

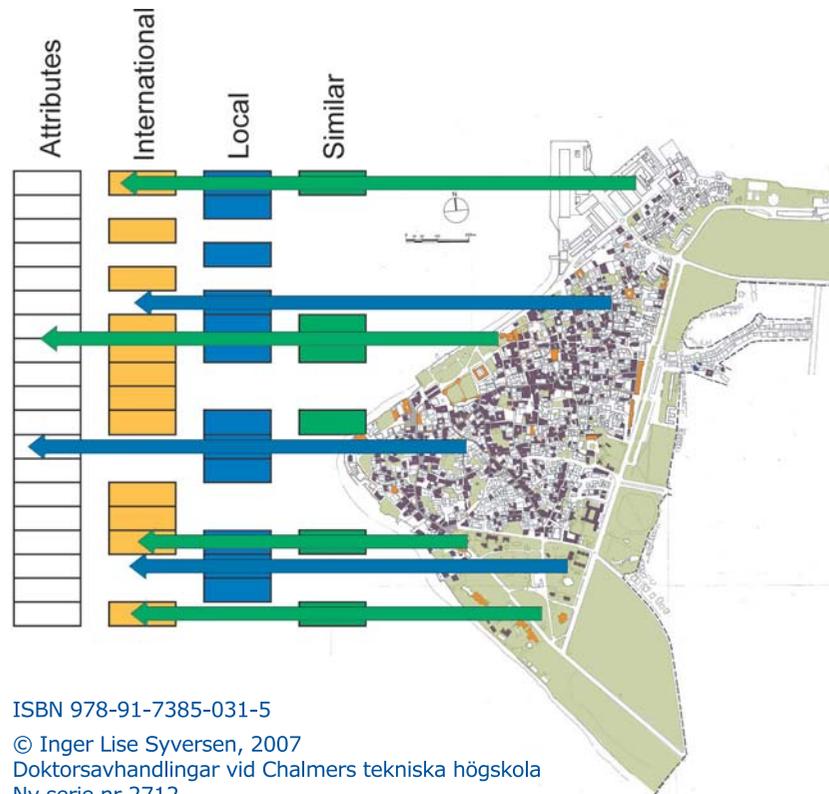
Inger Lise Syversen

Intentions and Reality in Architectural Heritage Management

In Search of the Influence of International Policy Documents on Contemporary Sustainable Local Heritage Management.
Case: Zanzibar Stone Town, Tanzania.

The concept of sustainability has undergone a range of transformations. It has gone from material progress in the 1950s through human, social and economic development in the aftermath of the UN Conference on the Human Environment in 1972, to the Rio Summit and the Stockholm Action Plan on Cultural Policies in 1992 brought the notions of culture and sustainable development into the debate. Currently, the concept of sustainability is closely related to the ethical value loaded concepts of human rights and democracy, identity, social cohesion and culture.

Within the context of sustainable development, cultural and architectural heritage are increasingly gaining more space in public debate and making a contribution to strengthening local identity and better quality of life. Despite this, there is a challenge in that international architectural heritage policies do not reflect local needs and experiences, or public participation. Thus new ways of understanding and manage architectural heritage are demanded.



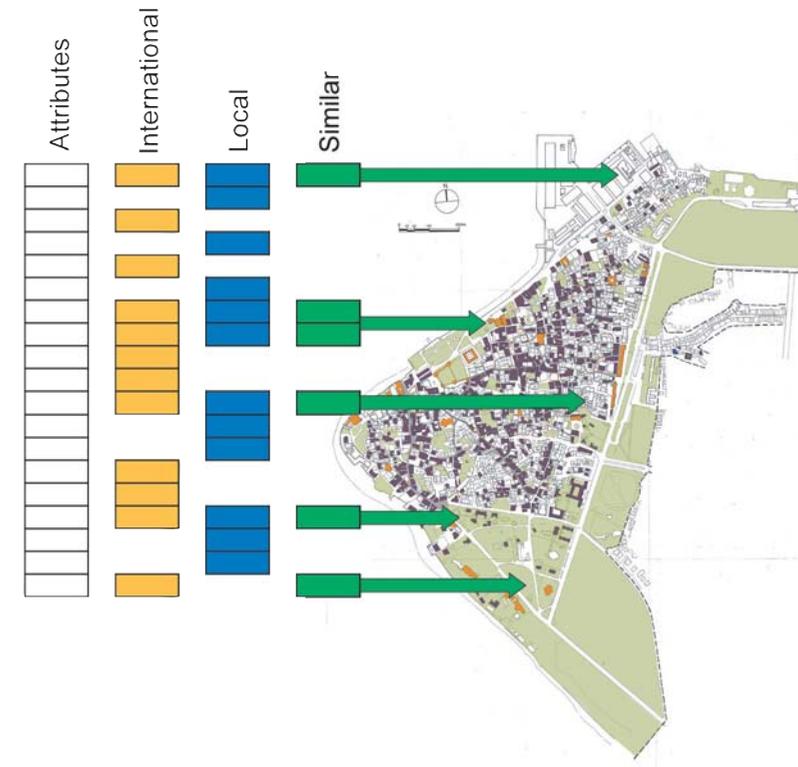
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THESIS FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF TECHNOLOGY

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Department of Architecture
CHALMERS UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY
Göteborg, Sweden 2007

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Cover: Solveig Rødland and Lars Marcus Vedeler
Layout: Merethe Hansen-Tangen
The cover illustration indicates the objects and the aim of the research: Policy Documents and
their influence on the management of the built environment.

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Abstract

We live in a world where millions of people seek global citizenship but simultaneously search for their identity as defined by ethnicity and locality – global assimilation with stronger self-awareness. The global interactions of today, founded in a context of unity, have on the contrary proven to be fragmented and complex in a way that splits nations into regions demanding autonomy. Cultures that for many years have reinforced societies are destroyed or have vanished.

At the same time as politicians and international organisations eagerly try to reach international agreements arguing the importance of cultural heritage as the backbone of a sustainable development, local communities living with their heritage are encouraged by the international society to become self-reliant and strong decision makers.

This thesis aims to increase understanding of the relationship between policy documents and their impact on architectural heritage management, so as to help build a platform of understanding that will bridge the gap between the local community and international policy level. The intention is to develop design criteria for re-thinking architectural heritage management. The approach to reach an operational analysis is based on a modified Grounded Theory and an applied methodology of Geographic Information System.

The subject studied is Zanzibar Stone Town, Tanzania, listed on UNESCO's World Heritage List in 2000, and relevant selected international and local policy documents, to see if the espoused outcome of the policy documents is to be seen in the management of Zanzibar Stone Town.

The finding of this research is that international policies and the scientific and theoretical approaches to architectural heritage management are predominantly out of step with the concept of sustainable architectural heritage management. The study shows that a “bottom-up” approach to sustainable architectural management is required and therefore that a process of re-thinking an integrated heritage management is demanded. Contemporary architectural heritage management has, according to this study, to be responsive to the needs and objectives of the local community.

Keywords:

Intentions, reality, architectural and cultural heritage, policy documents, sustainability, sustainable management, design criteria, identity, global and local, and the selection of attributes: producer, type, conservation, object, threat, tool and intention.

The Zebra Anecdote

Upon discussing the identity and character of Zanzibar Stone Town with my friend of more than 20 years, Mwalim A. Mwalim, the Director General of the Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority, I complained about my disadvantage in being a non-Zanzibari. Because I could never “read” the town as local inhabitants can, I will always see it through my Norwegian “cultural glasses”. Mwalim looked at me and quietly told the following anecdote.

A zebra passed two men sitting in the shade of a big mango tree. One of the men asked the other: “do you think the zebra is a black horse with white stripes or a white horse with black stripes?”

Both men were quiet, thinking, reflecting and watching the zebra. After a while one concluded that: “the zebra is a black horse with white stripes” and the other that: “the zebra is a white horse with black stripes”.

Mwalim looked at me and said: “both were wrong because a zebra is a zebra”.



To my grandchildren: *Christoffer, Sebastian, Marius, Leander and Celia.*

Acknowledgements

First of all my gratitude goes to my parents who gave me the security, curiosity and stubbornness needed to carry out this thesis, and who passed away during the years that I worked on it.

Returning to Oslo after the *Conference on Culture and Architectural Heritage* in Zanzibar in 1992, I presented the conference papers to my friend, teacher and tutor of many years, Professor Halina Dunin-Woyseth at the Oslo School of Architecture. Halina immediately encouraged me to carry the subject through to a PhD and her ability as a highly qualified mentor has accompanied me through years without sponsors or grants, until I was awarded a position as doctoral student at the Division of Architecture and Development Studies at Lund Institute of Technology (LTH), Lund University in Sweden in 2001 for three years. During the first two years Professor Lars Reuterswård was my main supervisor. His wide experience in the field of Development Studies and his conscientiousness guided me through a complex jungle of international organisations and policies. When he left to take up the position as Director of Global Division in UN-HABITAT, Professor Dr. Maria Nyström was appointed as my main supervisor, in April 2003. October 2006 she was appointed a professorship at Chalmers University of Technology, Department of Architecture. Her analytical skill and knowledge of system analysis has provoked decisive and challenging brain exercises. Throughout these years Professor Lars Henrik Ståhl has been my second supervisor. Both Professor Bengt O. H. Johansson and Professor Sigmund Asmervik, who led the final seminar, have been important guides during the research.

There has also been a rich bouquet of colourful, wise and skilful people supporting me along the way, and taking time to respond to papers, answering hopeless and blurred questions, searching for documents, information and key persons to ensure that my thesis became as complete as possible. Among these are the staff at Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority, Mussa Bakari, its previous General Director Ahmed Sheik and its recent Director General Mwalim A. Mwalim, as well as Muhammad Salim Sulaiman, former Minister of Water, Construction, Energy, Lands and Environment, Zanzibar. Then there is the library staff at Zanzibar Archives and at ICCROM in Rome, and Mansour Baiji, Flemming Aalund and Cato N. Lund who introduced me to Zanzibar in 1980.

The warmth and smiles from Babu Emerson, Thomas Green and staff in Zanzibar as well as Mama Farina always made me feel at home and comfortable.

I owe great gratitude to my colleagues at Division of Architecture and Development Studies in Lund: Christian Wilke, Emma Nilsby, Catarina Östlund and especially Anna Stuermer and Carin Berglind and my doctoral colleagues Agnes Mwaiselage, Moses Mkony and to Lynda Christiansen, whose excellent knowledge of English combined with moral support has been priceless. I am equally grateful to Cyriacus Lwamayanga, a PhD colleague from UCLAS, Dar es Salaam who patiently and skilfully commented

on the content of the thesis. Further there are my colleagues from the Nordic Council of Ministers who were astonished at my dedication to a beautiful and challenging city on the East coast of Africa: Torill Egge Grung, Steffen Søndergård and Catharina Peters who took part in my ups and downs over many years. And not least I am grateful to Randi Roalsø and Øyvind Marman, of the very special computer and design rescue team, and for Merete Hansen-Tangen's and Lars Marcus Vedeler's graphic skills and to the ability of Diana Lee-Smith to conceptually reflect into the core of the language and the case.

I ask my two patient children Hege and Håvard forgiveness for my physical and mental absence during the work on my thesis. As a token of gratitude I dedicate the thesis to my five grandchildren, to Christoffer who, when ten years old, accompanied me on one of my fieldtrips to Bagamoyo and Zanzibar, and to Sebastian, Marius, Leander and Celia.

Finally, my partner Svein Sundby has given me immense backing and generosity during this period and I am grateful to him. I also thank my many friends for their patience and support.

Holmsbu, August 2007

Introductory Summary

Along the East-African coast between Mogadishu and Sofala a number of Swahili stone towns lie like a chain of pearls bordering the Indian Ocean. These stone towns embody the history of an urban development influenced by a great number of immigrant groups from Indonesia, India, Iran and Yemen¹ and cultural exchanges over more than four thousand years.

Seduced by the rich natural resources of spices, ivory and gold found on the African continent, merchants and their sailing dhows were brought up and down the East African coast by the monsoons. To serve the traders a number of towns developed along the coast, together with the trade routes to the hinterland. One of these Swahili stone towns is the old Zanzibar Stone Town, Mji Mkongwe, put on the World Heritage List of UNESCO in 2000 (Figure 1).



Figure 1
The Seafront of Zanzibar Stone Town is a representation of the trading influences on Zanzibar.

¹ Kleppe discusses in her paper: *Sailing with the Wind: Archaeological Investigations at Kizimkazi Dimbani*, presented at the International Conference on the History and Culture of Zanzibar, December 1992, the sources of early Zanzibar history. In her paper she points to traded objects like Chinese pottery traced back to the 9th century, a boat workshop producing *ngalawa* inspired by Comoro merchants in the 13th century and a Kufic inscription in the Kizimkazi Mosque dated to c. 1100 AD.

Since the adoption of the *Athens Charter* in 1931 and even more after World War II with the approval of the UNESCO Hague Convention in 1954, a plethora of international policy documents on cultural and architectural heritage has been launched on an international scale.

This thesis explores the influence of international policy documents on local architectural heritage management and uses Zanzibar Stone Town as a test case. It also explores the knowledge produced and knowledge management in the field of heritage management. The thesis is built on three abstract operational models for the purposes of carrying out and explaining the research:

1. The triangle of objects: Zanzibar Stone Town, International and Local Policy Documents (Figure 2)
2. An abstraction of how the two kinds of documents are correlated, shown in Figure 3 and Figure 4.
3. A conceptualisation of the analytical process (Figure 5)

These particular models are derived from an approach grounded in the making disciplines and drawing in tools from other disciplines to enrich the analytical process.

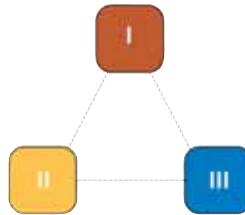


Figure 2
The triangle of objects illustrating I Zanzibar Stone Town, II International Documents and III Local Documents.

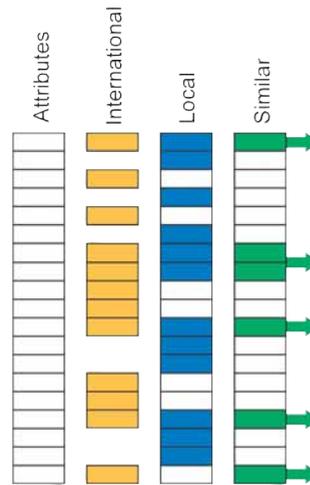
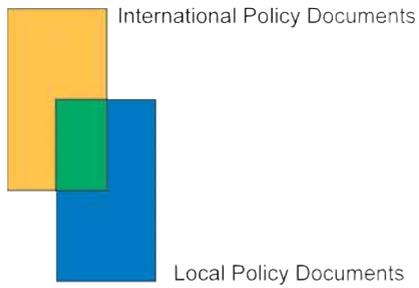


Figure 3
The figure is an abstraction of the overlapping attributes in the international and local documents.

Figure 4
The figure illustrates the process of correlation of attributes in the International and Local Documents.

Figure 3 is a symbolic representation of the area of overlapping influences. Figure 4 shows the analytical process that starts with registration of the *attributes* in the white cells to the left, and then divides them into international and local sections. Arrows leading to the map to show their impact indicate those that are found at both the international and local levels.

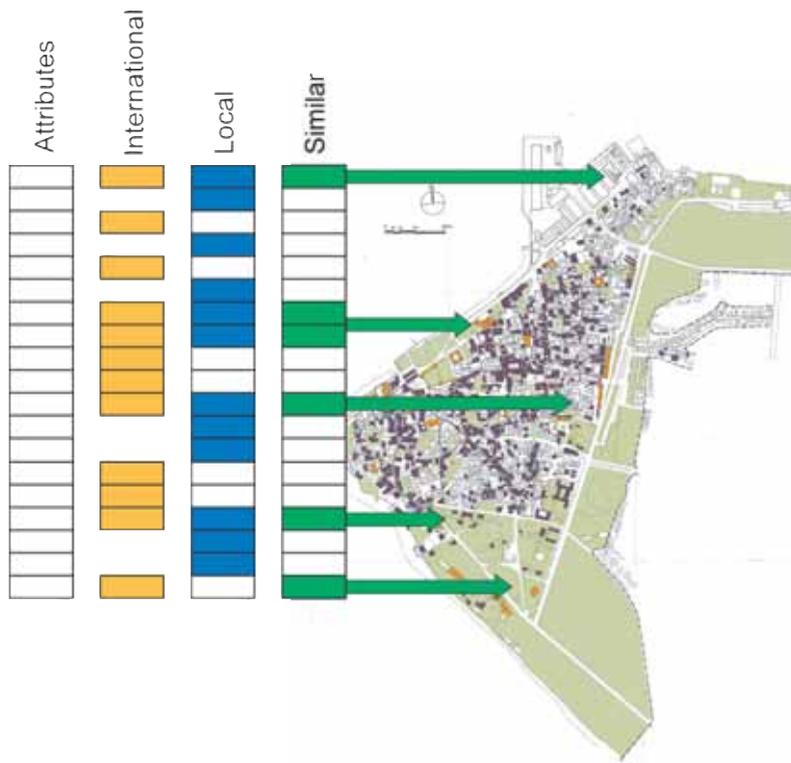


Figure 5
 This conceptualisation of the analytical process that is elaborated in Chapter 2.2 illustrates the approach of searching for the influential attributes of policy documents in the local architectural heritage management of Zanzibar Stone Town.

Through this approach two tools of operation were developed:

1. A Matrix of selected documents (Appendix I)
2. Maps of registrations of Zanzibar Stone Town (Appendix II)

To reach an operational basis for analysing the documents and the architecture (Figure 13) a common set of *attributes* was developed: producer, type, conservation, object, threats, tools and intentions (Figure 22). The documents are further explored through a vertical profile registration according to the *attributes* in Appendix I, and the architecture is registered through digital maps according to the same selection of *attributes* in Appendix II.

The reason for choosing the topic and the approach is:

- 1 To contribute to a contemporary sustainable architectural heritage management in general and especially in Zanzibar.

Then there are two immediate goals:

- 2 To contribute to an enhancement of dialogue and collaboration between policy makers and management at international as well as local level and
- 3 To develop design criteria for a contemporary sustainable heritage management of Zanzibar Stone Town.

This thesis uses a process of open coding relying on the author's knowledge of the case. Analysing and evaluating objects as dissimilar as documents and architecture has called for a new approach. Thanks to developments in digital technology such an approach has been developed and applied in this research.

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Section 1

1 FRAMEWORK OF THE RESEARCH

This chapter introduces the research topic, the background to the research and the aim of the study. It also includes the rationale for the research and a definition of the key concepts used. The uneven focus in the World Heritage List of UNESCO on cultural objects representing Europe as compared to those representing the African continent is pointed out, as is the shift in the concept of sustainability.

1.1 Background

The focus of discussion and research in international development has shifted during the past ten years. The emphasis has shifted from increasing capital and trade as the most important tools for the improvement of society to a concentration on development related to human rights and democracy, including development closely linked to identity and cultural relations.¹

Identity related to cultural heritage and architecture is important in today's complex society. We have seen terrible attacks on this heritage during the last 15 years of wars, cultural conflicts and terror attacks in the USA, Africa, Asia and Europe (Hettne, 2001:14)². The shelling of Dubrovnik, Mostar, Porec and Trogir during the military actions in the former Yugoslavia, the demolition of cultural heritage in Kuwait during the Gulf War, the destruction of the cultural heritage in the areas of Nagorno-Karabakh, the demolition of the Buddha statues in Afghanistan and the plundering of Iraqi museums are further recent examples. The terror attacks on the Twin Towers in the USA, symbols of the identity of a whole society, and the systematic demolition of cultural heritage in the Middle East and in Iraq demonstrate that cultural heritage as a builder of identity can be a target.

Non-African architects and experts produce the information available on African urban heritage development and African architectural heritage mainly in the form of listings and technical drawings³. These are neat and precise, but lack a more

¹ Fukuyama in his paper; *Economic Globalisation and Culture* presented at the Merrill Lynch Forum in 1997 claims "... that societies largely maintain their individual characteristic despite economic pressures". Hurlin, a researcher at the Danish Institute of International Affairs, lectured in November 2000 about the recent shift in the global trend of interdependency, and claimed that the new phenomenon of individuals demanding democracy, identity and civil rights is based on local and regional cooperation. Fukuyama argues that an advanced society "... has to be a democracy, ...connected to the global marketplace". But he also claims that on a cultural level there is a resistance towards homogenisation. Both Hurlin and Fukuyama claim, "... people seem to think that globalisation is more homogenizing than it really is".

² Hettne elaborates in his book published by the Swedish National Bank: *Culture – Safeness – Sustainable Development in a Globalised World* (2001) on the importance of increasing awareness of culture as an assumption for development of democracy, poverty reduction, peace and human rights.

³ The English historian Andrew Burton discusses in his book: *The Urban Experience in Eastern Africa* (2002:3) the urban history of East Africa during the past three hundred years. Burton claims that this development can be divided into four distinct periods: the first before the mid-19th century, the second from around the middle of the 19th century, the third phase of urbanisation occurring with the incursion of the European colonial rule in the last century and the fourth around 1940 caused by rural-urban migration.

reflective approach built on critical discussion. The scarcity of African authors and architects discussing cultural and architectural heritage on the African Continent and of the development of an African urbanism, leads to the hope that this thesis will contribute to an “African approach” in the development of the concept of an African architectural heritage.

During the years I have been working with capacity building among East African Universities and schools of architecture, I have experienced a shift in the African approach, moving from pure chronological registration to critical observations and research. These experiences have demonstrated to me that, in the plethora of knowledge production, only that which is gained through critical and systematic studies of assumptions and of the relationship and coherence between practice, theory and planning is sound and sustainable. I believe that such knowledge production is also a sound basis for knowledge management.

Within the field of cultural heritage there are multiple organisations, forums and institutions that for over 100 years have acted as formal and non-formal promoters, lobbying for cultural heritage policy and stressing the importance of heritage management.

During the past 25 years a number of international organisations, missions and experts concerned with architectural heritage have arrived and left Zanzibar. Reports and registers, guidelines for heritage management, proposals and plans of action can be reduced to a number of files. In 1994 the Government of Zanzibar established a legal authority, the Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority (STCDA), in charge of heritage management and of the implementation of the Plan of Action approved in the same year. In the years between 1994 and 2005 few of the suggestions put forward in the Plan of Action have been implemented, and ten years later there is still a long and challenging way to go before the goals set in the documents are fulfilled. Based on the example of Zanzibar Stone Town some of the following essential questions are formulated, investigated, discussed and tested against the concept of sustainable architectural heritage management.

Do international and local policy documents concerned with architectural heritage management have any visible and real impact on the built environment in Zanzibar Stone Town? What are the criteria for a sustainable management on the local level compared to the global level? What about community participation, transparency of management, publication of plans, and communication with the town dwellers, improvement of the life of the poor and most concerned ones, the politicians, the architectural heritage management and other relevant participants? What about skilled labour, capacity and management, self-reliance and confidence in decision making? Is there enough political will on the local level to enforce the Plan of Action? Are there sufficient resources available for the intended management of Zanzibar Stone Town? Is it a blessing or a curse to local sustainable architectural heritage management of Zanzibar Stone Town to be listed on the World Heritage List of UNESCO?

Section 1

In my research the selection of readings emerged from the need for a theoretical framework, covering cultural and architectural heritage, development studies, identity, the interaction between global and local, international policy documents and organisations and local management of architectural heritage, legal instruments and sustainable urban heritage development.

In the applied research in this field there are few intellectual tools that either prepare for investigations using analyses of texts or that allow for a deeper and more precise understanding of architecture.

As my choices of literature took shape, the influence of being taught in the Christian Norberg-Schulz⁴ school of “reading”⁵ architecture and in the discursive and critical tradition of Halina Dunin-Woyseth⁶, have been of decisive importance. In the analytical part of the thesis the method of system analyses and closed loop diagrams have been used and discussed according to the pedagogical approach used by Maria Nyström at the Division of Architecture and Development Studies, Lund Institute of Technology (LTH).

⁴ Through his book *Genius Loci* (1980) and his lectures at the Oslo School of Architecture Christian Norberg-Schulz during more than 20 years continuously drew attention to the concept of Genius Loci or, as he preferred to describe it, the spirit of the place. To catch the spirit of the place Norberg-Schulz drew the lines between a person’s place of origin and the characteristics of their environment, local building traditions and cultural behaviour. Even when Norberg-Schulz in the eyes of the students in the early 80s “preached” his theory of history as embodied in the elitist objects of architecture, big architectural axes and lines, he never forgot to link the awareness of the spirit of the place to the deeply rooted feeling of a person’s relation to the place: identity.

⁵ Norberg-Schulz (1980) clarifies and simplifies the concept of architectural space by introducing the concept of existential space and its orientation, constructive elements and organisation.

⁶ Halina Dunin-Woyseth, lecturing at the Oslo School of Architecture since 1981, developed the discursive tradition among her students by always highlighting the value of being critical and reflective. Her multicultural approach in planning and architectural research and her constant attention to the uneven distribution of wealth and development at global and regional level has been and is still of decisive importance for the reflective and discursive education of researchers and PhD students. Her research in the early 80s on her theories of “*Paradise Islands and the Paradise Channels*”, was decisive in drawing my attention to developing countries.

A search for knowledge of the history of architectural heritage as such and an African architectural heritage and urban development especially, created the literature framework of this thesis and a deep cultural understanding of the case study. In this search, the scarcity of African authors appeared in general, apart from those few who have deeply and critically described the identity and history of Zanzibar Stone Town, its origin and development⁷. Ndoro and Pwiti (2001) elaborate on the local, national and international discourse of heritage management in southern Africa and point to the fact that heritage management in this part of the continent is nothing but protective legislation (Ndoro and Pwiti, 2001: 23).

Being myself one of the external experts criticized in this thesis, I hope that the thesis and its research will nevertheless be of inspiration and help to professionals in the managing of architectural heritage and in the making of architectural heritage policy, and further to students studying development issues related to cultural and architectural heritage and identity as well as to researchers dealing with global and local interaction.

Important additional literature and documentation of East African Swahili towns was obtained through field trips and student projects carried out through the Division of Architecture and Development Studies, Lund Institute of Technology (LTH), Sweden, led by the Professors Lars Reuterswärd and Maria Nyström.

The Structure of the Research and the Thesis

The thesis is organised in three main sections. The first sets the parameters for the framework of the research and its approach. The second section describes the research landscape and the empirical investigations, and the third analyses, discusses and synthesises the investigation and the research.

The structure of the thesis governs these three sections and contains altogether six chapters, a list of Text References, Related Literature, and seven Appendices counting from I to VII.

The first section deals with the background to the thesis and the selection of methodological approach. It consists of an abstract and introductory summary, followed by the first two chapters. Chapter 1 gives an overview of the thesis, setting the background for the selected topic and then describing the research issue and the reason for doing it. Chapter 2 focuses on the approach taken and the research design, as well as the issues addressed and the research questions. This chapter also presents an introduction to the data analysis and choice of approach.

⁷ During the last 15 years and not at least during the international conference: *History and Culture of Zanzibar* in 1992, several African and Indian authors with links to Zanzibar have documented and elaborated on the development of East Africa, Zanzibar and the Stone Town. Among these, Ahmed Al-Maamiry (1988), Abdul Sheriff (1995), Mwalim A. Mwalim (1998), Lodhi (1992), Siravo (1996) and Lwamayanga (2004) have contributed to the making of an African cultural heritage awareness and identity.

Section 1

The second section contains descriptive analyses of the subject matter and the physical setting. Chapter 3 discusses the making of cultural and architectural heritage policy and management at global and local levels, giving the theoretical background. It contains a literature review and discusses both the context and the key concepts of the thesis, namely sustainable development, architectural heritage and the Swahili Stone Town. Chapter 4 introduces and describes the test case: Zanzibar Stone Town, both in a historical context and in an architectural heritage management context. The chapter also sets the framework for the built environment and management of Zanzibar Stone Town to be addressed in the next section.

The third section deals with the thesis and its findings. Chapter 5 focuses on the objectives of the thesis, intentions versus reality, and contains the analysis of data. Chapter 6 comments on and tests the findings against the assumptions. This chapter also concludes the thesis and drafts a design for a reconsideration of an architectural heritage policy and management with regard to sustainable development of urban historic architecture.

Terminology

Some concepts are more deeply investigated than others during the research, but all are important for the context and reading of the thesis. As mentioned, the key concepts are elaborated in chapter 3, while some important terms used throughout are touched on here.

Keywords:

Intentions, reality, architectural and cultural heritage, policy documents, sustainability, sustainable management, design criteria, identity, global and local, and the selection of attributes: producer, type, conservation, object, threat, tool and intention.

- *Intentions* are used in two ways in this thesis; one in relation to *Intentions and Reality* as used in the headline of the thesis, where intention means the espoused aim of the policy documents. The other meaning of *intentions* is where it is used in decoding the *attribute, as intentions* deduced from detailed analysis of the documents (5.2, 5.3 and 5.4)
- *Reality* in this thesis is represented by the architecture of Zanzibar Stone Town (5.6)
- *Architectural and cultural heritage* is accepted as described in the UNESCO 1972 convention: *Convention Concerning the Protection of the Cultural and Natural Heritage* (Article 1) (Appendix III v) defining “cultural heritage” being: *groups of separate or connected buildings which, because of their homogeneity or their place in the landscape, are of outstanding universal value from the point of view of history*, and as in *Stone Town Conservation Plan, 1993* (Part I and IV) (Appendix IV vi).
- *Policy documents* are international policy documents and local plans and legal documents in addition to two documents, one local and one international, both concerning the announcement of Zanzibar Stone Town being listed on the World Heritage List of UNESCO (3.4 and 4.5.2)

- *Sustainability* used in this study has the connotation given in “*Our Common Future*” (Brundtland, 1987) combining economic, social and ecological dimensions and adding the ethical value of culture.
- *Sustainable management* is the key concept of this thesis and is elaborated below.
The relevance of the concept of *Sustainable management* is discussed in general in relation to current debate and specifically in relation to architectural heritage management and to Zanzibar Stone Town (3.4.4 and 4.6)
- *Design Criteria* are in this thesis used as a tool in developing a new strategy for a sustainable architectural heritage management (4.6 and 5.3.1)
- The term *identity* is used in this thesis as an element of coherence in relation to the architecture of Zanzibar Stone Town (3.3.6 and 4.1).
- *Global* represents the international society of today dealing with cultural and architectural heritage and is characterized by relevant international organisations and their policy documents (3.4.3 and Appendix I and III)
- *Local* is in this thesis the Zanzibar Stone Town and local level is to be understood as the local government of Zanzibar and the heritage management authority: STCDA – Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority (4.3, 4.4 and 4.5).
- The term *attributes* is used to denote the characteristics used as common denominators in the process of decoding the documents and “reading” the architecture. The following sorts of *attributes* are used in the decoding and “reading”:
- *Producer* is used to name those organisations or legal bodies in charge of the documents and the architecture.
- *Type* refers to the sorts of documents.
- *Conservation* refers to the conservation activities highlighted in the documents and emphasised in the heritage management of Zanzibar Stone Town.
- *Object* refers to the kind of architectural and cultural heritage aspects that are focused on in the documents and in Zanzibar Stone Town.
- *Threat* is, as the word itself clearly explains, the threat to a sustainable architectural heritage management found both in the documents and in Zanzibar Stone Town.
- *Tool* connotes a tool of management.
- *Intention* refers to the anticipated aims of the documents as stated within them.

Section 1

The concept of *sustainability* is rooted in economic, social and environmental factors according to an extensive literature. It is explored in this thesis through a search for dynamic characteristics to develop a meaningful and locally derived knowledge based on local experience and reflecting local needs in a long-term perspective, in relation to cultural and architectural heritage management. However, cultural and architectural heritage management is itself a complex area with no unifying concept or definition. For architects and planners as researchers within the “making” professions⁸ who use trans-disciplinary approaches in their research, the traditional cultural dimension is an important element affecting development of societies, and this goes far beyond the traditional culture-related sectors such as film, theatre, music and architecture. Hettne underlines the coherence of sustainable development to culture, identity and human rights (2001:12).

The tendency to integrate value-loaded concepts into the interpretation of sustainability is further elaborated during the analytical process of the selected documents. This thesis elaborates on the concept of sustainability and on a sustainable heritage management. Further, it sets sustainability as the main parameter for a model of rethinking architectural heritage management and redesigning criteria and parameters for such a sustainable architectural heritage management. In the conclusion of this thesis the term *sustainable* is reconsidered according to the perception of the intentions found in the policy documents and tested in relation to the architectural management of Zanzibar Stone Town and improvement of the life of its inhabitants in the long term.

Taking the concept of sustainability set out in *Our Common Future* by the World Commission on Environment and Development in 1987, it is defined in relation to economic growth, environment and a forceful social growth (Brundtland, 1987) (Appendix III:x). “*Sustainable development is development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs*” (1987:43). However, the concept of *sustainability* in today’s discussion has changed. *Our Common Future* sets the focus on economic, social and environmental factors. During the last ten years the emphasis in the international debate related to sustainable development and development research has shifted from focusing on the increase in trade and capital as the main factors for the improvement of society to concentrate on development related to human rights and democracy rooted in culture, identity and local coherence (Hettne, 2001:13).

⁸ In *The Oslo Millennium Reader – Towards a Disciplinary Identity of the Making Professions* Dunin-Woyseth and Jan Michl discuss the production of knowledge in these professions and they “choose to apply the term making professions...” being those “related to the field of art production, object design, industrial design, architecture, landscape architecture, urban design and spatial planning”. The authors of the article suggest this labelling and refer to the ongoing processes in European and American “design education circles” searching for an establishment of a common platform of “a professional discourse”. The Swedish architect and professor Jerker Lundequist claims in the same article “...architecture is a profession which can manage historically determined social and cultural values, i.e. which has the ability to promote and defend these values ...” (AHO, 2001:5)

This shift in focus from trade and capital to human rights and democracy, and from globalisation to regional and local emphasis, entails an approach to development policy that is neither global nor local but *both* globally oriented *and* locally rooted. Contemporary development discussion is sharpening the focus on the regional and the local aspect much more than just a few years ago, and makes claims regarding sustainability with respect to all aspects and levels. Today a sustainable cultural and architectural heritage should be inevitable in all policy discussions and management at international as well as local level.

Cultural identity is an important part of building self-awareness and social development. Sound national identity is grounded in local and historical roots and should be just as important when it comes to development cooperation as it is within national strategies and international cooperation. Bengt O.H. Johansson, head of the Swedish organisation; *Heritage without Borders*, points at the obvious: that nations when designing their development strategies should emphasise the importance of cultural heritage in their development policy as much as in the national strategies (Johansson, 2001) and highlights the aspects of tolerance, ethnicity, diversity and self-respect as decisive for sustainable development and sustainable heritage management.

Ndoro and Pwiti (2001:21) claim that “Heritage management in Southern Africa has been the by-product of colonialism” and still is. They also argue “successful heritage management should involve the local populations and should integrate both traditional and scientific procedures”.

Today’s concept of sustainable development and management has focused clearly on a bottom up approach ⁹, and on the strengthening of local and regional levels with the aim of increasing the quality of life, sense of identity, self-respect, awareness and social cohesion.

Many historical towns and cities in countries that industrialised late in their history represent important cultural and historical traces of the past, not only in an international and global context, but as a means of creating a local identity and a local sustainable development and as a carrier of the collective memory (Boyer, 1994). National heritage strengthens the identity of a society and is a source of its ancestry, important for the development of a sound and sustainable society. Cultural and architectural heritage, identity and social development form a triangle with all sides equal. In such late industrialised countries with scarce economic resources, restoration and protection of cultural and architectural heritage is often a utopian task even when national heritage is of invaluable, global and national importance.

⁹ The UN *Sustainable Cities Programme* was launched in 1978 in the wake of the Vancouver Habitat Conference in 1976 and later was a follow-up of Agenda 21 by UN-HABITAT. It has implemented SCP projects all over the world.

Section 1

Out of the 788 sites enrolled in UNESCO's World Heritage List¹⁰, 50 are to be found on the African continent. According to the UNESCO/ICCROM program *Africa 2009*, 32 countries south of the Sahara have registered their national heritage. In most of the cases these inventories are incomplete according to formal registration methods. Efforts are being made to complete the lists and the registration in more than half of the cases. The heritage inventories are diverse. They vary from single handicraft objects to caves, historic sites and built objects. Most are archaeological sites, monuments and religious buildings, but housing and urban areas are also strongly represented.

Many processes in society take place at an indefensibly slow pace, but the deterioration of the built cultural heritage proceeds with speed due to lack of action and lack of enforcement of existing decisions and legal instruments, as well as uncontrolled exploitation of land use and pollution, and decrease of tourism. In many countries the authorities concerned have no relevant planning tools to initiate plans, discussions and actions aimed at preserving their cultural, historical treasures. At best, local professional understanding exists, but there is little political will to implement existing plans for restoration, conservation and rehabilitation. Despite this negative picture there are pioneer examples among the African countries where, in spite of overwhelming challenges in coping with everyday life, there are initiatives in the management of the cultural heritage worth support at all levels.

¹⁰ International Centre for Conservation (ICCROM) launched in 1998 the programme: *Africa 2009*. The aim of the programme is to develop a long-term and sustainable platform of improvement of the conditions for the conservation of immovable heritage in Sub-Saharan African countries. During the programme period one of the actions is to register the status of architectural heritage management in the participating countries.

1.2 Point of Departure

The geographical area of this thesis is the East African coastline of Tanzania with focus on the historic Stone Town on Unguja Island in the Zanzibar Archipelago of Tanzania, often called the Stone Town of Zanzibar (Figure 6).

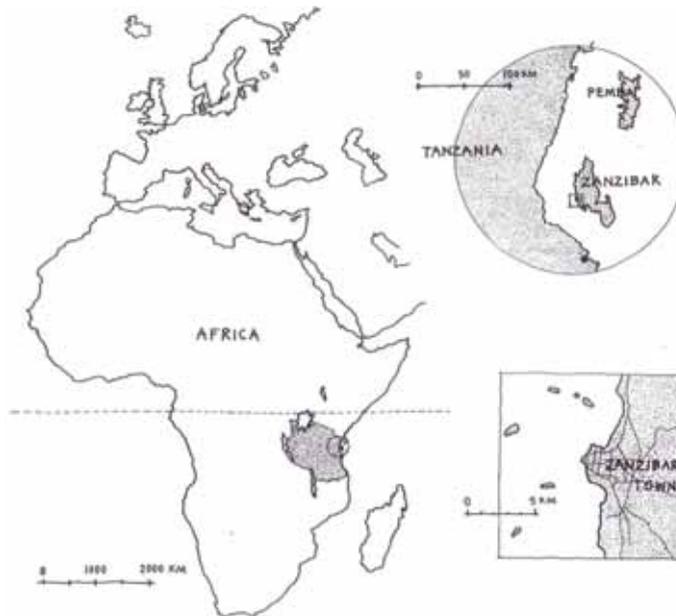


Figure 6
Map of Africa with focus on Zanzibar -six degrees south of the Equator.

Over more than four thousand years, innumerable ports and trading towns have flourished and disappeared along the East African coastline. Merchants left their traces on the coasts of the Indian Ocean, from Indonesia and the Maldives in the East to Mozambique and Zanzibar in the West.

The present Stone Towns of East Africa, overlooking the Indian Ocean (Figure 7), still carry memories of fame and fall, of a rich and strange sea-borne culture. The Stone Towns on the East coast of Africa embody memories of an urban development influenced by a great number of immigrant groups and cultural exchanges and centuries of trade across the sea, including 50 years of strong Portuguese predominance and 100 years of colonialism.

The subject researched has been chosen for two reasons. The first, on a micro level, is related to the conservation management of Zanzibar Stone Town. The other, on a macro level, involves studying and discussing globalisation and internationalisation and their impact and influence on the development of a local sustainable architectural heritage policy and management.



Figure 7
Map of Tanzania illustrating the country's coastline bordering the Indian Ocean.

Zanzibar Government arranged the first International Conference on Culture and Architectural Heritage gathering researchers from all over the world in 1992. Attending this conference became the point of departure for this research and the thesis.

1.3 Research Issue

The purpose of this research is to study *intentions and policy*, and *reality* in the field of architectural heritage management. These are intentions that are formulated in international and local policy documents like charters and conventions, as well as recommendations and legal instruments like acts and decrees related to architectural heritage management and policy and reality represented by Zanzibar Stone Town (Figure 8).

This is illustrated for example by the intention to strengthen local authorities mentioned in *Athens Charter* (1931) (Appendix III, i), in *Declaration of Amsterdam* (1971) (Appendix III, vi), in *Bruges Resolution* (1975) (Appendix III, vii), in *Washington Charter* (1987) (App. III, ix), in *International Cultural Tourism Charter* (1999) (Appendix III, xiii) and in *Letter of Inclusion on the World Heritage List* from UNESCO (2000) (Appendix III, xv). The thesis examines whether this is reflected in local policy documents on Zanzibar and if strengthening of local authorities is to be seen in *reality*: the management of the Stone Town.

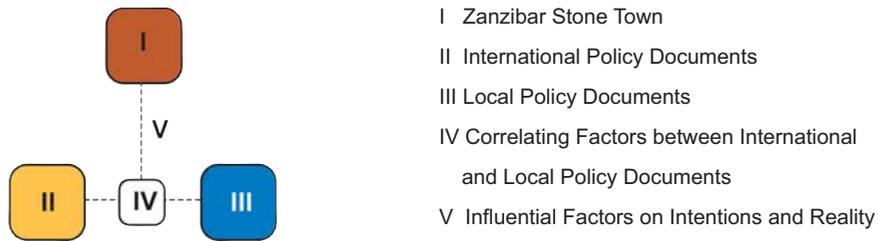


Figure 8

The figure showing the three main objects of study: Zanzibar Stone Town, International and Local policy papers regarding architectural heritage. The signature of the figure and the interrelations of its objects is the visual guideline used throughout the thesis.

The thesis moves in the borderland between the morphological perspective of space syntax by “reading” architecture, a hermeneutic approach, and computer technology, to clarify the ground and conditions of reading and coding the documents and the architecture.

Issues addressed in the thesis are those affecting the inter-relationship of a sustainable architectural heritage management on local and global level. These include for example the influence of international charters on local policymaking, the interconnection of sustainable architectural heritage management and local and political awareness, and the need to develop new approaches for an architectural heritage management that is locally as well as globally rooted.

1.4 Aims and Objectives of the Research

The thesis focuses on the relation between the anticipated effect of policy documents in the field of architectural heritage and the real effect – intentions versus reality.

The aims of this research are both general and specific. The research is general in the sense that it explores the relation between international and local level within the field of architectural heritage policy and specific in that it examines Zanzibar Stone Town and relevant international and local policy documents.

The main aim of this research is hence to contribute to the Government of Zanzibar developing a management strategy that is both relevant to local needs and responsive to international demands.

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Following from this, the aim of the research is four fold:

- To support the development of a sustainable architectural heritage management.
- To contribute to the development of a tool of understanding political documents versus architectural heritage.
- To contribute to enhancing the dialogue and collaboration between policy makers and management on international as well as local level.
- To develop design criteria for a local, sustainable heritage management of Zanzibar Stone Town.

The main objective of the research is therefore to identify and analyse correlating and coherent architectural and policy *attributes* within the concept of sustainable architectural heritage management.

Following from this, specific research objectives are:

- To define the relation between the architectural object and policy in use related to the management of architectural heritage and to see if the international and local documents reach the espoused objectives.
- To define, investigate and analyse common *attributes* of artefacts and documents in the field of architectural heritage.
- To promote the development of a communication tool between artefacts and documents, so as to be able to define new design criteria for architectural heritage management.

2 RESEARCH DESIGN, APPROACH and TOOLS

The approach of the research and the operative factors in the thesis as shown in Figure 9 are explored in this chapter, which also explains the design of the research, the operational tools, their interrelations and their influence. The analysis is based on testing correlating *attributes* between policy documents and the architecture of Zanzibar Stone Town.

2.1 The Issue

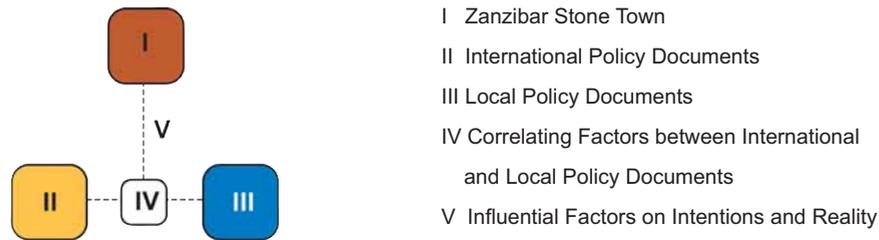


Figure 9

The diagram illustrates the analytical process of the two kinds of policy documents and their influence on the built environment, Zanzibar Stone Town.

The field studies, observations and registration framing the research were done in the years between 1980 and 2005. During these 25 years numerous external experts and international organisations arrived and left Zanzibar, enriching it with documentation and well-intended plans for the future of the historic Zanzibar Stone Town. Reports, guidelines, recommendations for action and management proposals for the historic Stone Town emerged one after the other.

2.1.1 Research Questions

The main objective of the research being to identify and analyse correlating and coherent architectural and policy *attributes* within the concept of sustainable architectural management as described in chapter one, the following crucial research questions are raised by the observations:

1. Do the various documents produced by international organisations and external experts have any impact on the management of the Stone Town?
2. If so, are these influences to be observed in the built environment itself.
3. If not, why?
4. Is the local community involved in cultural heritage management plans?
5. Is the cultural heritage policy of Zanzibar Stone Town consistent with sustainable development?
6. Are there sufficient resources available for the management of the Stone Town?

The experiences, reflections and questions raised by the case study form the backbone of the research design and the title of the thesis:

Intentions and Reality in Architectural Heritage Management
 In Search of the Influence of International Policy Documents on Contemporary Sustainable Local Heritage Management
 Case: Zanzibar Stone Town, Tanzania

Figure 10

The title of the thesis reflects the questions raised by the case study.

2.2 Assumptions and Statements of the Issue

Built on the observations and research of Zanzibar Stone Town three assumptions were framed:

1. There is too little awareness among local politicians about the importance of architectural heritage management.
2. Sustainable development in architectural heritage policy and management is not adequately addressed, either at international or at local level.
3. There is a great difference between the intentions in architectural heritage policy documents and the results observed in the built environment.

In 2002, after the second field study in Zanzibar, the third assumption had to be revised because of findings.

From: There is a great difference between the intentions in architectural heritage policy documents and the results observed in the built environment.

To: *There is a great difference at local level between the intentions found in policy documents versus reality seen in the built environment in Zanzibar Stone Town.*

This shift derived from the recognition that there is a need to distinguish between intentions and reality in general with regard to architectural heritage policy and management, and intentions and reality in a local context. For the first time the analysis and the observations made a distinct difference between the international and local level, leading to this change in the third assumption. The reason for this change is further elaborated and discussed in chapter 6.2.

Two more assumptions were added:

4. The influence of international charters, policy documents and organisations is to be seen in the management of the built environment in the Stone Town.
5. New design criteria for obtaining a sustainable architectural heritage management are needed.

2.3 Approach

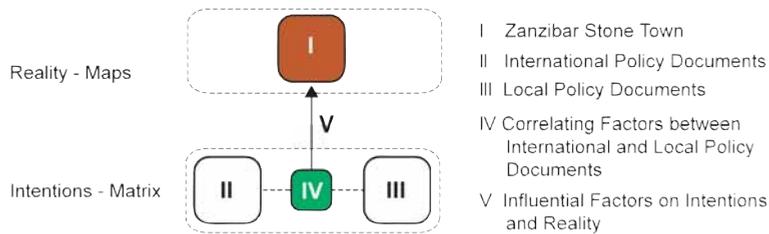
The research design and approach are based on two main objects of analysis and three main concepts. The analysis focuses on the architectural object Zanzibar Stone Town and on policy documents at international and local level. The concepts are sustainable management, architectural heritage and Swahili urban architecture.

The research into the charters and policy papers led to a genuine comparative analysis and to a search for an underlying and hidden structure that reflects the empirical material.

The research design was shaped with the intention that it should be operational. It is based on case study research as developed by, among others, the sociologist and psychologist Robert K. Yin (1994) who states: “In general, case studies are the preferred strategy when “*how*” or “*why*” questions are being posed, when the investigator has little control over events, and when the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within some real-life context”. The approach of linking data with the aim gives a useful and operative structure to this research and functions as a link between the empirical data and the assumptions.

At the heart of the major part of the discussion is the search, among comparable physical objects, for an underlying structure that is meaningful. Relevant literature about the development of theory in the field of cultural heritage and the “reading” of architecture (Leach, 1997:127) supports this task.

The literature search showed that within the field of architectural research there was no established approach on how to move analytically between documents and the built environment. Developing a set of mediating *attributes* has been decisive (Figure 14). The text analysis is based on a qualitative approach by coding and decoding the documents in a modified version of Grounded Theory (GT) (Ricoeur, 1981, and Glaser and Strauss, 1967) (Appendix Va). The analysis of quantitative registrations related to the built environment in Zanzibar Stone Town uses a morphological and intuitive approach and decodes them in relation to useful characteristics and the methodology of Geographic Information System (GIS) - Appendix II and Appendix Vb.

REALITY –mapping the Artefacts*INTENTIONS –analysing of international and local documents.**Figure 11*

The diagram illustrates the two main factors; Reality represented by the built environment (I) and Intentions represented by International and Local Policy Documents (II and III). It also illustrates the two analytical actions: IV – the correlation of the international and the local documents and V – the testing of the findings onto Zanzibar Stone Town.

Ricoeur (1981), Glaser and Strauss (1967) test their analytical approach to Grounded Theory on subjects within sociology. This research differs in analysing the influences of documents on architecture. Figure 11 illustrates the analytical and testing approach by demonstrating the process of correlation of the two categories of documents II and III with the built environment through the testing and analysing of a set of common attributes in V on the built environment.

In the process of establishing the analytical basis for the thesis, policy documents were collected. As the collection increased a need for a sorting and interpreting tool arose and led to the finding of keywords and questions that could be the basic metaphors, as well as a methodology that could show the way forwards to text analysis and to “reading”¹ artefacts.

This process can be described as a search for a methodology or methodologies useful for the project that could constantly shift between a mega perspective and a micro perspective, between documents and architecture, and between intentions and reality (Figure 12). The search for methodologies and theories led to two analytical tools useful for the purpose: the methodology of Geographic Information System (GIS) registration and the methodology of decoding used in Grounded Theory (GT).

¹ In the process of reading the Washington Jewish Museum, the anthropologist Magali Sarfatti Larson (1993) decoded the architecture in relation to answers from visitors on questions on how they “felt” the building as a way of reading, while Christian Norberg-Schultz in 1985 with his book *The Concept of Dwelling* introduces space, character and atmosphere as vital elements in the “reading” of a distinct place. In 1980 he had argued in *Genius Loci – Towards a Phenomenology of Architecture* for the approach of decomposition of the architectural elements, the morphology of architecture and its spatial organisation and typology together with the topology of the built structure as being a way of reading architecture.

Section 1

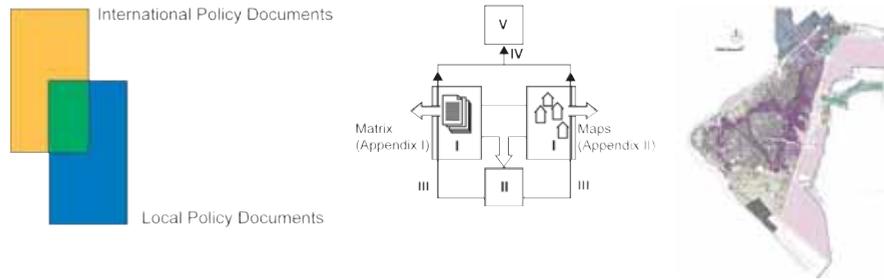


Figure 12

The illustration shows the influence from international documents on local policy documents. Some of the attributes according to the Matrix (Appendix I) seen in the local documents are found in the international documents and some not found.

Searching for methods and tools to bridge the gap between analyses of documents and decoding the architecture of Zanzibar Stone Town shows that, for the moment, they are scarce and their interrelation is often invisible due to their different characters.

