494. Similarly, a unit increase of building density within 250m from the road, and building density within 1km from a main centre, will increase more building density by 0.17875 and 0.19432, respectively. Building density results plays a significant role in determining densification of Goba ward as it shows the transformation of buildings from low density to high density. These findings imply that road density creates a permeability that eases accessibility to various places, and also influences building constructions along the main roads for easy transportation of goods and services: all of which invite settlements.

Building density of Goba ward depended on the concentration of buildings in localities such as high density areas which contained 63 buildings per unit area/ cell area; medium density had 33 buildings/unit areas; and low density contained 20 buildings/unit area. Figure 7 shows that the density of Goba ward in 2020 was 240 buildings/unit area, but when this was predicted for 15 years the results suggested the rise of the density up to 400 buildings/unit area by 2035.



Figure 7: Predicted Buildings/ Unit Area by 2035 Source: Field Data, April 2020

The maximum density for Goba ward is expected to be 800 buildings /unit area by 2045. Kinyua (2010) recommends building density to be 45/buildings per hectare; as such, the projected and expected maximum density will exert pressure on the sustainability of Goba ward; giving rise to more social and environmental problems like pollution, congested buildings, inaccessibility, social crime and

insufficient services. Figure 7 indicates that the maximum densification will be 850 buildings/unit areas in the whole Goba ward, particularly in areas around 250m from main roads, and 1km from sub-centres. This is a very high density that might trigger the social and environmental problems mentioned earlier. Dawodieh (2017) reported that unguided density is linked to noise and air pollution in Jordan, Israel; while Lupala and Bayo (2014) found that unguided building density is associated with blocked ventilation, loss of view, loss of privacy, broken skyline, and the creation of unused spaces between buildings.

Building density may also reduce ecosystem and ecological value of land because of housing construction that degrades land. In exploring rural-urban linkages and examining how changes of land-use are influenced in peri-urban areas, Mushi (2008) noted that the increase in density led to diminished fertile land and loss of ecosystem services. Other problems associated with the increase in density include increased surface-run water that leads to flooding, and reduced ecological value of land because of degradation arising from impacts of increased housing (Delmelle, 2014). On the other hand, Nkwanyana (2015) observed the contrary: that densification creates an opportunity for service delivery due to increased demand in densified areas than in scattered areas. However, Kinyua (2010) argues that sustainable peri-urban development can be achieved by controlling the increase of density through various strategies like regularisation and redevelopment strategies. This is supported by Magina et al. (2020) who recommends to undertaking regularisation in areas that indicate unguided densification. The strategy enhances sustainable development of peri-urban areas through offering property rights for security of tenure, and securing land for basic community services and infrastructure to improve the well-being of residents in densified areas. Since the projected maximum density of Goba ward is unhealthy, this paper recommends the adoption of the above strategies to ensure secure sustainable and improved settlement.

6. Conclusion

Peri-urban areas are subjected to sharp increase in built-up areas, number of buildings, and building density due to rapid urbanization. The results show that the rate of peri-urban expansion and densification continues to increase over time, which possess more threats to sustainable development of periurban areas and associated natural resources. The paper recommends that the built models be adopted as useful tools for equipping planners, policy- and decision-makers with appropriate instruments in addressing the rapid expansion of built-up areas, increased number of buildings and densification; and ensure sustainable peri-urban development. The uncovered results on the expansion and densification of the Goba ward also calls for planning and regulatory interventions.