The intent of the approach is to design:

- a platform of understanding
- an analytical tool allowing parallel incorporation of documents and architectural characteristics

The basic characteristic of the research strategy is a broad and open approach:

- The aim of this approach is to develop a method that provides a useful analytical tool enabling a variety of users and decision makers to “read” architecture and analyse documents.

The knowledge that arises is shown in the overlap (V) between the two objects, the artefact and the documents, and represents a situation where the influence of policy documents is to be observed in the built environment (Figure 11 and 12).

Setting the emphasis on the influence of policy documents on architectural heritage in this thesis does not mean that other parameters are not important in heritage management. These influential factors include socio-economic conditions, social attitudes, eradication of poverty, pollution, environmental degradation and access to economic resources, to mention but a few. These topics are not elaborated in this study as for some they belong to other disciplines. Another aspect not studied here is the development of the “mother cities” of the Stone Towns in Arabia and India.

2.3.1 Research Methods

Developing the method has been a process of finding a mental organiser to separate between summarizing and conceptualising. In this thesis the interaction between policy documents and the registration of the architectural objects develops a new approach within architectural research by bridging the gap between qualitative and

quantitative data. The amalgamating dialogue in this thesis may be looked on as the “glue” between the two analytical methods used, namely cognitive learning theories applied in computer science (Gardner, 1985) and semiotics used in text analyses. This demanded the creation of a tool of operation – a set of *attributes* – that can move between generic research and research executed within the making disciplines (Jensen, 2001). The objective of developing this method of interaction between qualitative and quantitative data is to create a tool for setting new design criteria for a sustainable architectural heritage management.

In this thesis the methodology of GT is used first in the process of open coding and then later to sharpen the qualitative indicators applied to the documents so as to design a database of *attributes* within the documents that are comparable to the quantitative architectural objects in the empirical materials (Strauss, 1998). By modifying the GT methodology in relation to the computer software of GIS (Figure 13) the approach used in this thesis designs and creates an operational tool for correlating the documents with physical reality. Andy Mitchell states that the outcome and usefulness of GIS as an analytical tool depends on “your original question and how the results of the analysis will be used” (1999:11).

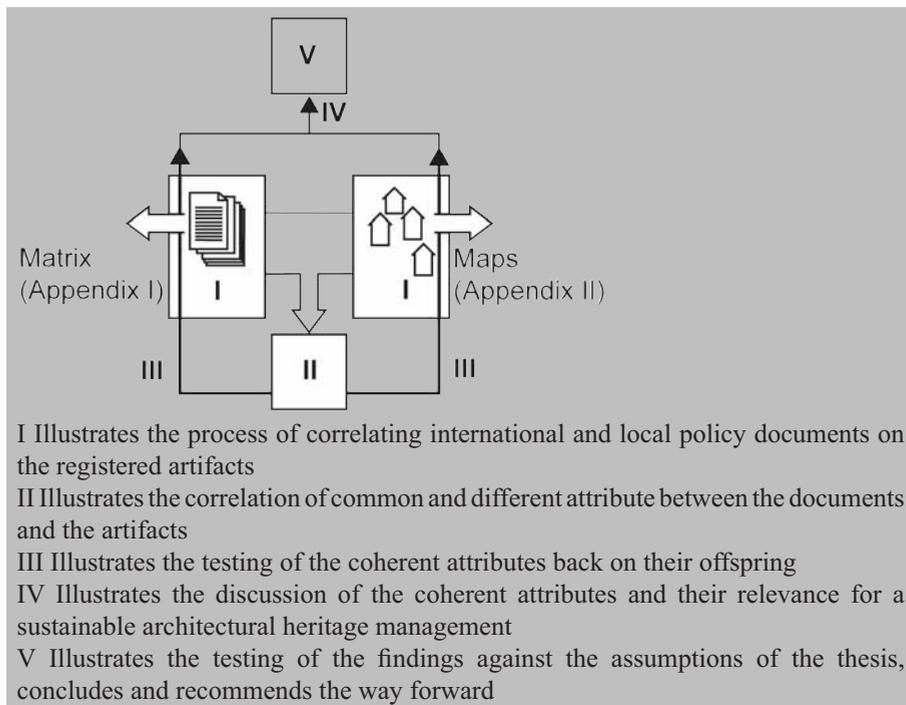


Figure 13

The illustration is an abstraction of the research design, the approach and used objects, matrix, literature and maps.

2.3.2 The Tool

The analytical approach manoeuvres between architecture and texts, as well as between the two conventional and recognised positions of qualitative and quantitative empirical data. Alvesson and Skjöldberg discuss in their book *Interpretation and Reflection* a state where qualitative empirical enquiry can be precise enough and at the same time open enough to contain the diversity and complexity of the empirical material, and is precise enough to be regarded as scientific research (1994:9).

Concern for the validity of the empirical data has been a major question in this research. The approach is based on modified “constructivist”² Grounded Theory (GT)³ that starts wide and open and successively narrows the selection of questions. The final analyses in this research are executed on defined empirical data based on *attributes* that mediate between the documents and the built environment and are visualised through a series of registrations and drawings.

Category: Cultural and Architectural Heritage.	International Policy Documents										Local Documents				
	Attributes	Producer	Type	Conservation	Object	Threat	Tool	Intentions							
The Athens Charter for the restoration of Historic Monuments. 1931															
Universal Declaration of Human Rights 1948															
The Hague Convention, 1954 (1969)															
The Venice Charter International Charter for the Conservation and Restoration of Monuments and Sites															
Convention Concerning the Protection of the Culture and Natural Heritage. 1972															
The Declaration of Amsterdam, European Charter of the Architectural Heritage. 1975															
The Bruges Resolution, Resolution for Conservation of smaller historic towns. 1975															
The Granada Convention, Convention for the Protection of the Architectural Heritage of Europe. 1985															
The Washington Charter, Charter for the Conservation of Historic Towns and Urban Areas. 1987															
Our Common Future. 1987															
The Nara Document on Authenticity. 1994															
The Istanbul Declaration, the Habitat Agenda 1996															
International Cultural Tourism Charter, 1999															
The Declaration on our Cultural Diversity, 2001															
Inclusion of Zanzibar Stone Town on the World Heritage List. 2000															
Lanchester Plan, 1923															
Township Decree, 1929 (55)															
The Town and Planning Bill, 1955															
Stonetown Conservation Plan, December 1993															
The Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority Act No 3, 1994															
The Town and Country Planning Decree (Cap 85), 1994															
Application for Nomination of Zanzibar Stone Town on the World Heritage List. 1997-98															
Zanzibar Vision 2020, 2000															

Figure 14
The diagram illustrates the selection of attributes on the vertical axis and the selection of documents on the horizontal axis.

² According to the recent discussions regarding the development of Grounded Theory reflected by Denzin in the book *The many faces of emotionality* (1992) and by Glaser in his *Constructivist Grounded Theory?* (2002) a new interpretation of Grounded Theory is emerging leading to the theory that there is a relation between what we do, think and feel. A constructivist approach to Grounded Theory posits that our apprehension of the truth relies on our perspectives and objectives. Anyhow, Østerud (1998) claims that interpretation of truth is relative to the social background.

³ Grounded Theory and its interpretation and challenges are further elaborated in Appendix V a and in 2.3.3.

Two sets of tools or data models are developed to execute the analysis, a registration of the profiles of the documents in the *Matrix – Appendix I* (Figure 13) and a set of *Maps – Appendix II*. Figure 15 illustrates how the *attributes* in the documents are horizontally correlated and analysed and then tested on the architecture of Zanzibar Stone Town. The first column illustrates the *attributes* found in the international documents and the second the *attributes* represented in local documents. The third column shows where the intentions differ and the fourth illustrates the compressed fields of identical *attributes*.



Figure 15
The illustration shows the search for influence of policy documents in the built environment.

This is made operational as follows: first all *attributes* mentioned in the documents are registered, then similarities and differences in the two kinds of documents, the international and the local, are defined. The next step is to formulate more specific questions, including defining similar *attributes*. This analytical approach starts wide and open and then specifies the questions, which leads to even more “pure” and precise empirical material. This research design is closely related to the theory of the inductive spiral by producing assumptions on observation and experience and further testing the new assumptions (Jensen, 2001:50).

Section 1



Figure 16

The figure is an abstraction of the correlation of attributes in the two kinds of documents.

The process of developing a reliable methodology started with an open approach relying on one set of observations and ending up with a new set of *attributes* developed through a dialogue fusing the two methods together. The outcome is then filtered through the initial analysis and emerges purified and even more precise. This process is graphically explained in Figure 13.

To tie the *attributes* of the documents to the *attributes* of the built environment, the dialogue acts as mediator and bridge between the two data models. To achieve an interaction between the two methods of analysis, the critical point was to choose a correlating vocabulary and a set of *attributes*. To gain the greatest possible validity in the results it was necessary to retest the data and be open to new sets of *attributes*.

This way of continually testing the hypotheses when new *attributes* and characteristics appear does not give an accurate and strict new theory but an open and more inclusive approach. Understanding and generating architecture and the artefact-finding process are dependent on “readers” and researchers related to the “making” disciplines (Leach, 1997:86).

The methodology of GT used in sociological research focuses on qualitative data because of the characteristics of the discipline. Sociological research is often based on qualitative methods i.e. research of consequences, patterns, norms and systems⁴. To fit this research the approach of GT was modified so that the *attributes* could be considered in a constructive manner to permit dialogue between the documents and the architecture. This research on the management of Zanzibar Stone Town tests and analyses the synergy released between the global society of architectural heritage and local management.

There are two main layers of correlation and relation between the concepts in this project. The first is between policy documents, the international documents and the local documents. The second is between the policy documents and the case study, Zanzibar Stone Town. In order to create an operational level for the relationship

⁴ According to Strauss (1998) one goal of developing Grounded Theory is to embrace the establishing of empirical generalisation helping to broaden the view of research and applicability. Grounded Theory examines where the facts are similar or different and creates families of categories and attributes that increase the generality of the families.

between the policy documents and the built reality the search for a common language to code and decode the documents and define the *attributes* in the documents as well as in the geographical mappings has been crucial.

In order to reach this stage of correlation two tools of operation were developed: a *Matrix of documents* (Figure 14) and *Maps of relevant registrations* (Figure 17), in order to derive a set of comparable *attributes* (Figure 14).



Figure 17 (Appendix II v)
Geographic registrations of Land Use and Zoning illustrate areas of residential, commercial, mixed residential and retail, cultural and public institutions, and recreational areas.

The theory in this research develops as a result of a process of well-codified *attributes* in the empirical material and questions arising from the conceptual categories and their *attributes*. The use of an open approach allows the categories to be influenced. Forming the assumptions has been a suitable tool for providing modes of conceptualisation to describe and explain quantitative and qualitative data.

2.3.3 Defining the Approach

Grounded Theory (GT), developed from social science, is used in the process of analysing and coding the policy documents: the texts, the international charters and the national legal documents (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). “Modified”⁵ methodologies of both GIS (Geographic Information System) and GT are used in the registration and the analysis of the built environment, in understanding the data, and in analysing and finding patterns and related families in “reading” the architecture.

1. *Grounded Theory (GT). (Appendix V a)*

Decoding and analysing texts and documents is an academically accepted approach to research, while “reading”⁶ architecture is accepted as an analytical tool. Although there are few researchers experimenting with the “reading” of architecture as an analytical approach by studying the interpretation of architecture in relation to society, there are two worth noting, the architect Roderick J. Lawrence (1986) and the anthropologist Magali Sarfatti Larson (1993).

In the article *Type as Analytical Tool: Reinterpretation and Application*, Lawrence (1986) elaborates on the definition of types and typologies and their multidimensional cognitive structures. He claims that if his chosen method of typology is based on accepted conventions of people from different cultures but simultaneously linked to the subject of analysis, “then architectural type can be used as an analytical tool”. Lawrence refers to the work done by Etienne Geoffrey Saint-Hillarie (1772 – 1884), Bertrand Russell (1872 –1970) and Max Weber (1864 – 1920) as pioneers in the field of using “reading” as an analytical tool in systematic methods of study. He also points to the fact that even though this tool has been used in other sciences for many years, it has hardly ever been used for architectural analysis or architectural discourse in general.

⁵ Since the method of Grounded Theory (GT) was developed for use in sociology it was originally designed to answer other kinds of questions and with the main objective being to create theories. This thesis uses the basic approach of both Geographic Information System (GIS) and Grounded Theory (GT) in the selection and handling of documents but modifies both of them. In the case of GT, this is so in that the analysis does not aim at generating theory. GIS likewise has been used not as an ordinary tool of mapping but mainly as a structural method to enable building a GIS data base as an operating tool. This is why I label both approaches as “modified” methodologies. Both GIS and GT are useful operational tools for this thesis because both reveal an approach to decomposing empirical reality.

⁶ The architect De Carlo says in his article: *Thoughts around a Project* (Architectural Review No. 3, 1991: 42) “Reading of architectural forms implies a global judgement on the destiny of the urban context they belong to. In this sense the reading of architectural forms is design as well as analysis”.

To verify the layers and the multidimensional aspects of defining the typology of architecture, Lawrence (1986) refers to his research executed in Switzerland, based on Habraken's ⁷ use of the three implicit parts: the designer, the maker and the user. Lawrence claims that the correlation between image and reality – and between process and product – is a mental representation of an object and its physical manifestation.

Lawrence uses six criteria ⁸ in his analysis of the building and dwelling design in urban domesticity in Switzerland, and elaborates on the typology of a specific object: urban rental housing constructed in Fribourg, Geneva, and Le Locle between 1860 and 1960.

The anthropologist Magali Sarfatti Larson mediates an equally analytical approach in her research on “reading” the Holocaust Museum in Washington (1993), moving between denotation and connotation, and between intentions and built architectural structure.

2. *Geographic Information Systems (GIS) (Appendix V b)*

In order to create the operational possibility of analysing *attributes* and moving between documents and built environment, a suitable analytical approach had to be designed for the purpose of developing this thesis, using the method of Geographic Information Systems (GIS).

An underlying spatial pattern parallel to the text analysis of Grounded Theory became visible in the process of mapping Zanzibar Stone Town. The pattern of elements that became visible allowed interoperability across the two data models and the approach to method became viable. Moving between the GIS layers of coding of data and the analysis according to GT shows similarities and differences in the built structure of the Stone Town in relation to the *attributes* of the documents.

The GIS mapping system is a useful tool for the purpose of revealing areas where the characteristics or the *attributes* are dense or few, similar or different (such as densely populated areas and thinly populated areas), showing areas of change in land use (Figure 18a) (i.e. Sokomhogo Figure 160), Zanzibar Stone Town as such, high and low activity areas, areas of special interest such as centres, places or nodes, directions and paths, architectural characteristics and archetypes (Figure 18b and 101).

⁷ On page 274 in the article mentioned above Lawrence says: “If this wider perspective is adopted (referring to Habraken's principles of classification) the concept of type is not merely descriptive or prescriptive, as most architectural interpretations claim, but, above all, type is a corpus of shared knowledge and conventions that structure knowledge, action, and material culture”.

⁸ In his book; *Le seul franchi ... Logement populaire et vie quotidienne en Suisse romande 1860-1960*, Lawrence develop six criteria for selection of houses in the French- influenced part of Switzerland. The criteria of selection are according to Lawrence: outdoor spaces of the houses, the facades, the area set out for common use within the flat, the entrance or the vestibule, localisation of the technical facilities and the distribution of the indoor areas.

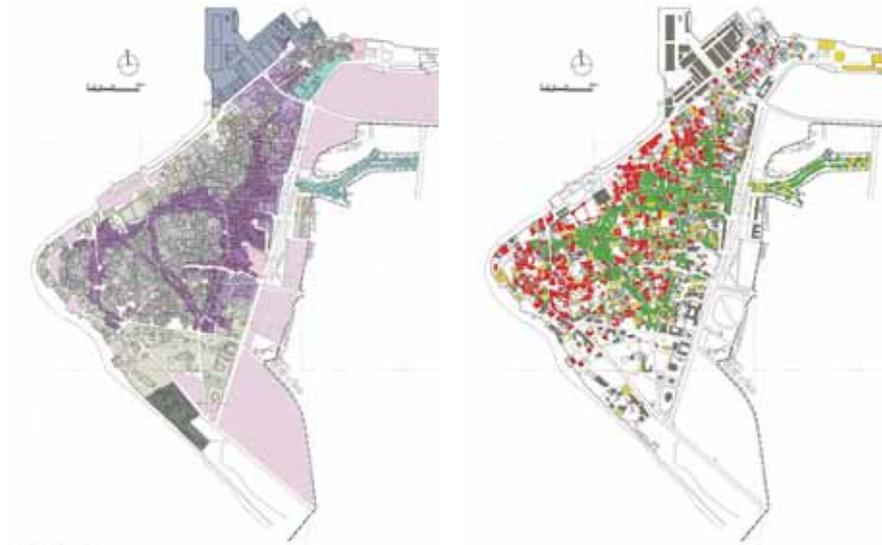


Figure 18 a) Land use (Appendix II, v) b) Classification (Appendix II, vi)
Correlating the information of ownership and land use versus the registration of classification gives an understanding of the political importance of the built environment.

As in the GIS vector model the GT model assigns each feature or *attribute* to a table defined by x, y, thus analysing the vector data or the intentions. This involves working with the *attributes* of layers of the data table of the intentional documents. When designing a virtual reality, or raster-model, information is represented in layers and shown on each map as areas or cells.

In building a common framework for systematisation of the data on documents and the built environment it was necessary to design a correlating overview of the subject in question: Who were the producers and who were the receivers of the documents? What kinds of documents were produced on which level? What were the objectives of the documents? For which purpose were the documents produced, what kind of tool were they suggesting, and what were the overall intentions and aims of the documents?

The Matrix and the analysis also identify threats to achieving a sustainable architectural heritage management (Figure 19). Influential factors in the *Matrix of documents* appear in the overlapping belt (Figure 20). The intersection between the two main elements appears through coding and decoding the selected policy documents and by tracing their influence on the built environment by transferring the correlating data onto the maps.

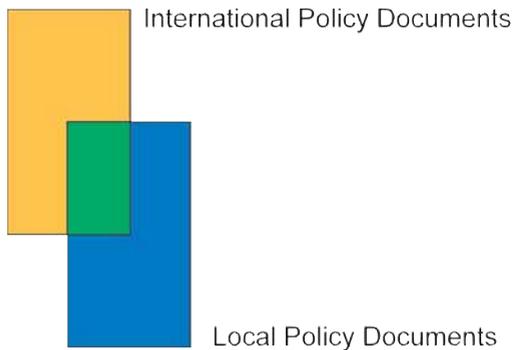


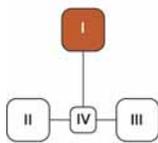
Figure 20
Graphic illustration of the conceptualisation of the analytical process of the documents, the correlation of the International and Local Policy Documents where the denominating influential factors are seen in the overlapping area.

2.4 Research Design

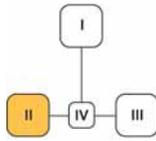
“A concept may be generated from one fact, which then becomes merely one of a universe of many possible diverse indicators for and data on, the concept”, (Glaser and Strauss, 1967: 23).

The design of the analytical process is based on labelling of the intentions in the documents as “attributes” analogous to the coding and decoding in the GIS mapping.

2.4.1 Categories of Data

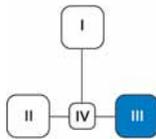


I Local Maps and Registrations (Chapter 3, 4 and 5, all passim). For the past 20 years the Government of Zanzibar, the Aga Khan Trust for Culture, the Aarhus School of Architecture, the Oslo School of Architecture and Design and the Division of Architecture and Development Studies at LTH, Lund University have produced the maps and registration that form the basis of the analysis. The geographical registration and *attributes* describing architectural origin such as Arabic, Indian, Bantu and Colonial, and classification such as density, new constructions, ruin, infill, sort of activity, streetscape and public area, are designed and selected according to Norberg-Schulz’ morphological way of reading *Genius Loci* (1980). By transferring the architectural characteristics of the mapped area into a conceptual abstract, and then coding and decoding the *attributes* analogous to the correlation of the documents, it has been possible to “read” the anticipated outcome, or lack of such, in the policy papers.



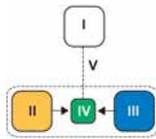
II. *International Policy Documents* (Chapter 3 and 5, both passim)

The selection of international policy documents is based on their practical usefulness from an architectural heritage management perspective. *Attributes* are labelled in order to transfer the policy documents into conceptual abstracts. The *attributes* are labelled in groups, each with its own conceptual construction. Thus the labelling of subjects in the different subgroups of *attributes* is part of the process of constructing concepts using GT. The selection of *attributes* allows a level of conceptualisation to be reached whereby the similarities and differences that are visible become an important tool in discovering the level of the *attributes* within the Matrix, and their interrelation.



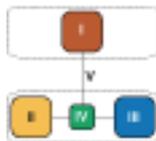
III *Local Policy Documents and Legal Instruments* (Chapter 4 and 5, both passim)

The selection of local policy documents and legal instruments used in the analysis was made according to their relation to architectural heritage and management of Zanzibar Stone Town. To ensure that the selected documents were a true reflection of concern for architectural heritage, a selection of available planning documents and comments produced over the past 80 years was evaluated.



IV *Overlap between International and Local Documents* (Chapter 5 passim)

In the process of searching for influential factors in international policy documents on the management of architectural heritage a route of influence through local legal instruments and documents was postulated and tested, as illustrated in step IV and elaborated and discussed in Chapter 5.



V *Correlation between Architecture and the Documents* (Chapter 5 passim)

Testing of the findings against the hypothesis and proposals took place in step V and the conclusions are presented in Chapter 6.

2.4.2 Sources of Data

Zanzibar Archive has stored policy documents since 1870. Maps and registrations of buildings, as well as other relevant policy documents came from the Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority – STCDA. Further maps and drawings used came from studies executed by students from the Oslo School of Architecture (1982), a Chinese team of consultants performing the Chinese Master Plan (1984), studies and drawings executed by students from the Division of Architecture and Development Studies, Lund Institute of Technology (LTH) (1992, 1998-2003), drawings and evaluations done by the Aga Khan Trust for Culture in connection with the production

of the Heritage Plan of Action (1994), registration and drawings made by students from Aarhus School of Architecture (2001) and the author's own registrations and drawings (1982, 1991, 1998, 2000-2004). The maps have been selected, treated and prepared by the author according to the relevance to the research (4.2.3 and Appendix II). All analytical figures are as well designed by the author to suit the research. The international policy documents were collected from the Council of Europe, France (1995-2000) and from the ICCROM library in Rome (2002, 2004). In addition papers and comments have been gathered during participation in conferences and workshops (1992-2003). Interviews were held with relevant persons in the Department of Cultural Heritage in UNESCO (1998), Council of Europe (1998-1999), ICCROM (2002) and STCDA (1998-2003).

2.4.3 Data Collection Method

The selection of policy documents and texts related to architectural heritage in the research process has mainly been intuitive and hermeneutically⁹ based. Identifying, interpreting and "mapping" of the documents are based on their relevant content. The analysis has focused on essential *attributes* and systematic terms. Registration of the selected architectural objects has been based on the researcher's own disciplinary experience and knowledge and understanding of the situation as a professional architect. The architectural mappings are based on drawings, registrations, maps and information collected during the field studies and on student reports produced by the Oslo School of Architecture and Design (1993) and Division of Architecture and Development Studies, Lund Institute of Technology, in the years between 1982 and 2006. For the same reason as an adaption of Grounded Theory as the tool for handling of the documents is chosen, the approach of graphically mapping of the urban form of Zanzibar Stone Town is based on *attributes* that generate the spatial character and the understanding of it. Mapping of Zanzibar Stone Town' urban fabric according to the choice of *attributes* is the foundation for the correlation and analysis of common denominators of the documents and the architecture.

⁹ The hermeneutic approach is used in the thesis to contribute to the understanding of the written materials so as to create interpretation of high scientific validation. Hermeneutical approaches using GT theory also correlate with the interpretation of the digital registrations and the mapping systems. The correlation of texts and geography support the theories of John C. Mallery (1987) in his argument for the functional use of linking information gathered by a hermeneutic traditional method and registrations produced by using artificially-generated knowledge from digitalised maps.

2.5 Analysing of Data

In the process of “reading” the landscape of thoughts, reflections and information and defining the task and the limits, it was necessary to develop a tool for describing interactions between the components and how to handle the findings (Adamson, 2003) Figure 21.

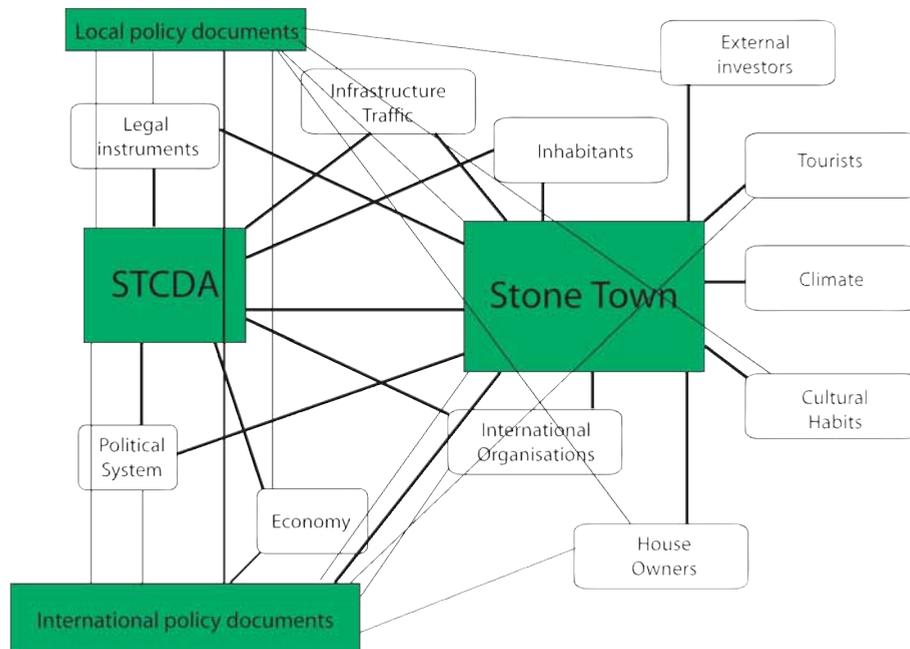


Figure 21
The Black Box diagram mapping the factors influencing the heritage management on Zanzibar.

To map the various influential factors and get an overview of the elements and their interactions the approach of “Mind Mapping” and a modified and constructivist Grounded Theory was used by starting out being open and non-selective ¹⁰.

¹⁰ During the LUMES masters courses (Lund University Masters Courses in Environmental Studies), Adamson lectured on System Analyses and the Black Box. In his lecture he explained “system analysis” and what is a “black box” by showing how “system mapping” and “mind mapping” are useful tools to clarify long chains of thinking. He also elaborated and exemplified the “black box” system with components, relations and management being unknown; sorting the factors by an input-output system creates a laboratory of influences.

In the early stage of this process the System Analyses¹¹ and the Black Box¹² approach are used to give an overview of the influential landscape and as a preparation for the analysis (Nyström, 1994).

The analysis is executed in two ways. The documents are analysed according to the methodology of GT starting with a broad approach and then narrowing during the next phases (Glaser and Strauss, 1967:52). The geographical information of the historic Stone Town of Zanzibar is registered and analysed by using the basic system of decoding of Geographic Information System (GIS).

2.6 Production of Findings

The findings in this research are produced according to the analytical methodology of GT and as the result of the correlation of the text analysis and the geographical registrations applied using the GIS mapping system. Through this process the data are deconstructed, conceptualised and put back together in a new and refined setting. The aim of this approach is to develop a tool for a management strategy and design criteria in the context of historic, urban conservation. The analysis and the specific findings are elaborated and discussed in chapter 5.

2.7 Summary of the Approach and the Research Design

“In decoding cultural heritage, every place provides more or less strong evidence of how the place has been used at different times. Traces of different areas force their way into the present. If we arrange these traces in patterns that belong to the same time, we find overlapping layers that shine through each other – they are transparent” (Johansson, 1992:36).

This mode of transparency is used literally through the GIS mapping of architectural *attributes*.

By mapping Zanzibar Stone Town and grouping the information received through the architectural registrations according to the GIS methodology it is possible to “read” the architecture, recognise certain patterns and make a selection of *attributes* analogous to the decoding of the texts and documents after the application of Grounded Theory methods (Figure 22).

¹¹ The system analysis approach derives from the 1930s and the demand for organization of the production and shipping of war equipment (Adamson, 2003). Nyström (Nyström, 2002:4) claims that: “The system analyses approach addresses a holistic view and helps with the increasing complexity that planners, politicians and architects must cope with in society”. System analysis is a kind of mapping diagram illustrating reality as a system of components and not least their inter relation. Figure 21 and the system analysis are used in this research for the purpose of defining the influential factors on the architectural heritage of Zanzibar Stone Town.

¹² The Black Box approach is illustrating a system where the factors and their relations are unknown normally used as an experienced-based laborious method where the input factors are changed and the output is measured and studied (Adamson, 2003). In this research the Black Box system is used to understand the behavior system of the architectural heritage management of Zanzibar Stone Town.

The types of concepts generated are regarded as a tool and inspiration for the design of new analytic and generalised *attributes*, and to focus on similarities and differences. Inevitably new proposals and assumptions can be formulated. Equally, during the analytical process new interrelations between categories appear. These stimuli can best be used to raise consciousness rather than diverting from the original challenge. The task of generating questions must at some stage move from the stage of discovery through fieldwork to analysis of data.

The correlation of conceptual *attributes* indicates a range of familiar factors that opens up to a wider platform for developing new assumptions and methods.

Section 1

Diagram of Aims, Objects, Tools, Approach and Mediating Attributes

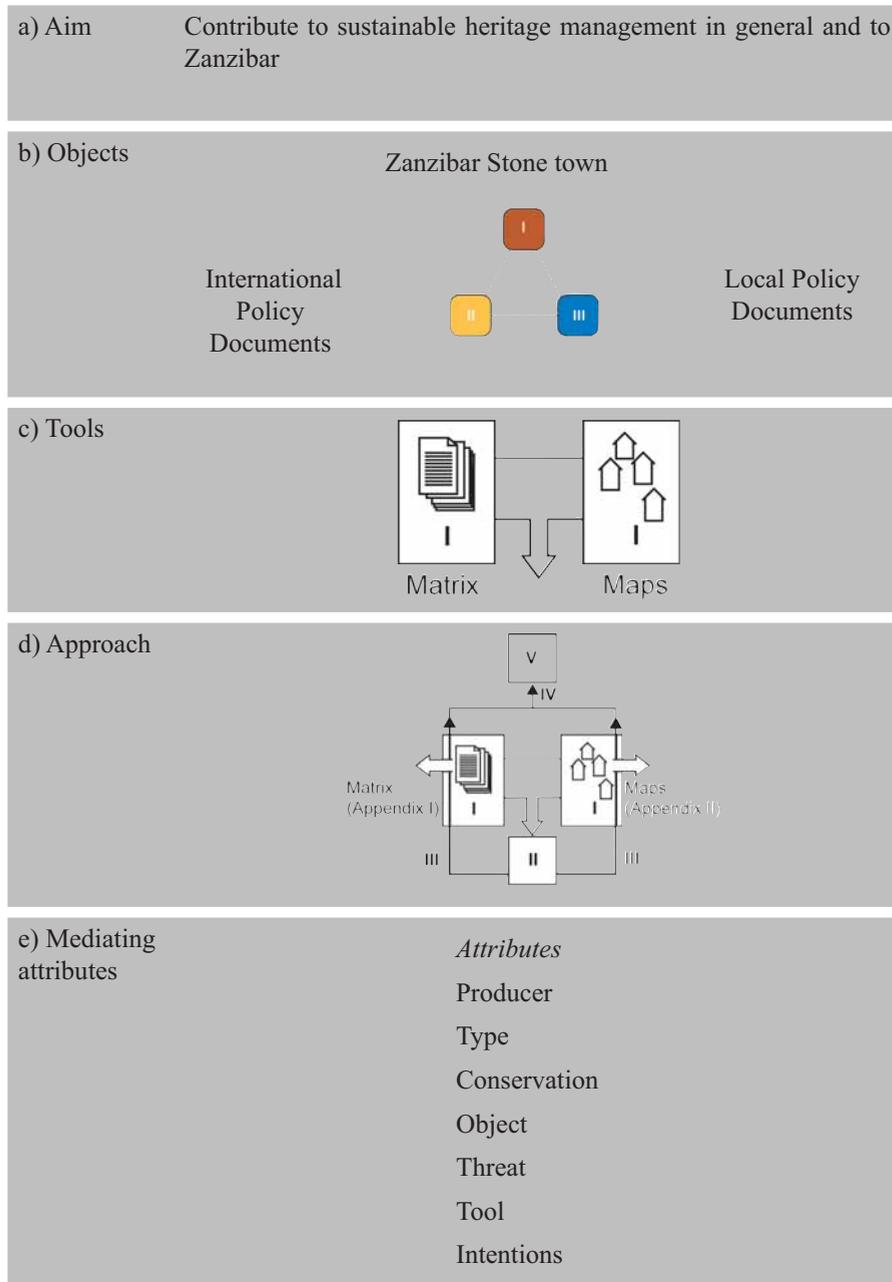


Figure 22
a, b, c and d illustrate the analytical approach of the research and e illustrates step II in d.

Section 2

3 RESEARCH LANDSCAPE

Chapter Three is a review of the theoretical background of the research, establishing the conceptual framework and defining the two main objects: the documents (both international and local policy documents) and Zanzibar Stone Town itself, and their development. The chapter also discusses the political agenda, global as compared to local, and clarifies parameters for the text analysis and architectural registration.

3.1 Theories and Contexts

A definition of cultural heritage appeared for the first time in the *Venice Charter* of 1931 (5.3.1). The content of the definition is complex and multi-faceted and also changes according to time and place (Harrison, 1995)¹, as illustrated in Figure 27 *Attributes as Objects*.

The theory of architecture is in many respects different from those in classical disciplines like mathematics and physics because of its interdisciplinary nature. Research within the field of architecture includes elements such as from natural science and the humanities, anthropology and technology (Mo, 2003:130)². For this reason the research needs to interact between Mode I and Mode II types of knowledge as described below, functioning as a mediator in interdisciplinary discussions between the field of architecture in Mode I and the field of philology and text analysis in Mode II. The use and concepts of the terms Mode I and Mode II are frequently discussed among Nordic researchers within the “making” disciplines. In this thesis the use of Mode I and Mode II is referred to as in the article in the Nordic Research Magazine no. 2003: *Making – Research – About What and How* (Nyström, 2002). Nyström uses the terminology of the two modes as a relevant platform in the process of production of “new” knowledge where “Mode I emanates from traditional academia and is mono-disciplinary in nature. Mode II is “...knowledge-production carried out in the context of application and marked by trans-disciplinarity, heterogeneity, organizational hierarchy and trans-science, social accountability and reflexivity, and quality control which emphasizes context and use-dependence” (Gibbons *et al.* 1994:167). Nyström describes this new knowledge production with reference to research and studies and describes Mode I as being specific knowledge such as sector studies and Mode II as knowledge production through application, where the aim of knowledge production is realised and used and innovation is encouraged (Nyström, 2002:51).

¹ Harrison examines the development of the content of *original, conservation, preservation, restoration and repair* in the context of conservation carried out between 1977 and 1995 by the English heritage at Bowhill, Devon. He claims that throughout the nineteenth and twentieth century the idea that old buildings should be restored back to their original form was constant. From the desire to restore there arose a pressure to remove later alterations. He also claims that all heritage judgments are rooted in this period.

² Mo argues that the role of theory in the design professions is more in the form of inspiration than that of a tool for scientifically validated research. She also claims that within the field of architecture theories are launched as guidelines and “quasi receipts” to be used in the process of increasing the awareness of the students. She regards the interdisciplinary development of architectural theories as being a mix of several theories borrowed from other fields without being tested or analysed before adaptation.

In the process of moving between intentions found in the documents on the one hand and architectural reality on the other hand, a search for analytical tools in related academic fields was necessary (Figure 23).

Intentions and Reality

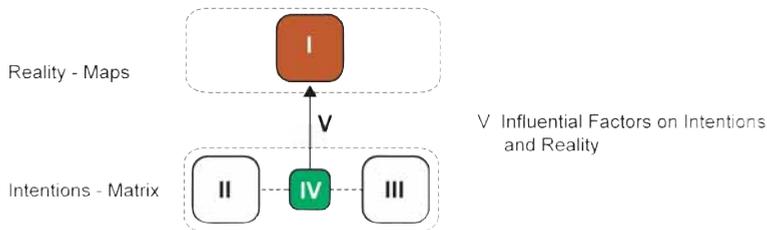


Figure 23
The triangle of objects is supplemented by the two main weighting factors: reality and intentions.

The thesis focuses on three main concepts: architectural heritage, Swahili Stone Town and sustainable management. There are also layers of conceptual structure within each of the three main concepts, for example the concept of a historic town, the concept of political documents and the concept of management.

Figure 24 symbolises the principle of correlating documents and the built environment and Figure 25 illustrates the three main factors, numbered as follows: I the built environment, II international policy documents, III local policy documents, IV the coherent *attributes* in the two sets of documents and V the influence of the coherent *attributes* on the built environment.

Step I illustrated in Figure 24 is based on an analytical approach and a selection of architectural objects in the maps and *attributes* in the documents. Step II represents the correlation of intentions and reality. Step III closes the circle by presenting the architectural objects and selected texts after the analytical process, while Step IV illustrates the discussions and Step V the conclusions.

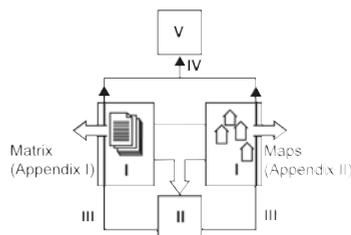


Figure 24
Diagram symbolising the correlating process (See Figure 13).



Figure 25
The diagram shows relations and influences between the international and local policy documents and the relation to the built environment.

To understand the present realities and be able to “read” the concept of Swahili architecture and its Stone Towns in the global context of the concept of architectural heritage today, it is necessary to understand how the term “cultural heritage” has been interpreted according to different paradigms and how these paradigms impact on policy documents and practice in the field.

3.2 About the Term “Cultural Heritage”

“For, indeed, the greatest glory of a building is not its stones, nor its gold. Its glory is in its Age, and in that deep sense of voice fullness, of stern watching, of mysterious sympathy, nay, even of approval of condemnation, which we feel in walls that have long been washed by passing waves of humanity” (Ruskin, 1849).

The concept of cultural heritage is closely linked to that of the built environment. The theory of cultural heritage is linked both to the theory of art and heritage and to the critical theory of history according to Lowenthal³.

The conservation movement has evolved from the romantic preservation of ancient monuments and works of art into a broad discipline recognized by government authorities and supported by international organisations (Jokilehto, 1999:174). Even though the subject has provoked interest since the age of antiquities it has rarely achieved the status of a mainstream discourse. There are a few exceptions such as De Carlo (in numerous ILAUD reports: Architectural Review, 1979, 1991, 1993, 1994 and 1998) and Rem Koolhaas (in his article *OMA @ work*, Koolhaas, 2000), who represent two extreme points in the contemporary debate on heritage management. Architecture as practised rarely indulges in development theories even though Vitruvius (1914) introduced theoretical deliberation in the Middle Ages in his work *De Architectura Libri Decem* or *Ten Books on Architecture* (33 – 14 BC).

3.2.1 From National Monuments to Town Planning

Within the first fifty years of the industrial revolution in Europe much of the culture and history represented by monuments, architecture and landscape had not only changed, it had vanished. The fear of losing historic and architectural references led to actions to protect archaeological and artistic monuments (Jokilehto, 1999).

In the general debate about conservation from 1815 to 1880 the main subject of discussion concentrated on a few objects, generally national monuments selected by a few specialists⁴. No notice was taken of public places and even less of protecting

³ The historian David Lowenthal gave a lecture at Oslo University (UiO) in May 2001, in which he elaborates about his book; *The Heritage Crusade and the Spoils of History* (1998) and discusses what he claims: “the global movement of justice being a world of Heritage organisations”. Lowenthal claimed in his lecture that the heritage movement is a best seller partly because it has become a commodity and domesticates the past. As a historian he fears the true concern of history may be destroyed and misused through the actions taken by all well intended conservationists and their “sexy” interpretation of history.

⁴ One exception was the Swedish Plakat that as early as 1660 included cultural sites in heritage legislation.

them. In 1889 the German architect Camillo Sitte launched his book “*Der Städtebau*” in which he stated that historic monuments should no longer to be regarded as isolated objects to be protected and preserved, but that the whole historic environment itself should be restored and activated. He also argued for the artistic creation of cities and underlined the importance of the visual harmony that should exist between a monument and its context (Boyer, 1994: 381).

From the Lex Pacca of 1819 until today, national legislation on conservation and restoration of cultural heritage has been based on reports and political “white papers”⁵ drawn up and elaborated by specialists. Architects and historians were responsible in most cases for the first acts of monument preservation⁶. The fact that in the late nineteenth century historic monuments also happened to include the contextual environment did not change the habit of using the intellectual elite in advisory committees on national legislation about heritage preservation (Huth, 1942). In the early years of the 18th century objects representing the glories of history were those worthy of preservation. Until 1910 dating was the only criterion for preservation according to the English policy of preservation (Harrison, 1995)⁷.

This attitude towards preservation and heritage is exemplified by quoting Boyer: “Historical phenomena portrayed as ‘heritage’ are cultural treasures of art carried by authorities in every triumphal march, and treasures rich of omissions and suppressions” (Boyer, 1994: 377). With the adoption of the *Athens Charter for the Restoration of Historic Monuments* in 1931, seven statements of general principles and doctrines relating to the protection of monuments were established and a shift in the definition of international heritage emerged.

In the wake of the two wars a myriad of other challenges and questions arose. Restoration, renovation, rehabilitation and the consequences of converted edifices became important. *The English Town and Country Planning Act* of 1947 proposed that properties be surveyed throughout England and resulted in a list of historic structures being made. The new *Master Plan for Rome* in 1962 carefully tried to define the archaeological and fine arts view on national heritage. *The Civic Amenities Act of England* in 1967 stated that not only monuments of great national importance but also places and townscapes could be offered protection. A new type of town planning emerged during the 1970s where cultural diversity and conservation were taken into consideration. The emphasis on contemporary urban design and historic preservation created, unfortunately at its most extreme, historic districts and public

⁵ The designation “white papers” is used in this thesis for policy papers produced for discussion within ministries and governments.

⁶ With regard to an elitist development of the concept of heritage conservation the Swedish Magnus de la Gardi, Member of Parliament, participated in the Swedish debate on conservation and restoration.

⁷ J.R. Harrison (1995) examines the development of the attitude towards what was worthy of being conserved over a period of more than 20 years from 1977 to 1995. From the desire to restore there rose a pressure to remove later alterations and opposed to the restoration of historic buildings as sought by Ruskin and Morris. This highlights another contradiction, that which raises the importance of not falsifying historical evidence.

Section 2

places more like tableaux of the sixteenth century than live cities of today. The heritage planning concepts of the seventies opened the way for a range of participants. In addition to architects and historians, anthropologists, economists and craftsmen entered the conservation sphere, but still the public were not included in decision-making concerning conservation revitalisation and restoration. However in Sweden and Germany a movement of public awareness arose. In Sweden there were public demonstrations against the demolition of Haga, Gothenburg (Phelps, *et.al*, 2002:59) and the Old City, Stockholm and in Germany the Bürgerinitiativ was developed. Both actions mark a crucial turning point for the awareness of architectural heritage.

Even with this wider concept of restoration and conservation, legislation seldom represents the interest of society as a whole. Community participation and transparency in the process is still generally discussed only within a narrow elite that pays little attention to the social consequences imposed by their well-meaning actions on both local and international levels. Especially when working with objects of national heritage in recently industrialized countries, external experts representing international organisations and donors still guide national governments. This concept of remote control has created challenges and frustrations among both executive authorities and local residents (Najimi, 1988 *passim*).

The concept of 'historic' has been widely expanded during the past twenty years. This concept is among others discussed by Stanley-Price, Talley and Vaccaro in their book: *Historical and Philosophical Issues in the Conservation of Cultural Heritage* (1996), and by Jokilehto in his book: *A History of Architectural Conservation* (1999). By 1980 'historic' included architecture from between the wars, even including examples from the 1950s (Boyer, 1994:384). Today a range of objects is stored under the heritage umbrella such as cinemas, airplanes and contemporary architecture.

Monuments and cities representing local heritage are often symbols of a culture lost today. Built environment, sites and monuments tell the story of another culture and another ethnicity, whose ethnographic characteristics have played no part in the constitution of modern nations. Yet vernacular architecture in western societies often defines the identity of a nation.

On the other hand, in the young industrialized countries the built environment is shaped and built for a completely different purpose. Colonialism and its style is an example of cultural imperialism used in this way, as described by Watanabe (1993) in "The Roman Colonies should have Roman Style and the British colonies British Style". Said (1976) gives an example in his book "*Orientalism*"; "...the Orient is an idea that has a history and a tradition of thought. Orientalism is more valuable as a sign of European-Atlantic power over the Orient".

Cultural objects registered as national heritage are most often objects with traces of mixed cultures. They consist of a complexity of cultural exchange through generations and do not always represent a time of glory for present day inhabitants, in particular in newly independent countries struggling to define a new national identity.

The architecturally significant part of a heritage is not necessarily included in local peoples' experience of the identity of their habitat.

3.2.2 The Concept of Architectural Heritage

When modern architectural theory took shape in the early twentieth century, the theoretical discussion of architectural restoration and conservation had hardly started. There were no comparative studies of restoration and conservation and the material available was largely empirical. Even today most restoration projects are purely inductive and consist of documentation and drawings, which are the architect's primary way of expressing and transmitting knowledge. How does one avoid the epistemology consisting of pure registration? The relationship between theory and empirical material is fundamental in all empirical science. No science can rely on theory alone and registration without theoretical deliberations is not science. "Architecture is not only a building, it is a process" (Borden *et. al.*, 1996). The American historian and architect at the Bartlett School of Architecture, University College, London, Iain Borden⁸, in his chapter "*Other Histories – Narratives of the Architecture in the City*", questions who the writers of history are, who the decision makers are and who decides what is unwanted and has to be removed. He states: "Choosing what to remember, and deciding how to remember, are important procedures for urban social policies. All too easily history focuses selectively on particular parts of the past, excluding specific sections of the public, or even the public as a whole, in favour of highly legitimised histories of the State and institutional elites" (Borden *et.al*, 1996:12).

Between 1890 and 1980 the preservation movement changed from preservation to conservation and restoration. Theoretical concepts of preservation, conservation and restoration in relation to architectural heritage are rarely discussed in literature. On the contrary these terms are often found in describing an intended and requested action.

As illustrated in the part of the Matrix (Appendix I) focusing on the *attribute* of conservation activities (Figure 26) there is a shift in the use of concepts during the years after the *Convention Concerning the Protection of the Cultural and Natural Heritage* in 1972. Nevertheless, in contemporary policy documents the traditional concepts of protection, preservation, conservation and restoration are included.

The movement to preserve monuments and artefacts as national heritage are related to the destruction of cityscapes and the vanishing visual beauty of landscapes caused by accelerating industrialisation dating back to the middle of the 18th century. In 1882 England adopted the *Ancient Monuments Protection Act*, which aimed to guarantee public status to certain elements of national and environmental heritage (Boyer, 1994: 378-383). The intention of the legislation was first and foremost to prevent specific objects from being harmed and demolished. Preservation is, according to Boyer, to be regarded as purely the conservation of objects, regardless of the context and impact of

⁸ In *Strangely Familiar* (1996) Borden, Kerr, Pivaro and Rendel debate who has the ownership of what is worthy of being preserved.

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the everyday life of those affected. The protection act said nothing about putting these ideas into practice or how the monuments should be maintained.

Modern preservation practice is, according to Petzet⁹, understood as a conscious safeguarding of evidence. Since 1975 only two of the selected international documents in the Matrix (Appendix I) use preservation as a concept of architectural heritage: the *Washington Charter* (1987) and the UNESCO *Declaration of Our Cultural Diversity* (2001). However the *Washington Charter* (1987) does include protection and rehabilitation as concepts and the *Declaration of Our Cultural Diversity* (2001) even opens up for safeguarding. On a local level all policy documents from the *Township Decree* of 1929, the *Town and Planning Bill (1955)* to the *Stone Town Conservation Plan* of 1994, the *Town and Country Planning Decree (Cap 85)* 1994 and *Zanzibar Vision 2020* (2000) mention preservation as the main conceptual *attribute*, although renovation and enhancement are mentioned in two of them.

⁹ ICOMOS (International Council on Monuments and Sites) produced in 2004 the report *International Charters for Conservation and Restoration*. Petzet, the author of the report, elaborates and discusses the use of several heritage concepts and refers to ICCROM's definition of conservation as the dynamic management of change.

Category: Cultural and Architectural Heritage.	International Policy Documents															Local Documents						
	The Athens Charter for the restoration of Historic Monuments. 1931	Universal Declaration of Human Rights 1948	The Hague Convention, 1954 (1999)	The Venice Charter International Charter for the Conservation and Restoration of Monuments and Sites Convention Concerning the Protection of the Culture and Natural Heritage, 1972	The Declaration of Amsterdam, European Charter of the Architectural Heritage. 1975	The Bruges Resolution, Resolution for Conservation of smaller historic towns, 1975	The Granada Convention, Convention for the Protection of the Architectural Heritage of Europe. 1985	The Washington Charter, Charter for the Conservation of Historic Towns and Urban Areas - 1987	Our Common Future, 1987	The Nara Document on Authenticity, 1994	The Istanbul Declaration, the Habitat Agenda 1996	International Cultural Tourism Charter, 1999	The Declaration on our Cultural Diversity, 2001	Inclusion of Zanzibar Stone Town on the World Heritage List, 2000	Lanchester Plan, 1923	Township Decree, 1929 (55)	The Town and Planning Bill, 1955	Stonetown Conservation Plan, December 1993	The Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority Act No 3, 1994	The Town and Country Planning Decree (Cap 85), 1994	Application for Nomination of Zanzibar Stone Town on the World Heritage List, 1997-98	Zanzibar Vision 2020, 2000
Attributes	International Policy Documents															Local Documents						
Conservation activity	International Policy Documents															Local Documents						
Protection	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•				•					
Restoration	•			•	•														•			
Preservation	•		•	•	•	•	•	•				•	•			•	•	•			•	•
Conservation	•			•	•	•	•	•			•	•	•					•	•	•	•	•
Rehabilitation					•	•	•	•			•											•
Safeguarding			•	•	•	•						•										
Enhancement								•	•													•
Renovation	•									•					•							•
Integration							•															•
Revitalize					•			•		•												•

Figure 26
Attributes as Conservation Activity in the figure indicate, in the policy papers on international and local level, recommended actions to be taken.

The Matrix (Figure 26 and Appendix I) and its *attributes* of conservation clearly show that the concept of preservation has changed over time and according to the environment in which it is being discussed.

Conservation was given a definition for the first time in the International Charter for the Conservation and Restoration of Monuments and Cities, the *Venice Charter* of 1964, as being a more active maintenance of the object than preservation. Conservation is generally defined as action to protect objects and sites of cultural significance. It is regarded as an action to slow deterioration and to preserve the integrity of objects and sites. “For a historic building, conservation includes all measures that prevent further decay and preserve the historic fabric.” (Petzet, 2004:9). Even though the concept of conservation allows for repair, the action of repair is closely guided by strict and principled instructions, saying that: “Repair measures that go beyond a mere safeguarding of the existing fabric are no longer within the scope of conservation work” (Petzet, 2004:10).

Cultural significance is an abstract concept that is easier to discuss in general than specifically, but when relating it to a certain object it has to be practically related to the significant concept of the building, the city or the site in question. Restoration,

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interpreted as meaning to restore and to re-establish cultural heritage, appeared in the *Venice Charter* of 1964. The Charter states that the process of restoration is a highly specialised operation and that the aim of restoration is to preserve and reveal the aesthetic and historic value of the monument based on respect for the original materials and authentic documents. Restoration is, according to the *Venice Charter* (1964), regarded as different from the two foregoing concepts of conservation and preservation because:

“...unity of style is not the aim of a restoration” (Article 11) and “additions cannot be allowed except if they do not detract from the interesting parts of the building, its traditional setting, the balance of its composition and its relation with its surroundings” (Article 13).

According to the Matrix (Appendix I) few international policy documents except the *Declaration of Amsterdam* (1975) (Appendix III vi) take the concept of restoration into consideration. On a local level the *Town and Country Planning Decree (Cap 85)* of 1994 (Appendix IV vi) is the only document mentioning restoration as an approach to the management of Zanzibar Stone Town.

3.2.3 Recent Trends

In working with *Historical and Philosophical Issues in the Conservation of Cultural Heritage* (Stanley-Price *et al.* 1996) two apparently problematic pairs of terms appear: conservation and restoration and works of art and object. The author concludes that the simplest solution to the problem of distinguishing between the terms conservation and restoration is to avoid the problem by juxtaposing them in the form conservation/restoration.

The concept of cultural heritage is according to Stanley-Price *et al.* a relatively modern one, many of the contemporary debates about conservation having their roots in a Western intellectual tradition of the past. At a time when cultural heritage is increasingly promoted as being of universal value it is opportune to re-examine the historic and philosophical antecedents to the current issue.

In *Changing Perceptions of Architectural Historic Value - A Case Study History: Bowhill, Devon*, Harrison (1995) examines the development of the context of conservation carried out between 1977 and 1995 by English Heritage at Bowhill, Devon. Harrison also discusses the shift in approaches to conservation occurring during a period of more than 20 years.

The idea that old buildings should be restored to their original form has been a constant and revealing feature of the mainstream thinking of successive conservation movements. New restoration ideas create pressure to remove later alterations. Harrison claims that all judgements are rooted in their period. In contradiction to the restoration of historic buildings, as sought by John Ruskin (1849) and William Morris (1972), stands conservative repair, a philosophy emphasising the importance of not falsifying the historic evidence, of making “openly, honestly and easily readable reparations”

and to “treat as found”. The usual interpretation is conservative repair – to leave the whole building as un-disturbed on completion as when one first appreciated its worth: “like should be repaired with like ...minimum interventions” (Harrison, 1995). Harrison also refers to Denslagen’s book (1994): *Architectural Restoration in Western Europe: Controversy and Continuity* that argues: “All that can be done is of the nature of compromise”.

In recent times most researchers have extended another argument, giving primacy to the evidence of social development embodied in buildings. This change embraces the concept that each and every alteration, however recent, is historically relevant and should be retained in the process of conservation. This idea leads to extreme “mothballing” and is embodied in the commonly used term of conservation.

The PhD thesis of Samia Rab: *The Monument in Architecture and Conservation - Theories of architectural significance and their influence on restoration, preservation and conservation* (1997), identifies the underlying influences of the different interpretations of “monuments” in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. She argues that monuments are elements of significance to those architectural theories that aspire to guide the creation of desirable buildings by discovering the inherent qualities of, and ascribing new meanings to, architectural works of the past. She also argues that the concept of monument has been continually adapted to changing perceptions of architecture and different views of the historical models that define the present ¹⁰.

Rab’s thesis concludes that it is the balance of these differing approaches (historical concern or aesthetic matter) of formal, artistic, symbolic, historic value and critical significance that form the principle of architectural conservation. She does not set the aspect of sustainability as one of the parameters for conservation.

Conservation of historic buildings has only in recent years come to depend on the result of scientific and technical activities intended to distinguish new interventions from the old fabric. The *Venice Charter* (1964) and the recent work of Carlo Scarpa in re-designing the Italian castle Castelvecchio, recognize the monument as a critical resource for interpreting a region’s history and show that architects can go far beyond the limitations set by popular opinion of today and can explore the active and critical role of the monument in defining the cultural characteristics of architectural periods. Excellent examples of this are revealed in the careful work of Hidemark performing a “silent” conservation built on authenticity and respect of history (Hidemark, 1991) and the “restructuring” of the Benedictine Monastery in Catania, Italy by the Italian architect Giancarlo De Carlo where he “de-structured” the building from its original meaning and then restructured it “within a new context of meaning which I regard as relevant to my own time”, (*Architectural Review*, 1991:42).

¹⁰ Jokilehto argues in his book *A History of Architectural Conservation* that the shocking restoration of buildings launched by Viollett-le-Duc was at the cost of the integrity of the history (1999:183) exemplified by the restoration of Saint-Chapelle, Paris.

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The architect R. Lawrence (1986) argues that the making of concepts today takes place mainly in non-governmental organisations and outside academia. The architect and conservationist Jokilehto supports this view: “Modern conservation is principally characterized by a fundamental change of values in contemporary society, a paradigm based on relativity and the new concept of historicity” (Jokilehto, 1999:295).

In analysing international policy documents relevant for this thesis, a lot of conceptual properties on the subject of heritage appear (Appendix I - Matrix, and Figure 26), from the more accepted concepts like protection, restoration, conservation and preservation, to others like rehabilitation, safeguarding, revitalizing and renovation. Concepts like conservation and protection are as valid in international policy documents of today as they were seventy years ago. Further, preservation and conservation are the concepts most frequently used in local policy documents.

The report *Europe, A Common Heritage* (Council of Europe - CoE, 1999) concludes that even the concept of heritage, as well as identification of heritage, preservation and protection of heritage, conservation philosophy, sanctions and coercive measures, funding, regeneration, education and training are all topics dealt with in different ways according to local requirements and policy.

Within such a framework, this thesis argues that the concept of cultural heritage today has changed from previous times; it is global and in its connotation universal. The concept has shifted from arguing in favour of a policy of “freezing” to action-minded management. The concept of architectural heritage has shifted from being rigid to being complex and fragmented. Today the concept of cultural heritage not only includes outstanding objects, but also sites and environments, trees, appearance, architectural and cultural heritage as well as historic sites, historic events, historical townscape and settlement structures as representations of a global human heritage (Figure 27).

The importance of taking the complexity of recent cultural and architectural heritage into consideration and finding new concepts of management became fairly clear as the analysis of this thesis progressed (Figure 27). Aspects like conservation for social purposes, authenticity, identity, diversity, respect, rights, plurality and sustainability appeared more frequently in the documents and the milieu where the documents were produced. In the years after the World Commission on Environment and Development was established and its report on *Our Common Future* (Brundtland, 1987) was published, a need for new planning concepts and tools arose. Community participation, dissemination, long term planning, consciousness and multi-disciplinarity are concepts introduced into heritage management on both a local and international level of research in an effort to achieve sustainability.

Attributes	International Policy Documents										Local Documents											
	1931	1948	1954	1959	1972	1975	1985	1987	1994	1996	1999	2001	2000	1923	1929	1955	1993	1994	1994	1997-98	2000	
Objects to be conserved																						
Natural heritage	•				•										•			•			•	
Architectural Heritage								•		•						•						•
Cultural Property / Heritage			•		•					•	•											•
Immovable Heritage			•																			•
Movable Heritage																						
Historic Sites			•							•						•		•		•	•	•
Historical townscape				•			•														•	•
Monuments of Architecture								•														
Traditional architecture				•																		•
Groups of Buildings	•		•		•	•				•	•					•				•	•	•
Urban significant development						•		•			•							•				
Unique urban character			•																			•
Settlement structure							•															
Architectural Sites										•										•		
Surroundings	•					•					•					•						•
Environments								•			•											
Scientific Collections			•																			
Formal Appearance									•													
Cultural practice											•											•
Culture		•	•																			
Exceptional symbolic importance																					•	
Cultural fusion																					•	
Historic event				•							•										•	
Integrity			•							•												
Diversity						•	•			•	•	•	•	•								
Sustainable diversity																						
Creativity																						
Uniqueness																						•
Heritage Development																						
Distinguish							•															
Form										•												
Design										•												
Material							•			•												•
Substance										•												

Figure 27 Attributes as Objects
The diagram illustrates which objects are addressed in the policy documents, both on a timeline and on international and local level.

According to the analysis of the Matrix (Appendix I and Figure 26) and its *attributes* of conservation, management of cultural and architectural heritage is no longer only a matter of protection, conservation and preservation. In contemporary architectural heritage policy documents new concepts like rehabilitation, safeguarding, enhancement, revitalization and sustainability are introduced. In addition the concepts are used as a means of maintaining identity, achieving sustainable growth, reducing poverty, strengthening local authorities, and building capacity, democracy and peace.

These new trends in the principles of conservation and use of concepts in relation to the case study Zanzibar Stone Town are further discussed and elaborated in chapter 5.3 and 6.2.

3.2.4 Sustainable Architectural Heritage Management

The new trends in architectural heritage management are first and foremost defined by an awareness of the interaction between people and the environment and between lifestyle and the built environment as well as by the call for new tools of planning, analysing and new management thinking provoked by the above-mentioned publications. The most important elements in this turnaround are inclusion instead of exclusion and long term holistic planning instead of single object conservation.

“In essence, sustainable development is a process of change in which the exploitation of resources, the direction of investments, the orientation of technological development, and institutional change are all in harmony and enhance both current and future potential to meet human needs and aspirations” (Brundtland, *Our Common Future*, 1987:46).

The concept of sustainability (Figure 28) was introduced into the international cultural and architectural heritage policy documents with the *Istanbul Declaration* in 1996 and the *Habitat Agenda* of the same year¹¹. “Conservation, rehabilitation and culturally sensitive adaptive reuse of urban, rural an architectural heritage are also in accordance with sustainable use of natural and human-made resources” (UN-HABITAT, 1996:88). The *Habitat Agenda* introduces *cultural sustainability* and *sustainable tourism* with reference to the global challenges, concerns and endeavours outlined in the United Nation’s report *Our Common Future* (Brundtland, 1987).

In 2001 the report *In Search of Urban Sustainability* produced at the Development Planning Unit at University College London elaborated on the aspects of *culturally sustainable development*, arguing: “There are two important areas, which must be managed if cities are to cater for the diversity of their citizens. One is the design and construction of the buildings and the spaces and the other is the way that cultural

¹¹ The main outcomes of the United Nations Conference on Human Settlements (HABITAT II) 1996 were the *Istanbul Declaration* and the *Habitat Agenda*, which aim at “improving human settlements conditions in the world’s cities, towns and villages”. Chapter IV: Global Plan of Action – Strategies for Implementation – 8, concentrates on conservation and rehabilitation of historical and cultural heritage.

heritage is displayed and conserved” (2001:80). In addition, the report emphasizes cultural identity, diversity and cultural sustainability as key factors in improving the quality of life of poor urban residents and the development of civic pride and sustainable urban heritage management (2001:92).

With the *UN Millennium Declaration* (2000) and its “*Millennium Development Goals*” the concept of “sustainability” originally launched with much publicity by *Our Common Future* (Brundtland, 1987) and further developed in the *Istanbul Declaration* and *Habitat Agenda* (UN-HABITAT, 1996) was given an even stronger focus on poverty eradication and habitat. The goals include those to:

- Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes; reverse loss of environmental resources
- Reduce by half the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water
- Achieve significant improvement in lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers by 2020”

In this study on the influence of policy papers on sustainable local heritage management the meaning of “*sustainable*” is taken in this broad sense. Thus success in meeting the goal of “*sustainability*” is also taken to be strongly related to success in meeting the goal “*increase quality of life*” (Figure 28).

The concept of sustainable development has been discussed and explored since the early sixties though it did not reach the field of cultural and architectural heritage until the United Nation’s HABITAT Conference in Vancouver 1976. Ever since Rachel Carson’s book: *Silent Spring* (1962) where she launched the notion of sustainable development stimulating public consciousness, and then the International Conference on Man and Biosphere arranged by UNESCO in 1968, the term “sustainable” began to appear, mostly in environmental debates. In 1987 the World Commission on Environment and Development launched the Brundtland report: *Our Common Future* (Brundtland, 1987), which touched on a wide range of fields and broadened the concept.

Yet even today the concept of sustainable development is rarely used either in international or in local policy documents. The *Nara Document on Authenticity* (1994), the *Istanbul Declaration* and its *Habitat Agenda* (1996), the *International Cultural Tourism Charter* (1999) and the *Declaration on Our Cultural Diversity* (2001) focus on sustainable development when talking about *sustainable heritage*, *sustainability*, *sustainable tourism* and *cultural sustainability*. None, according to the Matrix (Appendix I), take the concept of sustainability into the process and action of management however. Among the selected local documents on architectural heritage management, only *Zanzibar Vision 2020* takes sustainability into consideration.

3.3 The Making of Swahili Architecture

To understand the Swahili culture and architecture it is vital to understand the history of the African continent in general and the development of East Africa in particular. Written sources on African and East African urban development are scarce and scattered and, when found, mostly produced by non-Africans. However, during the past ten years African authors have emerged as writers on the subject.

3.3.1 History

Swahili culture developed on the East coast of Africa during more than three thousand years, affected by the intermingling of Arabs, Indians, Persians, Indonesians and the indigenous African Bantu people (Horton, 1996:4) Together, the visitors from North, East and the already existing inhabitants, African peasants and fishermen, formed the basic element of the Swahili culture in the East African coastal region between Mogadishu in the North and Sofala in the South, in the years between year 1000 BC and the early 1960s. The slave trade and its consequences and the absence of the industrial revolution are two decisive elements accounting for the differences between the development of the African continent and Europe.

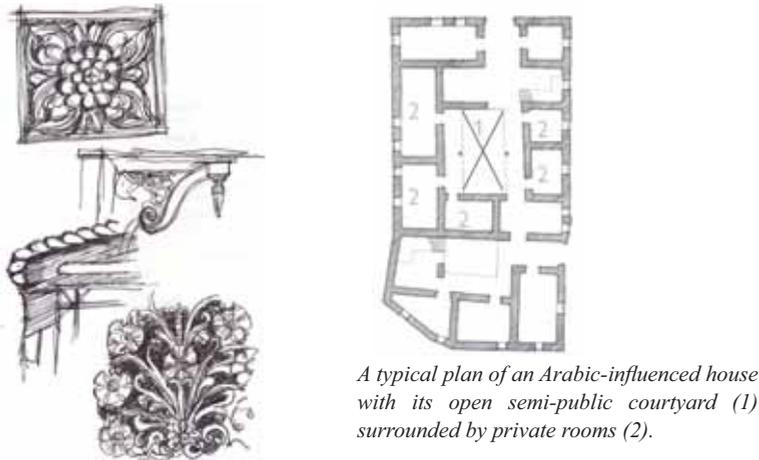


Figure 29

The illustration exemplifies the diversity of influences caused by the travelling merchants and the sailing routes between India, Arabia and East Africa.

The records of trade in the area are scarce and even Ptolemy's fifth century Geography shows no knowledge of the East African coast south of Cape Delgado.

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In 45 A.D. the Roman sailor Hippalus discovered the regularity of the monsoon winds. The Arabs and Indians had already been using those winds for transport and communication for more than five hundred years, trading spices, tortoise shells, iron and millet eastwards and ivory, slaves, amber and gold westward across the Indian Ocean (Figure 30). The regular monsoons created the opportunity to develop markets for travelling merchants returning annually, as well as for resident merchants. These represented different cultures and there were requirements that needed attention if prosperous trade was to develop (Figure 29). To be sure of maintaining their position on the coast the visiting merchants from Arabia, Persia and India brought members of their families to mix with the natives and to establish communities on strategic trading points along the coast.

For at least three thousand years, the history of East Africa has been closely linked with that of Arabia and Western Asia.¹² The Arabs are considered the most important of all visitors and settlers on the East Coast of Africa. Around 400 AD the town



Figure 30
The traditional Arab-influenced sailing boat is called a dhow.

Rhapta (Pangani) on the central East African coast became a metropolis and grew to be an important trading-port. According to Horton (1996) and Chittick (1967) there are traces of Swahili settlements dating back to the 9th century. By the 15th century there were 37 towns along the coastal strip between Kilwa (Mozambique) in the south and Mogadishu (Somalia) in the north (Burton, 2002).

¹² *Case Study Zanzibar*; Ahmad Sheik, 1995. Paper presented at the conference: Organization of World Heritage Cities Conference, Bergen, Norway.

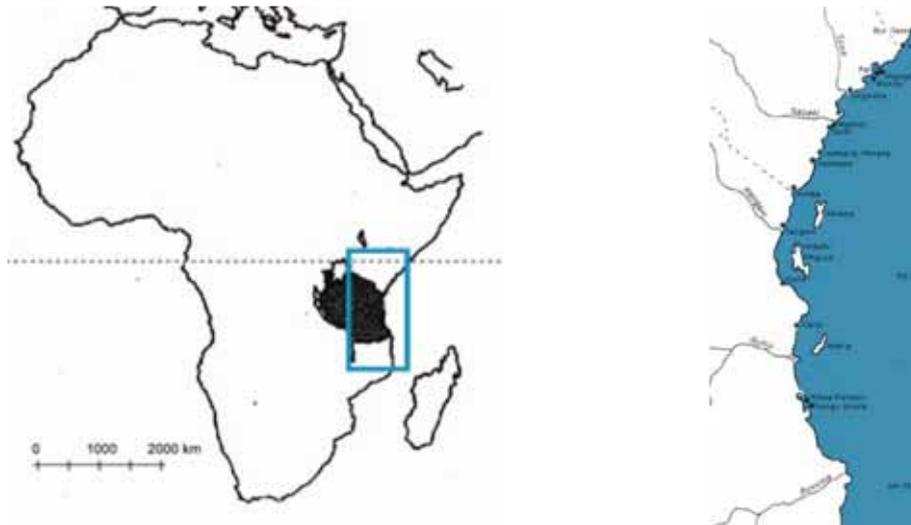


Figure 31
East African seaports and settlements.

In the theory of the development of Swahili culture the presence of the Indonesians in the early phase of east coast of Africa (Figure 31) settlement is important because they introduced the outrigger boat that is still in use on this coastal line and not found anywhere else in the world (Figure 32). Gill Shepherd (1982) refers to earlier works by Freeman-Greeneville and Hornell going back to the 1930s in an article: *The Making of the Swahili*, pointing out the traces left by the Southeast Asians on the east coast of Africa during the Satavahana Empire in southern India, c. 230 B.C-300 A.D. Reports from this period mention small sewn boats, galawas, a rare form of tidal fish-trap, coconut oil and food crops and linguistic evidence of similarity along the whole coast line and on the islands from Madagascar to Indonesia.



Figure 32
A galawa with its outriggers influenced by the Indonesians. Early in the morning the fishermen pole their boats into the bay.

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By the year AD 1000 many Arabs had settled along the coast and were joined in the 12th century by a new group of visitors coming from China. The 13th century was a time of great Muslim expansion; by the end of 1290 the trade of the East African coast was entirely controlled by Muslim merchants¹³. In 1497 the Portuguese arrived on the East coast of Africa and entered the struggle for control of the trading centres.

The intercontinental trade and the development of regional networks during the years between 600 and 1600 on both sides of the African continent are distinct events on a par with globalisation today.

At the end of the 16th century and up to the end of the 17th century two essential events occurred that once again changed the destiny of the African continent:

1. The European change from using silver coins to gold.
2. The legitimisation of African enslavement that justified white superiority.

Several of the Swahili trading towns had started their own coin production around A.D. 1000 and there are signs of mining and large iron-making production in the region of Niger-Benue dating back to B.C. 250. Gold was never valued as a domestic metal and the export of natural resources was at that time just as normal as today's overseas trade (Davidson, 1994:72).

3.3.2 Typologies and Characteristics

Early Swahili

At the end of the 12th century the Arab, Indian and African traditions were merging, creating the Swahili people, language, culture and building traditions. The interactions of the sailing tradesmen on the East coast of Africa created the Kiswahili language, basically of Bantu origin but including Arab, Indian and Persian words, and the Stone Towns (Figure 33) with their Swahili architecture (Figure 34).

¹³ Ahmad Sheikh, (1995) discusses in his paper *Communication as support. Case study Zanzibar*. The expansion of the Muslims on the East African coast.



Figure 33
Arabic-influenced house in Zanzibar.



Figure 34
A Swahili house either under construction or near collapse.



Figure 35
Mud is plastered between the vertical poles and the thinner, horizontal branches.



Figure 36
Swahili building construction.

The early indigenous habitats in Zanzibar were houses of wattle and daub construction (Figure 36 and 38) with thatched *makuti* roofs of palm leaves (Figure 35) normally constructed as one-storey houses (Figure 34). The entrance was and is in a recessed part of the front façade, creating an open porch with a raised platform, a “*baraza*”, which is a semiprivate seating arrangement, a bench, in front of the house (Figure 37).

The plan in typical indigenous and early Swahili houses was characterised by a corridor running through the centre of the house providing access to the individual rooms along the corridor and into the courtyard behind the front building. Domestic activities took place either in the open backyard or in an added building at the end of the courtyard (Figure 37).

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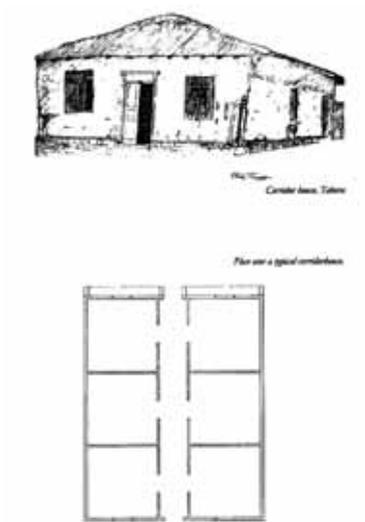


Figure 37
Swahili corridor house with its characteristic baraza flanking the doorway.



Figure 38
Typical Swahili house before the outside of the walls are plastered.



Figure 39
Outside Pangani on the North East coast of Tanzania this two-storey wattle and daub house was registered.

Shirazi influence

Knowledge of building in stone, the manufacture and use of lime and cement, the art of woodcarving and the weaving of cotton (Figure 40 and 41) came to the East Coast from the Shirazi in Persia and introduced ornamented balconies and coloured glass.



Figure 40
Shirazi influenced balcony in Zanzibar, preventing people from the outside looking in but open for cross-ventilation and a pleasant indoor climate.



Figure 41
The Shirazi style balcony with coloured glass and carvings.

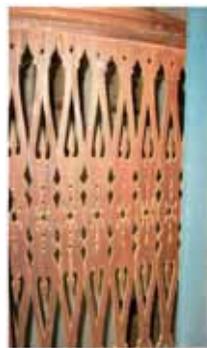


Figure 42
A balcony overlooking the Indian Ocean with its richly decorated designs makes the view look like a framed picture. A wood carved banister and coloured window glass tell the story of Shirazi influence.

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The main characteristics of the Shirazi style are the pointed arch, the carefully and distinctly cut limestone and the rectangular type of wall with a high precision in its detailing (Figure 42).¹⁴

The introduction of stone-built houses with load-bearing solid walls changed the *early Swahili layout system*. A roof support structure of mangrove poles allowed for a planning system with the addition of rectangular rooms parallel to the main façade (Figure 43).



Figure 43

Mangrove poles of hardwood are used as the main ceiling construction. Due to the maximum length of the mangroves being 3,60 m. the rooms are shaped in accordance with this span.

The semi-private *barazas* (benches), in front of the entrance were kept in the Shirazi-influenced design. The entrance was flanked on both sides by beautifully carved wooden doors with richly ornamented frame and centre post indicating the status of the owner (Figure 44 and 45).

¹⁴ For example the mosque at Kilwa Kisiwani (Great Mosque) built in 1270 is surrounded by forty columns arranged into squares, each of which is surmounted by a cupola (Kleppe, 1992).



Figure 44
Woodcarvings on an Arabic-influenced door.



Figure 45
A richly carved and ornamented Arabic-influenced door.



Figure 46
An example of castellation in Hurumzi area. Different types of castellations are found in Zanzibar .



Arabic influence

The impact of Arab culture and Islamic religion had a clear influence on architecture. A typical Arab house was a massive but simple whitewashed square building built of coral rock and mortar with a flat roof terrace surrounded by a crenulated parapet wall (Figure 46) as in the traditional buildings found in Oman. The oblong spaces were arranged around an open courtyard in the middle to permit the chilly night breeze to cross-ventilate the surrounding rooms and to let the light flow into the rooms during the daytime (Figure 47).



Figure 47
Examples of daylight filtering through open shafts in courtyard rooms in Hurumzi and Sokomhogo.

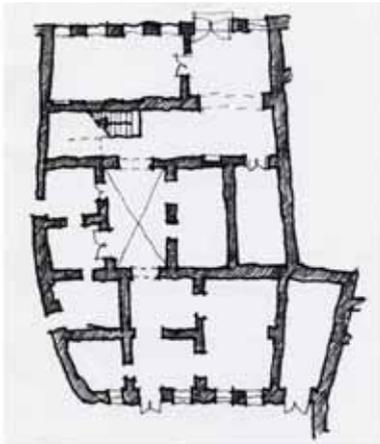


Figure 48
Arabic-influenced house plan in Sokomhogo Block I showing the open courtyard enabling the evening sea breeze to penetrate from the open roof balcony through the flats and rooms.

The front rooms served as the reception area where guests were received and festive family occasions were celebrated (Hakim, 1986) (Figure 48). The remaining rooms on the ground floor were used as slave quarters and for storage. The domestic quarters on the upper floor were restricted to family members and the layout designed according to Islamic gender segregation. The Arab houses have a functional simplicity in form and articulation and the decorative elements are almost exclusively focused on the carved doors and doorways (Figure 49).



Figure 49

The Arabic-influenced door is decorated with brass knobs originally to keep elephants out. Since elephants have never lived on Zanzibar this is purely for decoration. The centre-post of an Arabic-influenced doorway is normally richly decorated as here exemplified by the centre-post of one of the doors in the Sultan's Palace that is richly decorated with gold painted carvings.



Figure 50

Openness. Light filtering through an open courtyard in Hurumzi area.



Figure 51

Darkness. Narrow streets give protection towards the sun.

Seen from the outside the Arab houses with their massive plastered facades and crenulated balustrades crowning the flat roofs indicate a closed and introverted character (Figure 51). But for the inhabitants the house opens into a courtyard that function as a self-contained communal space (Figure 50). Even though Arabic domestic buildings have a distinct architectural character, the most representative Arabic architectural building type is the mosque with its simple and well-regulated layout and design.

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Indian influence

The influence of Indian building traditions was mainly expressed by a type of terraced house opening directly to the street at ground floor level and with the living area on the first floor for the use of one family only, called “shop-front row houses” (Figure 52 and 54).

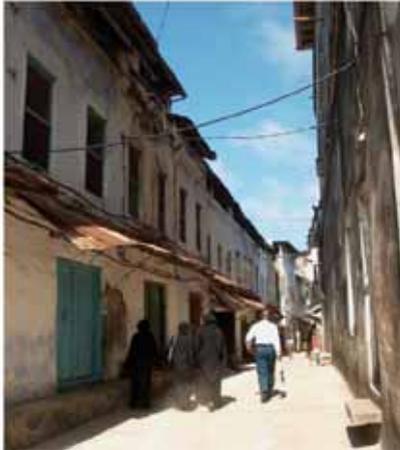


Figure 52
Indian shop-front row houses in Kajifjeni area in Zanzibar.

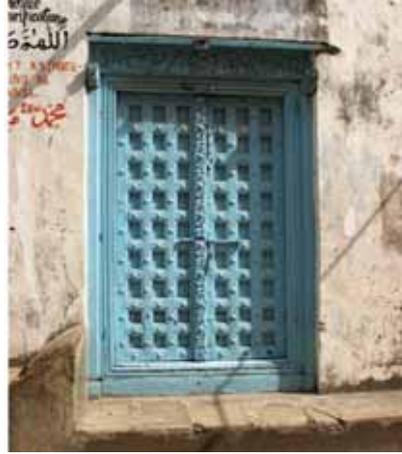


Figure 53
Indian-inspired Zanzibar door.

In the hands of Indian craftsmen, the characteristic doors were decorated in a more simple way (Figure 53) than by the Shirazi but the buildings themselves are generally more ornamented by stucco and cast iron and wood and decoratively sculptured verandas.

The various groups of Indians came from different regions of the sub-continent, spoke different languages and practised different religions such as the Sunni Shafe'i School with their wide-ranging socio-cultural networks, the Hadhrami clans claiming to descend from the Prophet and the Sharifians (Sheriff, 1992:49). At an early stage they gathered and settled in different sections of the towns.

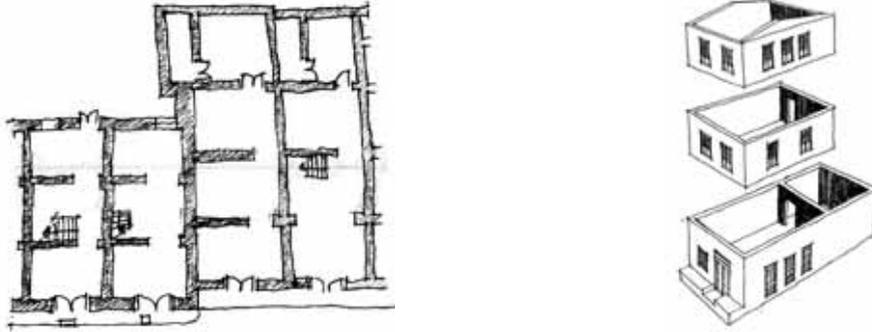


Figure 54

A typical three-storey high Indian shop-front row house designed for workshops and shops on the ground floor and privacy on the first and second floor. The layout of Indian shop-front row houses shows the workshop area in the front room, storage behind and the toilets in the back row.

The Indian houses can be classified into two types: the smaller and the medium-sized buildings, both organised to fit into a row of similar structures and creating family blocks surrounded by covered passageways for pedestrians.

Different from the Arabic-influenced buildings that were constructed and designed only for family use, the Indian-influenced building often combined commercial activities and residential use, with the ground floor containing small manufacturing activities, storage and shops (Figure 54).

Summary of Early Swahili period

Based on this historic overview, the Early Swahili period can roughly be divided into four periods of influence. The first began in the 8th century, when contacts were mainly with Arab traders from the Gulf (Figure 56). The second at the beginning of the 11th century arose when traders mainly came from Yemen and the Red Sea area and the third period represents an overlapping with strong competition between the two previous groups. The fourth, during which the Gulf traders lost ground, began in the 13th century and continued until the arrival of the Portuguese in 1497.

3.3.3. Late Swahili Period

The late Swahili Period started with the arrival of the Portuguese in 1497 and went on to the years of an African awakening from early 1960 onwards (Davidson, 1994: 87).

The existing melting pot of Swahili culture was enriched by about 1850 by the influence of both European and American building traditions and culture. The general homogeneity of the Swahili towns and the Stone Towns changed. Most remarkable were the houses representing the diverse religions and looking like Hindu temples, Mosques and Christian churches.

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Figure 55
The sketch illustrates a part of the Seafront of Zanzibar.



Figure 56
The Arabian-inspired sailing boats – dhows – occupy the harbours on Zanzibar.



Figure 57
98% of the inhabitants of Zanzibar are Muslims. Most grown-up women use their chador when moving outside their homes.

The blending of African, Arab, Indian and European culture has influenced the architectural form and articulation of the Stone Towns of East Africa and produced a colourful mixture of people, culture, design and architecture (Figure 58 and 59).



Figure 58
Indian-influenced balcony in Hurumzi area
in the Stone Town of Zanzibar.



Figure 59
Zanzibar children outside a caravan serai, an old
Arabic-influenced type of guesthouse and lodging.

The European influence

With the arrival of the Portuguese in 1497 a European element was brought into the culture and building tradition of East Africa. However, the main European influence in architecture is concentrated between 1832 and 1964.

The almost 150 years of Portuguese rule of the coastal towns of East Africa from the late 15th century until 1622 left few signs of architectural influence except for some tile-covered pavement called Portuguese pavement. This period, contrary to others, is often described as a period of destruction and decline (Marsh *et al.*, 1966). In Zanzibar only one chapel was built, documented by Father Monclaro in 1569¹⁵, some neighbouring merchants' houses and an addition to the Fort close to the Forodhani Garden. According to *A Plan for the Historic Stone Town, Zanzibar*; 1997, these houses were incorporated into the wall of an earlier fortification built by the Omanis before 1710 and later incorporated in the Old Fort built ca. 1780 (Figure 60). In the following 70 years the Persians and Arabs took turns in defeating the Portuguese-ruled coastal towns.

While the Arab-, Indian- and Persian-influenced Swahili architecture is dominated by solid and introverted houses (Figure 61) the Europeans introduced building elements and techniques allowing transparency and light into the Stone Town architecture. Colonnades, porticoes and verandas opened the interior of the buildings to the outside world (Figure 62). This process of turning the inside out was an improvement convenient for the newcomers more used to Western culture, in that outdoor space and balconies had access to a view of the Indian Ocean and the cool evening breeze.

¹⁵ In his book; *A journey from Kilwa to Pate*, 1569, Father Monclaro mentions the fort being extended.

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Figure 60
Inside the Old Fort – Boma – Built mainly by the Arabs about. 1780.



Figure 61
Arabic-influenced house in Zanzibar Stone Town.



Figure 62
Post Office in Zanzibar Stone Town. European influence seen in the use of concrete pillars and an open portico.

The slave trade was a temptation not only for the Arabs and Indians but also for the Europeans and Americans to trade on the East Coast of Africa. Another major factor in European expansion in East Africa was the opening of the Suez Canal in 1869. With the opening of this passage to an East Africa rich in spices, minerals, ivory, gold and slaves, a new international struggle started for the control of strategic harbours along the coast. From being a distant land, East Africa now became more easily accessible and commercial agreements were negotiated between local rulers and overseas countries. To maintain this powerful position on the East African coastline and Zanzibar, Sultan Seyyid Said signed trade treaties with the USA in 1833, Great Britain in 1839, France in 1844 and Germany in 1860. France, Portugal, Italy, Austria-Hungary and USA opened consulates on the East Coast of Africa during the years

between 1837 and 1844 (Davidson, 1994). European influence is clearly seen in the architecture and town planning schemes designed for the trading ports along the East African coast.

3.3.4 The Concept of Swahili Architecture

All Swahili towns located along the trading routes developed in the period between the 13th and 20th centuries along the East Coast of Africa and in the hinterland are characterised by their complex mixture of Arabian, Indian and African building traditions.

A typical Swahili town consists of one storey high buildings organised along narrow streets and open places. Due to the low buildings the Swahili parts of the city, and the Swahili town itself, are open and filled with light (Figure 63), in contrast to the Stone Town.

For more than a thousand years (960 AD - 1960) sailing merchants from the North and the East gradually merged with the residing Bantu people and created the Swahili culture that became the foundation for the East African Stone Towns and the Swahili towns. At the beginning of the 12th century a new stone building culture appeared in the region between the Zambezi and the Limpopo rivers and in the Rift Valley highlands to the East.

Traditional Swahili culture is Afro-Islamic, maritime, agricultural and urbanised at the same time (Lodhi, 1992:7). The Swahili architecture reached its zenith from the 13th to the 15th centuries, the époque that developed the main principles. A continuing concentration of people and activities into the coastal urban centres formed organized and structured cities based on Muslim and Indian cultures and ways of life. According to Hakim the founding of Islamic cities was for practical reasons affected by the natural environment and conditions of their site and location, while the design and layouts were based on cultural and religious criteria (Hakim, 1986:102).

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Facades

- A Arabic façade
- B Arabic façade with Indian influence
- C Indian façade
- D Indian façade
- E Modern façade

Wall surface in %

- A 87%
- B 75%
- C 74%
- D 64%
- E 58%

Open area in %

- A 13%
- B 24%
- C 25%
- D 36%
- E 42%

Façades

Proportions

Solidness

Openness



Proportions

The traditional façades of Zanzibar are divided into simple or regularly repeating panels, added onto each other. Contemporary façades lack this sober pattern. In contrast to the traditional façade's closed panels, they have a broken field created by crude jointing. The curve shows the relationship between height and width on a façade.

Solidness

The closed character of the Arabic façade is seen in almost all of Zanzibar's façades. This quality is a result of both building tradition and Islamic culture. There is a striking difference in the solidness of the walls before and today.

Openness

In the first four examples the openings in the façades are harmonious with the walls. The characteristic feeling of the walls has disappeared in the contemporary examples because the open areas are too large relative to the wall area.

Figure 63

Archetypes and grammar of Zanzibar Stone Town.

3.3.5 Swahili Urbanism - East African Stone Towns

The physical structure of a Stone Town is based upon the social system found in the Arabic and Indian family and clan. This system is related to kinship and subdivided according to semi-private open space and the construction of behaviour within the Islamic religion¹⁶ and the Hindu religion, where a singular building is not separated from the cluster of buildings it belongs to (Lanchester, 1923). The intention of Hakim's research was to "bridge the gap between current practice in the Arab and the Islamic building and construction activity primarily imported from the west and in addition a thousand years of Arab and Islamic building traditions".

Close to most of the Stone Town is a mud and pole town inhabited by people earning their living providing services for the stone town dwellers. The large stone and coral houses, often three to four storeys high, housed Arab tradesmen and female domestic slaves. The plantation workers and male domestic slaves lived in rectangular dwellings made of coconut leaves (Donley-Reid, 1990:118). One of the earliest findings of this symbiotic community structure was in the old city of Shanga in the Lamu Archipelago north of Mombasa, Kenya, dating back to the 13th century (Horton, 1996:426).

Hakim (1986) points out that during the years 1/622 (Muslim/AD) – 133/750 AD the religion of Islam emerged from the central part of Arabia and extended from Spain to India by means of travel and trade. This reached maturity around year 288/900 AD but did not reach its peak before the end of the Ottoman Empire in 1918.

In the introduction to his book Hakim (1986) discusses the naming of the Arabic-Islamic cities situated along the African coastline. He relates their building traditions to the Maghreb region of North Africa bordering the Mediterranean Sea, but concludes with the term the "Arabic-Islamic cities" which embraces both the geographical source and the religious content. This research indicates however that the Arab and the Islamic influence are more widely differentiated than Hakim claims. Hakim points to an interesting and important fact that the literature found did not necessarily support his interpretation. Looking for traces of the intentions of political documents correlated to reality in architecture revealed little except a lot of remarkably beautiful architectural drawings. There is nothing that explains why the management of the built environment ended up in the way it did. The same applies in looking for information on the development of Zanzibar Stone Town.

Hakim (1986) seeks to identify the ideas behind the building traditions and urban development in Islamic laws, developed from 1/622 AD when building and urban design principles mainly centred on housing and access to the houses.

Mårtelius (1996) comments on Islamic architecture in the same way as Grube (1996-97), as being a secondary element in the association between the inner functions and

¹⁶ The Oman Arabs arriving Zanzibar together with Sultan Sayyid Said, mainly belonged to the Ibathi sect of the Muslims, important for the design of architecture and city planning. The Mshihiri Arabs arriving from Hadramant, were Sunni Muslims and mostly occupied with business.

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the outer decorations¹⁷ and claims that the singular building itself is anonymously hidden behind richly decorated walls and columns where the decorations neither relate to the building components nor to the materials or the function of the building. Very often the decoration is seen as an important addition to the simple shape of the building itself.

Geometry in the layout, the design and in the decorations is used to interpret Islamic theories in metaphysics. Even in the most complex decorations you find overall patterns of squares, rectangles, circles, triangles and geometric subdivisions used to blur the border between reality and imagination.

But even the Islamic architecture and ornamentation was not untouched by the European influence. This can be seen in the development of the decorated doors and windows in Zanzibar.

After the departure of the Portuguese in 1622, the Swahili towns changed from being scattered rural settings to taking the shape of urban structures. Together with Pate in the Lamu Archipelago, Mombasa on the East coast of Kenya, Kaole near Bagamoyo and Lindi in the southern part of Tanzania, Zanzibar became one of a distinct series of urban structures along the East coast of Africa. This remained until the change in the global economy in the wake of the First and Second World Wars.

According to the Moroccan traveller Ibn Battuta, the stone-built town of Kilwa located in the southern part of Tanzania that he encountered in 1332 was a splendid city surrounding the Great Husuni palace consisting of man-made airflow systems, public and private spaces, organized sanitation and a large swimming pool (Sutton, 1990:84). At this time Mombasa was as well established as Kilwa. Houses of stones and mortar were designed in an urban structure including streets, market places and a well-organised harbour.

By the 18th century Mogadishu had become urban due to the trading activities between Arabia and India, Lamu and Zanzibar and had between 150-200 stone houses (Alpers, 1984).

By studying four East African coastal Swahili towns: Bagamoyo, Sadaani, Pangani and Tanga, two inland Swahili towns: Ujiji and Tabora, and the neighbouring island to Zanzibar, Lamu, we find that all of them show a general approach to urbanism and physical development built on the Islamic value system of the Shari'a (Islamic law). This law accommodates an urban macro structure based on micro level and neighbourhood scale.

¹⁷ Most of the Indians arriving Zanzibar were also Muslims but with traces of Hindu customs like the Memons, the Ismailia Khojas and the Ithnasheri Khojas, all of them having the Aga Khan as their spiritual leader.

Bagamoyo

Figure 64
 The map showing the Zanzibar channel dividing Zanzibar Island from mainland Tanzania, with Bagamoyo strategically situated on the coast.

When the first Arab merchants settled in Bagamoyo in the 13th century, pottery and salt production had been ongoing in the region for more than three hundred years. The Arabs introduced coral stone and mangrove poles as building materials in the area, and constructed rooms with a maximum width of 3-4 meters according to the length of the mangrove poles. Under Portuguese dominance in the 16th century, Bagamoyo, situated on the mainland, declined parallel to the other Swahili towns. It was not reactivated before 1832 when Sultan Seyyid Said of Oman arrived, making Zanzibar Stone Town the capital of his dynasty (Al-Maamiry, 1988) (Figure 66).

The strategic geographic location of Bagamoyo on the seashore (Figure 64 and 65) opposite Zanzibar made it an important coastal town and the capital of Tanganyika. In 1880 it had more than 6,000 inhabitants and in 1890 approximately 15,000. In 1891, the Germans decided to move the capital to Dar es Salaam because of better harbour facilities and Bagamoyo suffered a decline that it never recovered from.

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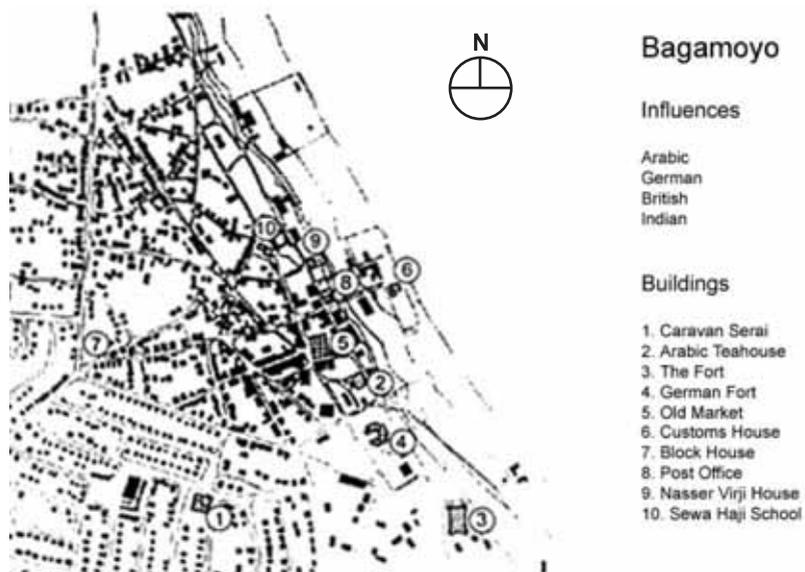


Figure 65
Map of Bagamoyo showing the area with a typical East African urban structure based on influence from Arabic, Indian and Colonial planning systems and architectural building types.



Figure 66
The centre of Bagamoyo still shows a strong Arabic, Indian and Colonial influence.

Tanga

Tanga, a city (Figure 68) on the North East coast of Tanzania has, for more than a hundred years, been an important coastal connection point between the inland Kilimanjaro region and the sea-borne export business. Tanga town is characterised by the city planning structure of a European grid system of regular built blocks in straight, rectangular street patterns and contains a mixture of Colonial and Indian influenced houses (Figure 67).



Figure 67
The two pictures illustrate street life in Tanga town.



Figure 68
The map illustrates that Tanga town, shown in 2003, is situated at the mouth of Pangani River on the North East coast of Tanzania.

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Lamu

Lamu Island is situated two degrees south of the Equator and separated from the mainland of Kenya by only a very narrow channel. The urban structure of Lamu dates back to the 9th and 10th century when the Arab and Persian traders sailing along East Africa coasts settled and founded their characteristic urban settlements (Figure 71). The urban structure and built environment visible today dates back to the 18th century and bears witness to a rich and once prosperous Arabic- and Persian-influenced town (Figure 69 and 70).



Figure 69
Still you find makuti roofs in the urban centre of Lamu giving shadow to the rooftop terraces.



Figure 70
A narrow street in Lamu represents the traditional Arabic influence on public space.



Figure 71
Lamu has a typical Arabic-influenced planning structure created on the basis of the Arabic family structure and according to Islamic values, together making for a conglomeration of building structures and small interrelated streets in a dense morphological pattern.

Pangani

Pangani is located where the river Pangani flows into the Indian Ocean in the northeast part of Tanzania (Figure 72). Pangani River has its source in the Kilimanjaro region and for many centuries it has served as the main river transport route from North to South for boats carrying fish, coconuts, mangroves, ivory, slaves and coffee. About 400 AD Pangani, called Rhapta¹⁸ at the time, was the earliest urban setting mentioned in East African history. By the late 19th century Pangani contained about 200 stone houses built by Arab traders and Indian merchants in addition to the local huts and Swahili houses lined along the streets of the city centre. Pangani was, at the time of the slave trade, one of the most active shipping ports.



Figure 72
Pangani site plan, 2003 illustrating an Arabic- and Indian-influenced city plan.

Whilst Pangani only has scattered structures left from the early stages of the Swahili period, the road structures still tell the story of a characteristic Indian-influenced road system and an Arabic-influenced architectural seafront (Figure 73 and 74) that, according to Burton (2002), contained more than 200 stone houses at the end of the late 19th century. At the same time the planning structure and the city layout represents a more European- than Arabic-influenced urban planning scheme. The interaction between coastal towns and the hinterland has been a vital element in the making of an East African urban design (Burton, 2002).

¹⁸ In 1982 Gill Shepherd discussed *The Making of Swahili* in the publication of Paideuma and argued that the characteristic stone buildings on the East coast of Africa (in the Mafia-Kilwa region) date back to the late eleventh or early twelfth century (1982:140). This article he also challenges the assumptions about the origins of Swahili by claiming that foreign additions to the East African coastal conceptions arrived from the South East rather than the North East (1982:145).

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Figure 73
Slave Depot in Pangani, once an important and, despite its content, beautiful Arabic-influenced building on the sea shore at the mouth of Pangani river.



Figure 74
India street in Pangani illustrates a typical Indian-influenced streetscape with its shop-front row houses.

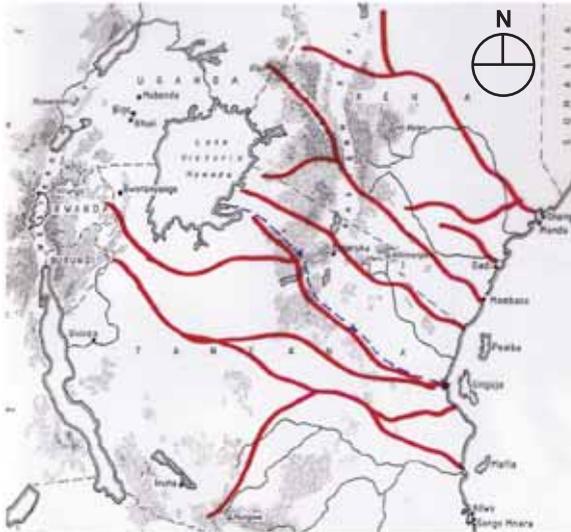


Figure 75
The red lines on the map of Tanzania illustrate the Slave routes from the "Hinterland" to the Indian Ocean.

Most of the inland cities along the caravan routes (Figure 75) remained as one storey high Swahili towns with building structures made of wattle and daub, with makuti (banana leaf) roofs and the characteristic outdoor barazas, while the coastal Swahili towns developed into stone towns constructed of coral stones, lime and mortar and very often two or more storeys high. Both the inland and the coastal Swahili towns have narrow and winding paths criss-crossing through the urban structure built on cultural behaviour preferences, family structures and religious ceremonies. Tabora and Ujiji are two sites that were important for the Indian Ocean trade, although they are not situated along the seashore but are far up in the hinterland (Figure 76).

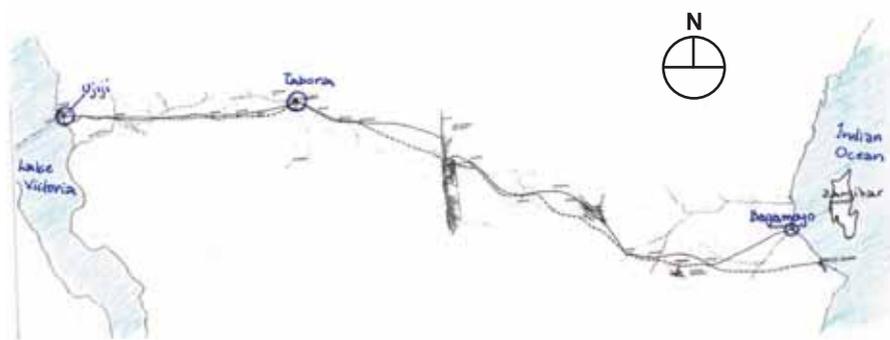


Figure 76
Map of the slave route from Ujiji, Lake Victoria to Bagamoyo.

Ujiji

Ujiji is situated on the shore of Lake Tanganyika (Figure 76). Due to the strategic location of Ujiji and Tabora and destabilisation in the political situation along the coast during the late 19th century, Ujiji grew rapidly. Nevertheless, even when populated by more than 5,000 Arabs, building construction was, according to Burton (2002), only of mud-and-pole with makuti (banana leaf) roofs. Contradicting this statement a field study made by Ark3 of the Division of Architecture and Development Studies in Lund, Sweden, in 2003 found a number of buildings from the Arabic trading period clearly bearing signs of an Arabic architectural influence such as the Arabic house on Livingstone Street (Helsing *et.al.*, 2003).



Figure 77
Map of Ujiji on the shore of Lake Tanganyika. The town was founded in 1831 being the main inland settlement for the slave traders up to 1890.

Tabora

Tabora developed as a trading centre with Swahili-influenced urban planning and housing layouts (Figure 78) and became an important junction for the trade routes heading for the coast and those continuing to Congo and even further north.



Figure 78
A Swahili-inspired street in Tabora.

3.3.6 Concept of an East African Stone Town

The Swahili town consists of single-storey built structures (Figure 79). The buildings of a Stone Town are often three or four storeys high and windows seldom face the streets (Figure 80). This creates an “unfriendly” and closed facade to people not familiar with the inner structures of the built environment.



Figure 79
Swahili-influenced house in Militano village, Zanzibar.



Figure 80
An Arabic-influenced house in Zanzibar showing the compactness and scarcity of windows.

Bantu influence

The node for all these cities was Zanzibar. The city of Zanzibar is situated on an island close to the mainland, with good harbours and a strategically important view. In addition it has fertile soil and sweet water sources in the ground as well as being sited at a crossroad, a strategic point for the transport of goods to and from the hinterland. The East African stone towns developed parallel to the Swahili towns and are more

densely urbanized. The East African towns like Bagamoyo, Tanga, Pangani, Ujiji and Tabora developed during the 18th and 19th century and are strategically located forming the transport network of the caravan routes and even today revealing the imprint of the colonial powers, both Arab and European.

With the international economic depression in the 1930s, the African Swahili seaport towns suffered a remarkable decline. Rapid urban growth in general in African cities, triggered by unemployment led to the emergence of squatter areas in the cities¹⁹. Increasing rural-urban migration led to a change in the composition of the population, a problem not easily solved by local colonial administrations. In the early 1960s one fifth of Africa's population lived in urban areas. This historical architectural analysis leads us to a different perception from the common one of urban growth merely as a growth of squatter areas.