References

- Adam G.A. (2014). *Peri-Urban Land Tenure in Ethiopia* [Doctoral Dissertation]. Stockholm: KTH Royal Institute of Technology.
- Abebe, G. A. (2013). Quantifying Urban Growth Pattern in Developing Countries Using Remote Sensing and Spatial Metrics: A Case Study in Kampala, Uganda (Master's Thesis, University of Twente).
- Amer, M., Mustafa, A., Teller, J., Attia, S. & Reiter, S. (2017). A Methodology to Determine the Potential of Urban Densification Through Roof Stacking. Sustainable Cities and Society, 35: 677–691.
- Bagan, H. & Yamagata, Y. (2012). Landsat Analysis of Urban Growth: How Tokyo Became the World's Largest Megacity During the Last 40 Years. Remote Sensing of Environment, 127: 210–222.
- Basse, R. M., Omrani, H., Charif, O., Gerber, P. & Bódis, K. (2014). Land Use Changes Modelling Using Advanced Methods: Cellular Automata and Artificial Neural Networks. The Spatial and Explicit Representation of Land Cover Dynamics at the Cross-Border Region Scale. Applied Geography, 53: 160–171.
- Chai, B. & Li, P. (2018). Annual Urban Expansion Extraction and Spatio-Temporal Analysis Using Landsat Time Series Data: A Case Study of Tianjin, China. IEEE Journal of Selected Topics in Applied Earth Observations and Remote Sensing, 11(8): 2644–2656.
- Cobbinah, p. B., Erdiaw-Kwasie, M. O. & Amoateng, P. (2015). Africa's Urbanisation: Cosentino, C., Amato, F. & Murgante, B. (2018). Population-Based Simulation of Urban Growth: The Italian Case Study. Sustainability, 10(12): 4838.
- Coulter, L. L., Stow, D. A., Tsai, Y. H., Ibanez, N., Shih, H. C., Kerr, A. & Mensah, F. (2016). Classification and Assessment of Land Cover and Land Use Change in Southern Ghana Using Dense Stacks of Landsat 7 ETM+ Imagery. Remote Sensing of Environment, 184: 396–409.
- d'Amour, C. B., Reitsma, F., Baiocchi, G., Barthel, S., Güneralp, B., Erb, K. H.,... & Seto, K. C. (2017). Future Urban Land Expansion and Implications for Global Croplands. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 114(34): 8939–8944.
- Dawodieh, E. (2017). The Impact of High Population Density on the Built Environment and the Behaviour of Individuals in Amman. Global Journal of Research in Engineering.
- Delmelle, E. C., Zhou, Y. & Thill, J. C. (2014). Densification Without Growth Management? Evidence from Local Land Development and Housing Trends in Charlotte, North Carolina, USA. Sustainability, 6(6): 3975–3990.
- Dunnning, R., Hickman, H. & While, A. (2020). Planning Control and the Politics of Soft Densification. Town Planning Review, 91(3): 305–324.
- Eggimann, S., Wagner, M., Ho, Y. N., Züger, M., Schneider, U. & Orehounig, K. (2021). Geospatial Simulation of Urban Neighbourhood Densification Potentials. Sustainable Cities and Society, 103068.