The Difference between a Swahili town and a Stone town

The East African coastal towns and the Swahili towns on the mainland developed as a consequence of the East African sea trade. They have similarities and differences. The main common architectural characteristics are seen in the multicultural influences in architecture, the distribution of rooms and spatial planning, and in the use of building materials.



Figure 81
Zanzibar site plan 1987. Zanzibar is unreservedly the largest of the Stone Towns along the East coast of Africa, counting some 2400 building units.

¹⁹ Kariakoo in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania and Mathare Valley and Kibera outside Nairobi, Kenya.

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Divergences are to be seen in the technical use of building materials (Figure 35), in the variety in ornamentation, in the planned structures of the houses (Figure 82 and 83) and, not least, in the planning structures of the urban centres as well as the density of the towns (Figure 81), their seafront and the amount of building clusters. Altogether the characteristics based on history and the multicultural elements tie the physical structures and the townscapes to the label “Swahili urban architecture”.



Figure 82
A Slave depot in Pangani, with Indian and Arabic influence.

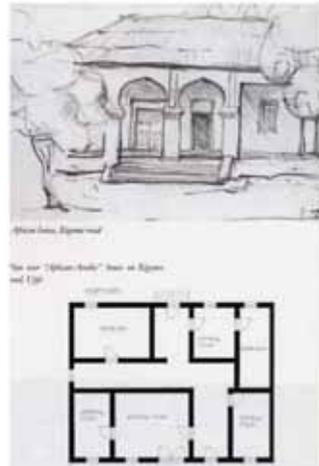


Figure 83
Arab-influenced house in Ujiji.



Figure 84
Analysis of the streetscape in Zanzibar showing the narrow and shady streets flanked with three- and four-storey high buildings.

Because of the divergence in the technical use of building materials, urban design, streetscape, distribution of rooms and spatial planning this research distinguishes between the architecture of a Stone Town and the architecture of a Swahili town (Figure 84 and 85).

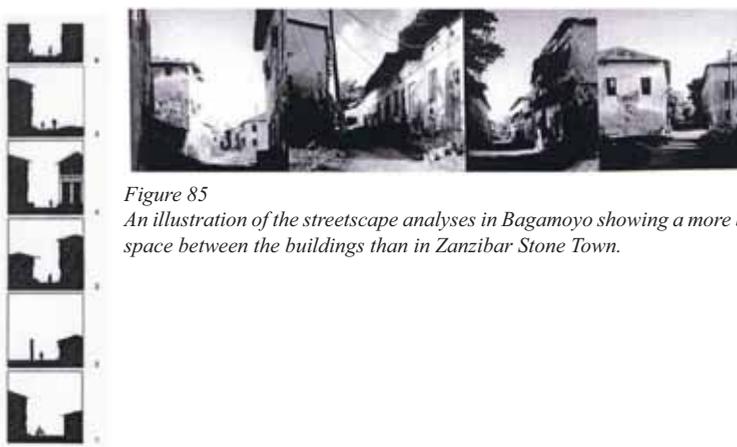


Figure 85
An illustration of the streetscape analyses in Bagamoyo showing a more broad and wide space between the buildings than in Zanzibar Stone Town.

The rural-urban transition appearing on the African continent started at the turn of the century with the arrival of colonial powers. Those cities of East Africa representing the most distinct urban character lost their importance as centres and ports in the years after the Second World War due to changes in the international stock market and trade treaties. An African urban historiography is more or less invisible in the international research community today. There are few and scattered but important contributions to the history of the making of an urban Africa²⁰ (Figure 84 and 85).

3.4 Global Awareness

The process of national legislation in the field of conservation and restoration has gone on for almost a hundred and thirty-five years. International cooperation within the field started some fifty years ago and exists at present in the form of guidelines for management of local and global heritage.

3.4.1 The Making of Cultural Heritage Policy

The history of international organisations and international policy documents in the field of cultural and architectural heritage has not developed logically. Sometimes the document comes first and the establishment of the formal organisation arises some years later and vice versa.

3.4.2 The Producers of International Documents

After Second World War different international groups of interested citizens made an immense effort to pressure national governments to put national heritage protection, restoration and conservation high on the political agenda. In the years after the launching of the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* in 1948 a wide range of international organisations was established. One of the most recent within the field

²⁰ Anderson D. M. and Rathbone, R. Oxford 2000. *Africa's Urban Past* and Burton, A. Nairobi 2002 and *The Urban Experience in Eastern Africa c. 1750 – 2000*, at the British Institute in Eastern Africa, Nairobi, Kenya, are important contributions to the history of the making of an African urban past.

local approaches to the protection of architectural and archaeological heritage in the selected European countries.

In France the cultural sites and objects covered by the heritage concepts of monuments and groups of buildings and sites are spread over several categories and governed by a number of legal systems, but with a relatively simple and straightforward administrative structure. Protecting historic monuments is the responsibility of the Ministry for Culture, represented at the centre by the Department of Architecture, Heritage and Archaeology. At regional level, the Ministry for Culture has regional directorates responsible for cultural affairs, within which there are specific services for architectural heritage protection (Council of Europe, 1999).

In the Federal Republic of Germany, architectural heritage protection is the legislative and administrative responsibility of the federated states (Länder), each of which has a varying size of department designated for this purpose. According to the federal constitution, regional/spatial planning and town planning are complementary responsibilities. The national laws relating to these fields of activity simply provide the overall legal framework into which the legal and administrative measures taken by the local states must be fitted. Under federal building laws, the municipalities are responsible for town planning and regulations concerning architecture (Pickard, 2001).

Spain and Italy have wide structures similar to those in Germany, but differ in the extent of decentralisation. In Italy, national law to protect architectural heritage is implemented by the Ministry of Cultural and Environmental Assets, usually via its regionally-decentralised services. The regions have lost the power given them in 1977 to decide what sites should be protected, but have retained limited regional planning powers. The central authorities directly manage, in different capacities, a considerable amount of high quality architectural heritage (Council of Europe, 1999).

In some Scandinavian countries, the responsibility for cultural and natural heritage is administered jointly by the Ministry of Environment and Ministry of Culture. In Norway and Finland there is a special administrative sub-unit for architectural heritage. In Sweden, administrative responsibility for cultural heritage and natural heritage is separate. This is also the case in Iceland and, since 2002, also in Denmark. In Central and Eastern European countries, there are usually special administrative departments for architectural heritage (Council of Europe, 1999).

The Council of Europe (CoE) formed The European Cultural Convention in 1954, and adopted the European Charter of Architectural Heritage in 1975. This underlines that architectural heritage includes not only individual buildings or monuments, but also areas of towns or villages of historic or cultural interest.

The international legal instruments, the guideline documents and the operations conducted by the Cultural Heritage Committee (CC-PAT) under the Council of Europe as a part of its programme are sufficiently numerous and excellent work is done in

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this field. In 1989 the organisation conducted a survey that led to a 1996 publication: *Report on Cultural Heritage Policies in Europe*, on the status of architectural heritage management in Europe.

The publication includes an introduction and a summary, as well as the reports of 27 European countries. It is the first such publication in Europe to give a fairly comprehensive overview of the policies pursued by the Council of Europe member states in the light of the principles stated in the *Granada Convention* (1985).

UNESCO – United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation – was founded in 1945. The main object of the organisation is “... contributing to peace and human development in an era of globalisation through education, science, culture and communication”. The activities of UNESCO are gathered in four sections and cover twelve strategic objectives. The main sections are education, science, communication and information and culture. Within the cultural section there are three primary strategic objectives as follows:

1. Promoting the drafting and implementation of standard-setting instruments in the cultural field.
2. Safeguarding cultural diversity and encouraging dialogue among cultures and civilizations.
3. Enhancing the linkages between culture and development, through capacity building and sharing of knowledge.

In 2002 UNESCO approved the *Medium-Term Strategy 2002-2007* emphasizing capacity-building and international cooperation in the least developed countries with focus on Africa. Within the thematic areas of UNESCO’s cultural section’s policies, cultural heritage, development and cultural diversity are highlighted. Cultural heritage is given a special place in the UNESCO structure by the establishment of the World Heritage Centre situated in Paris and by the establishment of the World Heritage List. On an international level the Cultural Heritage Centre has designated and approved as relevant a series of conventions, recommendations and declarations, of which this research analyses and correlates three: *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* (1948), *Our Common Future* (Bruntland, 1987) and *Istanbul Declaration* (1996).

In 2005 The World Heritage List counted 788 sites of which 611 are defined as cultural sites, 154 as natural and 23 as mixed sites.

ICCROM – The International Centre for the Study of Preservation and Restoration of Cultural Property – another international conservation organisation established in 1959 in the wake of World War II, is situated in Rome.

“Purpose and functions:

The ICCROM shall contribute to the worldwide conservation and restoration of cultural property by initiating, developing, promoting and facilitating conditions for such conservation and restoration.”

(Article 1)

Along with the launching of the 1964 *Venice Charter*, ICCROM straight away started to gather specialists with “hands-on” experience and knowledge within the field of heritage conservation and restoration. In the early sixties ICCROM organised the first course on capacity building which has been followed up by numerous courses gathering, among others, art historians, city planners, archaeologists and architects at the centre in Rome and also on sites all over the world. The building of interdisciplinary networks and the transfer of knowledge based on cultural and environmental sustainable management of heritage are two of the main aims of the organisation.

ICOMOS - International Council on Monuments and Sites – is one of the leading international organisations on this topic and a pioneer of cultural heritage. It was established in 1965 as a result of the adoption of the *Venice Charter* the previous year, as an international non-government organisation. The *Venice Charter* – the Charter for the Conservation and Restoration of Monuments and Sites – and its aims and objectives are the backbone of ICOMOS. Since the *Venice Charter* of 1964 ICOMOS has adopted and designated a series of charters, resolutions, declarations and principles (Appendix I – Matrix). Five of these are selected and analysed in this thesis. The establishment of ICOMOS in 1965 opened the national heritage stage for a wide range of actors, including urban planners, sociologists, private enterprise and national aid agencies. The aims and objectives of ICOMOS are governed by the ICOMOS statutes and focus on networking, partnership, dissemination of knowledge and experience, cooperation, implementation of international conventions and the channelling of knowledge of conservation and enhancement of architectural heritage.

Today ICOMOS has a wide-spread network based on national committees in more than 107 countries and 21 International Scientific Committees of experts. One of the tasks undertaken by ICOMOS is to advise and support the World Heritage Committee of United Nations (UNESCO) on the nomination of new sites for the World Heritage List and to report on the state of conservation of listed sites. Through its mandate to advise UNESCO on necessary issues ICOMOS launched the Declaration of ICOMOS marking the fiftieth anniversary of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1998. The Declaration underlines the right to community participation, the right to establish non-governmental organisations and further that “... cultural heritage is an integral part of human rights ...”. The Declaration also focuses on the right to “... recognize, appreciate and maintain heritage, and to improve and respect a framework for action.”

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Aga Khan Development Network encompasses many programmes within the Aga Khan Organisation including the Aga Khan Trust for Culture, which supports projects in Muslim societies. Historic Cities Support Programme (HCSP) is one of the Aga Khan programmes run centrally from Geneva and its locally-established support office is involved with the conservation and revitalization of Zanzibar Stone Town. Through the HCSP program the Aga Khan Organisation identifies needs and provides planning assistance and technical expertise and implements urban conservation and development projects aimed at restoring and maintaining the socio-economic and cultural fabric of sites. Since 1988 the HCSP has undertaken the renovation and revitalisation of several buildings and areas in Zanzibar Stone Town and in 2002 it launched a plan for the revitalisation of the Seafront area of Zanzibar Stone Town. The Aga Kahn Award for Architecture is probably the most important event for the development and dissemination of Muslim building traditions and urban design today.

Africa-2009

The Africa-2009 programme was created in 1998, based in ICCROM and in response to the history of African development which is summarised here. The years of colonialism on the African continent affected development of self-management in the African nation states in at least two ways: the drainage of natural sources and the introduction of a non-African bureaucracy. The colonial bureaucracy functioned to a great extent as a useful driving force when run by the colonialists, but in today's societies it is less effective. For many years specialists from the industrialized countries and international organisations have flooded the African continent bringing reports and donors wishing to implement International Charters into national legislation.

An African “awakening” starting in the early 1960s led to the division of Tanganyika into Tanzania and Zanzibar and further to the Zanzibar Revolution in 1964. Anti-colonial campaigning and the separatist movement have affected a new generation of Africans, and this inheritance can be seen in many sectors to day.

Most African countries have made great efforts to set up bodies to look after their cultural heritage but this has been hindered by problems of personnel management, lack of specific skills and education, low wages, undeveloped operations and an undeveloped academic approach. Limited access to information and poor facilities for document storage and transfer of knowledge are other elements causing the slow movement within cultural and architectural heritage management.

According to one of the papers presented to an expert meeting on training strategies for conservation of cultural property at ICCROM in Rome, 19-21 September 1996, most of the major sites were run locally. Quite a few were administered nationally and generally these had a conservation plan. The main developmental aims were tourism (84 percent), education (81 percent) and economic benefit (56 percent). This paper and the conference were decisive in the creation of the Africa 2009 programme. The paper pointed out that important activities in cultural heritage management were going on in various African countries and that the people in charge needed to discuss strategies and management with colleagues on the same continent.

Africa has a large number and great variety of heritage sites. They can be broadly categorized according to the materials they are made of (earth, stone, fired clay, wood etc.), the shapes of buildings (flat or sloped roofs), whether they are individual or grouped (town or old sections) or according to their origin (coastal forts, colonial structures, archaeological sites). Only a few of these are geographically linked. Most of them are made of fragile and perishable materials. A wide range of property types is found as well as indications of extensive varieties of socio-economic status and local environment.

According to the ICCROM report of 1996, of the 61,500 sites identified in 32 countries, about 13,000 have been classified. Of the sites listed in the survey, the building materials were mostly earth and stone, followed by brick, wood and cement. The preservation and maintenance of these buildings is said to be a priority by 84 percent and 81 percent of survey respondents respectively. Stabilisation or consolidation (50 percent) and restoration (50 percent) were considered equally important.

The ICCROM conference of 1996 also underlined current threats to heritage especially on the African continent, noting that lack of upkeep is the most serious threat. Many sites had conservation plans and the intention of being listed on the World Heritage List, but there were large gaps in their application to the World Heritage Committee due to immature bureaucracies. As a rule the threats came from unfavourable social conditions rather than from the threat of damage caused by the physical environment such as weathering, storms, mud-slides and so on.

Out of the countries south of the Sahara 94 percent were observed to have an administration at state level responsible for immovable cultural heritage, while only 31 percent had a regional administration in charge of heritage preservation. Eighty-one percent had ratified the UNESCO *Convention for Protection of Cultural Heritage*, but only 47 percent had an ICOMOS committee. The application of relevant laws was considered inadequate in most countries (91 percent). Most of the countries had a national budget for heritage preservation, while 38 percent had other sources of funding, mostly international but also from private foundations or NGOs. About one fifth of the countries had a specialised laboratory to perform a wide range of tasks. The equipment available was deemed average to inadequate while the sites themselves were generally lacking in equipment.

In 1996 32 countries south of the Sahara had listed and registered their cultural heritage. In 84 percent of cases these inventories were incomplete but in 58 percent efforts were being made to complete them. The heritage sites and objects were diverse. Most of the objects were archaeological sites, monuments and religious buildings, but housing and urban areas also featured strongly.

On the back of this survey ICCROM, the Centre de Recherche de l'École d'Architecture de Grenoble (CRATerre-EAG) and the African Cultural Heritage Organisation launched the new programme: "*Conservation of Immoveable Cultural Heritage in Sub-Saharan Africa: Africa 2009*", in 1998. Its long-term aim is to improve conditions

for the conservation of immovable cultural heritage in Sub-Saharan Africa.

According to a 2002 interview with Joseph King, Director General of ICCROM, one of the strengths of the programme is its ability to deal with a variety of topics that complement each other such as technical courses, regional meetings, publications, workshops, seminars and the designing of local databases. The programme is rooted in the practice of community involvement in the conservation process. *Africa 2009* also functions as an African meeting place for networking, exchange of knowledge and experience as well as for improving the conditions for conservation of cultural heritage in Sub-Saharan Africa by increasing national management capacity.

The programme runs thematic workshops and seminars at regional level using local sites as case study objects. The seminars and courses are also designed to train participants in the design of strategies for managing cultural heritage.

3.4.3 International Policy Documents

International policy documents within cultural heritage are designed for different purposes and in different settings, from recommendations and guidelines to legally binding documents such as conventions, charters and resolutions. Some of the documents are launched as being of protective and restrictive character, while others are action oriented. (See Appendix I, the Matrix and Appendix III)

The aims of these documents range from strengthening national management to practical guidelines for improving local consciousness, influencing policy makers on international level and enhancing positive interventions. Heritage policy is a global responsibility that creates an interwoven landscape of national, regional, local and international documents. Another aspect contributing to the strong interplay is the fact that experts in charge of producing and managing local policy documents are often those representing local and/or national levels on international committees.

In addition to the twelve selected international heritage policy documents there are at least two more documents of importance for the development of a global cultural heritage policy: the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* (1948) and *Our Common Future* (Brundtland, 1987) because of their global importance as documents that influence attitudes (Figure 87). Both are included in the analysis of this thesis (Appendix I).

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peace processes in the wake of the First and Second World War when European states divided the African continent between them according to their trade interests in the continent's natural resources. Borders were drawn mechanically crisscrossing the continent disregarding inter-African cultural relationships and identity.

The Norwegian anthropologist Thomas Hylland Eriksen debates nationalism in his book *Small Places Large Issues*. "The growth of nationalism and nation building is an important, spectacular and highly consequential dimension of the global processes of change connected to colonialism and decolonisation." (Hylland Eriksen, 1995:261). He also elaborates on the modern and abstract character of nations and says "that for a nation-state to exist, its leaders must simultaneously be able to legitimate a particular power structure and create a popular belief in the ability of the nation to satisfy certain profound needs in the population" (Hylland Eriksen, 1995:265).

In a global context today we also see that in addition to the international demand for the ability to serve the "profound needs in the population" we also see a demand for developing countries to be self-reliant national states, capable of handling their own management. The making of a nation state on the African continent has a different history from that of Europe. Their distinctive and at the same time diverse cultures based on religious, linguistic and culturally-related ceremonies and meaning systems, together with nomadic movement created territorial limitations more dependent on seasons than on the demand for defined national borders. The making of the African kingdoms (Burton, 2002:59)²¹ is rooted in traditions of self-organization and kinship not unlike the European, but the process of creating geographical borders in Africa, designed by the Europeans through decisions taken in the Berlin Conference (1884-85), have drawn Africa national borders not in accordance with cultural cohesion, but in spite of it. The years of decolonisation made way for the creation of African nation states that are continuously developing, forming and reforming in an African sustainable development context that is rooted in societies and cultural behaviour built up long before the arrival of foreign merchants. The African model of forming nation states is still in the making and will probably be so for many more years to come because of thousands of years of inter-African cultural traditions interrupted by the era of colonial border divisions.

In the 1850s when Europeans invaded the African continent they implemented colonial rules with a bureaucracy and planning built on internationally-accepted models and schemes, yet, as we shall show in the case of Zanzibar Stone Town, without understanding the grounded historical anthropology of its development (Cunningham Bissell, 1999). At this time "...the people of Africa had organized themselves into a number of communities..." (Davidson, 1994: 255) "...based on local circumstances and an African model of community consciousness..." (Davidson, 1994:58).

²¹ In the book *The Urban Experience in Eastern Africa 1750 – 2000*, edited by Andrew Burton, Richard Reid discusses "*Warfare and urbanisation: The relationship between town and conflict in pre-colonial Eastern Africa*". Reid claims that East African towns and kingdoms were mainly of fortified origin.

The history of colonization in Zanzibar is not very different from that imposed by the Arabs and Indians and by the Europeans on Africa. At the time when the Arab Sultan needed to control prosperous Indian merchants in the 18th century, he formed allies with the Europeans. Later they overthrew his rule of Zanzibar island and imported "... the machinery of legislation.... and bureaucracy", (Cunningam Bissell, 1994:153).

3.5 Main Issues Derived from the Literature Review and the Key Concepts

During the last ten years emphasis in the international discourse on development and development research has shifted from focusing on the increase in trade and capital as the main factors for the improvement of society to concentrating on development linked to human rights and to democracy rooted in culture, identity and local coherence. The first stage of the international *E-Conference on Cultural Heritage and the Struggle against Poverty and Social Exclusion* in Fez, May-June 2002 resulted in four schemes:

1. The identification of the relationship between culture, cultural heritage and development processes.
2. The definition of cultural heritage as a specific area for action.
3. The contribution that cultural heritage initiatives make in the struggle against poverty and the conditions in which such contributions might be put into effect.
4. The practices and directions that should be followed to improve the design and management of cultural heritage initiatives.²²

This change is targeted towards a society that is globally oriented and locally rooted. The change intensifies the focus on regional and local to a far greater extent than just a few years ago. National heritage should be an integral part of the identity of a society and is important for sustainable development (Hettne, 2001). In this process cultural heritage, identity and social development form a triangle in which all sides are equal.

Within the field of cultural heritage there are numerous organisations, forums and institutions that have acted as formal and non-formal promoters lobbying cultural heritage policy for more than 100 years. At the same time as politicians eagerly try to reach international agreements stating the importance of cultural heritage as the

²² The Conference concluded that cultural heritage has an important role to play in fighting poverty and social exclusion and an important influence on development of self-esteem and self-representation. The conference also stated that cultural heritage initiatives are important factors in the activation of processes for development, recovery and transformation of identity. It is important to increase awareness and self-esteem, which influence agency and enhance recognition and optimisation of human capital on local level. The development of social capital and the breakdown of isolation and the stigma of poverty, the activation of a process of identification of the locality and urban areas in question are also important factors in the struggle against poverty. Other elements to be regarded are the increase in social cohesion, the creation of new development opportunities, the production of new jobs and an increase of self-reliance and the ability to manage the challenges on a local level. These are all elements closely linked to cultural heritage management.

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backbone for the development of democracy, identity and sustainable development, international society demands that nation states become self-reliant and strong decision-makers.

This latter demand is more than ever present in the making of today's development policies. It is therefore important that both international and local policy-makers are aware of and address the impact of the inconsistency created, and take this absence of cohesion into consideration in their vision for a sustainable cultural heritage in the future. The contradiction inherent in this demand is that:

- a) Countries should have the ability to define and initiate cultural heritage programme themselves whilst,
- b) They lack the capacity to do so and therefore policies are needed to promote democracy, identity and sustainable development.

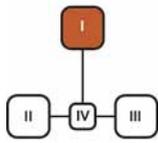
In short, it is stated that initiative in the field of cultural heritage depends on a developed sense of national identity.

The programmes *Europe, a Common Heritage* and *Africa 2009*, embrace cultural heritage initiatives and management on a local level as well as on an international level. However the theoretical groundwork often seems meagre and produces little information for reflection²³. This also goes for cultural heritage where *Europe, a Common Heritage* and *Africa 2009* emphasize the social and cultural value of built heritage, active community participation and the interplay between local and international level as key factors.

Even when the importance of built cultural heritage and the need to preserve it is widespread, knowledge is still often restricted to institutions and scientific and technical staff who have to face many political, economic and socio-cultural obstacles. Finally, there are in addition two more decisive elements appearing in these two programmes: integrated planning and sustainable management. These two concepts will be further elaborated during the discussion of the findings.

²³ In 1998 my research in the library of the Royal Institute of Art and Architecture in Copenhagen found few research projects or theses with emphasis on cultural heritage and none but the one from 1988 written by Najimi, A.W. *Herat - the Islamic City* which critically discuss the management of cultural heritage and its policy.

4 THE CASE – THE ZANZIBAR STONE TOWN



A historical background of East African Stone Town and Swahili architecture was given in chapter 3.2. This chapter focuses specifically on the Zanzibar Stone Town, its history, development, maps and their status today. In order to read the status quo and to imagine a vision of tomorrow we need to decode the past according to Leach (1997:89) and this too is the purpose of this chapter.

4.1 Genius Loci

“Like the volume of sound in music, which fills the stillness with tension, the volumes in sculpture would not be possible without the emptiness of space. In it the vibration of the form beyond its own boundaries emanates, and both space and volume create together from the possible structures of the form their ultimate shape”, Eduardo Chillida (Guggenheim, 1999:88).



Figure 88
“Lurra G258 ”and “Homenaje a la arquitectura II” sculptures of Chillida in the Guggenheim Museum in Bilbao, 1999.

Like the two sculptures of the Spanish artist and architect Chillida that demonstrate the concepts of being open or closed, so the Zanzibar Stone Town appears compact and simple from the outside but articulated and complex from the inside (Figure 88). “Sculpture would be the embodiment of place” says Leach (1997:123) quoting Heidegger. Both these metaphors can be used to describe the Zanzibar Stone Town.

The character and identity of Zanzibar Stone Town is built on an amalgamation of the nature of the landscape and the character of the built environment. The town is an amalgamation of the geographical situation, bordering the channel between the mainland and the Indian Ocean, and the influence of the monsoon on the climate, and how these impact on the three dimensional organisation of the architectural elements, on how they are produced and the complex totality of the elements (Norberg-Schulz, 1980:11 and 15) (Figure 89).



Figure 89
An open public area in Shangani where the Europeans settled and the narrow space between the houses in the neighbouring area where Indians and Arabs settled.

The division of Zanzibar town into two sections, Stone Town and Ng'ambo (meaning “the other side”) is a result of the old system of segregation. Stone Town is the administrative and economic centre while Ng'ambo is the residential area for the majority of the local population. Most of the houses in Ng'ambo are Swahili houses, sometimes to be seen only in the small blind alleys in the Stone Town.

According to *Land Tenure in Zanzibar* (Björkén and Blixt, 2004:28) the population of Zanzibar island was estimated at 1,042,000 persons in 2004 with a Stone Town habitation of 372,400. In 2004 Zanzibar Stone Town covered 230 hectares of Zanzibar Town, with some 2,400 building units out of which 1,400 were dwellings inhabited by approximately 18,000 citizens. In 2003 Zanzibar Town and Ng'ambo had 195,000 inhabitants with a projected growth to 415,000¹ by the year 2018.

The compactness of the town is penetrated by a network of narrow streets (Figure 91) and dotted with landmark buildings, small but open spaces and glimpses out to the Indian Ocean.

4.2 The Making of Zanzibar Stone Town

Zanzibar Stone Town is one of the finest examples among the remaining stone towns on the East African coast today. It represents a cultural heritage of foreign trade and urban development dating back to the 9th century AD, when the town originated as a fishing village and an important harbour for Persian, Arabian and Indian tradesmen (Lanchester, 1923: 19).

¹ According to *Rehabilitation in Zanzibar Stone Town – Proposal for Co-operation between AKTC (Aga Khan Trust for Culture) and Sida (Swedish International Cooperation Development Agency)*, May 1998, a doubling of the day's population is projected over the next 20 years.

4.2.1 The History

The settlement of Zanzibar Stone Town began near the harbour (Figure 90) and spread southward in a haphazard pattern of land subdivision and building development during the years between 1828 and 1850. This growth turned into the urbanised structure that determined the Stone Town’s distinctive morphology² (Figure 91).



Figure 90
 Unguja Island – The biggest island in the Zanzibar Archipelago covering 1,660 square kilometres and housing some 435,000 people .

² The earliest known description of the East African coast is “*The Periplus of the Erytreaean Sea*”, written by a Greek traveller in the first century AD as a merchants’ handbook mentioning ivory, rhino horn and tortoise shells as the important trade factors. Lanchester argues in his book: *Zanzibar: A Study in Tropical Town Planning* (1923,) that until the arrival of the Oman Sultan Seyyid Said in 1828, Zanzibar town “consisted only of a very large conglomeration of native huts, interspersed with a few permanent buildings of masonry along the sea-front”.



Figure 91

The figure illustrates the density of the built environment and the conglomerate of streets. The Zanzibar Stone Town contains 2,400 buildings out of which 1,200 are stipulated as family houses. According to estimates in the early 80s the number of inhabitants in the Stone Town in 2002 was 148,000.

As in most parts of East Africa the distinct urban settlement of Zanzibar visible today (Figure 91) developed during the early years of the 19th century. In 1832 the Sultan of Oman decided to move his capital from Oman, on the Southern part of the Arabian Peninsula, to Zanzibar (Al-Maamiry, 1988:3). These were the years of prosperous trade and flourishing economic growth. Zanzibar's earliest dated structure is the Kizimkazi mosque whose Kufic inscription dates it to the year 1107, but the earliest known description of the East African coast is in *The Periplus of the Erytreaean Sea*

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written by a Greek traveller in the first century AD (Aalund, 1983:144).

The name Zanzibar occurs between 1000 AD and 1497 and has several interpretations. In the report by Hassan Bin Ali from 975 AD (Sutton, 1990:79) he mentions the *Zenzj Empire* and *Zenzjibar* and refers to the Persian word for *zanzj* which means black. In 1150 AD the Arab geographer Idrisi wrote about a group of islands known as the Zalei or Zanzj with a port town named Unguja deriving from the Bantu *ngoja*, meaning to wait and describes a waiting place or a depot for goods' collectors waiting for the monsoons. Idrisi claims that *zanzj* is a wrong spelling of the Bantu word *ngoja*.

The urban design of Zanzibar Stone Town is based on the Swahili culture, which, in this thesis, is divided into two periods. The early Swahili period is from about 500 BC to the arrival of the Portuguese in 1497 AD and the late Swahili period from the end of 15th century to the Revolution in 1964. This includes the interference of Germans, English, French and Americans in trading on the East African coast up to 1832. These two main époques which created the basic layout and architecture of the town, together with the moving of the Sultan's capital from Oman to Zanzibar, form the backbone of Zanzibar Stone Town of today.

In the years before 1728 the Arab Sultan Hasan established the foundations for infrastructure in the Stone Town, which in 1799 consisted of only a few stone houses and a lot of earthen huts.³ Some ten years later the English Captain Thomas Smee estimated in his report stated that three quarters of the population on the island were slaves and that about 10,000 slaves were exported annually (Lanchester, 1923: 28). According to Captain Smee's report the expansion of the town was accurately recorded in Portuguese maps produced ten years earlier. Sultan Seyyid Said of Oman saw the potential for a city and the town quickly turned into an attractive harbour both for shipping and as a source of fresh water to fill ships' tanks. In the hands of the Omani the Zanzibar Stone Town grew from being a village to the largest and most important city on the East African Coast. In 1921 the population of Zanzibar city was 36,000 (Lanchester, 1923:11).

At the end of 1890 there were forty-eight mosques, four Hindu temples and two Christian churches. The Anglican Cathedral is a rather free interpretation of Gothic and Islamic architecture and the French Catholic church of St. Joseph's is a replica of the Romanesque basilica in Marseille (Figure 92).

In spite of all the different architectural influences and the expansion of the town both in height and area, it retained its functional simplicity of built form, its harmonious unity and a rich diversity of ornamentation and colour.

³ According to six late eighteenth century maps from a Portuguese manuscript found in the Zanzibar Archive, a small fort, some scattered houses and a building that might be a minaret give an indication of the size of Zanzibar.



Figure 92
The characteristic St. Joseph's Cathedral (1896-1899) in Zanzibar rises above the skyline of Zanzibar together with 48 minarets and four Hindu temples.



Figure 93
Shangani Seafront bordering the Western tip of Zanzibar Stone Town.

Although it is the overall urban fabric and townscape that gives Zanzibar Stone Town its unique character, there are many individual buildings of historical and architectural significance as well as examples of local architecture and building traditions which include 628 significant buildings and 24 gazetted monuments (Siravo, 1996).

4.2.2 Zanzibar Stone Town of Today

The urban design of Zanzibar Stone Town is similar to other comparable stone towns along the East African coast like parts of Bagamoyo and Pangani (Figure 94 and 95). The design is based on the religious and social value system found in the Arab family and on clan structures related to kinship. It is based on the subdivision of space including semi-private open space and the organization of behaviour within the Islamic religion (Hakim 1986:15).



Figure 94
A part of the sea front of Zanzibar, 2004.



Figure 95
Customs house and Slave depot, Pangani, Tanzania 2002.

“The domestic houses are often massive with building blocs often crenulated at the top in an almost fortified manner and crowned by airy balconies or screened off loggias covered with corrugated iron sheets as an adjustment to the rainy climate” (Application for Nomination of Zanzibar Stone Town for Inclusion in the World Heritage List 1997-98).

The historic Zanzibar Stone Town that we see today is a product of two major events taking place in 1832 and in 1964. In 1832 the Sultan Seyyid Said of Oman decided to move his capital from Oman to Zanzibar with the aim of establishing control of his African dominions, and in 1964 the Zanzibar Revolution overthrew the Arab ascendancy (Burton, 2002:68). With the Revolution the Arabs left their houses and bazaars, which were confiscated by the Government and converted into multi-family houses for low-income residents, mainly immigrants from the rural areas of Unguja and the neighbouring islands.



Figure 96
An Arabic-influenced carved doorway in Sokomhogo area of the Stone Town.

In 1964, as a result of the revolution in Zanzibar, urban design related to family networks disappeared with the change in the population. Even though the architectural patterns of streets, paths, public and semi-public space and the mix of residential and communal areas remained, they are often used in other ways than the intentions of the original design. The change in ownership, use and users led to changes in infrastructure, in maintenance and (Figure 97) in cultural habits (Figure 98).



Figure 97
This photo documents the unhappy influence on the building structure of bringing the habit of making fire and food down on the ground up the second floor.



Figure 98
A kitchen installed on the rooftop covered with corrugated iron sheets prevents the intended cross ventilation of the evening sea breeze penetrating down the open courtyard into the inner rooms.

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The introverted and compact Arabic-influenced building tradition, designed for a much drier climate, was not efficient in the relative humidity of Zanzibar that often rises to 95 percent, causing rot and deterioration (Figure 99).



Figure 99

A typical street in 1982 showing fungi, potholes and lack of maintenance. Picture to the right shows how the heavy rain and the humid climate of Zanzibar are two of the climatic factors which add a large number of dilapidated buildings to the table of ruins.

With the change of residents from Arabs to African Bantu people after the revolution in 1964⁴, the buildings soon started to collapse (Figure 100). From the late 60s to the late 80s approximately one house a month collapsed, the deterioration causing health hazards as well as destroying the built structures (Figure 96).

⁴ On April 24th 1964, Zanzibar joined a union with its neighbouring country Tanganyika and renounced its sovereignty (Lofchie, 1965:3).



Figure 100
Ruin in Hurumzi area (2002) showing the patterns of the construction systems and the use of materials.

From the middle of the 80s to date the rate has slowed down to approximately one building a year. Between the Aga Khan survey of 1994 and the STCDA survey in 2004 only thirteen new ruins were registered.

4.2.3 Decoding and Reading of the Zanzibar Stone Town

To decode and read the Stone Town in this research the GIS (Geographic Information System) registration is designated according to selected morphological topics.

Each of the characteristics is given an identification system in the digitalized maps (Appendix II i– viii):

Conservation activity: Conservation and Development (i); Grading of Buildings; Significant Buildings and Monuments (viii).

Objects: Classification of Buildings (vi); Significant Buildings and Monuments (viii), Land-use and Zonng (v).

Threats: Ownership (vii), New Buildings and Alterations(ii), Condition of Buildings (iii),

Tools: New Buildings and Alterations (ii); Grading of Buildings, Conservation and Development (i); Ownership (vii); Existing Land-use (iv) and Conditions of Buildings (iii).

Intentions: Significant Buildings and Monuments (viii), Conservation and Development (i), Classification of Buildings (vi), New Buildings and Alterations (ii), Condition of Buildings (iii), Existing Land Use (iv), Land Use and Zoning (v), Building Ownership (vii).

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- Appendix II i Conservation and Development (Figure 110)
- Appendix II ii New Buildings and Alterations (Figure 108)
- Appendix II iii Condition of Buildings (Figure 109)
- Appendix II iv Existing Land Use (Figure 106)
- Appendix II v Land Use and Zoning (Figure 105)
- Appendix II vi Classification of Buildings (Figure 101)
- Appendix II vii Building Ownership (Figure 107)
- Appendix II viii Significant Buildings and Monuments (Figure 104)

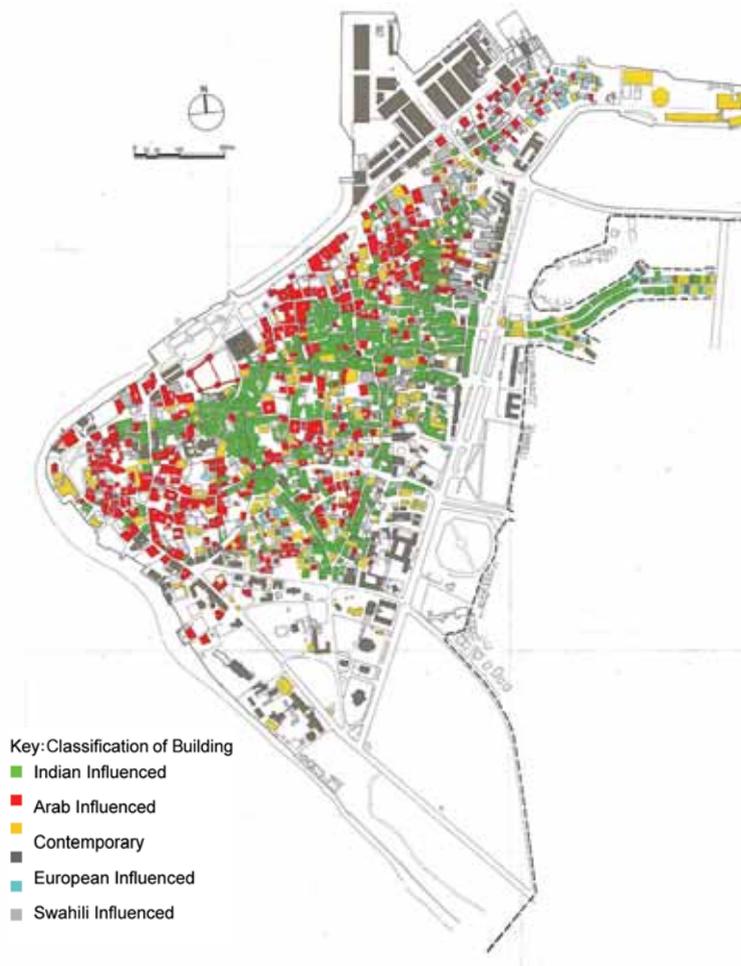


Figure 101 (Appendix II vi).

The map shows the Attributes by Classification of Buildings and gives a clear indication how the Arabs preferred to settle along the sea-side, the Indians in the inner part of the town and the Europeans on the outskirts searching for openness and sea breeze.



Figure 102
Beit el Ajib – Sultans Palace – borders the Indian Ocean and serves as a beacon to the town.



Figure 103
A Swahili house in Malindi district flanked by an Arabic- and India- influenced house.

“Urban character” includes the registration of *significant buildings*, and cultural and religious associations (Figure 101 and 156). By mapping areas with *streetscape elements* such as *characteristic facades*, *public spaces*, *graveyards* and *land use* the space between the built volumes is identified, as well as elements and activities important in an urban historic context in Zanzibar Stone Town.

The map *Classification of Buildings* illustrates the cultural and architectural influences of the buildings (Figure 101). Since the majority of the buildings in Zanzibar Stone Town are owned by the Government correlation of the maps *Classification of Buildings*, *New Buildings and Alterations* and *Conditions of Buildings* indicate areas of cultural influence and consequently mirror political priorities of rehabilitation and conservation.

The mapping of the Stone Town’s *urban character* also includes the registration of existing conservation and development of buildings and areas of green space worthy of being conserved according to STCDA (2003). Correlation of the maps *Classification of Buildings*, *Building Ownership* and *Condition of Buildings* reveals greater or lesser government capacity and political and private will in conservation (Figure 101).

Further mapping shows *land use* of public and private space and building function, vacant lots, squares, parks, recreation grounds, graveyards and beaches. The selected *attributes* showing *Land Use and Zoning* (Figure 105) also illustrate areas of different density and fragmented use of land, which again indicates its desirability for different purposes such as business and investment, daily living and recreation.



Sokomhogo Block I

Significant Buildings and Monuments:

- Monuments
- Significant Buildings

Figure 104 (Appendix II viii)
The map shows the registration of Significant Buildings in the conservation area of the historic Stone Town with focus on Sokomhogo Block I



Figure 105 (Appendix II v)

Mapping Land Use and Zoning in the Stone Town illustrates that most of the building areas have a clear division showing that the inner part of the blocks are dedicated for dwellings and the outer parts are used for rental and commercial purposes.

Mapping of the *attributes Land Use and Zoning* (Figure 105), illustrates a strong tendency of mixed and retail buildings situated along the main streets and in the Eastern part of the Stone Town, which is close to the market. being of residential character have Indian- and Arabic-influenced architecture and are both private and publicly owned.



Figure 106 (Appendix II iv)

Mapping Existing Land Use in the Stone Town illustrates that most of the building areas have a clear division showing that the inner part of the blocks are dedicated for dwellings and the outer parts are used for rental and commercial purposes.

Correlation of the maps *Land Use and Zoning, Classification of Building and Building Ownership* (Figure 107) indicates that the areas of mixed residential, retail and commercial use are classified as of Indian influence and private or publicly owned, meanwhile the inner block areas being of residential character have Indian- and Arabic-influenced architecture and are both private and publicly owned.

The correlation of maps classifying buildings (Figure 101) and land use (Figure 105) indicates that Indian-influenced areas are mostly used for retail and commercial purposes and the Arab-influenced areas are used for residential purposes.

Among the Classification of Buildings are the grade I “Landmark Buildings” like the Sultan’s Palace (Figure 102) and Swahili influenced buildings like those in Figure 103. The map *Building Ownership* (Figure 107) illustrates the complexity of ownership, showing differences in investment in maintenance by the various owners, be these public or private. This is further underlined when this map is correlated with maps of existing land use and zoning, showing either density or scarcity (Figure 105) of rehabilitation and conservation.

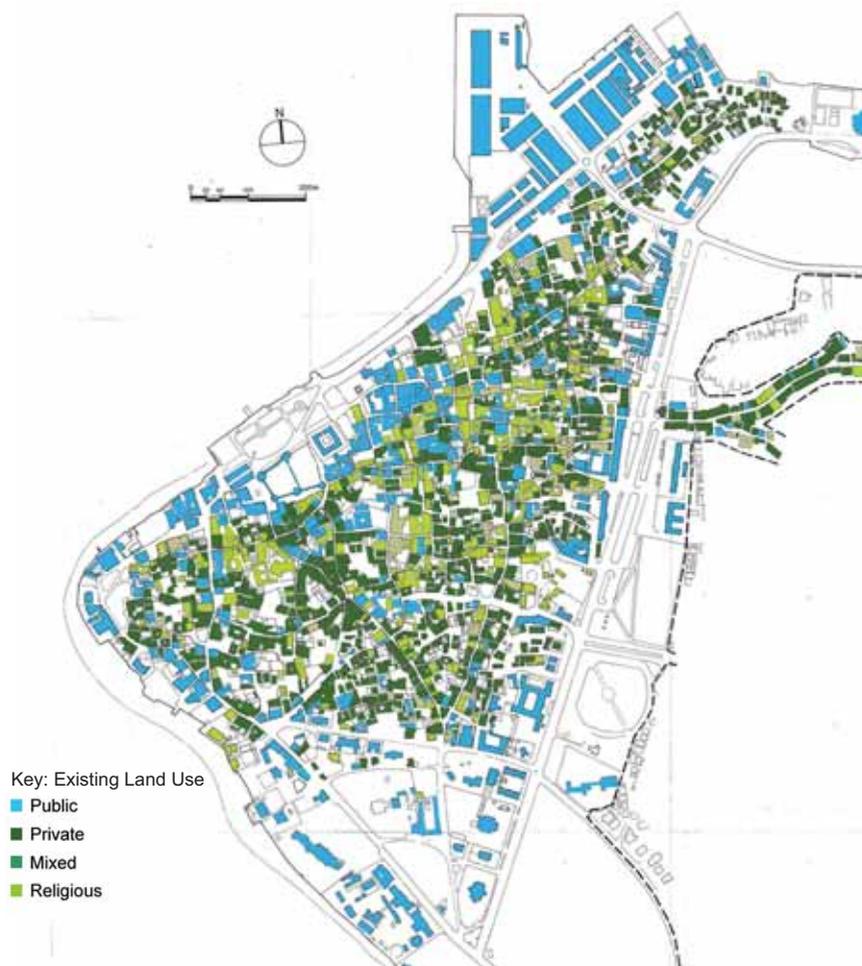


Figure 107 (Appendix II vii)

Mapping the ownership of the buildings in Zanzibar Stone Town illustrates a massive public ownership, a rather fragmented pattern of houses in private ownership, a few mixed and a large amount of buildings being owned by the religious organisation Wakf, mapping the Ownership is also important for the understanding of the structure of conservation management (Figure 109).

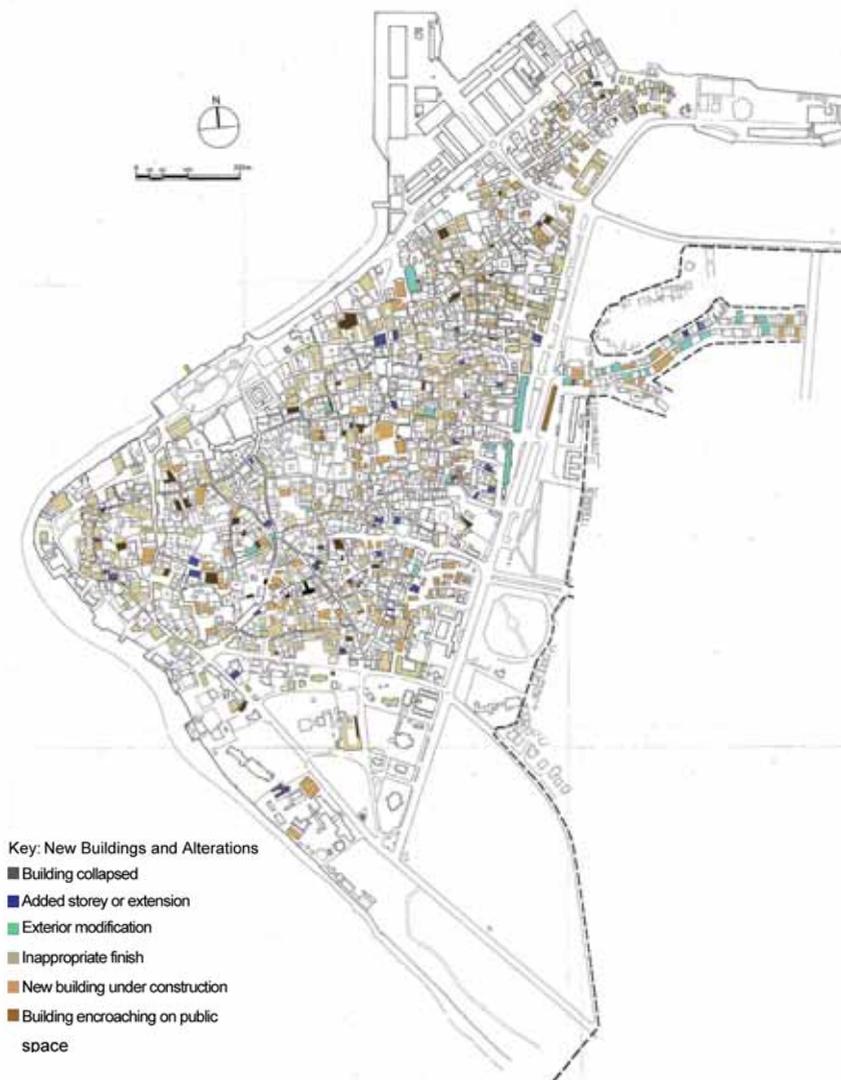


Figure 108 (Appendix II ii)

The map shows New Buildings and Alterations and illustrates that an overwhelming number of new buildings being erected are in private ownership. Few in public ownership are new except for the market.

The map entitled *Condition of Buildings* (Figure 109) illustrates the overall condition of the buildings and illustrates that the buildings classified as in good condition are among those classified as religious buildings in the mapping of *Building Ownership* (Figure 107) and as *Grade I* in the mapping of *Conservation and Development*. Mapping and registration of *New Buildings and Alterations* (Figure 108), thus illustrates areas of investment and areas of upgrading.

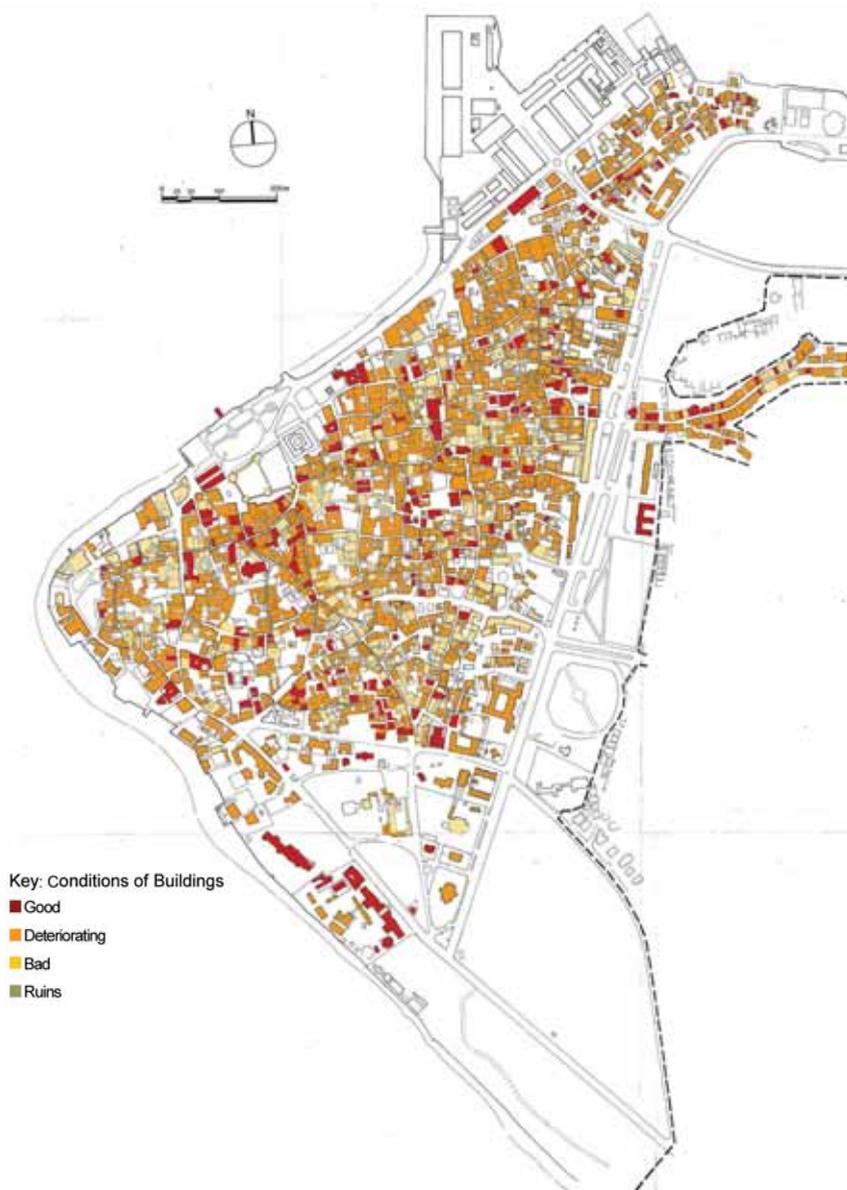


Figure 109 (Appendix II iii)
Attributes as Conditions of Buildings. The map shows a scattered number of buildings being in good condition and that the majority of the buildings are in a relatively bad condition and illustrates a rather large effort of renovation is demanded.

All of the above characteristics have been selected because they describe space and character and elements of equality and diversity in the past, the present and, it can be assumed, the future.