- Erick, S. A. & Sosa, M. R. (2017). Spatial Suitability for Urban Sustainable Densification in a Borderland City. *Journal of Geography and Regional Planning*, 10(10): 266–277.
- Fenta, A. A., Yasuda, H., Haregeweyn, N., Belay, A. S., Hadush, Z., Gebremedhin, M. A. & Mekonnen, G. (2017). The Dynamics of Urban Expansion and Land Use/Land Cover Changes Using Remote Sensing and Spatial Metrics: The Case of Mekelle City of Northern Ethiopia. *International Journal of Remote Sensing*, 38(14): 4107–4129.
- Guangjin, T., Xinliang, X., Xiaojuan, L. & Lingqiang, K. (2016). The Comparison and Modeling of the Driving Factors of Urban Expansion for Thirty-Five Big Cities in the Three Regions in China. Advances in Meteorology, 2016: 1–9). Doi:10.1155/2016/3109396.
- Gwaleba, Method J. (2018). Urban Growth in Tanzania: Exploring Challenges, Opportunities and Management. Int'l J. Soc. Sci. Stud., 6: 47.
- Hassan, A. M. & Lee, H. (2015). Toward the Sustainable Development of Urban Areas: An Overview of Global Trends in Trials and Policies. *Land Use Policy*, 48: 199–212.
- Hill, A. & Lindner, C. (2010). Land-Use Modelling to Support Strategic Urban Planning-The Case of Dar es Salaam, Tanzania. In 45th ISOCARP Congress (pp. 1–12).
- Hou, H., Estoque, R. C. & Murayama, Y. (2016). Spatiotemporal Analysis of Urban Growth in Three African Capital Cities: A Grid-Cell-Based Analysis Using Remote Sensing Data. *Journal of African Earth Sciences*, 123: 381–391.
- Kombe, W. J. (2005). Land Use Dynamics in Peri-Urban Areas and Their Implications on the Urban Growth and Form: The Case of Dar es Salaam, Tanzania. *Habitat International*, 29(1): 113–135.
- Liu, F., Zhang, Z. & Wang, X. (2016). Forms of Urban Expansion of Chinese Municipalities and Provincial Capitals, 1970s-2013). Remote Sensing, 8(11): 930.
- Lupala J.M. (2015). The Effects of Peri Urbanization on Pugu and Kazimzumbwi Forest Reserves, Dar es Salaam. International Journal of Physical and Human Geography, 3: No2,.
- Magina, F. B., Kyessi, A. & Kombe, W. (2020). The Urban Land Nexus-Challenges and Opportunities of Regularising Informal Settlements. *Journal of African Real Estate Research*, 5(1): 32–54.
- Marique, A. F. & Reiter, S. (2014). Retrofitting the Suburbs: Insulation, Density, Urban Form and Location. *Environmental Management and Sustainable Development*, 3(2): 138–153.
- Marshall, F., Waldman, L., Macgregor, H., Mehta, L. & Randhawa, P. (2009). On the Edge of Sustainability: Perspectives on Peri-Urban Dynamics.
- Martellozzo, F., Amato, F., Murgante, B. & Clarke, K. C. (2018). Modelling the Impact of Urban Growth on Agriculture and Natural Land in Italy to 2030). Applied Geography, 91: 156–167.

- Mkalawa, C. C. & Haixiao, P. (2014). Dar es Salaam City Temporal Growth and Its Influence on Transportation. Urban, Planning and Transport Research, 2(1): 423-446.
- Nduwaye, G. (2015). Modeling Urban Growth. *Rwanda* Journal, Series D, Volume 1: 2016: Life and Natural Sciences: Special Issue II Kigali City Rwanda.
- Nduwayezu, G., Manirakiza, V., Mugabe, L. & Malonza, J. M. (2021). Urban Growth and Land Use/Land Cover Changes in the Post-Genocide Period, Kigali, Rwanda. *Environment and Urbanization ASIA*, 12(1_Suppl), S127–S146.
- Newman, P. (2014). Density, the Sustainability Multiplier: Some Myths and Truths With Application to Perth, Australia. *Sustainability*, 6(9): 6467–6487.
- Nkwanyana, P. N. (2015). The Impact of Peri-Urban Densification on Basic Social Service Delivery in Entshongweni Area in Ethekwini Municipality. Doctoral dissertation.
- Nuhu, S. (2019: March). Peri-Urban Land Governance in Developing Countries: Understanding the Role, Interaction and Power Relation Among Actors in Tanzania. Urban Forum, 30(1): 1–16. Springer Netherlands.
- Paudyal, K., Baral, H., Bhandari, S. P., Bhandari, A. & Keenan, R. J. (2019). Spatial Assessment of the Impact of Land Use and Land Cover Change on Supply of Ecosystem Services in Phewa Watershed, Nepal. Ecosystem Services, 36(100895): 49–72.
- Puplampu, D. A. & Boafo, Y. A. (2021). Exploring the Impacts of Urban Expansion on Green Spaces Availability and Delivery of Ecosystem Services in the Accra Metropolis. *Environmental Challenges*, 5: 100283.
- Ramachandra, T. V., Aithal, B. H. & Sanna, D. D. (2012). Insights to Urban Dynamics Through Landscape Spatial Pattern Analysis. *International Journal of Applied Earth Observation and Geoinformation*, 18: 329–343.
- Rocha, J., Mazzeo, N., Piaggio, M. & Carriquiry, M. (2020). Seeking Sustainable Pathways for Land Use in Latin America. *Ecology and Society*, 25(3).
- Sall, O. (2008). Urban Growth Without Sprawl : Four Examples in the Genevese Region Densification in Urban Geneva: Issues and Examples. pp.1–13.
- Seto, K. C., Fragkias, M., Güneralp, B. & Reilly, M. K. (2011). A Meta-Analysis of Global Urban Land Expansion. *Plos One*, 6(8): E23777.
- Shao, Z., Sumari, N. S., Portnov, A., Ujoh, F., Musakwa, W. & Mandela, P. J. (2021). Urban Sprawl and Its Impact on Sustainable Urban Development: A Combination of Remote Sensing and Social Media Data. *Geo-Spatial Information Science*, 24(2): 241–255.
- Shariff, N. M., Gairola, S. & Talib, A. (2010). Modelling Urban Land Use Change Using Geographically Weighted Regression and the Implications for Sustainable Environmental Planning.
- Sirueri, F. (2015). Comparing Spatial Patterns of Informal Settlements Between Nairobi and Dar es Salaam. Doctoral dissertation, University of Twente.
- Smith, M. & Bricker, S. (2021). Sustainable Cities and Communities. In: *Geosciences* and the Sustainable Development Goals Springer, Cham, pp. 259–282.