4.3 The Management of Zanzibar Stone Town

As documented in the UNESCO *Africa 2009* program, in the UN-Habitat *Sustainable Cities Program (SCP)* (1999), the Doctoral thesis of Cunningham Bissell (1999) and tested in the fieldwork of this research, management and legislation supporting and enabling sustainable development within the field of heritage management is often an overwhelming challenge especially in less developed countries and in countries with a recent implementation of democracy.

For 135 years changing Zanzibar governments have introduced different town planning projects. Up to 1870 Zanzibar had grown haphazardly. In 1870 Sultan Seyyid Bargahash started making a Plan of Infrastructure, which was completed in 1888 but implemented only slowly and in fragmented parts. The plan emphasizes the regulation of his palaces and the Victoria Garden, street lighting and a new drinking water supply. Sultan Seyyid Bargahash also implemented a plan of infrastructure consisting of roads and new public buildings for improving public welfare, such as schools and a hospital. The division of power in Zanzibar between the British and the Sultan is described in a communication between the Acting British Resident R. H. Crofton and the Sultan of Zanzibar Khalifa bin Harub, where Mr. Crofton comments on “this peculiar form of decentralised administration” (Zanzibar Archive, Legal Report by Attorney-General, 1929. AB 39/182).

4.3.1 The History of Management in Planning and Conservation

Planning actors in Zanzibar have been many, ranging from the Sultans of Oman through the colonial period of the English rulers to the Revolution and the Constitution linking it with mainland Tanzania. The list of international organisations is large and so is the number of external experts and individual entrepreneurs who have been engaged in various aspects of rehabilitation, planning and the management of planning. In addition, a number of international and national donors and organisations have supported capacity building for the management of Zanzibar Stone Town. Among these are the University of Stuttgart, Lund University, Division of Architecture and Development Studies (Sweden), Aarhus School of Architecture (Denmark), Oslo School of Architecture (Norway), the Danish (Danida), Swedish (Sida), Finnish (Finida) and Norwegian (Norad) International Aid Agencies, USAID and the British Academy and Royal Institute of British Architects.

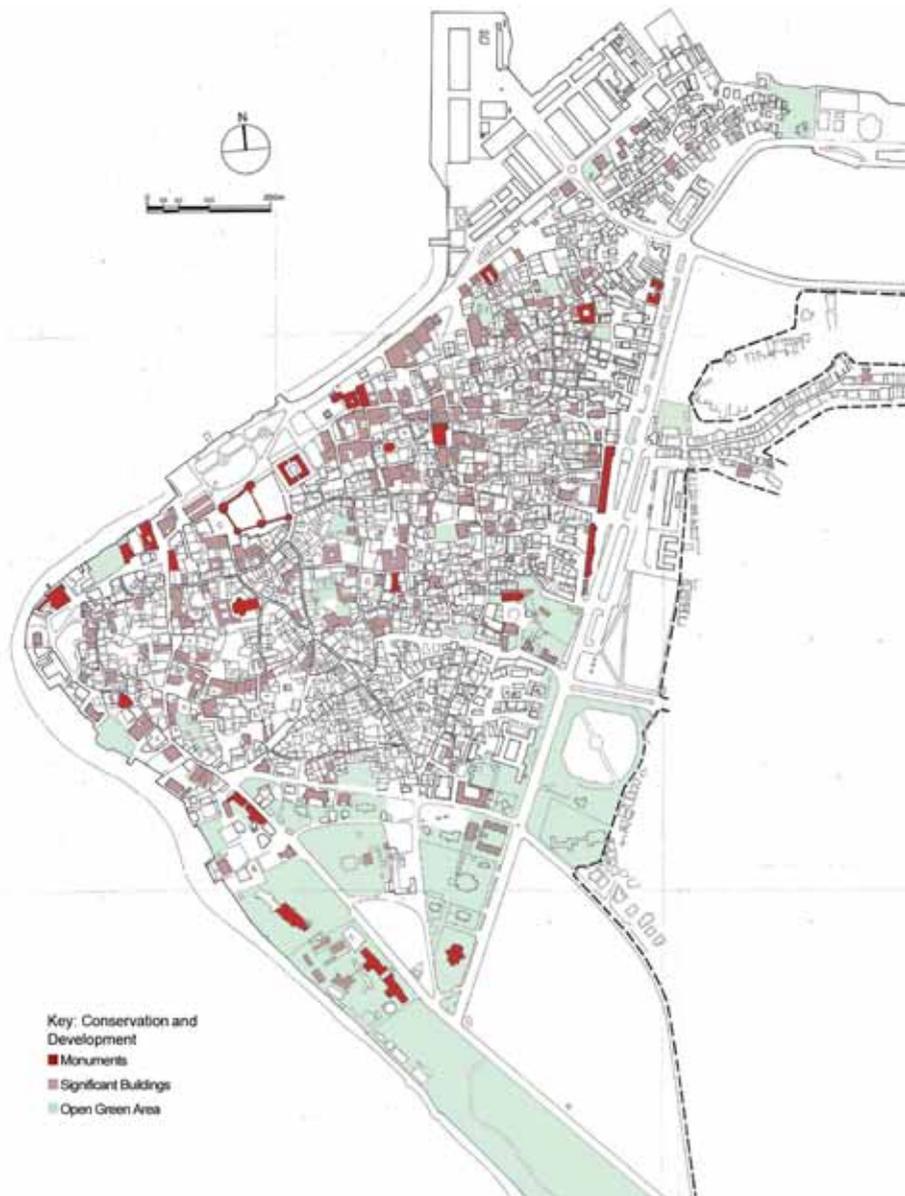


Figure 110 (Appendix II i)
Mapping Conservation and Development illustrates the buildings classified as monuments being scattered along the outer part of the Stone Town while the buildings classified as significant are to be found also in the inner part of the city.

Registration of buildings according to the *attributes* as monuments and significant display a visualization of architectural objects contributing to the understanding of the conservation management and the heritage policy of Zanzibar Stone Town (Figure 110).

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In 1892 a detailed map of the Stone Town showed 1,506 stone buildings and 5,179 huts on the peninsula that made up the Stone Town. The British architect J. H. Sinclair, who was Consul, Chief Secretary and British Resident in Zanzibar from 1896 to 1923, influenced the early 20th century development of Zanzibar. During this period he designed the British Residency (1903) now State House, the High Court Building (Figure 111), the Post Office (1906), Tasisi (Institute of Language) (Figure 111) and the Peace Memorial Museum (1924).



Figure 111 High Court (left) and Tasisi are two examples of European-influenced architecture in Zanzibar Stone Town.

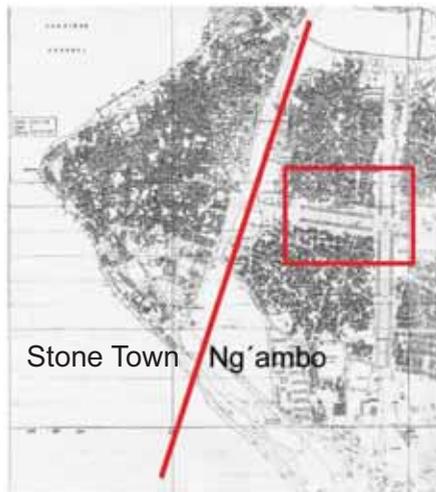
In 1903 the British Protectorate, at that time the ruling power of Zanzibar, established and regulated a new commercial marketplace, a European garden and the Vuga suburb.

In 1923 another British architect, Henry Vaughan Lanchester, produced the first study of planning in Zanzibar⁵. During the 1940s the Town Planning Board set out to ameliorate living conditions in the town in order to improve and beautify the township of Zanzibar. The impact of the different planning models introduced over more than 20 years was limited and did not substantially alter the overall appearance of the Stone Town. More important for the Stone Town was the 1964 revolution that overthrew Arab dominance and gave the African majority a socialist state that brought significant social and economic change to the town.

In 1965 the Revolutionary Government instituted an ambitious urban housing and settlement policy.⁶ “This policy envisaged that, through modernisation, efficient services would be made freely and equally available to all citizens, including access to nationalised land for housing provision” (Myers, 1993). This resulted in President Karume’s slum clearance program, demolishing traditional structures and replacing them with large-scale modernist blocks of flats designed and built by the former East German government (Figure 112).

⁵ Information on the 1922 Decree is missing in the Archives of Zanzibar.

⁶ The former Director of the STCDA Ahmed Sheik informed in an interview in 2002 that the absence of renovation in those days was better than the unconscious actions that were taken.



The German blocks on the East side of the Stone Town.

*Figure 112
The map illustrates the layout scheme of the building blocks produced by the East Germans in the late 70s and their planning contradiction in relation to the Stone Town and Ng'ambo.*

In his thesis *Reconstructing Ng'ambo: Town Planning and Development on the Other Side of Zanzibar*, the architect and planner Garth Andrew Myers, points to the fact that African states today tend to be characterised by “large bureaucracies, including planning and building control agencies” (Myers, 1993:58). He also considers African management to be a “governmentalization of power” and uses examples from Zanzibar’s colonial period through to today to characterize planning and building control as mechanisms that ensure state dominance, and to legitimise planning. His thesis is built on a detailed narrative of the state planning apparatus in Zanzibar founded on Western planning ideas and theories (Figure 112). He points to the advantages that could be achieved in the building and planning process using the home-made theories and examples developed in the disorder during the early Ng'ambo period. Myers also argues that the impact of the rich contributions to culture and to diversity of the city on the “Other Side” of the Stone Town, which developed haphazardly, has been ignored.

After the Revolution in 1964 construction and maintenance in the Stone Town came to a virtual halt. It was not until the 1980s, under the economic liberalisation of Tanzania and Zanzibar that the impact of contemporary building ideas began to have a negative effect in the Stone Town. Badly proportioned structures out of harmony with the existing architecture, poor construction methods and inappropriate use of materials began to appear. By comparing different planning proposals on the African continent during the colonial period Myers concludes that colonial and post-colonial states have had very little success in their efforts to create space in the cities (Myers, 1993:52).

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Myers continues by elaborating on the topic of identity and claims that he observes few, if any, attempts to promote local awareness and to encourage local experience and local culture. On the contrary he found a number of Western theories of planning implemented in African planning proposals (Myers, 1993:53). Myers draws his conclusion in relation to two major events in Zanzibar's urban planning. One is the scheduled demolitions and the other a more subtle policy of relocation, making surgical improvements. Myers finally claims that: "... the state has failed to achieve both its practical goals and its hidden aims". Racial segregation has been replaced by class segregation and colonial plans have been replaced by post-colonial plans (Myers, 1993: 492).

4.3.2 The Lanchester Plan (1923) – A Study in Tropical Town Planning

As indicated in the subtitle this plan started out as a survey and ended up as a plan touching on elements like topography, history, education, health, economy, traffic, racial segregation (Figure 113) and land tenure. Colonisation and industrialisation in the 19th century brought modernisation to the East African Swahili towns, albeit at the cost of local cultural identity and architecture (Henkert and Heynen, 2002: 174).



Figure 113
Lanchester Plan (1929) showing the racial distribution areas in the Stone Town.

The *Lanchester Plan* implemented European Planning principles in Zanzibar and introduced building rules and land development policies with the main purpose of creating mechanisms to achieve orderly and hygienic neighbourhoods. Lanchester

comments in his study on the Zanzibar city that “.. it is crowded and picturesque... but it does not possess many (read: buildings) of outstanding beauty or importance...” (Lanchester, 1923:12). Lanchester further comments, “It is certain that the city of Zanzibar is of no great antiquity ...” (Lanchester, 1923:27).

4.3.3 The Towns Decree (1929)

The aim of the Town Decree of 1929 was to enact a code of municipal law enabling the general application of town government in the Protectorate (Zanzibar Archive, AB 39/189).

It includes management of streets, buildings and advertisements, drainage, street cleaning and removal of refuse, street lighting, water supply, fire protection, parks, gardens and trees. There is no doubt that this was a relevant document because there are still remnants of it found in legal documents of today.

Chapter 79 includes building regulations and other controls related to new development in urban areas such as streets, drainage, light and water supply. The Decree mentions the importance of including the surroundings of the monuments within the area of preservation (Zanzibar Archive, AB 39/189).

As seen from the three previous documents none defined the Zanzibar Stone Town as being of architectural heritage importance. Instead control, building rules and drainage were the main purposes of these legal instruments.

4.3.4 The Ancient Monuments Preservation Decree (1929)

The first legal document relating to heritage, the Ancient Monuments Preservation Decree, dates back to 1929 and takes cultural heritage and historic aspects into account. The introduction of the Decree starts with: “It should be lawful for the British Resident by Notice to constitute a town in any suitable area and to define limits and boundaries”. Although the document is partly called Preservation Decree the content is sometimes confusing about heritage and whether it intends to preserve objects or to make way for traffic. In § 16 it says: “It shall be lawful for the Government to remove all obstructions in streets, such as verandas and door-ways placed in position prior to date of survey, upon compensation to be determined by arbitration”. Further, § 17 states that: “All obstructions placed since survey plan to be removed with or without compensation, as may be determined” (Zanzibar Archive, AB 39/189).

The Ancient Monuments Preservation Decree of 1929 established a Building Authority making every building already erected, or those erected at a later date, subject to control, supervision and inspection by the Building Authority. However, building laws and regulations were made which contained a chapter on preservation of trees but did not mention anything about preserving artefacts or the built environment. The content of the Preservation Decree and later amendments were obviously designed to establish rental values for buildings and charge fines where the regulations were ignored. The decree was a moneymaking mechanism, not a planning instrument.

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The last amendment to the 1929 Decree was signed on December 22nd 1955, as one in a long list of formal communications between the Sultan of Zanzibar and the English Attorney-General ⁷ (Zanzibar Archive, AB 39/182).

4.3.5 The Town and Planning Act 1955

The object of the Town and Planning Bill of 1955 was to replace the Town and Planning Decree of 1929 with the obvious intention of modernising the concept of town and city planning (Zanzibar Archive, ZNA: DA-1/261). The Act also emphasises the power of planning authorities to control the preservation of trees and woodlands and of buildings of special architectural and historical interest (Zanzibar Archive, ZNA: AK-19/15).

The minutes from a debate dated 25th August 1955 state: "... the Bill itself does not make any specific provisions. What it does is to make provisions for suitable regulations to be made as and when necessary". In Part IV of the Bill the "preservation of buildings of special architectural or historical interest" is thus specially mentioned, in that, if it is deemed expedient that a planning authority may make provisions for the preservation for which the authority has been appointed, it may for that purpose make an order (a building preservation order) restricting the demolition, alteration or extension of the buildings (Zanzibar Archive, ZNA:DA-1/261) (Appendix IV iii).

The 1955 Act also states that the consent of the planning authority has to be obtained for executing the works of any description specified in this order. A system of application, permission, payment and appeals is introduced. The amendments and comments in the Act clearly outline that a building preservation order shall not take effect until the British Resident confirms it.

The Town and Planning Act touches on three other important laws:

- *Cap 79 Towns*

The principal legislation in Cap 79 was however repealed in 1986 and replaced with the Local Government Act. The latter is concerned with the administration of the town as a whole and does not contain detailed building and development regulations.

- *Cap 85 Town and Country Planning*

The regulations in Cap 85 are still in force and give the Minister power to declare a town or part of a town a planning area, and to appoint a planning authority to prepare

⁷ Myers (1993:500) claims in his thesis that much of the research to date on colonial cities has underplayed the contribution of the indigenous society and culture. By relying too much on the narratives of the West the colonial cities can be criticized for perpetuating the process of cognitive and cultural colonialism. In his elaborations on Neo-colonialism – retro-colonialism Myers quotes John Western: "... most societies emerging from colonialism do not have the capability to rewrite forthwith a new image on their cities". Myers examines the question of what the colonial legacy has to do with the practical function of planning within the post-colonial state apparatus and says that "Zoning laws and building controls no longer explicitly protect the racial geography of empire; instead they protect the bureaucratic bourgeoisie and local elites, party membership and elitist crony-ism supporting self-enrichment. It may take a substantial political transformation to set the process of localizing planning in Africa cities in motion".

a “planning scheme” for the area. The Minister then has the power to put the planning scheme into force, with or without modifications, according to his discretion. In addition to general legislation, specific planning measures that are legally binding were foreseen by different planning schemes adopted over time. The Town and Country Planning Decree of 1955 did in fact provide the legal framework for the preparation of the 1994 Zanzibar Planning Scheme (Zanzibar Archive, ZNA: AK-19/15).

- *Cap 102 Ancient Monument Preservation Decree*

In addition to these decrees and planning schemes Zanzibar’s legislative framework includes legal provisions for the protection of monuments that are of some relevance for the historic area. These were enacted under Cap 102. This decree defines a monument as “any structure of archaeological, historic or artistic interest including the site of the monument as well as any portion of land adjoining the site”. Today 49 monuments have been gazetted under Cap 102, six of which are located in the Stone Town.

The gazetting process required under the Ancient Monuments Preservation Decree has proven time consuming and bureaucratic. Although appropriate in the case of individual monuments and archaeological sites outside the town, the decree is not adequate for the protection of inhabited structures or groups of buildings in the historic area. The Housing Officer on the Board, A.P. Cumming-Bruce, commented to the secretary to the Town and Planning Board: “... are we not trying to forge a stupendous hammer in order to crack four small (huts are corrected into) nuts?” Cumming-Bruce also questioned the draft, which was incomprehensible to the lay public who at that time possessed positions in the urban council, while asking for qualified Town Planning staff (Zanzibar Archive, ZNA: DA-1/261).

The Town Planning staff were obviously not the only ones not fit for the task at that time. In a letter from the Landowners’ Association dated January 8th 1959, the Organisation’s Vice President says: “Moreover, most of the landlords whose properties are affected, do not even know of what and how their buildings and plots are affected and as such there is strong general dissatisfaction, misunderstanding and fear in the minds of the landlords.... Most of the members do not understand the plans, which have been published and exhibited, and as such our association once again requests that the time for lodging objections be extended upon, June 8th 1959” (Zanzibar Archive, ZNZ:DA-1/261).

The Planning Scheme (1959) and The Chinese Master Plan (1982) were both of a technical character although the latter introduced the “existing image” of the Stone Town as being of a unique heritage but without making any proposals for conservation management.

4.3.6 Town and Country Planning Decree (1994)(Appendix IV vi)

In the introduction to the new Town and Country Planning Decree (1994) signed by the Minister of Water, Construction, Energy, Lands and Environment, some important

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intentions are stated. The Minister Salum Hashim Rajab claims that the plan must be: Promoting – Stimulating – Flexible – Open – Responsive – Adaptive. “Because the plan shall be able to adapt and implement changing circumstances and requirements as rapidly as possible” continues the introduction to the Planning Decree. To achieve these goals a Plan of Action was launched which pinpoints two basic criteria:

1. monitoring land use
2. strengthening planning control.

The Plan of Action itself is ambiguous however, and consists of specific and operative *attributes*. It demands implementation of stronger control to prevent undesirable changes, controlling future pressure on the Stone Town, preserving its historic character and processing sustainable growth. The Plan is also designed to curb the uncontrolled proliferation of commercial and tourist land use, decentralisation, inappropriate activities, maintaining the traditional balance of retail and residential activities, reducing congestion and commercial pressure and containing rapid transformation of the historic fabric.

These *attributes* describe the main intentions of the Plan. Under this layer comes a lace of architectural elements, necessarily added to complete the syntax of the conservation measures in the Plan. The Town and Country Planning Decree (Cap 85) 1994 also says; “No plan is ever final. If it is to serve the town over time, it must be *flexible* enough to *respond* and *adapt to changing circumstances and requirements*”.

“When open and responsive, however the plan must also promote and stimulate concrete actions today in order that the planning process is carried toward implementation as rapidly as possible. The following agenda summarizes the actions and priority issues to be addressed in the immediate future” (Siravo, 1996).

4.3.7 The History of Conservation of the Stone Town

The awareness of urban conservation in Zanzibar began with a list of 17 colonial monuments selected by UNESCO in 1979. The Zanzibar Government hoped to gain recognition from trans-national organizations by applying for listing on the UNESCO’s World Heritage List. The first application to UNESCO was submitted with the listed 17 buildings as objects. UNESCO argued that the character of the city was no longer of sufficient integrity or authenticity to authorize its inscription and the application was rejected in 1983.

In the early 1980s the government of Zanzibar recognised the significance of its unique heritage and decided to preserve the Stone Town as a whole. Consequently a body for conservation management, the Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority (STCDA), was established in 1984 with the aim of co-ordinating all planning and building activities in the Stone Town.

In the mid 1980s, the Revolutionary Government started a program of liberalisation and encouraged private enterprises. A UN-HABITAT Team (1983) continued the process of preparing a plan including the cultural heritage aspect. The Chinese planning team finished their work and left Zanzibar defining the Stone Town as the "... historic seat of Government and the site of some of East Africa's most significant historic structures".

The UNESCO initiative was launched at the time when Zanzibar and the Tanzanian Government started the Three Year Economic and Social Welfare Development Plan (1978–1981), giving priority to agriculture and rehabilitation of the economy. The open-door policy indicated free return of those who left during the Revolution and opened the possibility of reclaiming confiscated properties and initiating new enterprises. In the years to follow "... the key to wealth was to ensure access to a steady and growing supply of hard currency"⁸ (Cunningam Bissell, 1999:470).

The American anthropologist Cunningam Bissell (1999) concluded in his thesis: *City of Stone, Space and Contestation. Urban Conservation and the Colonial Past in Zanzibar* that the UNESCO HABITAT Report of 1983 saw the introduction of the free market as a salvation for the conservation of the historic city of Zanzibar. Cunningam Bissell also pointed to the considerations of this and a follow up report in 1994, stating that more than 84.5 percent of the building stock remained in deteriorating or poor condition (Figure 108, 109 and 114).

Cunningam Bissell also claimed that, if the Habitat consultants had gone more deeply into the historical record of the city, the unfortunate "repairs" of the Stone Town, reliant on free-market investments, would not have caused the subsequent redoubling of efforts in restoring and repairing the "repairs" which were badly, or quite wrongly, done (Figure 114).

⁸ In 1982 the value of the Tanzania Shilling was 12 to a dollar. In the beginning of 1990 it had fallen to 860 and in 2004 to the rate of 720. The rise, decline and rise again of business in the Zanzibar Stone Town is illustrated in Figure 163 showing the *Land Use* of the Sokomhogo Block II in 1956, 1983, 1994 and 2001.

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Figure 114
A typical attempt at repairing a leakage.

In an interview, Ahmed Sheik, the former Director General of the STCDA, supported the claim that poor technical repairs of the stone houses in the historic city very often caused more damage than the absence of repairs (Figure 114). For example using concrete instead of lime when plastering, and concrete blocks instead of coral stones (Figure 115 and 116).

The open door and free market policy brought improvements in everyday living for those citizens able to take active part in tourism and trade. Some of the Zanzibaris who fled during the Revolution in 1964 returned and invested in the rehabilitation of their houses and set up new or reopened old businesses. Foreigners with knowledge of restoration and respect for the aspect of urban heritage have been attracted to invest and this new spirit of investment has positively influenced local people.



Figure 115
 Repair mixing coral stones, lime, concrete and cement, the worst mixture of materials in a building structure founded on coral and lime.



Figure 116
 When the floor- and ceiling-bearing mangrove poles rot, the walls lose their foothold and tear apart.

The disadvantages of this open door and open market policy are still many. The already blurred land tenure and ownership situation became even more difficult to handle. Many of the new investors trading in tourist streets like Gisenga and Sokomhogo or investing in the tourist business as such are people renting a space for trade in the Stone Town without any obligations of maintenance or respect for the historic aspect and values of the built structures (Figure 117 and 118).



Figure 117
 Gisenga street – a typical tourist shopping street.



Figure 118
 Shopkeeper in Hurunzi serving the local inhabitants.

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The UN-HABITAT Team had a rather idealistic conception of the way preservation would work politically (Cunningam Bissell, 1999:478). In casting capital as a purely enabling force for conservation, the external advisors managed to ignore a considerable body of evidence testifying to the “creative destruction” that has long been a central feature of capitalist urban development.⁹

Cunningam Bissell further claimed that the purpose of his study was to pose sharp questions about the costs involved in the practice of conservation and argued that when it comes to the practice and policy of conservation the Stone Town was not being treated as a context of sociability but was reduced to a static monument leaving many of the residents with a feeling of loss.

Cunningam Bissell claimed in his thesis that the conservation of the Stone Town reinvented colonial planning practice by continuing to lean upon external experts and by opening up opportunities for the elite and for uncontrolled lodgings. He put a sharp question to the policy of conservation as an ideal and compared it with the social costs involved in its actual practice. He claimed that the current Stone Town conservation policy has turned it into “... an inert and frozen monument” (Cunningam Bissell, 1999:527), due to the fact that the salvation of a few outstanding buildings has been at a cost to the community as a whole who daily face “... crumbling buildings, housing shortage, decay of infrastructure and declining urban services”.

Till 1994 Zanzibar had no plan of action for conservation of the Stone Town. Only international recommendations guided local government work and plans. The principal changes in the legal and institutional framework regulating planning in the historic area occurred in 1994 with the approval of the first Conservation Plan and the establishment of the STCDA as a legal entity.

⁹ Cunningam Bissell argues in his Thesis that: “The decay of the Stone Town was alleged to be a post-revolutionary phenomenon. Problems arose when the state simply took over too much property, managed and maintained it poorly, and repressed the economic incentives necessary for a healthy and vibrant city. As the capitalistic development declined in the late 1980s they started the work with a new Master Plan. The Aga Khan Trust for Culture, *Historic Cities Support Programme*, founded the development of the Plan but no financing was established” (1999:483).

While the plans launched during more than 100 years “reflect different aims, they are united by a bureaucratic and social scientific belief in the ability of planners to encompass an entire urban milieu, rationalizing, systemizing, and ordering the whole in one fell swoop”. And Cunningam Bissell continues: “All of the plan shares other similarities like lack of public sector funds and financial investment; reliance on top down planning; an extravagant belief in the value of technical and foreign expertise; a distrust of popular participation; a vigorous tension between developing the modern and preserving the traditional; and a deep commitment to secrecy. The paradise lost that preservationists must rehabilitate. The source of the problem was largely structural, arising out of the disjuncture and discontinuities created by and within a complex social and political process” (1999:537).

4.4 Zanzibar - Legal Instruments of Today

“Except when they have been expressly repealed the laws in force before the 1964 Revolution are still applicable in Zanzibar. This includes statutory law as well as customary and Islamic law that may have a direct bearing on planning development and land tenure” (Application for Nomination, Appendix IV vii).

In 2004 Zanzibar had all the legal instruments and bodies necessary for a sustainable management of its historic Stone Town. The laws controlling town planning, building controls, land use, new development and urban services today were largely those introduced by the British administration in the 1920s and later updated in the 1950s. In particular the principal decrees regulating planning and building controls were Cap 79: “Towns” of 1939 (revised in 1955), Cap 85: “Town and Country Planning” of 1955 and Cap 102: “the Ancient Monument Preservation Decree” of 1927 (See 4.3.5).

4.4.1 Zanzibar Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority (STCDA)

With the 1955 *Town and Planning Act* the first Building Authority was established in Zanzibar. In 1988 the Zanzibar Government established STCDA. The principal changes in the legal and institutional framework regulating planning in the Stone Town happened in 1994 with the formal approval of the Conservation Plan and establishment of STCDA as a legal entity. The formal approval of STCDA in 1994 and the following Act the same year were two decisive actions in the policy of the management of the Zanzibar Stone Town.

The Act: *Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority Act* of 1994 states the functions and legal power of STCDA and provides it with autonomy and the means to operate effectively, by assuming sensitive legal and financial responsibilities. The mission of the STCDA is according to the Act: “to protect and enhance the Stone Town’s cultural heritage leading to it being well preserved as a sustainable human settlement, supportive to its cultural diversity and maintaining its outstanding universal values”. Consequently STCDA has the obligations and objectives to stimulate and guide the planning process, to coordinate conservation activities, to prepare the land use plan and supervise all conservation and development activities in the Stone Town.

According to the Act (1994) STCDA shall undertake the following exercises:

- To initiate, plan, prepare, co-ordinate and control all matters related to the conservation of the Stone Town.
- To examine and approve all conservation and development efforts and projects in the Stone Town and monitor infrastructure development.
- To prepare and declare the conservation Master Plan for the Stone Town or conservation area and to monitor developments to bring them in conformity with the Plan.

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- To advise the private sector, Government Departments and other institutions on issues concerning restoration, rehabilitation, conservation of buildings and open space.
- To execute plan approval procedure, the issuing of building permits and monitoring of building projects.
- To care for the proper use and maintenance of public open areas and government buildings in the Stone Town.
- To take legal action against any person who constructs, demolishes or alters any building or open space unlawfully.
- To do all such other acts as may be incidental or conducive to the attainment of the objectives of the Authority under the provision of this Act.
- To do any other thing given to the Authority by the Minister of this Act.

According to the Act (1994) STCDA shall also:

- Advise the Minister on all aspects of development of the Stone Town.
- Improve the policy programmes of the Government with regard to the development of the Stone Town.

Three other tasks STCDA is obliged to do are:

- To determine application procedures and criteria for the approval of any person in the Stone Town.
- To ensure adequate security within the Stone Town .
- To determine the form of permits to be issued under this Act, and the procedures for amendment and revocation of such procedures.

The obligations are many and diverse, ranging from executing legal power, enforcing punishments and advising the Minister and the Government to handle applications and prepare the Master Plan. The mission of the STCDA is broad and specific at the same time. The span of activities and obligations demands a skilful staff containing legal administrators as well as handicraft persons, economists, architects and historians.

STCDA – its staff, competence and structure

The staffing of STCDA in 2004 is one general Director General reporting to the Minister in the Ministry of Water, Construction, Energy, Lands and Environment (MWCEL) supported and advised by an Advisory Board whose leader is appointed by the President, the rest consisting of high-ranking politicians, senior advisors to the Government and one representative of the public. All members are appointed by the Minister of MWCEL (Appendix V a). The Director General is an architect with lengthy experience of working with the STCDA (Appendix V b). The appendices illustrate the well staffed but complex management of the Zanzibar Stone Town.

Directorate of Conservation and Technical Matters

The Directorate of Conservation and Technical Matters consists of two sub-divisions: Technical Service Division and Conservation and Master Plan Division. The latter contains twelve building inspectors locally educated either from College or with Form Four and Form Two high school education. In addition there is one lawyer.

The first team of building inspectors in Zanzibar was established in 1929 according to the Ancient Monuments and Preservation Decree. The Technical Division consists of 50 employees, of whom one heads the building workshop, one is head of the craftsmen, one is a building economist, one is an engineer, one is a workshop clerk and forty-five are craftsmen.

Division of Planning and Administration

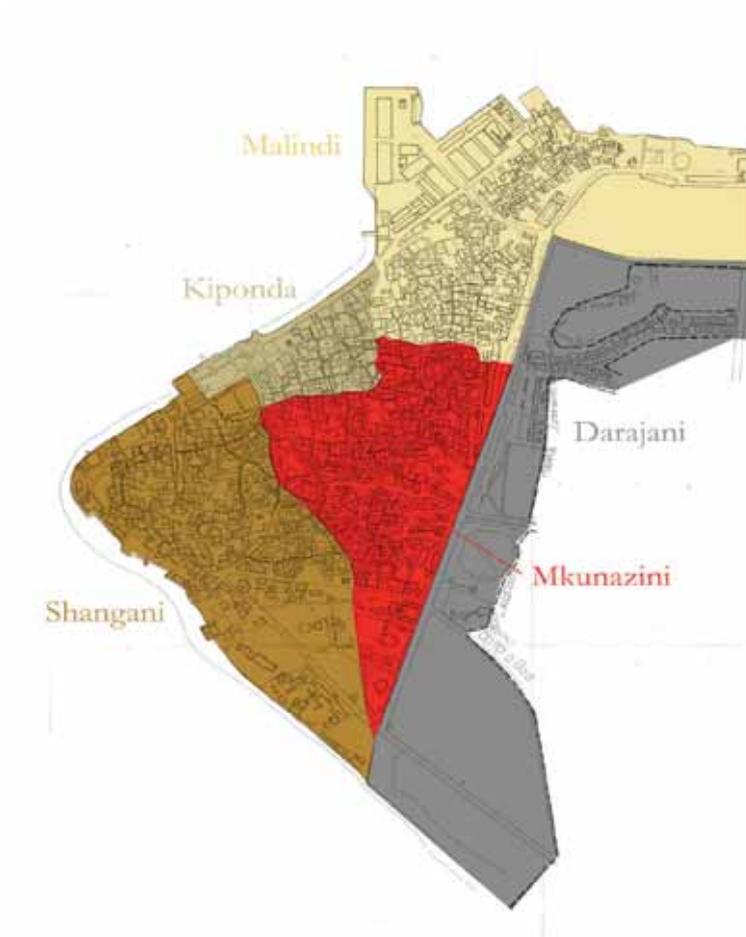
Parallel to these divisions and the Directorate of Conservation and Technical Services is the Planning and Administration Division containing one section of Accounts and one section of Administration. The section of Accounts consists of one head of section and eight employees and the Administration section consists of one superintendent and one head of section as well as 33 employees including receptionists, drivers, assistant drivers, security guards, cleaners and gardeners.

The Technical Division

The Technical Division has a rather high average age, the majority being over 50 years old and the number of younger people being low. In addition the technical equipment is outdated and poorly maintained. The intention of having a workshop was to support governmental rehabilitation and conservation projects, to recruit young people into conservation handicraft and to add income to STCDA through external commissions.

The Building Brigade

The Zanzibar Stone Town is divided into six zones (Figure 119) that are regularly inspected by the STCDA Building Brigade. The goal of the Building Brigade, crossing their zones twice a week and reporting back to the Technical Division once a week, is to be fully oriented on all matters and actions going on in the historic area. The building inspectors are the direct link between the citizens and STCDA. They also design new buildings and construction, comment on the building applications and guard the allowances and rejections on building permits. All this puts the inspectors in an unwise, confusing situation, in between applicants and the management.



*Figure 119
Map of the five Building Inspectors' Areas that are inspected twice a week and their activities reported back to STCDA.*

4.5 Status Quo of STCDA 2004

According to the demands stated in the Act (Appendix IV v) the structure of STCDA seems to take care of all expectations. The average age of the employees in the Conservation and Master Plan Implementation Division was however rather low. At the time of my survey they were aged between 20 and 40 years, with more than half being less than 30 years old and belonging to the Building Brigade (the building inspectors). On the educational side, the overwhelming majority of the staff in this division had Form Six high school education or less.

In 2004 several of the key positions were vacant due to long leave, studies in foreign countries or lack of funding. This went for the lawyer and the historian. In addition, there was no planner or architect with a master's or PhD degree employed, nor was any conservationist or any antiquarians.

Moreover, the STCDA at the time of the author survey was a rather top-thin and bottom heavy organization, practising the unhealthy mix of sitting on both sides of the table when handling applications. The low age and lack of formal education of the building inspectors in the Conservation and Master Plan Implementation Division and the high age and lack of technical equipment in the Technical Services Division, together with vacant key positions, reduced the strength and effectiveness of the STCDA to a critical point.

The organisation of STCDA is supported by an Advisory Board appointed by the President and consisting of high-ranking representatives from all sectors involved in the Stone Town heritage management, such as the sectors of tourism, health, transport and the port. In this regard the formal structure for input and influence is taken care of. However, based on some questions and research it transpires that regular meetings are not convened and important feedback is lost because of lack of compensation to the members and failure to give priority to board meetings.

4.5.1 Zanzibar Vision 2020

Zanzibar Vision 2020 (Appendix IV viii) was launched by MWCEL and STCDA in 2002. The document points out the haphazard cultural heritage preservation going on in the years between 1970 and 1985 due to lack of adequate legal tools. In the document STCDA states the importance of achieving awareness among the people, to reverse the trend from the Stone Town becoming a squatter area to its being a showcase of escalating gentrification and to rediscovering Zanzibar's identity through the architecture of the Stone Town.

The intentions of architectural heritage management in *Zanzibar Vision 2020* are according to the document: "Conservation without threat to its future, rational utilisation of land, buildings and site, retaining the socio-economic set-up, encouraging the activities of the people and rejuvenation of the informal sector".

In achieving these goals the Government emphasizes the Master Plan (1994)

(Appendix IV vi) and points to the importance of “not robbing tomorrow of its past, coping with modernity without surrendering its identity and consolidating the town’s rehabilitation”.

The document also points to the importance of improving daily routines through searching for failures and especially safeguarding fireplaces, leakages in pipes, roofs and drains. In addition an increase of weekly routines is called for, to ensure the repair of small but important construction failures and maintenance of drainage and storm-water pipes.

4.5.2 Inclusion in the World Heritage List of UNESCO

After five attempts the Stone Town of Zanzibar was listed on the World Heritage List of UNESCO in 2000. When the Stone Town was listed, the obligations to UNESCO were likewise added to the agenda of the STCDA: “...and address the objectives and obligations of the Stone Town as a World Heritage Site.”

There are added obligations of the STCDA apart from the required reports every 6th year to UNESCO. One is increasing the level of information and awareness about the Stone Town and its values, while another is preparing both a Program and a revised Management Plan. The introduction in the *Application for Inclusion on the World Heritage List*, says; “Zanzibar is the last and best as well as the largest preserved living town testifying the evolution of Swahili civilization, itself a product of many cultural streams and strong maritime economic transformation”.¹⁰

In the introduction to the application the Zanzibar Government pinpoints why the application should be accepted and Zanzibar Stone Town included on the World Heritage List. The three arguments concern the Zanzibar Stone Town being the largest, the last and the best living town of today testifying the evolution of Swahili civilization – that is the confluence of many different cultures. Furthermore the application consists of five chapters elaborating Justification for Inscription, Description, Management and Factors Affecting the Properties. Being on the World Heritage List entails Zanzibar Stone Town being under observation by an International Heritage Brigade, which watches the development of the sites listed. Every 5th or 6th year UNESCO demands a report on the Status Quo.

On the town being listed, Zanzibar Government signed a long-term contract, which demands development according to certain criteria. If failing, Mji Mkongwe – the old Stone Town, can be put on the list of “sites in danger” with a threat of being delisted. Another challenge of being included on the World Heritage List is the level of international tourism publicity that threatens the infrastructure of the Stone Town. Meanwhile the urban structure is under constant pressure from the inside by the increase of residents and daily use of the entire urban fabric. The streets, public life and culture are challenged by foreigners, new uses for buildings and the increase of different uses for the buildings from what they were intended for.

¹⁰ Quote from the Zanzibar application to UNESCO’s World Heritage List, 1994.

4.6 Summary of the Case Study, the Making and the Management

According to the ICCROM report on *Immoveable Heritage Management on the African Continent South of Sahara* and the research executed on behalf of this thesis, Tanzania on behalf of Zanzibar is one of the few countries having established the legal and operational tools necessary for sustainable management of its historic city. However, there are major areas to fill in and strengthen to make this management adequate and to safeguard the town’s sustainable heritage management. Nonetheless, according to the selected *attributes* in the Matrix (Appendix I and Figure 120), the legal instruments and the idealistic management structures for a sustainable architectural heritage management are still defined and acknowledged in the regulations of the STCDA.

Category: Cultural and Architectural Heritage.	International Policy Documents										Local Documents												
	The Athens Charter for the restoration of Historic Monuments. 1931	Universal Declaration of Human Rights 1948	The Hague Convention, 1954 (1999)	The Venice Charter International Charter for the Conservation and Restoration of Monuments and Sites	Convention Concerning the Protection of the Culture and Natural Heritage, 1972	The Declaration of Amsterdam, European Charter of the Architectural Heritage. 1975	The Bruges Resolution, Resolution for Conservation of smaller historic towns. 1975	The Granada Convention, Convention for the Protection of the Architectural Heritage of Europe. 1985	The Washington Charter, Charter for the Conservation of Historic Towns and Urban Areas - 1987	Our Common Future, 1987	The Nara Document on Authenticity, 1994	The Istanbul Declaration, the Habitat Agenda 1996	International Cultural Tourism Charter, 1999	The Declaration on our Cultural Diversity, 2001	Inclusion of Zanzibar Stone Town on the World Heritage List, 2000	Lanchester Plan, 1923	Township Decree, 1929 (55)	The Town and Planning Bill, 1955	Stonetown Conservation Plan, December 1993	The Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority Act No.3, 1994	The Town and Country Planning Decree (Cap 85), 1994	Application for Nomination of Zanzibar Stone Town on the World Heritage List, 1997-98	Zanzibar Vision 2020, 2000
Attributes	International Policy Documents										Local Documents												
Management tool																							
Increase capacity building																							
Take Administrative measures	•	•				•		•				•	•							•			
Take Legislative Measures	•	•		•		•		•				•											
Financial Assistance						•	•			•													•
Long Term Planning						•				•													•
Plan of Action																							•
Technical Awareness	•			•												•				•			•
Recognition of new materials																							•
International Documents				•																			
Intergovernmental cooperation				•																			
Community Participation										•	•		•							•			•
Include local contractors																							•
Documenting	•					•		•		•										•		•	
Analysing						•				•							•						
Listing																							
Research						•							•										
Dissemination		•				•	•			•			•							•			•
Infrastructure		•																					
Guidelines																		•		•			•
Increase the Role of Education						•	•			•	•	•	•										•
Consciousness																							•

Figure 120 Attributes as tools showing different recommended tools for management of architectural and cultural

Section 2

heritage



Figure 121
“Renovation”. Well intended but with an unacceptable external appearance according to conservation principles.



Figure 122
“Reparation” made with concrete instead of lime, which will cause blisters and cracks inviting fungi and insects to inhabit the structure.



Figure 123
The picture shows Hurumzi house no. 234 a deteriorating behind a heap of stones and garbage, 1992.



Figure 124
The picture illustrates the same house renovated and the place in front cleaned.

Still renovation is not carried out in a proper way and in accordance with guidelines and the recommendations of the local authority STCDA.

Despite the fact that STCDA has all the tools and legal frameworks, restoration is often wrongly and badly executed. Proper conservation according to international standards is only to be seen in projects entailing conservation by international organisations, private investors or NGOs.

Even now, the inhabitants of the historic Stone Town are not informed about ongoing and planned conservation and reconstruction projects and most of the tenants are still living under poor and shabby technical conditions. Generally the streets are still filthy and filled with garbage and the ruins not removed. Dilapidated houses are not restored, houses are not properly repaired, the backyards and gateways are not cleaned, and leakages are not repaired and the moss removed.

Section 3

5 INTENTIONS AND REALITY

By testing the intentions stated in the policy documents against the reality found in the built environment, this chapter explores whether the aims and options of the policy documents have achieved their intended objectives. This chapter also explores the influence, or the lack of influence, of policy documents on the built environment (Figure 125). The approach tests the relationship between intentions and reality, where intentions are represented by selected policy documents, and reality is the built environment in Zanzibar Stone Town.

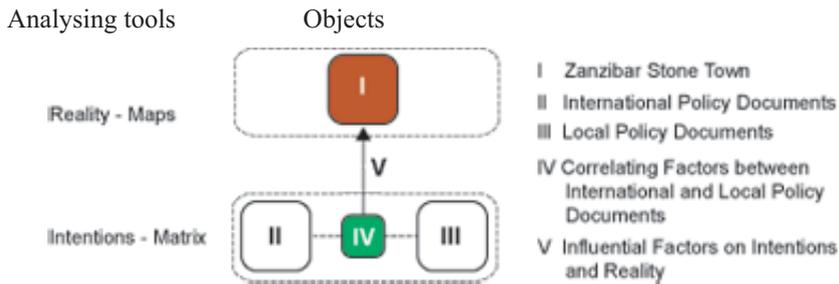


Figure 125

The diagram gives an overview of the two objects to be analysed: The policy documents: II and III and the built environment: I. The diagram also illustrates the process of correlation of international and local documents: IV and the testing of the common denominators; the attributes on to the built environment : V.

5.1 The Coding

The approach of this research was developed to enable analysis of both the influence and correlation of relevant policy documents on an international and a local level on Zanzibar Stone Town.

The Matrix (Appendix I) is a tool to analyse the two types of documents, one based on international policy documents and the other on local policy documents. The Matrix is designed to serve three purposes: firstly as a tool to explore the content of the documents, secondly, as a tool to define and examine if there is any correlation between international and local policy documents, and thirdly, the *attributes* of the Matrix serve as a mediator between the documents and the “reading” of the built environments (Figure 126).

The design of the analytical diagram gives an operational overview as well as the opportunity to code and decode the policy documents. These, in the next phase, are correlated with the digitalized geographical registration of *attributes*. This creates a separate search. The order of *attributes* in the Matrix and in the maps is sorted according to hierarchical questions, initially defining the subject and then exploring it in depth by looking at the type of documents and specific aspects of the built environment applicable, identifying the producers and the owners, clarifying the kind

of conservation and management activities recommended and executed, the objects of focus in the documents and the architectural characteristics of the objects. Finally, the Matrix serves to identify the aims and intentions of the documents and examine the management of Zanzibar Stone Town.

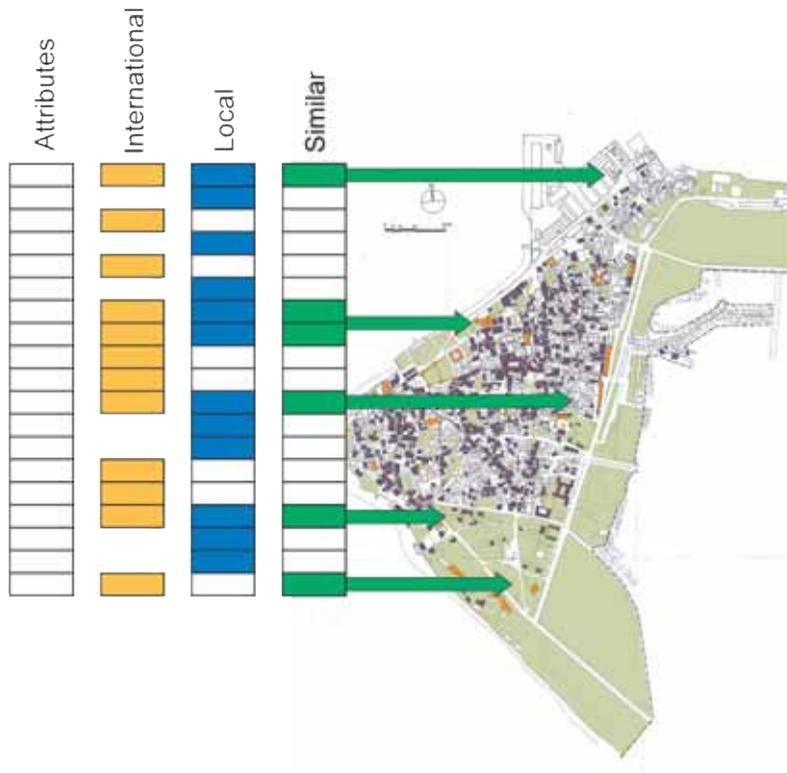


Figure 126
 Abstraction of the analytical process searching for correlating attributes in international and local policy documents and influences observed in the built environment. The column of similar represents similar attributes found both in the international and in the local documents.

The other investigative instrument is the set of maps (4.2.3) representing the reality of the architecture of Zanzibar Stone Town. Both tools are designed in relation to a selection of *attributes* and explored through a practical approach of decoding the two sources of study: the reality on the ground and the documents that are expected to influence this.

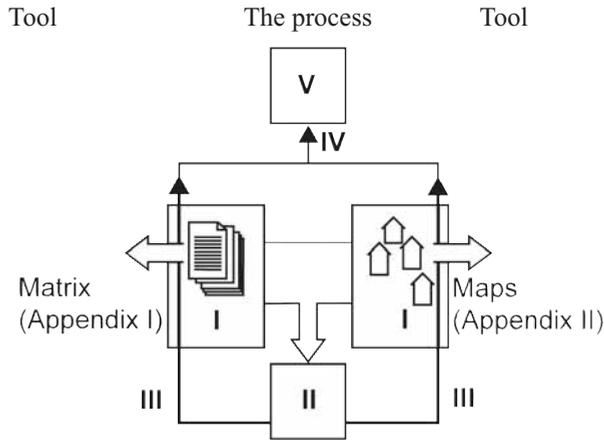


Figure 127

The illustration demonstrates the research approach that starts with decoding of the two objects: the documents and the built environment, continues with the correlation of their attributes and the impact of the analysis and ends with the discussion of the findings and testing of the assumptions.

The first step in the analytical process is to code the two kinds of documents, the international and the local policy documents, to find comparable and relevant factors. The next step is to correlate the identical *attributes* found in the two sets of documents and to explore their influence on Zanzibar Stone Town. The last step (Figure 127, IV and V), in Chapter 6, discusses the findings to evaluate whether the approach is meaningful and tests the respective findings against the assumptions.

The two analytical objects: the policy documents and the built environment, are respectively named “intentions” and “reality” in the process of analysis (Figure 127). The mediating *attributes* are selected according to their usefulness in reading and decoding the two objects to obtain a common analytical platform

Category: Cultural and Architectural Heritage

Intentions (Policy Documents)	<i>Attributes</i>	Reality (Architecture - built environment)
Matrix Documents		Maps Zanzibar Stone Town
Producer	Producer	Government
Legal instrument	Type	Legal instruments
Conservation Activities	Conservation	Conservation and development, Grading of buildings Significant buildings and Streetscape elements
Objects to be Conserved	Objects	Classification of buildings, Significant buildings, Land-use and spatial organisations
Threats to conservation	Threats	Condition of buildings, New buildings and alterations
Tools of management	Tools	Grading of buildings, New buildings and alterations, Ownership, Conservation and development
Aims of the document	Intentions	Registrations

Figure 128

The illustration shows the principle of the correlation of the two factors of research: intentions and reality and their mediating attributes.

Definition of Attributes

In the process of registration of the documents and the maps, and later the coding, the selection of *attributes* was vital to achieve an understanding of both content and context. Initially the various aims and intentions of the documents were identified and registered in the Matrix (Appendix I), and then the following questions were formulated and led to the identification of the *attributes*. The identification of *attributes* was a continual process of crosschecking the physical environment with the documents until a reasonable selection of *attributes* was found to describe and represent both sources.

The questions found their parallels in both sources: Who are the *producers* of the selected documents? What *types of documents* are selected? What kind of *conservation* activities do the documents take into consideration? How are they recognised in the architecture of Zanzibar Stone Town? What kind of heritage *objects* do the documents focus on? What are the architectural objects in Zanzibar Stone Town? How are they defined according to geographical mapping of the architecture? What are the *threats* and obstacles to heritage management? What kinds of *management tools* are recommended in the two sources of documents? What kind of management *tools* do the documents recommend? How are these observed in Zanzibar Stone Town? What are the *intentions* of the policy documents? Are these intentions to be seen in the architecture of Zanzibar Stone Town?

5.2 Intentions – as Described by the Selected Policy Documents

In this thesis the conceptual meaning of intentions is the anticipation of policy papers. The aims found in the policy papers demand and guide certain actions that, in this thesis, are to be found on two levels. One level is the formal level of legalisation of documents and the other level is the practical operative tasks recommended by the documents which are designed to achieve specific goals. Legal action is enforced in local planning through documents, bills and acts, charters, decrees and laws. Thus actions of conservation and tools of management are identified and analysed in both the international and local documents. The *Application for Inclusion* on the World Heritage List of UNESCO (Appendix IV vii) and the *Document of Inclusion* (Appendix III xv) are also documents that are legally binding and therefore also analysed. International documents matching both local documents and the case study were selected according to their relevance to architectural heritage. The *Hague Convention* (1954), the *Venice Charter* (1964), the *Bruges Resolution* (1975), the *Granada Convention* (1985), the *Washington Charter* (1987), the *Nara Document on Authenticity* (1994), the *Istanbul Declaration* (1996) and the *International Cultural Tourism Charter* (1999) were also evaluated as documents to be analysed.