- Tang, D., Liu, H., Song, E. & Chang, S. (2020). Urban Expansion Simulation from the Perspective of Land Acquisition-Based on Bargaining Model and Ant Colony Optimization. Computers, Environment and Urban Systems, 82: 101504). Doi:10.1016/j.compenvurbsys.2020.
- Thomassen, H. A., Cheviron, Z. A., Freedman, A. H., Harrigan, R. J., Wayne, R. K. & Smith, T. B. (2010). Spatial Modelling and Landscape-Level Approaches for Visualizing Intra-Specific Variation. Molecular Ecology, 19(17): 3532–3548.
- United Republic of Tanzania (URT). (1999). The *National Land Act*. Tanzania: Dar es Salaam: Government Printers.
- URT. (2013). 2012 Population and Housing Census. *Population Distribution by Administrative Areas*.
- Wang, L., Omrani, H., Zhao, Z., Francomano, D., Li, K. & Pijanowski, B. (2019). Analysis on Urban Densification Dynamics and Future Modes in South-Eastern Wisconsin, USA. *Plos One*, 14(3): E0211964.
- Wu, K. Y. & Zhang, H. (2012). Land Use Dynamics, Built-Up Land Expansion Patterns, and Driving Forces Analysis of the Fast-Growing Hangzhou Metropolitan Area, Eastern China. (1978–2008). Applied Geography, 34: 137–145.
- Xu, G., Dong, T., Cobbinah, p. B., Jiao, L., Sumari, N. S., Chai, B. & Liu, Y. (2019). Urban Expansion and Form Changes Across African Cities With a Global Outlook: Spatiotemporal Analysis of Urban Land Densities. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 224: 802–810.
- Xu, X. & Min, X. (2013). Quantifying Spatiotemporal Patterns of Urban Expansion in China Using Remote Sensing Data. *Cities*, 35: 104–113.
- Zeng, C., Yang, L. & Dong, J. (2017). Management of Urban Land Expansion in China Through Intensity Assessment: A Big Data Perspective. Journal of Cleaner Production, 153: 637-647.
- Zhang, Q. & Su, S. (2016). Determinants of Urban Expansion and Their Relative Importance: A Comparative Analysis of 30 Major Metropolitans in China. *Habitat International*, 58: 89–107.
- Zhang, Z., Su, S., Xiao, R., Jiang, D. & Wu, J. (2013). Identifying Determinants of Urban Growth from a Multi-Scale Perspective: A Case Study of the Urban Agglomeration Around Hangzhou Bay, China. *Applied Geography*, 45: 193–202). Doi:10.1016/ j.apgeog.2013.09.01.
- Zhao, P. (2010). Sustainable Urban Expansion and Transportation in a Growing Megacity: Consequences of Urban Sprawl for Mobility on the Urban Fringe of Beijing. *Habitat International*, 34(2): 236-243.
- Zhu, Z., Li, Z., Wylde, D., Failor, M. & Hrischenko, G. (2015). Logistic Regression for Insured Mortality Experience Studies. North American Actuarial Journal, 19(4): 241–255.