An overview of the Producers of the selected International Documents

United Nations	Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) The Hague Convention (1954) Convention concerning the Protection of the Cultural and Natural Heritage (1972) The Istanbul Declaration (1996) The Declaration on our Cultural Diversity (2001)
ICOMOS	The Venice Charter (1964) The Bruges Resolution (1975) The Washington Charter (1987) The Nara Document on Authenticity 1994 International Cultural Tourism Charter (1999)
Council of Europe	Declaration of Amsterdam (1975) The Granada Covention (1985)
Others	*The Athens Charter (1931)
United Nations	Our Common Future (1987) Inclusion on the World Heritage List (2000) <i>*Adopted at the First International Congress of Architects and Technicians of Historic Monuments in Athens 1931</i>

Figure 129

An overview of the selection of the Producers of the international documents illustrating a part of the plethora of international documents and organisations that exists in the field of heritage.

Selected Local documents

Legal instruments on local level

Lanchester Plan (1923)
 Township Decree (1929)
 The Town and Planning Bill (1955)
 Stone Town Conservation Plan (1994)
 Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority Act No 3 (1994)
 Town and Country Planning Decree (Cap 85) (1994)

Policy papers on local level

Application for Inclusion in the World Heritage List of UNESCO (1997-98)
 Zanzibar Vision 2020 (2000)

Figure 130

An overview of the selected documents on local level illustrating that conservation was not mentioned explicitly in the headline of the legal documents on local level before 1994.

The analysis of the policy documents shows that the documents have been produced at different political levels and in different, although interrelated, environments (Figure 129 and 130). International as well as local policy makers produced policy papers intended to enable target groups to adopt, implement and carry out specific actions¹ (Miles and Huberman, 1984: 39).

5.2.1 Kinds of Documents - Types

Among the selected international documents there are a variety of charters, conventions, declarations and resolutions that are reflected in plans, decrees, bills and acts on the local level.

The level at which international policy documents are binding on a national level is dependent on the formal status of the producers and their international and official approval, and the ratification of the documents on a national level. The Council of Europe (CoE) and UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization) are international legal bodies whose policy documents, conventions and declarations are legally binding when ratified on national level. Charters and resolutions produced by NGOs (Non-Government Organisations) like ICOMOS (International Council on Monuments and Sites) and The Aga Khan Foundation are not legally binding and are regarded as guidelines. The documents on local level that have been selected for this thesis are legally adopted plans, decree and acts, in addition to the document entitled *Zanzibar Vision 2020* (Appendix IV viii).

¹ Miles and Huberman exemplify the link between producers and adaptors in their book; *Qualitative Data Analysis. A Sourcebook of New Methods*, 1984 and say: "For example, policymakers are hypothesized to influence linkers through the provision of technical assistance and through interventions in the linker's network. (page 38) and try to prove through their approach that it is a direct step from the elaboration of a conceptual framework to the formulation of research questions "(1984: 42).

5.3 Analysis and Selection of Attributes in the Policy Documents

The analysis of the policy documents is conducted in two ways. First the influence of international documents on local documents in general is examined (Figure 131a). Then a more specific search is made of correlation between three selected international policy documents and three selected and related documents at local level. After doing this the next step is to illuminate the content of the documents and to decode the *attributes* of the documents according to producers, types, conservation, objects, threats, tools and intention, as will be discussed in the following paragraphs (Figure 131b).

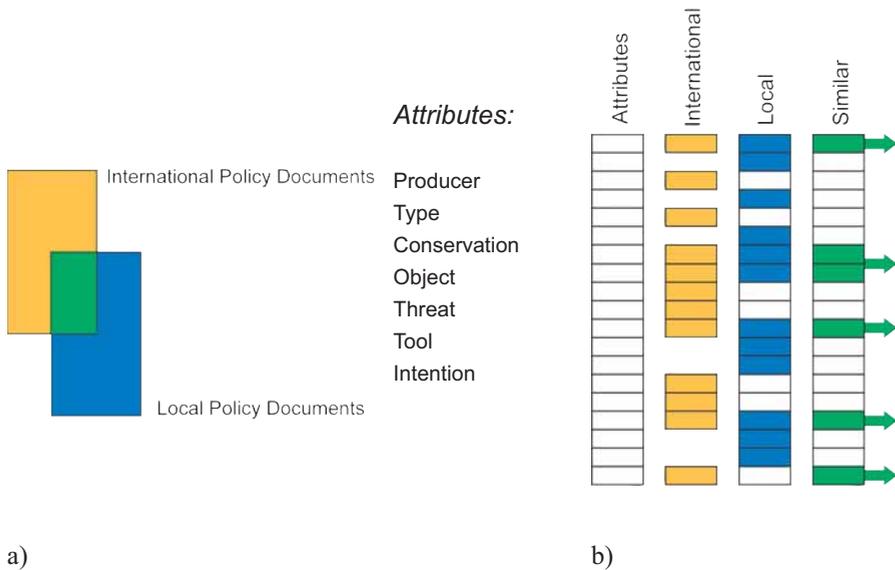


Figure 131
The two diagrams a and b are abstracts of the models of correlation of attributes found in the international and local documents.

5.3.1 Policy Documents – Exploration of Attributes

Attributes as Producers

The producers of the selected policy documents are governmental and international organisations, national cooperation agencies and NGOs (Non-Government Organisations) (Figure 132).

terms and objectives connected to the development of architectural heritage policy in selected European countries. In his report he points out "...legal tools are not the only means to resolve issues and that there is a plethora of guidelines, recommendations and charters which have been developed in an international context" (Pickard, 2001: 4). This research on legal instruments and policy papers on the local level in Zanzibar and the Pickard report show that the production and sum of guidelines, recommendations and charters is the same on the African continent as in Europe. This means that contemporary African heritage management groups are apparently just as informed and bureaucratically skilled as their counterparts in Europe. This would imply that the policy of international cooperation within the field of heritage management is adequate. Despite this, questions remain about whether the intended outcome of policy documents is being realised and can be seen in the built environment. This key question is the main topic to be analysed further in this chapter and discussed in chapter 6.

Category: Cultural and Architectural Heritage.	International Policy Documents											Local Documents																					
	The Athens Charter for the restoration of Historic Monuments. 1931	Universal Declaration of Human Rights 1948	The Hague Convention, 1954 (1999)	The Venice Charter International Charter for the Conservation and Restoration of Monuments and Sites and Natural Heritage. 1972	The Declaration of Amsterdam, European Charter of the Architectural Heritage. 1975	The Bruges Resolution, Resolution for Conservation of smaller historic towns. 1975	The Granada Convention, Convention for the Protection of the Architectural Heritage of Europe. 1985	The Washington Charter, Charter for the Conservation of Historic Towns and Urban Areas - 1987	Our Common Future, 1987	The Nara Document on Authenticity, 1994	The Istanbul Declaration, the Habitat Agenda 1996	International Cultural Tourism Charter, 1999	The Declaration on our Cultural Diversity, 2001	Inclusion of Zanzibar Stone Town on the World Heritage List, 2000	Lanchester Plan, 1923	Township Decree, 1929 (55)	The Town and Planning Bill, 1955	Stonetown Conservation Plan, December 1993	The Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority Act No 3, 1994	The Town and Country Planning Decree (Cap 85), 1994	Application for Nomination of Zanzibar Stone Town on the World Heritage List, 1997-98	Zanzibar Vision 2020, 2000											
Attributes	International Policy Documents																						Local Documents										
Producer																																	
UNESCO	•	•	•	•				•			•		•	•																			
ICOMOS				•			•			•		•																					
CoE (Council of Europe)					•		•																										
Private organisations (Aga Khan)																	•																
Zanzibar Government														•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•											
STCDA																					•	•											
Type of documents																																	
Charter	•			•			•				•																						
Convention		•		•			•																										
Declaration		•			•					•			•																				
Resolution							•																										
Document										•																							
Agenda								•																									
Principi														•																			
Decree																					•												
Plan														•			•																
Act																		•															
Bill																•																	
Other																				•		•											

Figure 133
Attributes as Types of documents reveal a plethora of documents in the field of heritage.

On a local level the *Lanchester Plan* (1923), the *Town and Planning Bill* (1955), *Stone Town Conservation Plan* (1994), the *Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority Act* (1994) and *Zanzibar Vision 2020* (2002) are those legal documents that take the historic aspect of the unique urban character of Zanzibar Stone Town into consideration.

Attributes as Conservation Activities

Projects referred to in the discussion of conservation and restoration are very often represented and exemplified by single objects. The conclusion to be drawn from Figure 134 is that despite this apparent single-object focus, international policy documents have, in the text, been inclusive and holistic since the *Athens Charter* of 1931 and the *Hague Convention* in 1954. However, conservation in practise has mostly been applied to single objects and with no emphasis on the management of the broader context of the physical environment. The *Bruges Resolution for Conservation of Smaller Towns* together with the *Washington Charter – Charter for the Conservation of Historic Towns and Urban Areas*, in 1975 and 1987 respectively, opened up a broader approach to heritage management and heritage related to historic cityscapes and areas.

The *attributes* of international policy documents range from a wide set of traditional terms such as *protection*, *restoration*, *preservation* and *conservation* to the more modern terms of *rehabilitation*, *renovation*, *safeguarding*, *enhancement*, *integration* and *revitalization*. The local policy documents mainly concentrate on traditional terms. There are nevertheless two exceptions, namely the *Zanzibar Vision 2020* (2000) and the Application for Inclusion on the World Heritage List (1998), both of which include the terms *enhancement*, *renovation* and *rehabilitation*. These are the most common actions taken in conservation management in *Zanzibar Stone Town*. *The Township Decree* from 1929 also uses the term *renovation*. The term *preservation* is the most common term in both international and local policy documents, followed by the term *conservation* and then the term *protection*.

In the analysis it becomes apparent that the goal of conservation actions focused on in the selected policy documents after 1964, with the recognition of the *Venice Charter* (the International Charter for the Conservation and Restoration of Monuments and Sites), opens up to a broader view of conservation. Even when all the new terms of rehabilitation, enhancement, integration and revitalization are introduced in the international arena, local policy documents in Zanzibar seem uninfluenced by this new formulation (3.2.1)(Figure 134).

Category: Cultural and Architectural Heritage.	Attributes														
	International Policy Documents										Local Documents				
The Athens Charter for the restoration of Historic Monuments, 1931															
Universal Declaration of Human Rights 1948															
The Hague Convention, 1954 (1999)															
The Venice Charter International Charter for the Conservation and Restoration of Monuments and Sites															
Convention Concerning the Protection of the Culture and Natural Heritage, 1972															
The Declaration of Amsterdam, European Charter of the Architectural Heritage - 1975															
The Bruges Resolution, Resolution for Conservation of smaller historic towns, 1975															
The Granada Convention, Convention for the Protection of the Architectural Heritage of Europe - 1985															
The Washington Charter, Charter for the Conservation of Historic Towns and Urban Areas - 1987															
Our Common Future, 1987															
The Nara Document on Authenticity, 1994															
The Istanbul Declaration, the Habitat Agenda 1996															
International Cultural Tourism Charter, 1999															
The Declaration on our Cultural Diversity, 2001															
Inclusion of Zanzibar Stone Town on the World Heritage List, 2000															
Lanchester Plan, 1923															
Township Decree, 1929 (55)															
The Town and Planning Bill, 1955															
Stonetown Conservation Plan, December 1993															
The Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority Act No. 3, 1994															
The Town and Country Planning Decree (Cap 85), 1994															
Application for Nomination of Zanzibar Stone Town on the World Heritage List, 1997-98															
Zanzibar Vision 2020, 2000															

Figure 134

Attributes as Conservation activities gives an overview of what kind of conservation activities are highlighted and recommended in the policy papers on international and local level. It is interesting that integration and revitalization, the most frequent actions in Zanzibar Stone Town, are focused on in the international documents but not in the local.

Attributes as Objects to be Conserved

In Figure 135 objects relevant to the case study of the historic town are addressed in 11 of the 15 selected international documents. The attributes that are taken into consideration are:

- *Historical townscape* as mentioned in the *Venice Charter* (1964), the *Bruges Resolution* (1975), the *Washington Charter* (1987), the *Istanbul Declaration* (1996) and the *International Cultural Tourism Charter* (1999).
- *Architecture* as a single attribute is mentioned in only one of the international documents, the *Istanbul Declaration* (1996).
- *Architectural heritage* is explicitly used in the *Granada Convention* (1985) and in *Our Common Future* (Brundtland, 1987).
- *Historic sites* and *significant buildings* are terms to be found in five of the international documents although only one of them deals with both attributes, this is the *Hague Convention* (1954). The *Washington Charter* (1987) and the *Nara Document on Authenticity* (1994) mention *historic sites* while the *Granada Convention* (1985) and the *International Cultural Tourism Charter* (1999) use the term *significant buildings* as an important attribute.

- *Architectural sites* are only focused on in one of the 15 documents, the *Nara Document on Authenticity* (1994).
- *Groups of historic buildings* is a term mentioned in three and *unique urban architecture* in four of the documents. *Groups of historic buildings* is a term emphasized in the *Hague Convention* (1954), the *Convention Concerning the Protection of the Cultural and Natural Heritage* (1972) and in the *Granada Convention* (1985) meanwhile *unique urban character* is an attribute in the *Venice Charter* (1964), the *Bruges Resolution* (1975), the *Washington Charter* (1987) and the *Granada Convention* (1985).
- *Zones and Groupings* are attributes in the *Athens Charter* (1931), the *Declaration of Amsterdam* (1975) and in the *Washington Charter* (1987) and *settlement structure* is an attribute in the *Bruges Resolution* (1975).

There is one more document of a more informal but important character included in the case study, this is the UNESCO Inclusion on the World Heritage List (2000) which emphasises *historical townscape*. In addition, the UNESCO document also uses attributes such as *historical events*, *cultural fusion* and *exceptional symbolic importance* as reasons for inclusion in the World Heritage List.

The Declaration on Human Rights (1948) and *Declaration of Our Creative Diversity* (2001) do not mention historic cities or clusters of historic buildings as objects of cultural heritage, but emphasise aspects of culture as a relevant part of heritage management policy. Both documents are regarded as crucial in the making of policy in architectural heritage management.

Category: Cultural and Architectural Heritage.	International Policy Documents										Local Documents																					
	The Athens Charter for the restoration of Historic Monuments, 1931	Universal Declaration of Human Rights 1948	The Hague Convention, 1954 (1959)	The Venice Charter International Charter for the Conservation and Restoration of Monuments and Sites	Convention Concerning the Protection of the Culture and Natural Heritage, 1972	The Declaration of Amsterdam, European Charter of the Architectural Heritage, 1975	The Bruges Resolution, Resolution for Conservation of smaller historic towns, 1975	The Granada Convention, Convention for the Protection of the Architectural Heritage of Europe, 1985	The Washington Charter, Charter for the Conservation of Historic Towns and Urban Areas - 1987	Our Common Future, 1987	The Nara Document on Authenticity, 1994	The Istanbul Declaration, the Habitat Agenda 1996	International Cultural Tourism Charter, 1999	The Declaration on our Cultural Diversity, 2001	Inclusion of Zanzibar Stone Town on the World Heritage List, 2000	Lanchester Plan, 1923	Township Decree, 1929 (55)	The Town and Planning Bill, 1955	Stonetown Conservation Plan, December 1993	The Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority Act No 3, 1994	The Town and Country Planning Decree (Cap 85), 1994	Application for Nomination of Zanzibar Stone Town on the World Heritage List, 1997-98	Zanzibar Vision 2020, 2000									
Attributes	International Policy Documents																						Local Documents									
Objects to be conserved																																
Natural heritage	•			•												•			•			•										
Architectural Heritage							•		•								•						•									
Cultural Property / Heritage		•		•				•			•	•											•									
Immovable Heritage		•																														
Movable Heritage		•																														
Historic Sites		•						•		•							•		•	•	•	•	•									
Historical townscape				•			•		•		•			•						•	•	•	•									
Monuments of Architecture							•																									
Traditional architecture				•																			•									
Groups of Buildings	•	•		•	•		•	•				•					•			•	•	•	•									
Urban significant development				•			•	•	•			•							•													
Unique urban character				•																		•	•									
Settlement structure							•																									
Architectural Sites										•											•											
Surroundings	•						•		•			•					•					•										
Environments							•		•																							
Scientific Collections		•											•																			
Formal Appearance								•					•																			
Cultural practice												•											•									
Culture	•	•																														
Exceptional symbolic importance																						•										
Cultural fusion																						•										
Historic event				•								•										•										
Integrity				•							•																					
Diversity							•	•		•	•	•	•	•																		
Sustainable diversity																																
Creativity																																
Uniqueness												•											•									
Heritage Development											•																					
Distinguish							•																									
Form											•																					
Design							•				•																					
Material							•				•												•									
Substance										•																						

Figure 135
Attribute as Objects. This section of the Matrix shows the objects emphasized in the international and local documents and illustrates over the years an introduction of a wide range of objects seen in the international documents although not mirrored in the local documents which mainly focus on attributes more directly connected to Zanzibar Stone Town as a unique historical townscape.

In the local documents studied the *attributes* of historical townscape, architectural heritage, historic sites, groups of historic buildings and unique urban character are most common when describing Zanzibar Stone Town. Historical townscape, architectural heritage and historic sites are cited in the *Stone Town Conservation Plan* of 1994. Architectural heritage is the term in the Town and Planning Bill (1955), the *Stone Town Conservation Plan* (1994) and the *Zanzibar Vision 2020* (2000). The *Stone Town Conservation Plan* (1994), *Zanzibar Vision 2020* (2000) and the *Application for Inclusion on the World Heritage List* (1997-98) emphasise historic sites as the object of architectural heritage, as seen in the Matrix (Appendix I).

Groups of historic buildings and *unique urban character* are terms applied to heritage objects in the *Zanzibar Vision 2020* (2000) and in the *Application for Inclusion on the World Heritage List* (1997-98), while *unique urban character* is the term used for objects of the *Lanchester Plan* of 1923. The term *grouping/zone* is used in the *Town and Country Planning Decree (Cap 85)* (1994) and *surroundings* and *traditional structure* are terms that are taken into consideration in the *Application for Inclusion on the World Heritage List* (1997-98).

Out of the ten selected *attributes* found in the range of international documents, seven match with the *attributes* found in the local documents. These are: *historical townscape*, *architectural heritage*, *historic sites*, and *significant buildings of architecture*, *groups of historic buildings*, *unique urban character* and *grouping/zones*. On the background of this filtered context the object relevant for this research is: 1) *a group of historic buildings* with 2) *a unique urban character* (Figure 135 and 136).

When correlating the UNESCO document of *Inclusion on the World Heritage List* (2000) and the *Zanzibar Application for Inclusion on the World Heritage List* (1997-98) the only *attribute* in common is *historical townscape*. Nevertheless, the application highlights *historic sites*, *groups of historic buildings*, *unique urban character* and *traditional structure* as important. The UNESCO document of *Inclusion* mentions *historic event*, *cultural fusion*, *harmonization* and *symbolic importance*.

The architectural character of Zanzibar Stone Town can be described by a selection of *attributes* found in international and local documents. These are as follows:

- 1) *A group of historic buildings* with
- 2) *a unique urban character* consisting of
- 3) *a cultural fusion*
- 4) *harmonization*,
- 5) *symbolic importance* and
- 6) *a traditional architecture*.

These six terms describe important elements in the “reading” and mapping of the Stone Town (Figure 136).

Input	Correlation of Attributes	Output
<p><i>Natural heritage, architectural heritage, Cultural property, immovable heritage, movable heritage, historic sites, historical townscape, monuments of architecture, traditional architecture, groups of buildings, urban significant development, unique urban character, settlement structure, architectural sites, surroundings, environments, scientific collections, formal appearance, cultural practice, culture, exceptional symbolic importance, cultural fusion, historic event, integrity, diversity, sustainable diversity, creativity, uniqueness, heritage development, distinguish, form, design, material, substance</i></p>		<p><i>Natural heritage, Architectural heritage, Cultural heritage, Historic sites, Historical townscape, Traditional architecture, Groups of buildings, Urban significant development, Unique urban character, Architectural sites, Surroundings, Cultural practice, Uniqueness, Material</i></p>

Figure 136

The figure illustrates the process of identifying the Attributes as Objects to be conserved in the international documents that are mirrored in the local documents.

Attributes as Management Tools

Among the international documents *legislative* and *administrative measures* together with *education* are recommended as the most useful tools for management of the cultural and architectural heritage. The international documents the *Venice Charter* (1964), the *Bruges Resolution* (1975), the *Istanbul Declaration – Habitat Agenda* (1996) and the *Declaration on our Creative Diversity* (2001) also include: *increasing the role of education, taking legislative measures, emphasising international documents, intergovernmental cooperation, financial assistance and increase of capacity building as attributes* to achieve sustainable cultural and architectural heritage management (Figure 137, 138 and the Matrix, Appendix I).

On the local level emphasis is more practically oriented as *community participation, dissemination and consciousness*. The local documents also focus on *counteracting negative trends, sustainable growth, increasing policy awareness and enhancing positive intervention*.

Similar to both international and local documents are the *attributes of strengthening local authorities, strengthening collaboration, capacity building, taking administrative measures, technical awareness, documenting, analysing, listing, community participation, dissemination and long term planning* (Figure 137 and the Matrix, Appendix I).

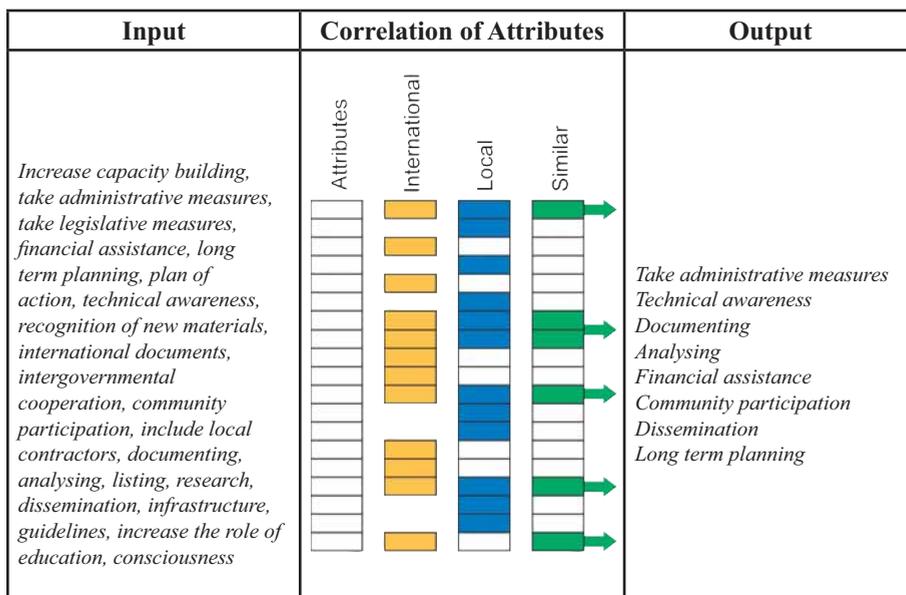


Figure 137
The figure illustrates the correlating attributes as Management Tools in the international and policy document.

In the light of actual management capacity on a local level it is noteworthy that *attributes* such as an increase of capacity and the role of education, legislative measures, intergovernmental cooperation and research are only mentioned in the international documents.

Input	Correlation of Attributes	Output
<p><i>Improve consciousness, respect of history and building period, moral enhancement, strengthen the awareness of policymakers, strengthen local authorities, responsive to local objectives, enforcing administration, strengthening of regional policy, control, prevent mistakes, focus on developing countries, create and strengthen partnership, transformation and new use, enhance positive interventions, counteract negative trends, increase quality of life, identity, democracy, sustainability, cultural rights, human values, human dimension</i></p>		<p><i>Improve consciousness Prevent mistakes Strengthen local authorities Enforcing administration Sustainability Create and strengthen partnership Strengthen regional policy Transformation/new use Identity Increase quality of life Control Enhance positive interventions Counter act negative trends</i></p>

Figure 140
Attributes as Intentions. The abstraction illustrates the process of decoding the documents on international and local level.

5.4 Summing up of the Analysis and the Correlations

Before making a detailed analysis of three pairs of documents which have close relation to what is to be done in the built environment, 5.5 provides a summary of what has been found thus far through the comparison of documents. The next step will be to proceed with testing them against the built environment of Zanzibar Stone Town, with the maps, which will be done in the later part of Chapter 5, starting with 5.6, a look at reality.

Attributes as Producers and Types

The representation of producers and types in the documents examined so far reflects a clear division between the international and the local level. International institutions and organisations produce international documents, while the government or its legal representative is the author of local legal instruments and policy documents. The Matrix (Appendix I) does not reveal that producers and authors of the international and local documents are to some extent often the same people (Appendix IV i).

Attributes as Conservation Activities

International policy documents generally have a broader approach to conservation than policy documents produced at local level. It should, however, be noted that neither repair nor reconstruction are mentioned in any of the documents although these two activities represent a majority of the actions taking place in historic cities in general and in Zanzibar Stone Town in particular.

Attributes as Objects to be Conserved

The *attributes* as objects accounted for in both international and local documents are broad even though the selection of documents is made with exclusive focus on architectural heritage (Figure 136). The objects range from *moveable and immovable heritage, trees, natural heritage and historic events to cultural practice, settlement structure and artistic objects*. The emphasis in international policy papers designed in the years between the *Athens Charter* of 1931 and the *Bruges Resolution* for conservation of smaller historic towns in 1975 is on *historical townscape, ancient monuments, historic sites, unique urban character and sites of significant development*. The international policy papers in the years after 1975 also include *attributes* important for heritage management such as *diversity, form, design, material, substance and cultural practice*.

The objects in the local policy papers do not distinguish themselves from the international documents up to 1975. At local level the year of adding new objects to the policy of heritage is 1994, meanwhile in 1975 there was a paradigm shift in *attributes* of objects in the international documents. At local level 1994 was the year of the *Stone Town Development and Conservation Authority Act*, the *Town and Country Planning Decree (Cap 85)* and on the international level 1975 was the year of the European Declaration of Amsterdam and the ICOMOS *Bruges Resolution* (1975).

Taking the history and the cultural and architectural diversity of Zanzibar Stone Town into consideration it is remarkable not to find *attributes* such as diversity, cultural fusion, historic event and symbolic importance embedded in the local policy documents.

Attributes as Threats to Conservation

The modern concept of heritage was founded in the second half of the eighteenth century. Along with industrial development in Europe the demand for a new and critical admiration of history arose. This shift occurred as the cultural landscape and historic objects disappeared in the process of industrialization (Jokilehto, 1999:17).

Even though the fading of historic and cultural objects is a natural event, the threats of serious degradation were more serious and defined in the years after the latter part of the eighteenth century.

Attributes as Management Tools

As is logical, the local policy documents are more focused on operational tools such as guidelines and action plans while the international documents focus on legislation and administrative actions. Both types of documents recommend establishing *financial assistance, community participation and dissemination* as common tools for an architectural heritage management (Figure 138). When analysing the policy documents at both local and international level, concern for *education, management, dissemination and community participation* are shown, in addition to an emphasis on *financial support*.

With the movement of internationalisation in the years after the First World War, the *Athens Charter* for the Restoration of Historic Monuments in 1931 points directly to pollution as one factor threatening heritage. Threats registered in the two types of documents are to be divided into three distinct fields. One is man-made destruction, another is the factor of time and climate and the third is provoked by lack of awareness and human impact, particularly in areas where social conditions are poor.

The conclusions drawn from the analysis are that practical experiences such as the impact of new construction and deterioration, modernisation and neglect, still provoke the largest threats to a sound and good architectural heritage management. In addition to these practical factors a new element of risk is highlighted in the *Hague Convention* (1954, 1999), namely terrorism and fundamentalism, which have caused irrevocable loss of architectural and cultural heritage.

When it comes to Zanzibar Stone Town, there is a wide range of *attributes* as threats to be considered. As well as pollution, neglect and climate, there is change in social and economic conditions, poverty and modernisation.

Attributes as Intentions

An increasing international collaboration in the field of cultural and architectural heritage is to be observed and a global responsibility for the management of cultural and architectural heritage is often expressed in local as well as in international forums. In the wake of the First World War and since 1931 with the establishment of the *Athens Charter* for Restoration of Historic Monuments many organisations and policy documents in the field of conservation were launched. More or less all of them claim the necessity for strong and capable local and regional management and authorities. These are seen as being the aim of the documents and as decisive for obtaining an excellent heritage management. The overall intentions of the local policy documents are to *empower local authorities* in charge of architectural heritage management and to *strengthen the awareness* of architectural heritage among the policy makers.

This analysis shows a clear *consciousness of community participation* and *strengthening of local authorities* in both types of documents (Figure 139 and 140). Although the recent trend in international policy documents is to focus on the more value-laden concepts such as identity, democracy, sustainability, human values and the human dimension as their aim and intention, the local documents except for *Zanzibar Vision 2020* do not take these *attributes* into consideration.

5.5 Correlation and Analysis of Three Pairs of Documents

Among the selected documents there are three from UNESCO that mirror in their character both the global and the local level of cultural heritage management. These are: *Convention for Protection of the Cultural and Natural Heritage* (1972), *Our Common Future* (Brundtland, 1987) and *Justification for Inscription on the World Heritage List* (2000).

Three policy papers at local level respond to these international documents (Fig. 132): *Town and Country Planning Decree (Cap 85)* of 1994, *Zanzibar Vision 2020* (2000) and *Application for Inclusion in the World Heritage List of 1997-98* (1997).

International Policy Documents	Local Policy Documents
1. Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage, UNESCO (1972)	Town and Country Planning Decree (Cap 85), Zanzibar (1994)
2. Our Common Future, UN (1987)	Zanzibar Vision 2020 (2000)
3. Justification for Inscription of Zanzibar Stone Town on the World Heritage List, UNESCO (1999)	Application for Inclusion in The World Heritage List, Zanzibar (1998)

Figure 141

Six selected documents reflecting each other on international and local level.

1. Correlation and analysis of “Convention for Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage” (1972) and “Town and Country Planning Decree (Cap 85)” (1994).

Attributes as Producers and Types

The two documents have their legal status in common. All nations that have signed the *Convention* are obliged to follow its content. The *Town and Country Planning Decree (Cap 85)* was accordingly adopted in Zanzibar in 1994.

Attributes as Conservation Activities

Both documents regard *preservation* and *conservation* as the main actions to be taken. In addition, the *Zanzibar Town and Country Planning Decree (Cap 85)* also includes the action of *restoration*, while the *Convention* adds *protection*.

Attributes as Objects to be Conserved

The objects of the two documents are rather different. The main *attributes* of the *Convention* are rather broad, mentioning *natural and cultural heritage* in general and *ancient monuments* and *historic groups of buildings* as specific objects. The *Planning Decree* goes straight to *significant buildings of architecture* and to *zones and groupings of buildings*.

Correlating the *attributes* of the *Convention* with the architectural characteristics, there are some *attributes* that are relevant to the built environment. Like for example the importance of technical awareness.

The analysis reveals that the *Zanzibar Town and Country Planning Decree* is designed to meet the practical challenges of everyday life in the management of Zanzibar Stone

Town while the *Convention* by its very nature leans more towards global challenges. There are no identical intentions to be seen in the correlation of the two documents.

Attributes as Threats to Conservation

In registration of threats the *Planning Decree* regards *rigidity in planning* as the biggest threat. The *Convention* looks upon *pollution, garbage, terrorism, decay, changing of social and economic conditions* and *incomplete management* as the threats.

From the background of these analyses it seems that the international policy document has a broad approach to the concept of cultural heritage and is of an inspirational character to the decision-makers on the local level. It is however hard to trace any direct influence of the international documents on to the local documents.

Attributes as Management Tools

In the analytical search for management tools of cultural heritage no correspondence was found between the two documents. The *Convention* points out the importance of *legislation, technical awareness, moral enhancement* and *international cooperation*. Meanwhile the *Planning Decree* recommends *infrastructure* and *action plan* as tools for implementation.

Attributes as Intentions

Intentions: “*Zanzibar Town and Planning Decree*” is mainly to design and produce *guidelines*. Its character is that of an action-minded document. To the contrary, the *Convention* has a more preventive attitude, as in *preventing mistakes*, but it also focuses on *strengthening local authorities, local enhancement* and *enforcing administration*.

2. Correlation of the visionary documents: “Our Common Future” (Bruntland, 1987) and “Zanzibar Vision 2020” (2000).

Attributes as Producers and Types

During the process of decoding the documents a pattern of coherence quickly appeared. Both *Our Common Future* and *Zanzibar Vision 2020* are policy documents of a visionary character without being legally binding. *The World Commission on Environment and Development in 1987 launched Our Common Future. The Government of Zanzibar produced Zanzibar Vision 2020.*

Attributes as Conservation Activities

Our Common Future is in its context both conservative in taking stock of protection and conservation, and modern in embracing enhancement and revitalization. *Zanzibar Vision 2020* likewise relates to the more conservative actions such as preservation but puts more emphasis on actions such as rehabilitation, renovation and enhancement.

Attributes as Objects to be Conserved

When it comes to the objects addressed by the documents both agree upon *artistic objects* and *architectural heritage* as the main ones.

Attributes as Threats to Conservation

Pollution, new technology and migration are important threats mentioned in both the documents.

Attributes as Management Tools

A common emphasis is put on tools like *financial assistance, community participation, dissemination, long term planning and improvement of consciousness* in the management of architectural heritage.

Attributes as Intentions

In analysing the intentions of the two documents, it was found that the *Zanzibar Vision 2020* appears much more detailed and outspoken. Nevertheless both documents highlight *improvement of consciousness, sustainability, strengthening of regional policy, and control* as common aims and intentions. Even though there are additional elements to the *attributes* already mentioned, the conclusion is that there is a large measure of cohesion between the documents *Our Common Future* and *Zanzibar Vision 2020*.

3. Correlation of “Justification for Inscription on the World Heritage List” (2000) and “Application for Inclusion on the World Heritage List” (1998)

In listing Zanzibar Stone Town, UNESCO stated three criteria as decisive:

1. Zanzibar Stone Town is an *outstanding material manifestation of cultural fusion and harmonization*.
2. For many centuries there was intense sea-borne trading activity between Asia and Africa, and this is illustrated in an *exceptional* manner by the *architecture and structure of the Stone Town*.
3. Zanzibar has great *symbolic importance* in the suppression of slavery, since it was one of the main slave trading ports in East Africa and also the base from which its opponents such as David Livingston conducted their campaign.

Further, the Committee of UNESCO requested the Government of Zanzibar to clarify the co-ordinating and the supervisory role and to strengthen the Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority (STCDA).

Before proceeding to analyze the documents, it is necessary to pay some attention to the UNESCO justification for inclusion in the World Heritage List by decoding the document and correlating the findings and the reasons for enlisting Zanzibar Stone Town on the World Heritage List in 2000. This will make it easier to test the findings on the built environment, represented by selected buildings and sites.

To look for the counterparts of the *attributes* in the geographical registrations and the intentions in the policy documents, some questions arose: what are the architectural *attributes* referring to the *attributes* in the documents? Is it possible to correlate the “reading” of the built environment and the *attributes* in the documents?

Section 3

“Zanzibar is the last and best as well as the largest preserved living town testifying the evolution of Swahili civilization itself a product of many cultural streams and strong maritime economic transformation”²

The *Application* says that Zanzibar Stone Town is 1) *the largest*, 2) *the last* and 3) *the best living town of today* testifying the evolution of Swahili civilization.

To define the architectural objects which correlate within the two documents: *Justification for Inscription on the World Heritage List* (2000) and *Application for Inclusion on the World Heritage List*, it was necessary to define the architectural content of the largest, the last and the best, by returning to chapter 3.3.6. - The Concept of an East African Stone Town and chapter 4.2.2. - Zanzibar Stone Town of Today.

The architectural *attributes* relevant for correlation of the two documents are the selected *attributes* used in the process of making the concept of Zanzibar Stone Town and its correlation with other East African stone towns.

1. It is the *largest* in comparison to other stone towns on the East African coast like; Bagamoyo, Pangani, Tanga, Ujiji, Tabora and Lamu.
2. It is *the last* of the stone towns still having an urban fabric intact, although Lamu also has a functioning urban fabric.
3. It is *the best living town* (East African Stone Town) of today, certainly in comparison to Bagamoyo, Pangani, Tanga, Ujiji and Tabora, although Lamu is a splendid living town.

The conclusion is that the Zanzibar argumentation for why the Stone Town is worthy of being listed, is right. The Zanzibar Stone Town is larger and denser than all the others. It also has a broader scale of historic representation. No other stone town except Lamu has much urban fabric intact or is really a living stone town, and Zanzibar ranks higher on these criteria. It is the liveliest of the remaining stone towns on the East Coast of Africa.

In the analyses of the two documents only one common object appears: *Historical townscape*.

Architectural *attributes* corresponding to *historical townscape* are in the geographical mapping defined in accordance with morphological analysis, registering the embodiment of the built form and mapping of the spatial organization (Hakim, 1986:63) (Norberg-Schulz, 1985:91).

² Quote from the Zanzibar application for inclusion on to UNESCO's World Heritage List, 1994.

Attributes as Producers and Types

On the local level the authority in charge, the Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority, STCDA, is the formal producer of the Application for Inclusion (Chapter 4.5.2). On the international level the UN World Heritage Committee is the receiver and the manager of the application. In the procedure for managing applications, the World Heritage Committee refers to the relevant paragraphs of the World Heritage Convention and applies its six criteria for inclusion³. In the registration of *attributes* as types both are at the level of principles.

³ When the World Heritage Committee considers a property as having outstanding universal value and meets one or more of the following criteria, nomination and thereafter inclusion might be the result. The six criteria are as follows:

(i) represent a masterpiece of human creative genius; (ii) exhibit an important interchange of human values over a span of time or within a cultural area of the world, on developments in architecture or technology, monumental arts, town-planning or landscape design; (iii) bear a unique or at least exceptional testimony to a cultural tradition or to a civilization which is living or which has disappeared; (iv) be an outstanding example of a type of building, architectural or technological ensemble or landscape which illustrates (a) significant stage(s) in human history; (v) be an outstanding example of a traditional human settlement, land-use, or sea-use which is representative of a culture (or cultures), or human interaction with the environment especially when it has become vulnerable under the impact of irreversible change; (vi) be directly or tangibly associated with events or living traditions, with ideas, or with beliefs, with artistic and literary works of outstanding universal significance.

Justification for inscription: UN - World Heritage

Criterion (ii) The Stone Town of Zanzibar is an outstanding material manifestation of cultural fusion and harmonization.

Criterion (iii) For many centuries there was intense seaborne trading activity between Asia and Africa, and this is illustrated in an exceptional manner by the architecture and structure of the Stone Town.

Criterion (vi) Zanzibar has great symbolic importance in the suppression of slavery, since it was one of the main slave trade ports in East Africa and also the base from which its opponents such as David Livingstone conducted their campaign.

Brief description: The Stone Town is a fine example of the Swahili coastal trading town of East Africa. It retains its urban fabric and townscape virtually intact and contains many fine buildings that reflect its particular culture, which has brought together and harmonized disparate elements of Africa, the Arab region, India and Europe over more than a millennium.

Figure 142

In the statement of Inclusion on the World Heritage List the Committee pointed at three decisive criteria.

Attributes as Conservation Activities

In this part the Application specifically mentions preservation and conservation while the document of Inclusion mentions none at all.

Attributes as Objects to be Conserved

While the Application highlights the uniqueness and the historical aspect of the Stone Town and its surroundings, with the traditional structures being of great importance, the Inclusion from UNESCO points at the Stone Town's cultural fusion, harmonization and symbolic importance as the main factors for being listed on the World Heritage List. Both the Application and the Inclusion documents sum up the historical aspect of the townscape as being important.

Attributes as Threats to Conservation

The Application brings up a number of threats as obstacles to a sustainable management, such as new construction, pollution, deterioration, ownership, migration, poverty, lack of knowledge and climate. The UNESCO document does not take these factors into consideration however when listing Zanzibar Stone Town on the World Heritage List.

Attributes as Management Tools

The Application regards documenting as important for the future development of the Stone Town, while the Inclusion has no suggestions when it comes to tools of implementation.

Attributes as Intentions

There is also a divergence in the intentions mentioned in the two documents. The Zanzibar Application mentions several reasons for forwarding the application and for the Stone Town to be listed, as for example: improvement of the economic situation, improvement of the quality of life and increase of control. But both documents mention that strengthening local and regional policy and management are important for future development.

5.5.1 Conclusion of the Analysis of the Intentions

This section concludes on the analysis of the intentions found in the three pairs of documents.

The first conclusion gained from the analysis of these three pairs of documents is that the influence of international documents on the local documents is only vaguely observed, even though the international documents strongly emphasize that one of the aims of the documents is to enforce local administration and strengthening of local authorities.

Secondly, the local documents have a strong focus on the everyday challenges in the management of architectural heritage and therefore stress their aims to be more practical. These practical concerns include solving the transformation and new use of the building mass and concentration on conservation activities such as repairs, stagnation and reconstruction more than simply protection and conservation. These findings are further developed and explored in section 5.8.

5.6 Reality

Reality is in the thesis applied as a term in the registration of the built environment. The concept of reality is reflected in two idioms, one abstract and the other tactile and physical. This research operates at the meeting point between these two connotations and searches to define that borderline in reading and decoding the built environment. When Homer wrote his book *The Iliad* (Webster, 1958:82, 119) more than two thousand years ago he perfectly described the geography where the Trojan war took place. He reconstructed the reality when describing the regional landscape. In conserving cultural and architectural heritage some of the aims are the same. The genre of documentary films and reportages of today aims to reconstruct history, tell and illustrate how architecture, cities and sites originally were designed and how they functioned. Within natural science reality has often been conflated with causality and given exact values and countable numbers. Today a blurring landscape of reality is emerging. From being a matter of exact and valid truth the concept of reality is broadened to include experimental reality and virtual reality leaving the “old” reality with a label of conformity and stagnation.

Reality used in this research is represented by the registrations of the factual built environment in Zanzibar Stone Town. Decoding and analysing texts and documents is an accepted academic approach. “Reading” architecture as an analytical tool for the

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application of this systematic approach is more rarely used, the exception being the ILAUD (International Laboratory of Architecture and Urban Design)⁴ tradition and in the morphology movement of “reading”, which the analytical part of the geographical registrations in this thesis is built upon.

The architect Giancarlo De Carlo discusses, in the context of ILAUD (Architectural Review, 1994), the changes in the historic city of Urbino, Italy, based upon political decisions and refashioning in the latest style⁵. De Carlo describes the city of Urbino as one of the few towns adapting both Renaissance and modern architecture through a process of development in architecture and cultural continuity which enable people to be competent, and to be able to take a stand with some proof of what they are saying, referring to thoughts and research instead of handed-down definitions or stereotypes. “Continuity is an ambiguous, dangerous concept”, he says and recommend us to look for continuity in the process of development of architecture. Since change is continual, the expression of those ideas cannot be the same today; it has to be changed, he argues.

All signs of growth are important in the process of development. De Carlo (Architectural Review, 1994) argues that the memory of architecture is important, and that architecture has an unconscious permanence in the memory. “Architecture has a tremendous power to send out messages; it is a system of communication. You can destroy the building but keep the memory and the memory comes across in the process of building other buildings”. Creating a building is both like telling a personal story as well as telling a political and social story. The building is not able to tell a linear story only through hints.

It is hoped that by analysing and decoding texts and architecture, this thesis will contribute to understanding the reality represented by the built environment and to bring, according to Heidegger, “... hermeneutics from a theory of interpretation to a theory of existential understanding” (Mallery *et. al.*, 1987:6).⁵

In the process of digitalising the architectural *attributes* of the Zanzibar Stone Town an underlying spatial analysis appeared. Through the mapping of *attributes* a pattern of communicable *attributes* became visible and inter-operable across the two types of data, the documents and the architecture. The *attributes* appeared as: *Natural heritage, architectural and cultural heritage, historic sites, historical townscape, traditional architecture, groups of buildings, urban significant development, unique urban character, architectural sites, surroundings, cultural practice, uniqueness and material* (Figure 136). These parameters and their local architectural interpretations therefore became essential in the architectural registrations.

⁴ Architectural Review April 1979 Vol. CLXV, nu. 986 p. 211 – 214.

⁵ At Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Artificial Intelligence Laboratory there is an interesting discussion and research going on focusing on methods suitable for scientific inquiry in artificial intelligence. The discussions elaborate on new approaches based on the tradition of hermeneutics and try to make new paths in an old scientific tradition.

To decode the urban structure and describe the principles behind the architectural forms, functions and appearance of the buildings, it was necessary to design a set of parameters relating to the coding and decoding of the mediating *attributes*. The *attributes* in the geographical registrations describe the concept of Zanzibar Stone Town like a historic city. The objects referred to in the mapped registrations of the case study are those narrowing the *attributes* of the historic town down to the concept of a Stone Town. These registrations define elements in the geographical registrations that are specifically connected to the concept of a Stone Town-like urban character, land use, streetscape and building types. The registration of the architectural *attributes* is especially focused on elements of the architectural characteristics.

The registrations and coding of the built environment are based upon the methodology of GIS while the analysing and decoding part uses the morphological approach of “reading” architecture.

5.7 Zanzibar Stone Town - Registration of Attributes

The registration of *attributes* in the built environment was executed in relation to objects and according to the definition of the embodiment of the built form and its spatial organization (Figure 143).

In the registration of *attributes* as objects defining the case study as *a group of historic buildings* the mapping of the defined Stone Town area was necessary. The geographical registrations lean upon revisions during field studies in 2001, 2002, 2003 and 2004 and of the Lanchester maps from 1923, the *Chinese Master Plan* (1982), the maps published by the Government of the United Kingdom for the United Republic of Tanzania (1987) and the maps guiding the *Zanzibar Town and Country Planning Decree (Cap 85)* (1994). All these maps are in their turn founded on registrations dating back to 1846 by Guillain⁷ and 1895 by Baumann.

⁷ Information according to paper presented at the International Conference on the History and Culture of Zanzibar, 1992 by Professor Abdul Sheriff, Tanzania.

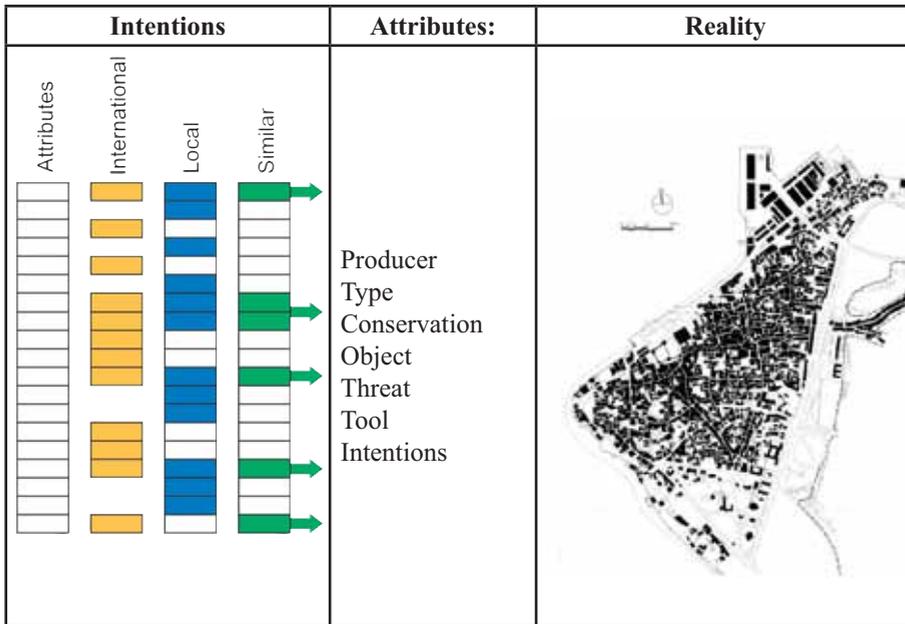


Figure 143
 The abstraction illustrates the process of analysing the two types of documents in relation to the selected attributes and their correlations with the built environment.

Attributes as Objects to be Conserved

The geographical *attributes* focusing on the objects of the built environment differs between a Swahili town and a stone town. Architectural and urban elements related to Swahili towns along the East coast of Tanzania: Bagamoyo, Sadaani, Tanga and Pangani and in the inland cities Ujiji and Tabora situated on the slave route from the coast to Lake Victoria⁸, are registered and decoded. (Figure 64)

The *attributes of historic townscapes* found in the documents are interpreted as *attributes* of objects in the built environment, namely the streetscape and streetscape elements, land-use pattern and ownership, building types, urban elements and classification of buildings.

The architectural *attributes* relating to characteristics in the built environment are registered according to the “reading” of the registrations in the empirical mapping materials. The architectural *attributes* are selected according to the Norberg-Schulz method of reading and the morphology approach of Hillier (1999) and Hakim (1986). Correlating *attributes* in the mapping of the built environment and in the Matrix of

⁸ During the spring term 2002 Division of Architecture and Development Studies arranged a field study in Tanzania where eight of the students followed the slave route from Tabora to Bagamoyo. This study project registered and described various inland Swahili towns, their differences and similarities in architectural characteristics, location and infrastructure (Helsing *et.al.*, 2003).

the documents are: *a group of historic buildings with a symbolic importance and a unique urban, multicultural and harmonious character and a traditional structure* (Figure 136).

In “reading” the built environment (4.2.3) it has been important to document the *attributes* showing *a unique urban character with groups of historic buildings and a symbolic importance representing a multicultural and harmonious character and traditional structure*. To obtain a useful reading of the case study some additional *attributes* have been necessary to decode such as: *land use, building ownership, new construction and alterations, conditions of buildings and conservation grading of buildings*.

Attributes as Conservation Activities

To establish the content of conservation activity in Zanzibar Stone Town registration and mapping was done of the graded buildings from I to II (Appendix II) executed by the local authorities in cooperation with Aga Khan and UNESCO, as well as of the buildings that are classified as significant and areas that represent important streetscape elements according the local authority STCDA (Appendix VI b).

Attributes as Objects to be Conserved

In the mapping process of the *attributes* of objects, registration of types and classification of buildings according to their cultural influence (Appendix II vi) (Figure 136) and the land-use of today (Appendix II iv) in connection to land-use and zoning (Appendix II v) were registered. To be able to conduct the reading of the built environment according to a morphological analysis, registration of the town’s spatial organisation (Appendix II viii and Figure 144) was also necessary.

Attributes as Tools of Management

Tools in heritage management are, according to the coding of the selected documents, operational instruments like documenting, administration, dissemination and participation. *Attributes* in the built environment able to match these sets of tools are new buildings and alterations (Appendix II ix), ownership (Appendix II vii) and conditions of buildings (Appendix II iii).

Mapping of new buildings and alterations gives a picture showing in which parts of the city the new investments take place and according to the *attributes* of threats, would illustrate where the threat factors appear. As illustrated in the map, the activities of new buildings and alterations take place all over the city.

As described in Chapter 4.2.3, Figure 107 and Figure 108, controlling of new building and alterations is the responsibility of the Building Brigade the officers of which investigate their respective areas twice a week and report to their head of section (Figure 119).

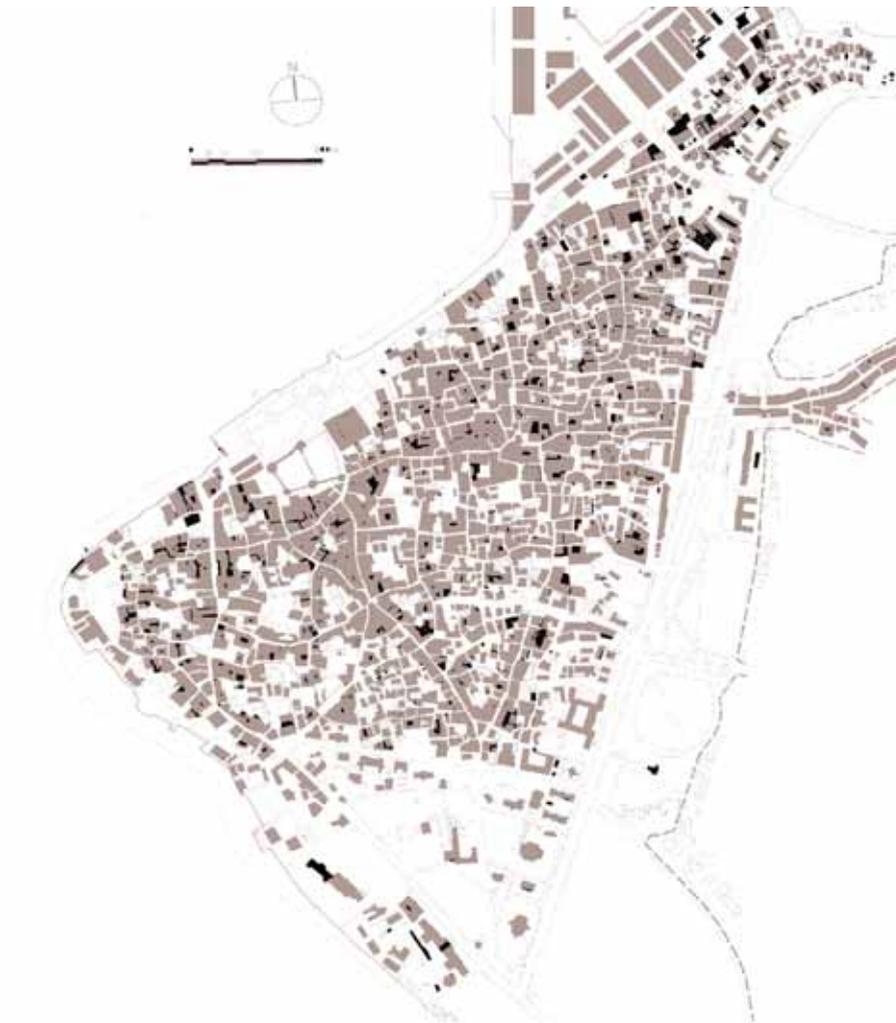


Figure 144
The map illustrates the Streetscape and the Spatial Organization of Zanzibar Stone Town.

The division of the registrations into the three categories does not give a clear-cut definition of where they belong. The *attributes* often overlap categories and are sometimes difficult to separate according to their content. In defining the *attributes* as objects, it was necessary to localise streetscape elements like monuments and significant buildings in relation to open areas. The mapping shows a scattered picture of objects referred to as monuments and significant buildings, even though these objects mapped as monuments are large and dominating, representing as they do trade, religion and power. Under the label of significant are built structures like units of identical houses, defined building structures, houses with significant representation from special periods or demonstrating special architectural influence. Because of the

density and the compactness of Zanzibar Stone Town the definition of the green open spaces as contrasted with the narrow streets is clearly registered. As seen from the map these areas are mainly found along the seaside and on the outer part of the Stone Town.

In general, Zanzibar Stone Town today contains five distinct building types: Simple Arabic, Arabic with Indian influence, Large Indian, Small Indian and Contemporary and Colonial (Figure 145 and 104). In addition there are some scattered reminiscences of the Swahili type of house.

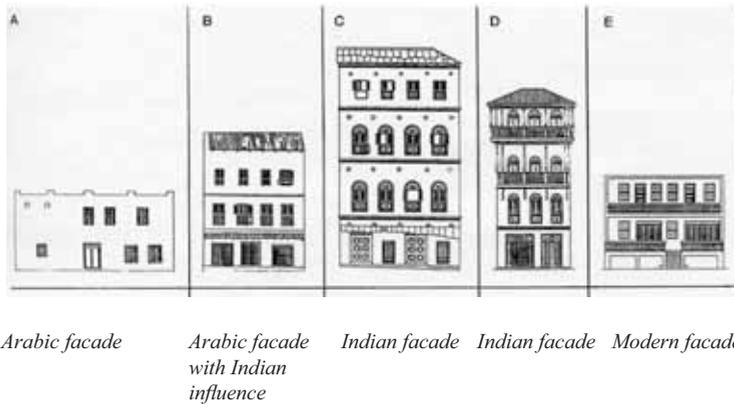


Figure 145
Representation of building types in the Old Stone Town of Zanzibar

When registering the building types certain areas with common typologies appeared (Appendix II vi). Most of the Indian-influenced buildings are situated in the inner part of the city away from the coastline. In contrast, the Arabic-influenced structures are scattered on the inside of the city and concentrated along the seafront, while the contemporary and colonial influenced buildings are located in the outskirts of the city, on the seafront and in the green open spaces. Due to family structure and culture the land-use pattern is an important characteristic *attribute* in an Islamic city. The registrations of land-use tell the story of the urban design, the socio-cultural structures and the composition of activities such as business, religion and dwelling. In Zanzibar Stone Town that is designed on Islamic building traditions, the patterns of land-use (Figure 105 and 106) and significant buildings (Figure 104) are closely linked together (Figure 146 and Appendix II viii).

In Zanzibar Stone Town ownership is complex. Due to history and religion there are layers of “ownership” which means that ownership has no simple interpretation. The native customary law and normal African habit of owning is understood as “right to use, to plant and build”. With the settlement of the Arabs and the Omanis in the early 1830s the Muslim religious organisation Waqf was established and functioned according to Islamic law as a trustee for God’s resources on Earth. Ownership in a Western meaning was implemented in Zanzibar along with the British Colonial system

that issued titles and property ownership documents. Before the Revolution in 1964 private and governmental land ownership existed. With the Revolution the Government expropriated more than 90 percent of the buildings. Still today the Government is the owner of the most of the buildings in Zanzibar Stone Town although the opening for the return of the Arabs that escaped under the revolution has seduced some of them to return and invest in the city.

5.8 In Search of Architectural Evidence

The research in this section is searching to exemplify the influence of Policy Documents on the management and the architecture of Zanzibar Stone Town.

5.8.1 Correlation of Attributes as Objects

When registering and analysing the documents and the built environment of Zanzibar Stone Town, the *attributes* as objects found are comparable. At a large scale the Stone Town consists of groups of historic buildings with a unique urban character and a symbolic importance that represents a multicultural and harmonious character and a traditional structure (Figure 146).

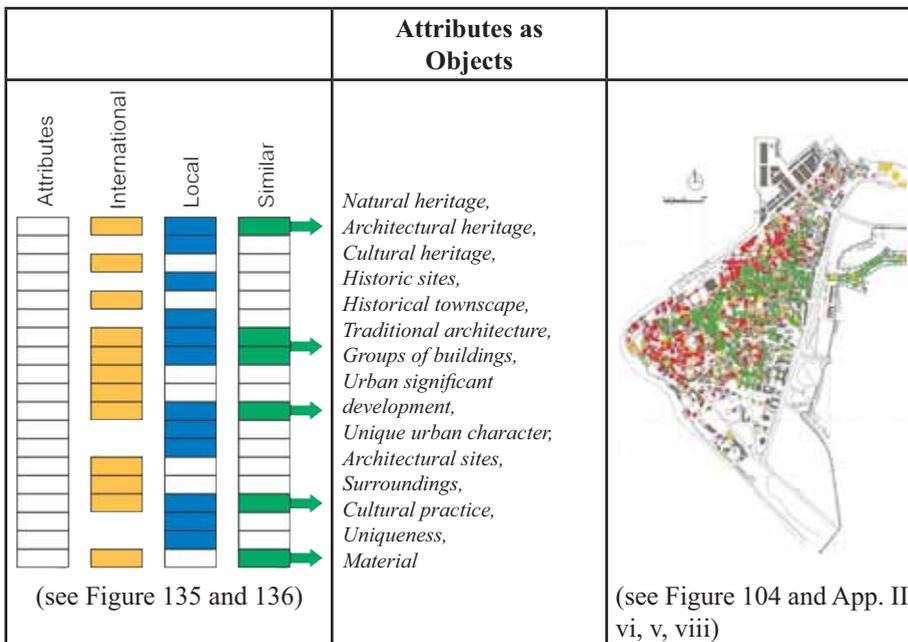


Figure 146

The figure illustrates the correlation of Attributes as Objects found in the Policy Documents and registered in the built environment of Zanzibar Stone Town.

5.8.2 Correlation of Attributes as Management Tools

Correlation of Attributes as Management Tools in the documents and in Zanzibar Stone Town is executed in the testing of the *attributes* as Management Tools on to the architecture and the management of Zanzibar Stone Town.

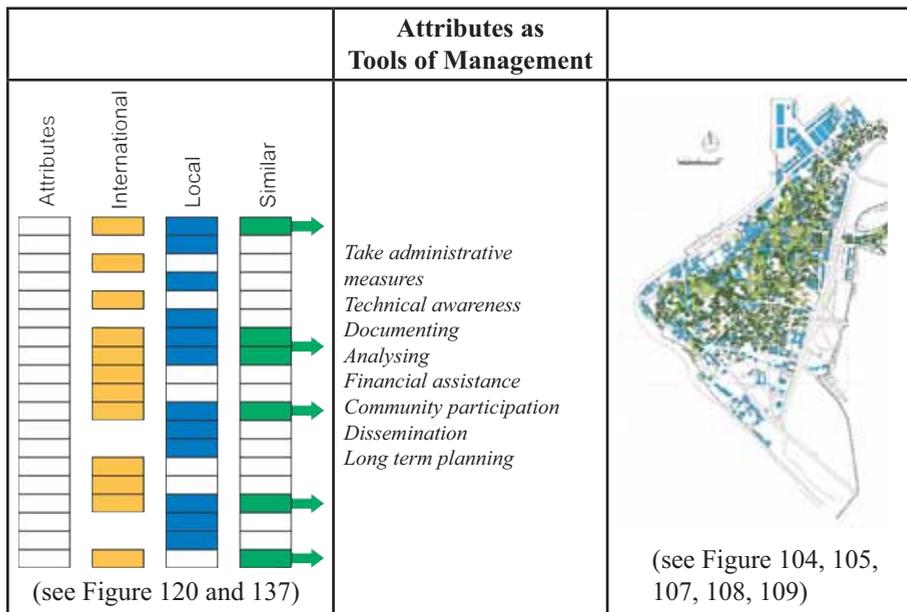


Figure 147
 Abstraction of the testing of Influences of attributes as Tools of Management found in the policy documents on the built environment of Zanzibar Stone Town.

Figure 150 shows the process of correlating *attributes* in the documents to reality. Of the identical *attributes* as management tool in the policy documents: *take administrative measures, technical awareness, documenting, analysing, financial assistance, community participation, dissemination and long term planning*, none except *take administrative measures* are found exemplified by the STCDA. The actions taken by the implementation of the building inspectors’ routines are reflected in the built environment and so is the lengthy and detailed bureaucratic handling of applications and implementation of the plan of action.

5.8.3 Correlation of Attributes as Intentions

Correlation of Attributes as Intentions in the documents and in Zanzibar Stone Town is tested by searching for identical and similar aims and intentions found in the documents and tested on the Zanzibar Stone Town: *improve consciousness, prevent mistakes, strengthen local authorities, enforcing administration, sustainability, create and strengthen partnership, strengthening of regional policy, transformation/new use, identity, increasing the quality of life, create control, enhance positive interventions, counteract negative trends* (Figure 148).

				Attributes as Intentions		
Attributes	International	Local	Similar	<i>Improve consciousness</i> <i>Prevent mistakes</i> <i>Strengthen local authorities</i> <i>Enforcing administration</i> <i>Sustainability</i> <i>Create and strengthen partnership</i> <i>Strengthening of regional policy</i> <i>Transformation/new use</i> <i>Identity</i> <i>Increase quality of life</i> <i>Control</i> <i>Enhance positive interventions</i> <i>Counteract negative trends</i>		
(see Figure 139 and 140)						(see Figure 109)

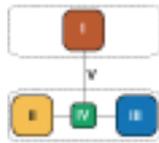
Figure 148. *Intentions and Reality. The figure illustrates an abstraction of testing the intentions onto the reality of Zanzibar Stone Town.*

Even though STCDA, the authority in charge of managing the Stone Town, has the legal mandate and the formal tools needed for sustainable heritage management, few results are seen in the physical structure of the built environment. According to the analysis of the registrations and mapping of the built environment of Zanzibar Stone Town and correlation of the influential *attributes* found in the policy documents, reality seen in the built environment matches the *attributes* as intentions in the policy documents only in the areas and on buildings where international organisations or private investors have been involved (Figure 149).



Figure 149 *None of the three buildings are renovated by governmental means or support. All three houses are restored and renovated by private and international organisations.*

5.8.4 Correlation of Attributes as Intentions and Reality



To test and explore the findings of the analysis three areas representing the *attributes* as intention in Zanzibar Stone Town are selected: Hurumzi, Sokomhogo Block I and Sokomhogo Block II (Figure 150).



Figure 150
The three selected areas for testing of attributes; I Hurumzi, II Sokomhogo Block II and III Sokomhogo Block I.

5.8.5 Hurumzi

Hurumzi is representative because of its diverse architectural representation as well as urban streetscape elements, differentiation of ownership, conditions of buildings, new buildings and alterations (Figure 151).

A unique urban character is represented in Hurumzi by its compact building blocks consisting of both Arabic- and Indian-influenced buildings, characteristic facades of Indian shop-front row houses, carved doorways and small but open public places (Figure 152, 153 and 154). *Groups of historic buildings* are represented by the building block. A *symbolic importance* is present in the history of the architectural representation and *harmonious character* is seen in the unity of the complex building types and architecture that constitute and form the area.

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When considering the aspect of *taking administrative measures* on the site, STCDA has demanded the private renter of house no. 234a to support all renovation and conservation actions with relevant *documentation* and future plans. However, it is difficult to define exactly what the real driving force is in this rather successful process, whether STCDA or the building leaser. Luckily, in this case the building leaser is a *skilful* person with a deep understanding of the character of the Stone Town and private *financial* sources. *Community participation and dissemination* in this case is made through oral information taken care of by the private building leaser and the STCDA - Building Brigade in charge of the Hurumzi area. The *attribute of long time perspective* is settled in the leasing contract with the Ministry.



Figure 151
a) Hurumzi area.



b)
Building no. 234a. Ground floor.

The renovation, conservation and restoration in the Hurumzi building block has been taken care of and influenced by both external and international, private and public enterprise except for the open space in front of building no. 234a, which is a result of deterioration of buildings in the early eighties. Since then the place has been transformed into an open “playground” and meeting place by the local people. (Figure 123 and 124).



Figure 152
The facade of building no. 234a..



Figure 153
House no. 234a – with an Indian-influenced entrance door and an Arabic-influenced façade of simplicity.

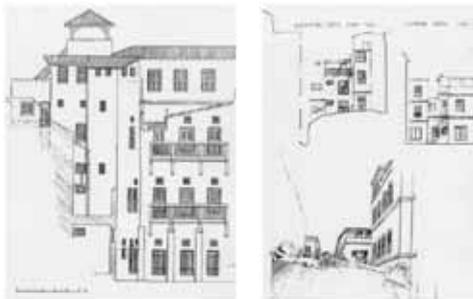


Figure 154
The drawings document house no. 234a being in rather bad condition in 1982.



Figure 155
The photo taken in 2004 shows major ongoing repairs.

Building number 234a in Hurumzi is chosen as one of the test cases because of its constellation of Governmental ownership combined with private leasing as well as because it is part of a typical building block in the densely populated area of Hurumzi.

5.8.6 Sokomhogo Block I

Sokomhogo Block I (Figure 156) is a typical mix of shopping and residential blocks and shows the same absence of local awareness and community participation in the architectural objects being restored, renovated and conserved. External, private enterprise has been in charge of the improvements here as well. In addition the building block is a very good example of the “dark/light” (Figure 89 and 156) appearance of

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the Stone Town that to tourists and strangers walking in the narrow streets gives a dense and dark attitude but to the people familiar with the town, aware of the hidden and open structures in the backyards, appears light and green.



Figure 156
Sokomhogo Block I illustrates a mix of architectural characteristics and building types.

Sokomhogo Block I is also a typical representative of a Zanzibar building block having a dense population and a variety of architecturally characteristic buildings, streetscape elements, ownership and land use (Figure 156).



Figure 157
The pictures illustrate a typical characteristic of Zanzibar Stone Town: outdoor public life and the indoor intimacy.

The development of the area is illustrated with the horizontal and vertical extensions exemplified by the Indian shop-front row houses that in time have grown from one to two stories and had their plans extended by the inclusion of backside courtyards (Figure 158).



Figure 158
Extensions in Sokomhogo Block I towards the back side facing into the garden.

The area is also representative of the type of development of these building blocks, with the open courtyard being redesigned and inhabited (Figure 158).

5.8.7 Sokomhogo Block II

Another area appearing in the geographical mappings of the Stone Town was Sokomhogo Block II, representative of the shift in land use patterns. The first registration of land use in the area appeared in 1958, the next in 1982, the third in 1993 and the last was conducted in relation to the fieldstudy in 2002. Figure 160 shows the movement of concentration of shops in the area from 1958, where the East side was mainly dedicated to shops, up to 2002 where these activities have shifted to the West side, while the building structure of the block has remained unchanged during these years (Figure 159).



Figure 159
The figure illustrates the dense streetscape of Sokomhogo.

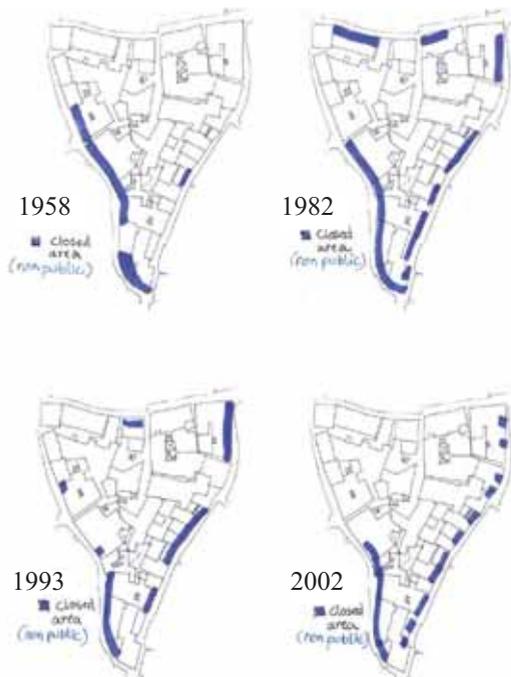


Figure 160
The illustrations show the shift of closed (dark lines) and opened shops in Sokomhogo Block II during the years 1958 to 2002.

The shift in the use of the buildings changed from being densely crowded with open shops, workshops and flats in the late fifties to the early eighties when almost all workshops were closed and few activities took place, until 2002 when activities again took place in the area, workshops reopened and people moved back into the block.

5.8.8 Summing up of the Influences of Attributes

In house 234a in Hurumzi area the *attributes* of intention (Figure 148) are taken care of due to the skill and financial ability of the private renter of the building and the dialogue between the leaseholder, the representative of the STCDA Building Brigade and the Director General of STCDA. The leaser has actively involved the inhabitants in the area during the process of renovation by taking note of their skills and knowledge. He has also during the process consulted the local management authorities and obtained the necessary notes and recommendations.

Sokomhogo Block I

According to the correlating *attributes* as intention (Figure 149), influence of the local policy documents is seen in the Sokomhogo Block I as illustrated by the way that parts of the renovation are performed in cooperation with the STCDA Building Brigade. Due to some of the renters of the houses, the consciousness among the inhabitants is improved. Because of the rich representation of building types in Sokomhogo block I the quarter is an example on diversity and harmonious character.

On the contrary the extensions of the Indian shop-front row houses in the Western part of the area represent a bad but typical example of how rooms being added to building units in a haphazard way depends simply on money and available materials (Figure 158). The backyards are occupied with building elements constructed in grey concrete blocks covered with rusty corrugated iron sheets. This type of uncontrolled extension transforms the inner green structures of the building area of public and half-private open spaces into small wastelands often filled with litter and garbage or sometimes changed into privatised local bars and businesses that create a new, unrestrained inner structure.

Due to the many renovation and repair activities of the quarter the identity of belonging to this area is remarkably high. The streetscape element of an open public place – Joes Corner (Figure 157) – is an obvious factor increasing the quality of life in the area and creating its identity. It is anyhow remarkable that the two buildings in the quarter that are renovated and repaired in the most proper way are taken care of by a private investor and by an international organisation. Few if any traces are seen of improvements or conservation activities under the charge of the local authority, even though its representatives are frequently seen in the building block.

Sokomhogo Block II.

The closed structure of the Sokomhogo Block II and the diversity of small-scale business that take place in its front houses make the built structure complicated and hard to “read” (Figure 162). Due to the closed outer structure except for the small shops and workshops at the front of the buildings, it is almost impossible for people not living in the quarter to enter the inside of the block or to imagine its planning structure. The identity of the place as a business and workshop quarter has been kept since early 1920. In the process of renovation and repair the private owners more or less take their own initiatives without consulting the local authority STCDA or taking their notes into consideration. Apart from that the inhabitants of the quarter seem to live a reasonably good life with their homes built to an appropriate standard. The contradiction seen in this area is that the continuous dynamic of life there functions as a stabilizing force, preventing too big changes of use of the buildings and allowing space for a step-by-step investment.

5.9 Summary of Intentions and Reality

In decoding the policy documents the findings show that strengthening local authorities, enforcing and improving local and national administrations and responsibilities are common goals. Still, when testing the intentions against the results seen in the built environment, only the buildings and the areas where international actors or NGOs have been in action correspond to the intentions found in the policy documents.

Another finding from the geographical registrations of Zanzibar Stone Town is that remarkably few, if any, of the urban structures are *conserved, renovated* or *restored* according to the *attributes: community participation* and *strengthening of local authorities, awareness* and *sustainability*, seen in the policy documents.

Although all recommended instruments are available for a sustainable management of Zanzibar Stone Town the espoused outcome in reality is seldom seen except as a result of projects and in areas where international organisations or private external owners are present.

6 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter concludes the findings of the thesis and constructs a proposal for a concept of design for sustainable architectural heritage management in the future, built on *attributes* that have emerged and been tested in the search for intentions and reality. The chapter also elaborates on the experiences gained from this research on sustainable local heritage management. Finally it tests the findings against the assumptions and carries out an evaluation of the approach.

6.1 Knowledge Gap – Issues Addressed

This study starts out with a set of questions and a main assumption: there is a difference between the intentions in architectural heritage policy as reflected in the documents policy produces, and the results observed in the built environment. This assumption is reflected in the title of the thesis:

**Intentions and Reality - in Architectural Heritage Management
In Search of the Influence of International Policy Documents on
Contemporary Sustainable Local Heritage Management
Case: Zanzibar Stone Town, Tanzania**

The questions raised (2.1.1) are elaborated and answered in chapter. 6.2. Through the analysis as presented in the matrix of policy documents on the international and local level and the correlation of their influences on management of architectural heritage of Zanzibar Stone Town some crucial *attributes* for achieving sound management have emerged (Figure161). These will be discussed in this chapter by illuminating the various *attributes* within the Matrix. The model of influence illustrates that some of the *attributes* as intentions are more reflected in the local context than others. Out of the 19 *attributes* found in the international policy documents only 13 match the local documents

Correlation of Attributes as Intentions

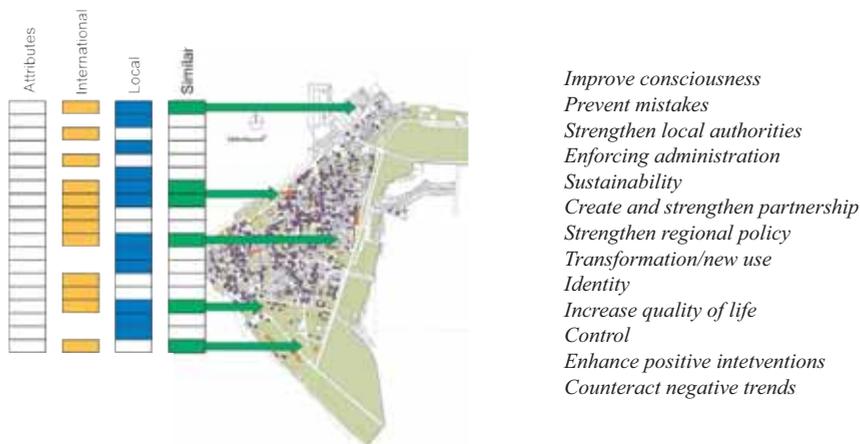


Figure 161
The Figure illustrates the selective process of attributes as intentions.

1. *Sustainability*. In searching for the concept of sustainability within cultural heritage policy documents only *Our Common Future* (Bruntland, 1987)¹ and the *Istanbul Declaration* (1998) take the subject of sustainability in cultural heritage management into consideration. *Our Common Future* emphasises citizen participation in decision making as one of the main criteria for sustainable development. In addition, the *Johannesburg Declaration* (2002) on Sustainable Development and the *Habitat Agenda* (1996) highlight the aspect of sustainability in policy and management. By initiating the Sustainable City Programme at the World Urban Forum, Barcelona, 2002, important support for the implementation of sustainability as a permanent aspect of management and planning was introduced.

The World Summit on Sustainable Development (2003) enhanced the importance of active participation of African countries in all forums in the discussion of sustainable development. The New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) (www.nepad.org) established in the new millennium is a commitment by African leaders to implement Agenda 21. Paragraph 64 of the Strategy Paper of the Partnership states the intention to: "Support Africa's efforts to attain sustainable tourism that contributes to social, economic and infrastructure development".

2. *Improving of consciousness* takes place in different ways through hands-on practical experience and by observing and disseminating good examples, through public participation and by including topics in policies. Raising awareness is a long-term objective that needs skilful planning on many levels, but it is vital to be able to achieve decisive sustainable development management.
3. *Strengthen local authorities* is a criterion emphasised in ten of the 15 international documents. Oddly this factor, crucial for sustainable development, is only found in two of the eight local documents. In the research on Zanzibar Stone Town in the three selected areas it was found that strengthening of local authorities is often not apparent in practice because when structures are renovated and conserved in accordance with internationally accepted standards, this happens when carried out by international and private organisations or private owners that consult external expertise. The local input is thus either minimal or not present on a vital higher level requiring knowledge and skill.

Even though the system of Building Brigades was implemented many years ago and is, in principle, an excellent instrument to control and guide contractors and owners, lack of respect at local level is a problem and the knowledge of the Brigade Inspectors is often ignored. Further, the members of the Building Brigade (see 4.4.1) are paid very poorly, but legally empowered to compensate for their low income by acting as consultants to the public by designing infill buildings or renovations. This causes a conflict of interest between the role of Building Inspector and the role of designing architect or engineer.

¹ Quoting *Our Common Future* (Bruntland, 1987:9) "...sustainable development is not a fixed state of harmony, but rather a process of change in which the exploitation of resources, the direction of investments, the orientation of technological development, and institutional change are made consistent with future as well as present needs".

Inevitably public trust in government institutions is weakened when the same people responsible for submitting applications are responsible for approving them, and for issuing penalties for non-fulfilment of local building by-laws and regulations. Sitting on both sides of the table does not strengthen the image of the local authority itself and this arrangement should be changed.

4. *Enforcing the administration of heritage management* in Zanzibar Stone Town relies on knowledge, capacity, respect and national policy. The staffing of the local authority – the STCDA (Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority) – and its legal status is by any standards formally adequate for its purpose. It is, however, crucial to its task for STCDA to acquire staff with the capacity to enforce its legal powers. Some examples from the fieldwork in the Stone Town show an internal lack of respect for STCDA, with local politicians requesting agreements authorised by this local authority which is in charge to be set aside.
5. *Create and strengthen partnership* – this is important both between local authorities, private contractors, private owners and the community and also between the relevant national and international organisations and institutions. Through the programme *Africa 2009* (3.4.2) partnership with relevant international authorities is established and the programme recommends local participation. According to the report from the *Africa 2009* Programme much still remains to be done on a local level. The strongest partnerships apparent today are those where civil servants are either recruited from or sponsored by the private sector such as the Aga Khan Institute or other international collaborative agencies such as Sida (Swedish International Development Agency) or ICCROM (International Centre for Conservation in Rome). This could lead to a situation of greater reliance on the STCDA staff in the local government of Zanzibar and among the public, provided that these improved skills and knowledge were appreciated on a political level. Further, disseminating the knowledge gained through these strengthened partnerships is needed to improve local capacity.
6. *Strengthen regional policy* demands awareness at the level of policy making. However, policy making in Zanzibar is often just a struggle for resources and for priority between different demands. Despite dependence on mainland Tanzania the Government of Zanzibar has its own advisory and legal instruments for the management of Zanzibar Stone Town. There is, however, little regional co-operation even though the legal instruments are similar. In considering all the Swahili urban structures situated in Tanzania and in neighbouring countries the local management of Zanzibar Stone Town would certainly be strengthened by expanding regional partnerships and exchanging know-how.
7. *Transformation and new use* is a duality in that it applies both to the object being changed and the transformation itself. Transformation and new use of heritage sites and objects is mentioned twice in the international documents and four times in the local documents. It makes up a large number of the renovation activities in Zanzibar Stone Town and has a considerable impact on the area. It is also highlighted in the documents studied in detail. Transformation and new use in sustainable resource management is a design challenge, representing

changes in culture and land-use that lead to contemporary infill. This appears frequently to be more of a destructive than a beneficial force. Management of transformation and new use demands not only highly skilled civil servants but also special competence among politicians.

An obvious example of such transformation in Zanzibar Stone Town is the change in the character of the small-scale shops. They have transformed from being locally-run workshops into shops often run by short term migrants with little concern for the long term development of the area. Both of these aspects, change of use and change of ownership, mark the streetscape in total and the individual elements of the streetscape in an unfortunate way. Further one of the most challenging factors related to new usage is the changes in residency that took place in the years after the Revolution in the Stone Town when, in 1964, people from villages and outlying areas were given free passage and free “leases” of houses in the city. In this process unfamiliar building structures were transformed to adapt to different domestic habits. Inadequate repairs (or at times no repairs) were carried out as the new inhabitants were unfamiliar with the materials and construction types, lacked resources or perhaps even the will to maintain the area in its entirety.

8. *Increase quality of life* should in all aspects be the overall goal and intention of policy documents, legal documents and local as well as international management. Improvements in life quality can be measured in a variety of ways according to the relevant agreed standards in different fields. In Zanzibar Stone Town life quality has obviously improved during the past decade in education and provision of public services, both of which improve everyday life. Nevertheless, modernity brings conflicts: more cars ease transport problems but also increase pollution and traffic hazards. Rising incomes lead to investments in household goods that place pressure on electricity supplies, water supplies, drainage and all public infrastructure. This *attribute* is fundamental to the concept of sustainability, as, in the quest for equality entailed in the social and political revolution 1964 was the giving of cultural heritage to the poor and ex-slave African population. Their right to partake of and to manage that heritage must be central to the population’s quality of life, their identity and thus to sustainable local heritage management.
9. The *attribute of control* is closely linked to local administration, authorities and the legal instruments available. The Building Brigade which, for the moment, does not always function in the most desirable fashion should properly execute control. Increasing its capacity and defining its tasks more accurately would help to reduce the risk factors and thus strengthen the local authority. The tasks that the Building Brigade carries out today are contradictory and by no means healthy in the context of sustainability. The purpose of the Building Brigade and the tasks it undertakes need to be clarified.
10. *An awareness of local identity* is decisive in raising awareness and strengthening local participation. Historically the built characteristics of the old Stone Town were unmistakable and gave the town a strong identity, but after the 1964 Revolution this was severely compromised. As Zanzibar Stone Town becomes revitalised and incomes increase, the reputation of the town improves and

notions of identity are important as a commodity to increase land and housing values.

The divergence between intentions and reality in architectural heritage management on a local level can be directly traced to a lack of responsible involvement both by politicians and the local community. According to the observations, registration and analysis of local heritage management the contradiction between intentions in the local policy documents and reality is clearly linked to the lack of local professional management, shortage of skilled craftsmen and lack of political will and awareness.

There are insufficient resources available for the tenants to maintain an acceptable level of conservation and too little awareness among the politicians of sustainable development in conservation management. The obvious change in cultural behaviour patterns relating to ways of using space and knowledge of traditional building maintenance are two decisive factors influencing the sustainable management of Zanzibar Stone Town.

11. *Counteract negative trends.* Lack of knowledge often leads to unintended wrong use of materials and techniques in heritage management and conservation. By increase of knowledge and awareness through “study circles” and by dissemination of good examples, negative trends in the development of heritage management would be prevented. The increase of private contractors taking part in the renovation of Zanzibar Stone Town demands a specific policy and convincing guidelines and not least a reliable local heritage management.
12. *Enhance positive interventions* is taken to mean bringing these to public and political awareness through increase of knowledge and other incentives, including using good examples that show improvement in the living conditions of residents. The national and local heritage management policies must be consolidated as consistent public policy that is well known and thus inspires people towards social inclusion and re-conceptualisation of identity related to Zanzibar Stone Town.
13. *Prevent mistakes.* Production of knowledge in the “study circles”, combined with an interdisciplinary approach based on publicly defined and consolidated policy for heritage management, will create awareness and knowledge that minimise mistakes in use of materials, repairs and poor decisions.

6.2 Testing the Findings against the Assumptions

In concluding this research it is relevant to evaluate the approach to see if it has provided useful insights. Therefore a process of testing the findings against the research questions and the assumptions is essential. The answers to the questions raised (2.1.1) emerged through the analysis.

1. Do the various documents produced by international organisations and external experts have any impact on the management of the Stone Town?

Finding: Yes, to some extent. Not with direct impact but as sources of inspiration.

2. If so, are these influences to be observed in the built environment itself?

Finding: No, the influences of conservation are not to be observed in buildings in the charge of the local municipality.

3. If not, why?

Finding: Due to lack of political understanding, budgetary priority and the lack of public skill and knowledge.

4. Is the local community involved in cultural heritage management plans?

Finding: Not regularly.

5. Is the cultural heritage policy of Zanzibar Stone Town consistent with sustainable development?

Finding: No

6. Are there sufficient resources available for the management of the Stone Town?

Finding: Resources in the shape of legal tools: plans, legal instruments and the local municipality are present on all levels

The thesis started out with the following assumptions:

1. There is too little awareness among local politicians about the importance of architectural heritage management.
2. Sustainable development in architectural heritage policy and management is not adequately addressed, either at international or at local level.
3. There is a great difference between the intentions in architectural heritage policy documents and the results observed in the built environment.

According to the findings the first and second assumptions were confirmed. The third assumption was however not fully confirmed and was revised during the research process because the intentions of policy documents were observed in the management of Zanzibar Stone Town, however only where international organisations, private institutions or external owners were involved. This observation resulted in a revision of the third assumption that had to be divided into two separate assumptions.

Assumptions four and five were therefore added:

4. There is a great difference at local level between the intentions found in policy

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documents versus reality seen in the management of the built environment in the Stone Town.

5. The influence of international charters, policy documents and international organisations is to be seen in the management of the built environment in Zanzibar Stone Town.

The research proved that the fourth assumption was correct. According to the analysis and the findings in the three selected areas in Zanzibar Stone Town the fifth assumption was also confirmed. Finally, a sixth assumption was added:

6. New design criteria for obtaining sustainable architectural heritage management are needed.

This assumption on re-thinking and designing new criteria for architectural heritage was visually tested in Chapter 5.4 and concluded in Chapter 5.7. These underlined the necessity for re-thinking architectural heritage management and demonstrated that a new approach to developing policy on an international as well as at local level is required. The thesis started out assuming that there might be a recognisable influence of international policy documents to be found in local documents. However, little or no influence was observed in the heritage management of Zanzibar Stone Town (Figure 162).

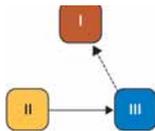


Figure 162

The diagram illustrates the assumed influence and link between international policy documents and organisations and local policy documents.

The study demonstrates that the desired influence of international policy, as expressed in the documents the international community produces, does not flow through to local policy documents. And when it comes to the buildings themselves, traces of these intentions can occasionally be seen in isolated buildings that have been renovated in co-operation with international donors or organisations, but on the broader level of tasks carried out by local authorities the influence is negligible, not least because of limited resources (Figure 163).

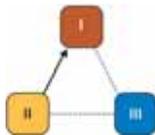


Figure 163

The figure illustrates the findings of this research showing that there is little or no influence from international policy documents to be found in the local legal instruments and policy documents. By contrast, a direct influence from international policy documents is to be seen in architectural objects that are conserved and restored by international or external organisations.

6.3 Reconsidering of Architectural Heritage Policy

Based on this background of the analysis, the findings and the conclusions of the thesis, it is due time to reconsider cultural heritage policy and re-design of international heritage policy documents both at international and local level. To achieve the intention of sustainable management, policies and practice at all levels have to be reconsidered – international as well as local.

This research leads to two main conclusions. On the one hand, it is concluded that international heritage policy makers must design a policy much closer to, and in accordance with, regional and local needs. On the other hand, management at regional and local level needs increased levels of professional competence, greater self-reliance and decision-making capabilities in order for these management structures to become skilful and strong managers of their own cultural and architectural heritage. Equally, politicians must be aware of the importance of sustainable heritage management.

Further, the need to re-think architectural heritage management is linked to the environmental aspect of sustainable development. The various international policy documents on heritage highlight the concept of sustainability in management, and introduce the need for new approaches, new tools of operations and new management design concepts. While international and local documents do include the socio-cultural reasons as to why architectural heritage management is important, environmental threats are not perceived to be in the same category as socio-cultural aspects. This research shows that most political and management actions are guided by a “learning by doing” approach. The research finds that the toolkit at local level is first and foremost appropriate to local needs and the basic principles of architectural heritage management derive from specific local conditions. This indicates that a “bottom up” approach should be promoted with regard to a sustainable heritage management (Figure 164).

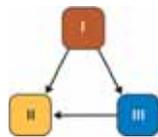


Figure 164

The diagram illustrates the demand for a “bottom up” approach of architectural heritage policy that meets the needs of the local communities.

6.3.1 Project Proposal

Project Proposal for Sustainable Architectural Heritage Management in Zanzibar Stone Town

Before finally concluding this chapter a brief outline will be given of the sort of project that, using the knowledge gained from this research, would be appropriate for Zanzibar Stone Town. This type of normative prescription is appropriate for a thesis in architecture, which is one of the “making professions”, and emerges with clear logical links from the train of thought and methodologies employed in this research. The project proposal utilizes all existing parameters currently established by the STCDA.

There is an established instrument in the form of the STCDA and its Building Brigade that constitutes a tool for *improving of consciousness, preventing mistakes, strengthening of local authorities, enhancing administration, sustainability, creating and strengthening partnership, enhancing identity, increasing quality of life, enhancing control, enhancing positive interventions, and counteracting negative trends* (Figure 140 and 161). The project envisions using only existing instruments available to the STCDA, which is indeed endowed with all the necessary legal powers to execute sustainable architectural heritage management of the Zanzibar Stone Town.

“Study circles”², led by the Building Inspectors, would be established focusing on defined areas in each of the six sections (Figure 165). This would create six junctions of knowledge as a starting point. Gender equality is important as women, due to their function in the family unit, are most knowledgeable about their own houses and the need for repairs and are those who handle the daily management of the dwelling. The study circle would focus on learning repair and maintenance and developing sufficient skill to be able to differentiate between serious technical problems to be solved by professionals and those to be taken care of by private means. Major technical problems should be routinely reported to the Building Brigade and its inspectors.

The *attribute* of *identity* related to the architecture of Zanzibar Stone Town would be addressed through issuing certificates of having passed a “Take care of your property” course and through putting up public announcements of these.

The *attribute* of *sustainability* would be addressed through setting up of new study circles after the first ones, to carry out the same procedure until all households would have participated in the study circles. Since the need for maintenance is continuous the system of study circles should continue on a regular basis indefinitely. The *attribute* quality of life would be addressed by providing a small grant and a government loan on favourable terms for maintenance and repairs to those certified as caretakers through the “study circles”.

² “Study circle” in this thesis is used in the “Nordic Way” which means that groups of lay people are guided by a tutor or an instructor (Building Inspector) either appointed by the group or by somebody else. The group studies certain subjects, discusses and elaborates on how to deal with them and is guided through the learning process by the instructor.

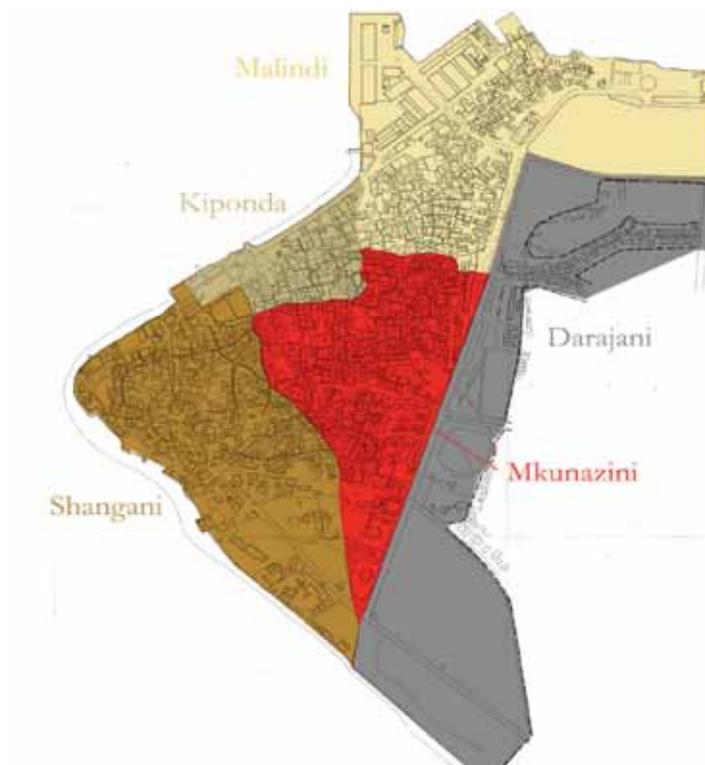


Figure 165
The study circles are based on the routes of the Building Brigade.

The *attribute of strengthening of administration* would be addressed by making the administrative part of STCDA the initiator of the project and its *controlling* body and every new circle would need to be approved by the STCDA project group. Where new buildings are to be erected or extensions added to existing buildings the design concept should be approved at a senior level by qualified staff.

Buildings to be repaired should also require approval of materials and technology to be used in accordance with the STCDA *Conservation and Design Guidelines* (1994) and the *Stone Town Conservation Plan* (1993) (Appendix II iv). Because of the lack of relevant education the *attribute prevent mistakes* might be one of the most challenging *attributes* for the Building Brigade to fulfil. A plan for capacity building of the staff is necessary to increase standards of relevant education to prevent the mistakes so frequently documented in the fieldwork. Further, particular focus should be placed on enabling the Building Brigade Inspectors to fulfil their tasks in accordance with the guidelines mentioned above.

6.4 Conclusions

Based on the analysis of the architectural heritage management policy documents at international and local level, the conclusion is that the policy documents do not specifically require a commitment to sustainable development of architectural heritage, nor do they adequately frame a vision of sustainability. Fourteen percent of the selected international documents, as well as *Our Common Future* (Brundland, 1987) focus on the aspect of sustainability at management level but only 12.5 percent of the local policy documents state the importance of management for sustainability.

What is highlighted within the policy documents is capacity building, international cooperation, strengthening of local authorities as well as specific actions to be taken regarding the choices between traditional conservation, restoration, protection and rehabilitation. Few of the intentions and aims of the international policy documents are to be found in local policy documents except for the STCDA Act No 3 of 1994 and the Zanzibar *Application for Inclusion on the World Heritage List* (1997- 98).

In sum it is the conclusion of the analytical findings that focus has shifted from a global concern for the future to an action-oriented approach in international policy documents. This shift of focus would be excellent if local governments and politicians were sincerely concerned about the importance of sustainable heritage on a long-term basis and staffed with qualified civil servants backed up by the political system. Regrettably the excellent aims and intentions are not mirrored in the management of the built environment. Management of architectural heritage should not be a way to earn quick money, but a platform for re-conceptualisation of local identity, coherence and self-reliance for long-term sustainable management and development. Heritage management ought to be an integral part of the movement for sustainable development. Thus, whilst international bodies have a role to play in formulating long-term goals and visions, this does not filter down to local level sufficiently to promote coherent sustainable management (Figure 166).

The experience gained through this research is that the development of heritage management at local level is derived neither from international policy documents nor local documents. The knowledge is acquired through daily life experiences and hands-on practice. Progress in heritage management can only be achieved when integrated into demands for a better life, improvement in social conditions, strengthening of local authorities and an understanding of the importance of local identity. At local level international policy documents function as a source of inspiration and as guidelines rather than global demands and commitments. International policy documents that should be sources of inspiration are disregarded at local level for two reasons (Figure 166).

Firstly, the action that takes place at local level is characterised by learning-by-doing so that steps are small and local. Recording these small steps, archiving them and summarising them is beyond the capacity of small, understaffed and under-qualified local administrations. Secondly, local administrations lack the skill to refer this practical

experience back to the international bodies to influence the formulation of policy. Increasingly the gap between the fine intentions of the international bodies becomes distant from the local action on the ground. The onus is on international bodies to access feedback from the users of international policy documents. International policy documents must result in relevant operational tools designed to serve local needs.

6.5 Quo Vadis? Suggestions for Further Studies

For the development of architectural heritage management the road ahead has at least six junctions.

1. There is a lack of good examples for the development of methods bridging the gap between policy documents and critical and constructive heritage management, not only at local level but also on a global scale.
2. Policies on sustainable architectural heritage management are challenged by new planning methods and integrated conservation. This demands a rethinking of the planning process and a redesign of the concept of cultural and architectural heritage management with a profound basis in local needs and public participation.
3. The third junction is the lack of knowledge production within the field of architectural research and the need to develop a theoretical and scientific framework that would be useful in developing an architectural toolbox of approaches containing an architectural ground for design criteria. Encouraging research in the field of architectural heritage and preparing for community participation on a large scale with a long-term perspective are other decisive factors.
4. Sustainable management demands 1) knowledge production and 2) knowledge management.

These issues demand the attention of actors and participants within the field of cultural and architectural heritage management to emphasize knowledge production, research and to build a more positive attitude towards public participation as well as government responsibility. Research in student projects, expert statements, analysis of international policy documents, local policy documents and actions together with the research in this thesis all suggest that political willingness and local awareness are not enough to achieve sustainable cultural and architectural heritage management. This must be reflected in local allocated budgets and actions, and in increasing the competence and participation of civil society and local management.

5. The top-down international approach needs to change to a bottom-up approach based on local experience and local needs.

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6. There is inadequate dissemination of knowledge and research in a way that is useful, that both benefits and appeals to politicians, civil servants, the public and specialists.

Attempts are needed to close this gap and make the political intentions come closer to the real outcome through a sustainable and conscious capacity building at all levels of society.

The thesis tests whether there is a recognizable research toolbox within the field of the “making professions” or not. The research gives no clear answer but there are indications that operational tools – though scarce – do exist. They are also not available to those needing them most: the local authorities that are in charge of the practical pursuit of sustainable architectural heritage. In the process of re-thinking sustainable development and research new concepts and demands arise through new clusters of networks of trans-disciplinary cooperation and as new parameters demand a new approach and new tools of operation.

The fact that Zanzibar Island due to its fertility and access to sweet water has a tradition for being self sufficient, does not exclude poverty and social exclusion. In fact the majority of the inhabitants of Zanzibar Stone Town has a rather low if any income at all. Improvement of the physical conditions and a sustainable management of the historic Stone Town will undoubtedly improve the life and the living conditions of its inhabitants as well.

Due to the increase of pollution, lack of knowledge or awareness and abuse of cultural and architectural heritage there is unfortunately no sign of a decrease in the deterioration of the built cultural heritage. A global and local lack of awareness at the political level leads to ineffective management. A future of sustainable cultural and architectural heritage still seems far away in many countries. Most of the voices and debates emphasizing the importance of safeguarding our common cultural and architectural heritage are in non-governmental forums. There is a need for closer formal cooperation at local and international levels, among policy makers, researchers, responsible authorities and the community ³.

³ The report; *Our Common Future* – World Commission on Environment and Development (Brundtland, 1987:9) comments strongly on the unhealthy separation between those responsible for management and protection of the natural and environmental resources and those raising the banners of awareness and action; “...the institutions facing those challenges tend to be independent, fragmented, working to relatively narrow mandates with closed decision processes”.



Figure 166
An abstraction of the conclusion illustrating the proposed “bottom up” and locally-anchored model of influence.

Administering sustainable cultural and architectural heritage policy and management demands close cooperation between those in control of the resources of societies at local and international level. The discussion of a sustainable cultural and architectural heritage has to be integrated into international and local policy discussions on the same level as the economy, tourism, trade and environment. It also has to be integrated into urban planning as one of the most natural elements of sustainable urban planning.



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8 APPENDICES

Appendix I Matrix

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- ii The Universal Declaration on Human Rights (1948)
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- iv The Venice Charter (1964)
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- vi Planning Statement and Regulations, 1994
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- viii a, Zanzibar Vision 2020, 2000
- viii b, Comments on Zanzibar Vision 2020

Appendix V Approach

- a Grounded Theory
- b Geographic Information System – GIS

Appendix VI Organigram

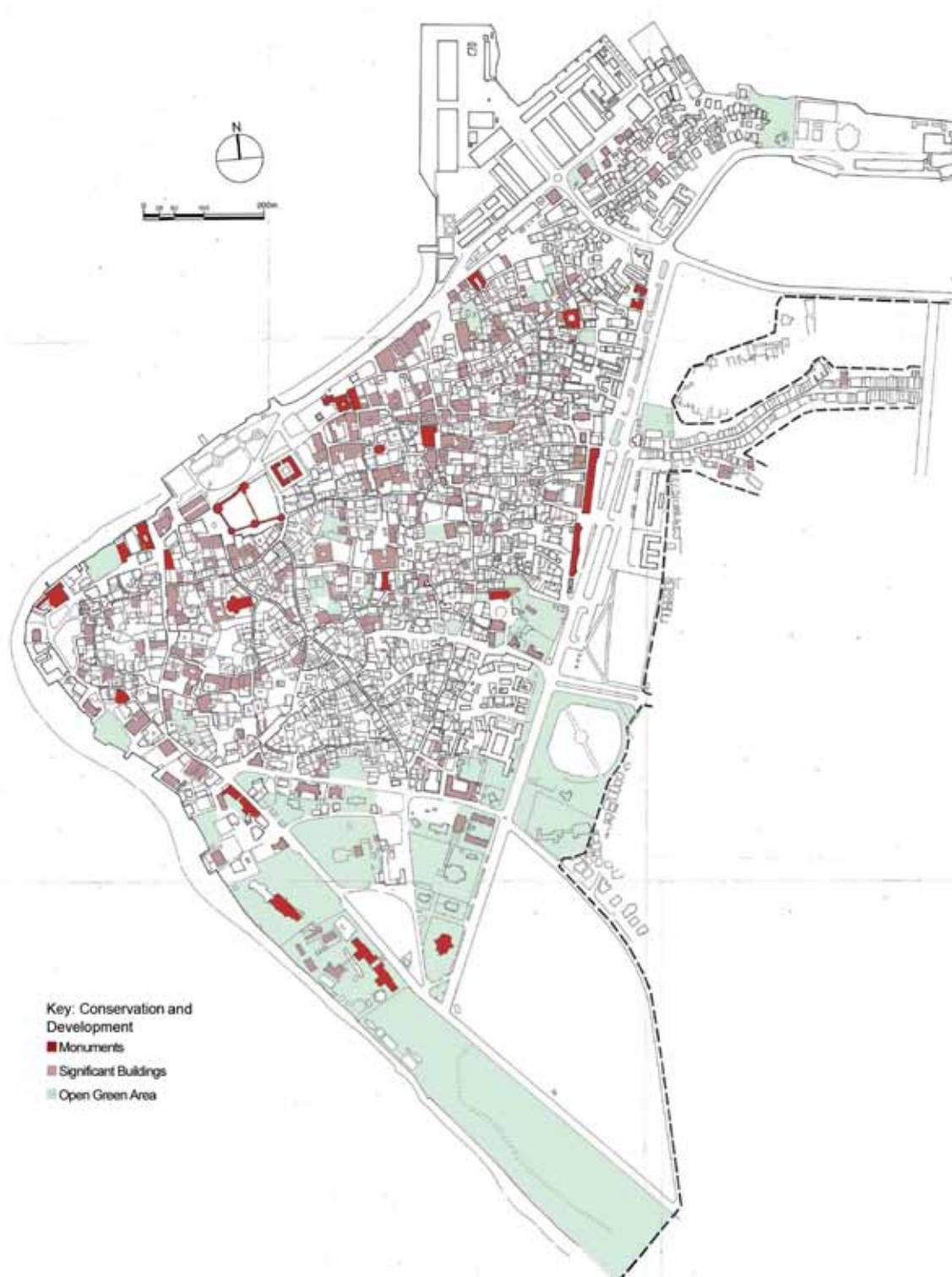
- a. Organigram of MWCEL
- b. Organigram of STCDA

Appendix VII Figures

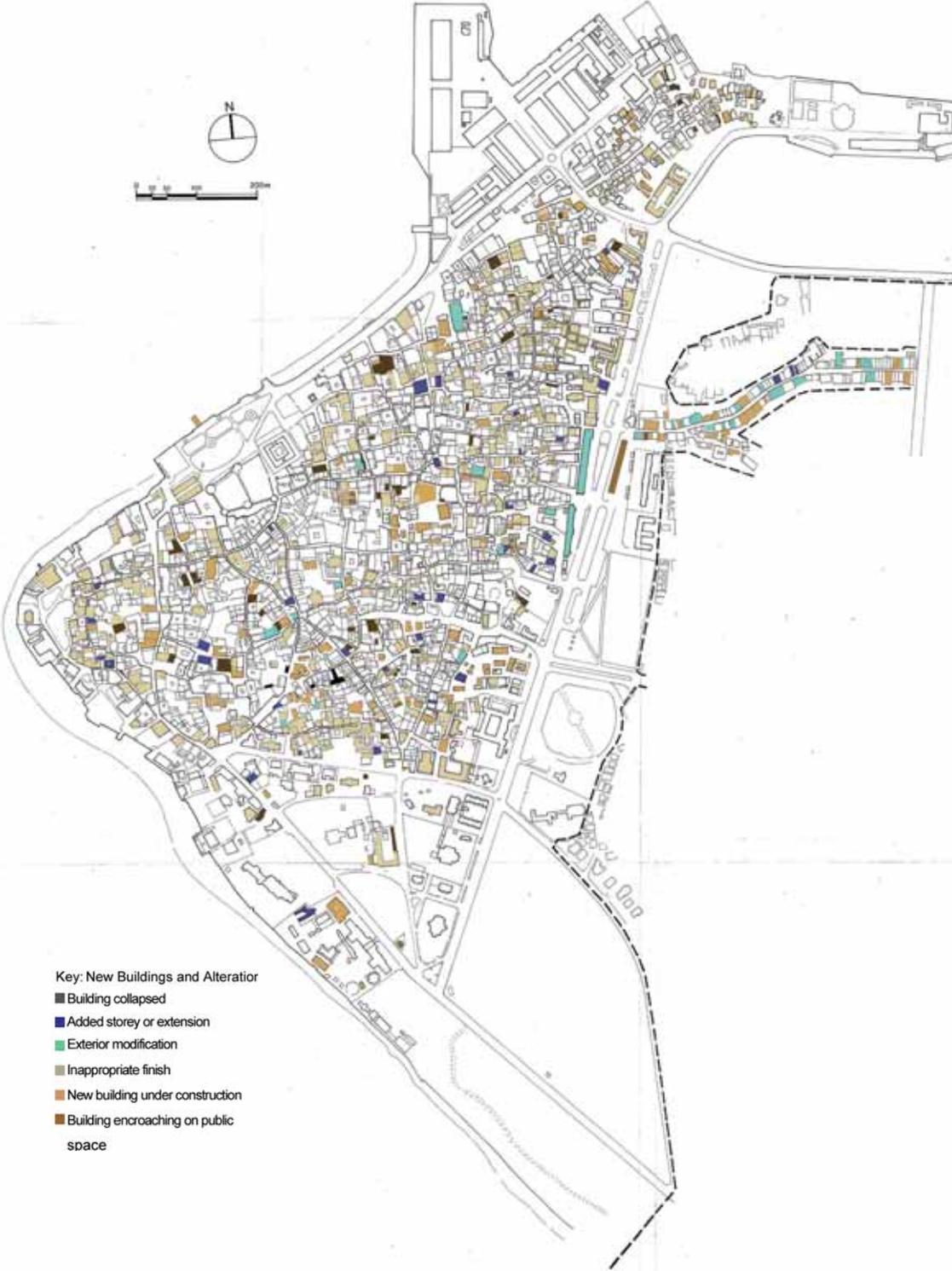
If no sources are given the figures are the work of the author.

Appendix I Matrix

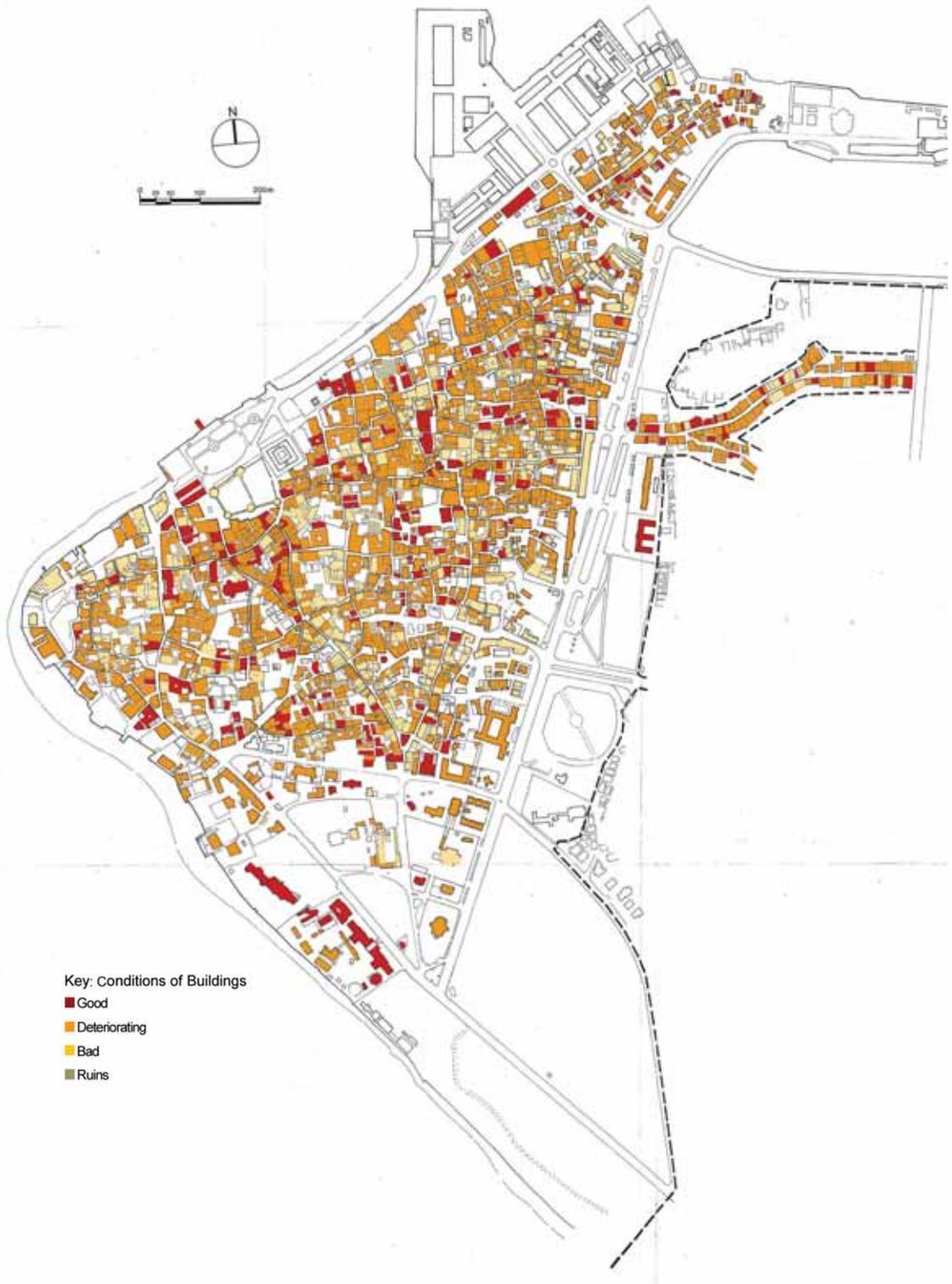
Appendix II i Conservation and Development



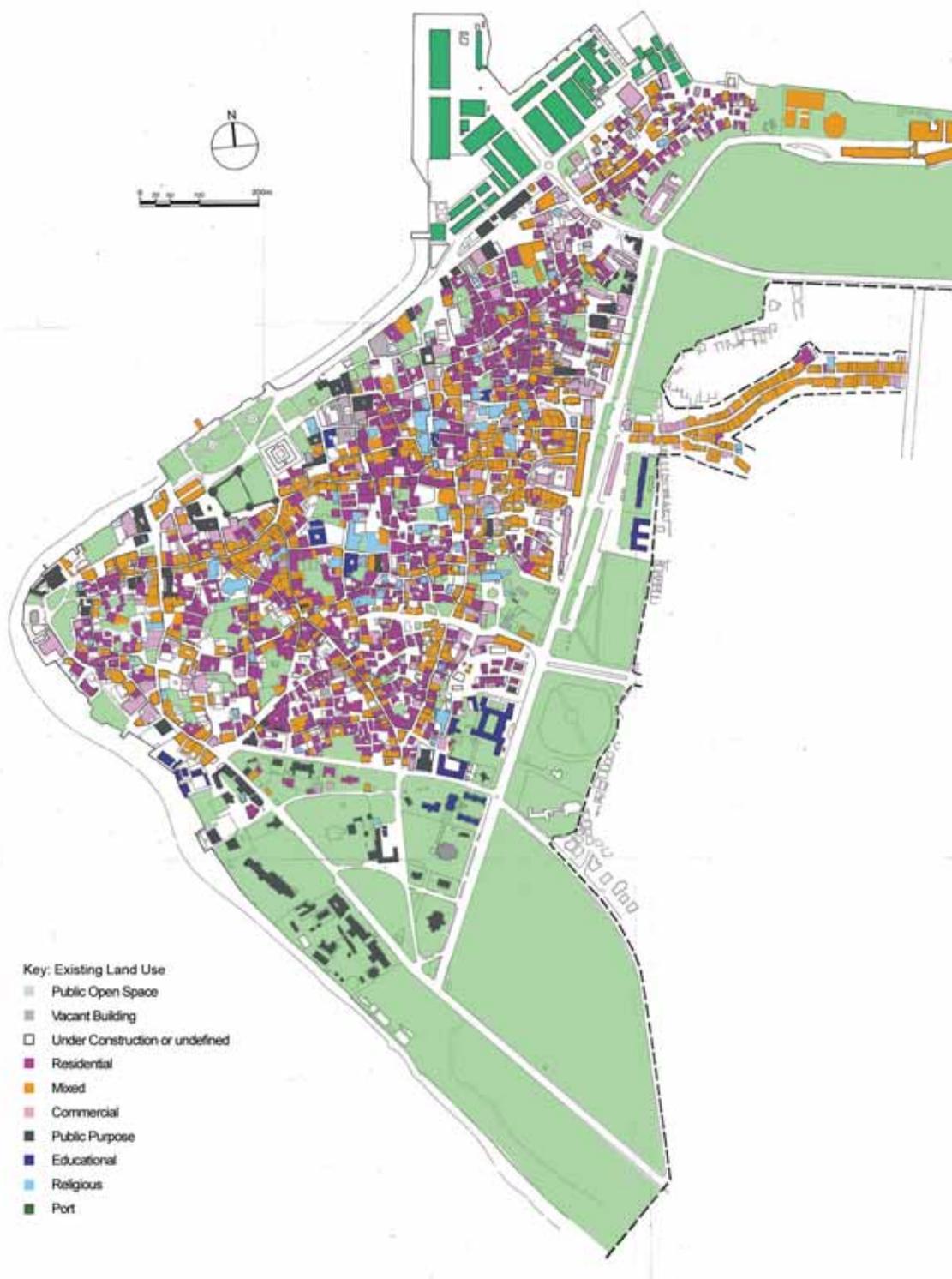
Appendix II ii. New Buildings and Alterations



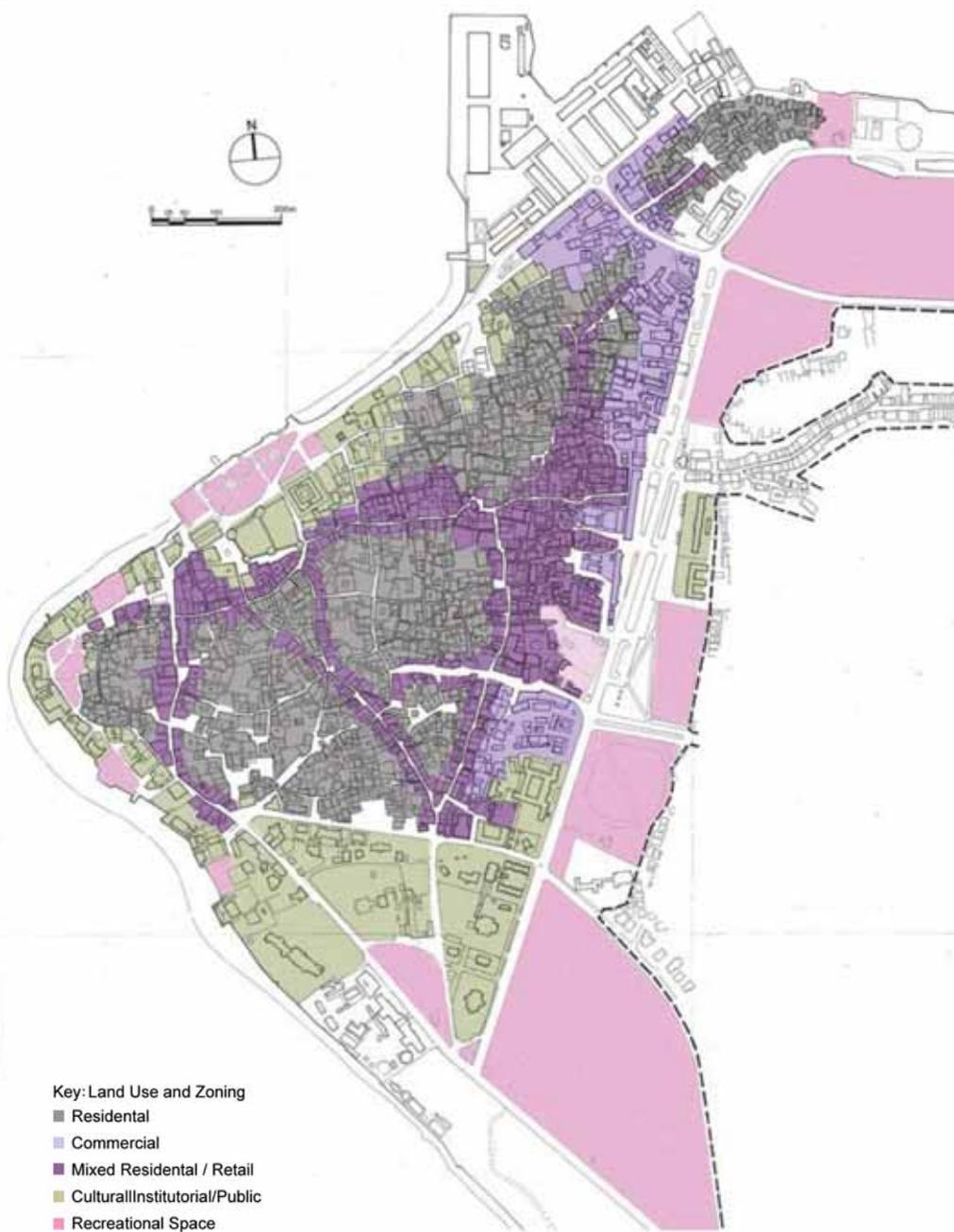
Appendix II iii Condition of Buildings



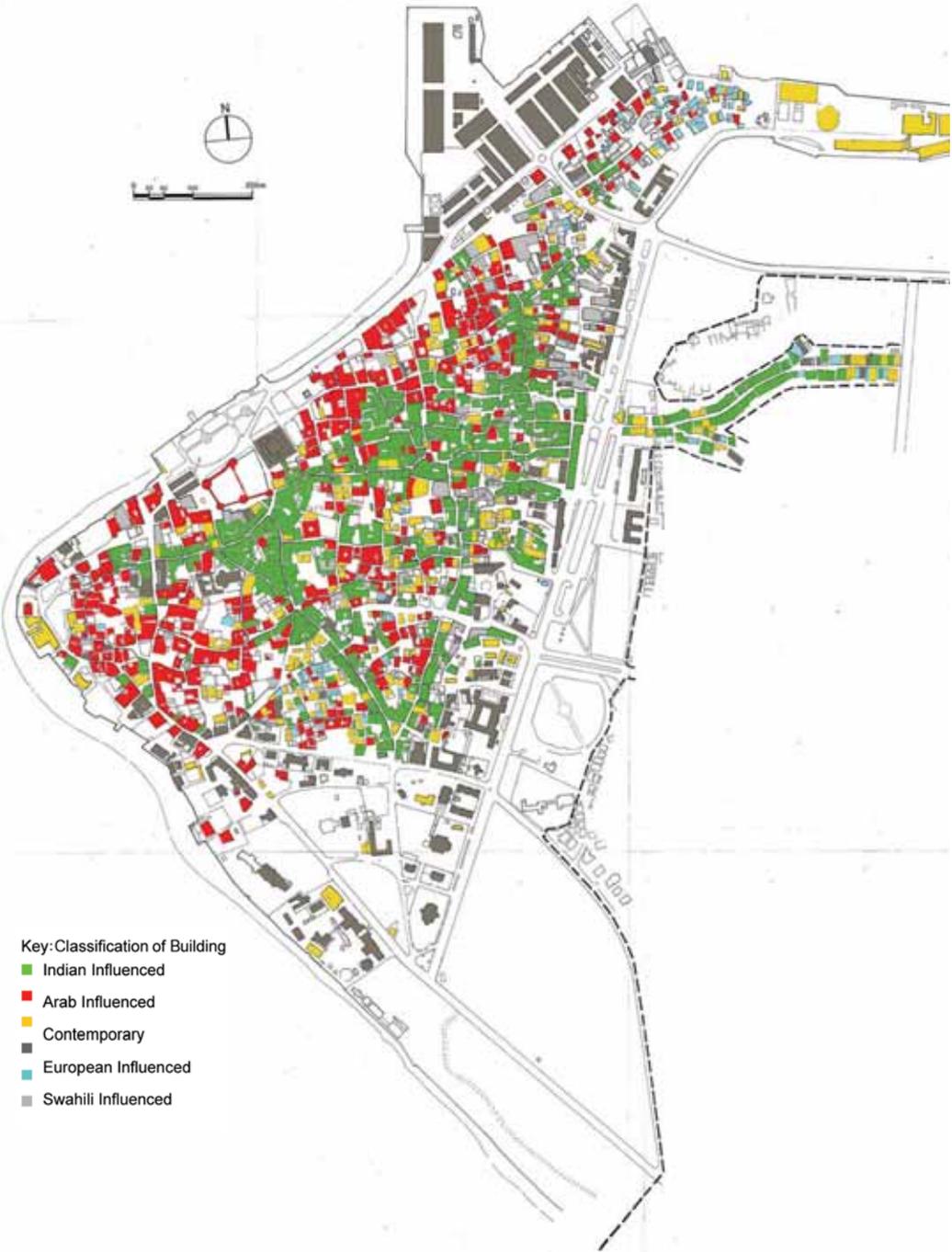
Appendix II iv Existing Land Use



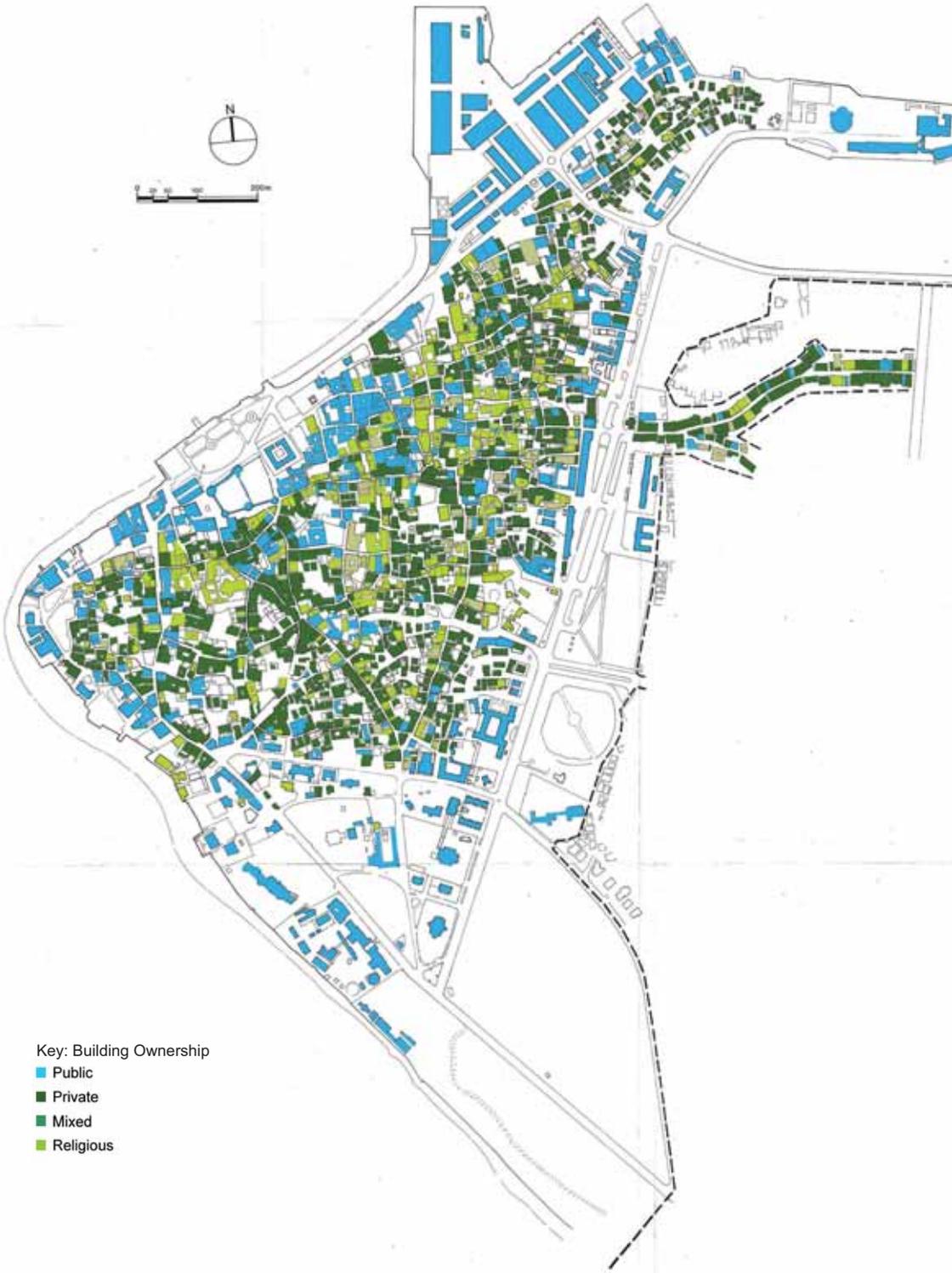
Appendix II v Land Use and Zoning



Appendix II vi Classification of Buildings

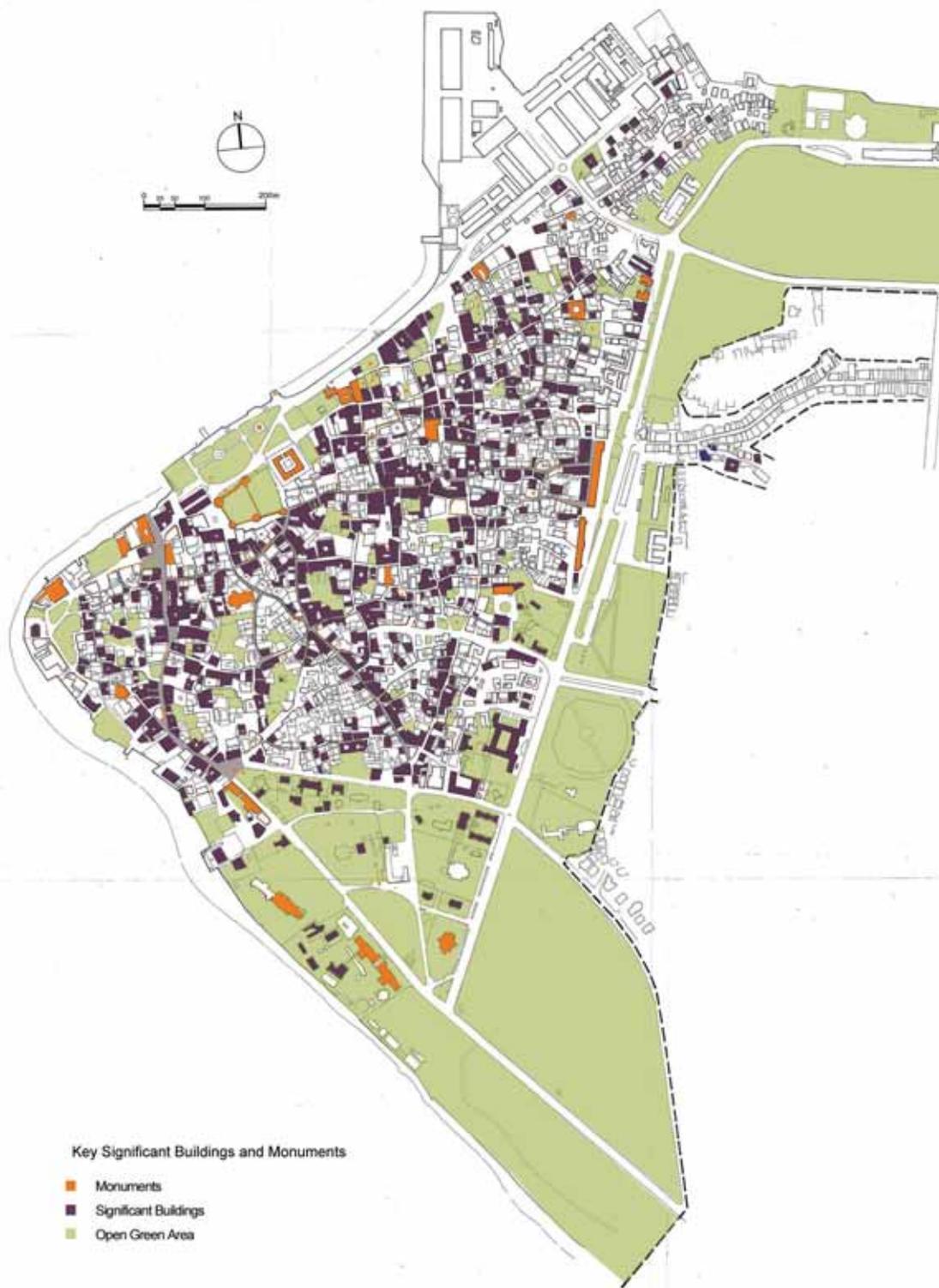


Appendix II vii Building Ownership



Key: Building Ownership
Public
Private
Mixed
Religious

Appendix II viii Significant Buildings and Monuments



Appendix III i The Athens Charter

The Athens Charter for the Restoration of Historic Monuments (1931)

www.icomos.org/docs/athens_charter.html

Introduction

The Athens Charter for the Restoration of Historic Monuments was adopted at the First International Congress of Architects and Technicians of Historic Monuments in Athens 1931. Through its seven resolutions the charter focuses on restoration, protection, preservation and maintenance and addresses on the importance of legislative measures pointing out that the areas surrounding historic monuments ought "... to be given special consideration". (Article III) The charter mainly concentrates on restoration of historic monuments. It uses the concept of monuments in the widest sense. According to this the Stone Town of Zanzibar as such can be defined as an historic monument. The Athens Charter is innovative in pointing out the threat of pollution and being in its character both exclusive and inclusive. The charter recommends strong legal frameworks and management, which allows each object to be treated individually.

The Athens Charter for the Restoration of Historic Monuments Adopted at the First International Congress of Architects and Technicians of Historic Monuments, Athens 1931

At the Congress in Athens the following seven main resolutions were made and called "Carta del Restauro":

1. International organizations for Restoration on operational and advisory levels are to be established.
2. Proposed Restoration projects are to be subjected to knowledgeable criticism to prevent mistakes, which will cause loss of character and historical values to the structures.
3. Problems of preservation of historic sites are to be solved by legislation at national level for all countries.
4. Excavated sites, which are not subject to immediate restoration, should be re buried for protection.
5. Modern techniques and materials may be used in restoration work.
6. Historical sites are to be given strict custodial protection.
7. Attention should be given to the protection of areas surrounding historic sites.

General Conclusions of the Athens Conference

I. -- DOCTRINES. GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

The Conference heard the statement of the general principles and doctrines relating to the protection of monuments.

Whatever may be the variety of concrete cases, each of which are open to a different solution, the Conference noted that there predominates in the different countries represented a general tendency to abandon restorations *in toto* and to avoid the attendant dangers by initiating a system of regular and permanent maintenance calculated to ensure the preservation of the buildings.

When, as the result of decay or destruction, restoration appears to be indispensable, it recommends that the historic and artistic work of the past should be respected, without excluding the style of any given period.

The Conference recommends that the occupation of buildings, which ensures the continuity of their life, should be maintained but that they should be used for a purpose which respects their historic or artistic character.

II. -- ADMINISTRATIVE AND LEGISLATIVE MEASURES REGARDING HISTORICAL MONUMENTS

The Conference heard the statement of legislative measures devised to protect monuments of artistic, historic or scientific interest and belonging to the different countries.

It unanimously approved the general tendency which, in this connection, recognises a certain right of the community in regard to private ownership.

It noted that the differences existing between these legislative measures were due to the difficulty of reconciling public law with the rights of individuals.

Consequently, while approving the general tendency of these measures, the Conference is of opinion that they should be in keeping with local circumstances and with the trend of public opinion, so that the least possible opposition may be encountered, due allowance being made for the sacrifices which the owners of property may be called upon to make in the general interest.

It recommends that the public authorities in each country be empowered to take conservatory measures in cases of emergency.

It earnestly hopes that the International Museums Office will publish a repertory and a comparative table of the legislative measures in force in the different countries and that this information will be kept up to date

III. -- AESTHETIC ENHANCEMENT OF ANCIENT MONUMENTS.

The Conference recommends that, in the construction of buildings, the character and external aspect of the cities in which they are to be erected should be respected, especially in the neighbourhood of ancient monuments, where the surroundings should be given special consideration. Even certain groupings and certain particularly picturesque perspective treatment should be preserved.

A study should also be made of the ornamental vegetation most suited to certain monuments or groups of monuments from the point of view of preserving their ancient character. It specially recommends the suppression of all forms of publicity, of the erection of unsightly telegraph poles and the exclusion of all noisy factories and even of tall shafts in the neighbourhood of artistic and historic monuments.

IV. -- RESTORATION OF MONUMENTS.

The experts heard various communications concerning the use of modern materials for the consolidation of ancient monuments. They approved the judicious use of all the resources at the disposal of modern technique and more especially of reinforced concrete.

They specified that this work of consolidation should whenever possible be concealed in order that the aspect and character of the restored monument may be preserved.

They recommended their adoption more particularly in cases where their use makes it possible to avoid the dangers of dismantling and reinstating the portions to be preserved.

V. -- THE DETERIORATION OF ANCIENT MONUMENTS.

The Conference noted that, in the conditions of present day life, atmospheric agents were threatening monuments throughout the world to an ever-increasing degree.

Apart from the customary precautions and the methods successfully applied in the preservation of monumental statuary in current practice, it was impossible, in view of the complexity of cases and with the knowledge at present available, to formulate any general rules.

The Conference recommends:

1. That, in each country, the architects and curators of monuments should collaborate with specialists in the physical, chemical, and natural sciences with a view to determining the methods to be adopted in specific cases;

2. That the International Museums Office should keep itself informed of the work being done in each country in this field and that mention should be made thereof in the publications of the Office.

With regard to the preservation of monumental sculpture, the Conference is of opinion that the removal of works of art from the surroundings for which they were designed is, *in principle*, to be discouraged. It recommends, by way of precaution, the preservation of original models whenever these still exist or if this proves impossible, the taking of casts.

VI. -- THE TECHNIQUE of CONSERVATION.

The Conference is gratified to note that the principles and technical considerations set forth in the different detailed communications are inspired by the same idea, namely:

In the case of ruins, scrupulous conservation is necessary, and steps should be taken to reinstate any original fragments that may be recovered (anastylosis), whenever this is possible; the new materials used for this purpose should in all cases be recognisable. When the preservation of ruins brought to light in the course of excavations is found to be impossible, the Conference recommends that they be buried, accurate records being of course taken before filling-in operations are undertaken.

It should be unnecessary to mention that the technical work undertaken in connection with the excavation and preservation of ancient monuments calls for close collaboration between the archaeologist and the architect.

With regard to other monuments, the experts unanimously agreed that, before any consolidation or partial restoration is undertaken, a thorough analysis should be made of the defects and the nature of the decay of these monuments. They recognised that each case needed to be treated individually.

VII. -- THE CONSERVATION OF MONUMENTS AND INTERNATIONAL COLLABORATION.

a) *Technical and moral co-operation.*

The Conference, convinced that the question of the conservation of the artistic and archaeological property of mankind is one that interests the community of the States, which are wardens of civilisation,

Hopes that the States, acting in the spirit of the Covenant of the League of Nations, will collaborate with each other on an ever-increasing scale and in a more concrete manner with a view to furthering the preservation of artistic and historic monuments;

Considers it highly desirable that qualified institutions and associations should, without in any manner whatsoever prejudicing international public law, be given an opportunity of manifesting their interest in the protection of works of art in which civilisation has been expressed to the highest degree and which would seem to be threatened with destruction;

Expresses the wish that requests to attain this end, submitted to the Intellectual Co-operation Organisation of the League of Nations, be recommended to the earnest attention of the States.

It will be for the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, after an enquiry conducted by the International Museums Office and after having collected all relevant information, more particularly from the National Committee on Intellectual Co-operation concerned, to express an opinion on the expediency of the steps to be taken and on the procedure to be followed in each individual case.

The members of the Conference, after having visited in the course of their deliberations and during the study cruise which they were able to make on this occasion, a number of excavation sites and ancient Greek monuments, unanimously paid a tribute to the Greek Government, which, for many years past, has been itself responsible for extensive works and, at the same time, has accepted the collaboration of archaeologists and experts from every country.

The members of the Conference there saw an example of activity, which can but contribute to the realisation of the aims of intellectual co-operation, the need for which manifested itself during their work.

b) The role of education in the respect of monuments.

The Conference, firmly convinced that the best guarantee in the matter of the preservation of monuments and works of art derives from the respect and attachment of the peoples themselves;

Considering that these feelings can very largely be promoted by appropriate action on the part of public authorities;

Recommends that educators should urge children and young people to abstain from disfiguring monuments of every description and that they should teach them to take a greater and more general interest in the protection of these concrete testimonies of all ages of civilisation.

c) Value of international documentation.

The Conference expresses the wish that:

1. Each country, or the institutions created or recognised competent for this purpose, publish an inventory of ancient monuments, with photographs and explanatory notes;
2. Each country constitute official records which shall contain all documents relating to its historic monuments;
3. Each country deposit copies of its publications on artistic and historic monuments with the International Museums Office;
4. The Office devote a portion of its publications to articles on the general processes and methods employed in the preservation of historic monuments;
5. The Office study the best means of utilising the information so centralised.

HTML: 2 August 1994; modified 12 January 1996

Appendix III ii The Universal Declaration on Human Rights (1948)

<http://www.unesco.org/>

Introduction

Three years after the establishment of UNESCO the General Assembly launched and proclaimed The Universal Declaration of Human Rights in Paris, 1948. The Declaration is based on 30 articles embracing human rights, freedom, equality, liberty, security, nationality, property, religion, user-participation, education, work, a certain standard of living, protection and "... right freely to participate in the cultural life of the community" (Article 27).

Article 29 and 30 and the entering codex of the Declaration lay down and establish a formal binding between the content of the Declaration and the national responsibility of the signing parties by saying "... that every individual and every organ of society, ... shall strive by teaching and education to promote respect for these rights and freedoms and by progressive measures, national and international, to secure their universal and effective recognition and observance, ...".

This statement includes the responsibility of the Zanzibar Government and the obligations of STCDA to perform a cultural heritage policy and management that emphasizes community participation, awareness, respect for history and building traditions and enhancement of international co-operation.

Universal Declaration of Human Rights

Preamble

Whereas recognition of the inherent dignity and of the equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family is the foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world,

Whereas disregard and contempt for human rights have resulted in barbarous acts, which have outraged the conscience of mankind, and the advent of a world, in which human beings shall enjoy freedom of speech and belief and freedom from fear and want has been proclaimed as the highest aspiration of the common people,

Whereas it is essential, if man is not to be compelled to have recourse, as a last resort, to rebellion against tyranny and oppression, that human rights should be protected by the rule of law,

Whereas it is essential to promote the development of friendly relations between nations,

Whereas the peoples of the United Nations have in the Charter reaffirmed their faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person and in the equal rights of men and women and have determined to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom,

Whereas Member States have pledged themselves to achieve, in cooperation with the United Nations, the promotion of universal respect for and observance of human rights and fundamental freedoms,

Whereas a common understanding of these rights and freedoms is of the greatest importance for the full realization of this pledge,

Now, therefore,

The General Assembly,

Proclaims this Universal Declaration of Human Rights as a common standard of achievement for all peoples and all nations, to the end that every individual and every organ of society, keeping this Declaration constantly in mind, shall strive by teaching and education to promote respect for these rights and freedoms and by progressive measures, national and international, to secure their universal and effective recognition and observance, both among the peoples of Member States themselves and among the peoples of territories under their jurisdiction.

Article 1 All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights. They are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood.

Article 2 Everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration, without distinction of any kind, such as race, colors, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status.

Furthermore, no distinction shall be made on the basis of the political, jurisdictional or international status of the country or territory to which a person belongs, whether it be independent, trust, non-self-governing or under any other limitation of sovereignty.

Article 3 Everyone has the right to life, liberty and security of person.

Article 4 No one shall be held in slavery or servitude; slavery and the slave trade shall be prohibited in all their forms.

Article 5 No one shall be subjected to torture or to cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment.

Article 6 Everyone has the right to recognition everywhere as a person before the law.

Article 7 All are equal before the law and are entitled without any discrimination to equal protection of the law. All are entitled to equal protection against any discrimination in violation of this Declaration and against any incitement to such discrimination.

Article 8 Everyone has the right to an effective remedy by the competent national tribunals for acts violating the fundamental rights granted him by the constitution or by law.

Article 9 No one shall be subjected to arbitrary arrest, detention or exile.

Article 10 Everyone is entitled in full equality to a fair and public hearing by an independent and impartial tribunal, in the determination of his rights and obligations and of any criminal charge against him.

Article 11 Everyone charged with a penal offence has the right to be presumed innocent until proved guilty according to law in a public trial at which he has had all the guarantees necessary for his defence.

2. No one shall be held guilty of any penal offence on account of any act or omission, which did not constitute a penal offence, under national or international law, at the time when it was committed. Nor shall a heavier penalty be imposed than the one that was applicable at the time the penal offence was committed.

Article 12 No one shall be subjected to arbitrary interference with his privacy, family, home or correspondence, nor to attacks upon his honour and reputation. Everyone has the right to the protection of the law against such interference or attacks.

Article 13 1. Everyone has the right to freedom of movement and residence within the borders of each State. 2. Everyone has the right to leave any country, including his own, and to return to his country.

Article 14 1. Everyone has the right to seek and to enjoy in other countries asylum from persecution.

2. This right may not be invoked in the case of prosecutions genuinely arising from non-political crimes or from acts contrary to the purposes and principles of the United Nations.

Article 15 1. Everyone has the right to a nationality. 2. No one shall be arbitrarily deprived of his nationality nor denied the right to change his nationality.

Article 16 1. Men and women of full age, without any limitation due to race, nationality or religion, have the right to marry and to found a family. They are entitled to equal rights as to marriage, during marriage and at its dissolution. 2. Marriage shall be entered into only with the free and full consent of the intending spouses. 3. The family is the natural and fundamental group unit of society and is entitled to protection by society and the State.

Article 17 1. Everyone has the right to own property alone as well as in association with others.

2. No one shall be arbitrarily deprived of his property.

Article 18 Everyone has the right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion; this right includes freedom to change his religion or belief, and freedom, either alone or in community with others and in public or private, to manifest his religion or belief in teaching,

practice, worship and observance.

Article 19 Everyone has the right to freedom of opinion and expression; this right includes freedom to hold opinions without interference and to seek, receive and impart information and ideas through any media and regardless of frontiers.

Article 20 1. Everyone has the right to freedom of peaceful assembly and association. 2. No one may be compelled to belong to an association.

Article 21 1. Everyone has the right to take part in the government of his country, directly or through freely chosen representatives. 2. Everyone has the right to equal access to public service in his country.

3. The will of the people shall be the basis of the authority of government; this will shall be expressed in periodic and genuine elections, which shall be by universal and equal suffrage and shall be held by secret vote or by equivalent free voting procedures.

Article 22 Everyone, as a member of society, has the right to social security and is entitled to realization, through national effort and international co-operation and in accordance with the organization and resources of each State, of the economic, social and cultural rights indispensable for his dignity and the free development of his personality.

Article 23 1. Everyone has the right to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favourable conditions of work and to protection against unemployment. 2. Everyone, without any discrimination, has the right to equal pay for equal work. 3. Everyone who works has the right to just and favourable remuneration ensuring for himself and his family an existence worthy of human dignity, and supplemented, if necessary, by other means of social protection. 4. Everyone has the right to form and to join trade unions for the protection of his interests.

Article 24 Everyone has the right to rest and leisure, including reasonable limitation of working hours and periodic holidays with pay.

Article 25 1. Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and of his family, including food, clothing, housing and medical care and necessary social services, and the right to security in the event of unemployment, sickness, disability, widowhood, old age or other lack of livelihood in circumstances beyond his control. 2. Motherhood and childhood are entitled to special care and assistance. All children, whether born in or out of wedlock, shall enjoy the same social protection.

Article 26 1. Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit.

2. Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace.

3. Parents have a prior right to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children.

Article 27 1. Everyone has the right freely to participate in the cultural life of the community, to enjoy the arts and to share in scientific advancement and its benefits.

2. Everyone has the right to the protection of the moral and material interests resulting from any scientific, literary or artistic production of which he is the author.

Article 28 Everyone is entitled to a social and international order in which the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration can be fully realized.

Article 29 1. Everyone has duties to the community in which alone the free and full development of his personality is possible.

2. In the exercise of his rights and freedoms, everyone shall be subject only to such limitations as are determined by law solely for the purpose of securing due recognition and respect for the rights and freedoms of others and of meeting the just requirements of morality, public order and the general welfare in a democratic society.

3. These rights and freedoms may in no case be exercised contrary to the purposes and principles of the United Nations.

Article 30 Nothing in this Declaration may be interpreted as implying for any State, group or person any right to engage in any activity or to perform any act aimed at the destruction of any of the rights and freedom set forth herein.

Appendix III iii The Hague Convention (1954, 1999)

<http://www.unesco.org>

Introduction

The Hague Convention for the protection of cultural property in the event of armed conflict was adopted by an international conference, convened by the Executive Board of UNESCO in 1954. All the member states of UNESCO were invited to send delegations equipped with the necessary political powers to enable them to sign the agreement. Today the Convention has been signed by 90 States and ratified by 77 states.

Co-operation on the implementation of any international convention or agreement is a two-way path. To upgrade the convention to fit into the demands of today, a new protocol was added in 1999.

Article 8 of the Convention provides that, subject to certain conditions “There may be placed under special protection a limited number of refuges intended to shelter movable cultural property in the event of armed conflict, of centres containing monuments and other immovable cultural property of very great importance” and that such spatial protection is granted by their entry on the “International Register of Cultural Property under Special Protection”.

Article 26, paragraph 2, of the Convention for the Protection of Cultural Property in the Event of Armed Conflict, adopted at the Hague in 1954, stipulates that, at last every four years, the High Contracting Parties shall forward to the Director –General a report giving whatever information they think suitable concerning any measures being taken, prepared or contemplated by their respective administrations in implementation of the present Convention and of the Regulations for its Execution.

The 1954 Hague Convention is the only international agreement accepted worldwide focusing exclusively on the protection of cultural heritage during hostilities. Its scope covers immovable and movable heritage, including monuments of architecture, art or history, archaeological sites, works of art, manuscripts, books and objects of artistic, historical or archaeological interest, as well as scientific collections of all kinds. Under this agreement, state parties are obliged to safeguard and respect cultural property during armed conflict, regardless of its character – international or national, by adopting adequate measures in time of peace as well as in war.

Measures taken for dissemination of the Hague Convention include among others military, civilian professionals and by marking cultural property with a distinctive emblem of the Convention as well as the adoption of national implementing legislation such as a penal code or code of military justice. In implementing the revised Convention there has been a row of UNESCO seminars all over the world. The first seminar took place in Tashkent (Uzbekistan) in September 1995, the second in the capitals of Trans Caucasian countries and the third was organised in Kathmandu (Nepal) in May 1997. The audience of these seminars usually includes military and law-enforcement officers, civil servants, lawmakers, members of NGOs and scholars.

UNESCO has chosen three main structures to implement the Hague Convention. First, whenever a State joins UNESCO, the Secretariat contacts its national authorities in order to encourage them to also become a party to the Convention. However this practice does not always succeed because only some States inform the Secretariat of their willingness to become Partners to it or at least of their intention to compare the compatibility of its provisions with their national legislation. Second, the Secretariat disseminates the Convention by organising, together with the International Committee of the Red Cross, training seminars on international humanitarian and cultural heritage protection law.

Third, the Secretariat publishes periodical reports on the Convention’s implementation. These reports are useful information due to their wide distribution and allow State Parties to share practical information on various measures related to the Convention’s application.

Convention for the Protection of Cultural Property in the Event of Armed Conflict - 1954

Adopted at The Hague, 14 May 1954

Official texts:

- Hague Convention and States Parties
- First Protocol and its States Parties
- Second Protocol (1999) and its States Parties

The Convention for the Protection of Cultural Property in the Event of Armed Conflict adopted at The Hague (Netherlands) in 1954 in the wake of massive destruction of the cultural heritage in the Second World War is the first international treaty of a world-wide vocation focusing exclusively on the protection of cultural heritage in the event of armed conflict.

It covers immovables and movables, including monuments of architecture, art or history, archaeological sites, works of art, manuscripts, books and other objects of artistic, historical or archaeological interest, as well as scientific collections of all kinds regardless of their origin or ownership

The States which are party to the Convention benefit from a network of more than 100 States that have undertaken to lessen the consequences of armed conflict for cultural heritage and to take preventive measures for such protection not only in time of hostility (when it is usually too late), but also in time of peace, by a variety of measures :

- safeguard and respect cultural property during both international and non-international armed conflicts;
- consider registering a limited number of refuges, monumental centres and other immovable cultural property of very great importance in the International Register of Cultural Property under Special Protection and obtain special protection for such property;
- consider marking of certain important buildings and monuments with a special protective emblem of the Convention;
- set up special units within the military forces to be responsible for the protection of cultural heritage;
- penalize violations of the Convention and to promote widely the Convention within the general public and target groups such as cultural heritage professionals, the military or law-enforcement agencies.

Learn more about the Protection of Cultural Property in the Event of Armed Conflict

In t r o d u c t i o n [Display Full text] [Display articles] State parties (42) / State signatories (19)
Forum of adoption Diplomatic Conference on the Draft Second Protocol to the 1954 Hague Convention
In force yes

1. Basic protection: The 1954 Convention was adopted well before the 1977 Protocols. It was drafted against the background of the Second World War at a time when it was still considered inevitable that entire cities would be attacked. In the midst of such a war, the 1954 Convention sought to protect valuable cultural property. It provides that cultural property can only be attacked in case of “imperative military necessity” without defining this exception. In 1977, Protocol I did away with this approach. Henceforth, only military objectives - more clearly defined and more carefully selected - should be made the object of attack. It appeared self-evident that any improvement of the 1954 Convention should reflect this modern approach: cultural property is civilian property and it should not be attacked unless when it becomes a military objective. In addition, cultural property can only be attacked when there is no other feasible alternative. The updating of the 1954 Convention in light of Protocol I also led to the inclusion of rules concerning precautions in attack that found in Protocol I.2. Enhanced protection: Given that the 1954 system of cultural property under special protection never worked, the Second Protocol establishes a new system. Cultural property of the greatest importance for humanity can be placed under enhanced protection provided domestic law adequately protects it and not used for military purposes or to shield military sites. Enhanced protection is granted from the moment of entry in the List of Cultural Property Under Enhanced Protection. This decision is taken by the Committee for the Protection of Cultural Property in the Event of Armed Conflict, an intergovernmental committee established under the new Protocol.3. Enforcement: Another development reflected in the new Protocol is the increased effort to fight impunity through effective criminal prosecution of war criminals. The Protocol specifically defines five serious violations for which it establishes individual criminal responsibility. States undertake to adopt appropriate legislation to make these violations criminal offences under domestic law, to provide appropriate penalties and to establish jurisdiction over these offences, including universal jurisdiction for three of the five serious violations. The list of serious violations goes well beyond existing law.4. Scope of application: The Second Protocol applies equally to international and non-international armed conflicts. The extension of the application of the Second Protocol to non-international armed conflicts is essential. Also available: Final Act of the Diplomatic Conference, HC/1999/8

Appendix III iv The Venice Charter (1964)

International Charter for the Conservation and Restoration of Monuments and Sites (ICOMOS).

www.icomos.org

Introduction

Thirty-three years after the Standing Committee of Engineers launched The Athens Charter it became the guideline for ICOMOS, founded in 1965. The Athens Charter focuses on restoration of monuments although in a wide perspective. The Charter includes sites and groups of buildings and focuses on the discussion of heritage as a common global responsibility and launches the concept of global and local in the heritage debates. The Venice Charter is rather inclusive than exclusive and focuses on preservation practice, techniques of production as well as “their richness of their authenticity”, respect of periods and the importance of documentation and analytical material.

The aim and intention of The Venice Charter is as follows; “The intention in conserving and restoring monuments is to safeguard them no less as works of art than as historical evidence” (Article 3). The Charter also says that the aim of restoration is “to preserve and reveal the aesthetic and historic value of the monument and is based on respect for original material and authentic documentation”.

Even though The Venice Charter is broad in its concept it is rather strict and regulative in the execution of conservation and restoration. Interpreting Article 11 would in the case of Zanzibar Stone Town mean that it is better to do nothing than to execute conservation in a wrong way.

The Venice Charter

International Charter for the Conservation and Restoration of Monuments and Sites

[Preamble]

Imbued with a message from the past, the historic monuments of generations of people remain to the present day as living witnesses of their age-old traditions. People are becoming more and more conscious of the unity of human values and regard ancient monuments as a common heritage. The common responsibility to safeguard them for future generations is recognized. It is our duty to hand them on in the full richness of their authenticity.

It is essential that the principles guiding the preservation and restoration of ancient buildings should be agreed and be laid down on an international basis, with each country being responsible for applying the plan within the framework of its own culture and traditions.

By defining these basic principles for the first time, the [Athens Charter](#) of 1931 contributed towards the development of an extensive international movement which has assumed concrete form in national documents, in the work of ICOM and UNESCO and in the establishment by the latter of the International Centre for the Study of the Preservation and the Restoration of Cultural Property. Increasing awareness and critical study have been brought to bear on problems which have continually become more complex and varied; now the time has come to examine the Charter afresh in order to make a thorough study of the principles involved and to enlarge its scope in a new document.

Accordingly, the IInd International Congress of Architects and Technicians of Historic Monuments, which met in Venice from May 25th to 31st 1964, approved the following text:

DEFINITIONS

ARTICLE 1. The concept of an historic monument embraces not only the single architectural work but also the urban or rural setting in which is found the evidence of a particular civilization, a significant development or an historic event. This applies not only to great works of art but also to more modest works of the past which have acquired cultural significance with the passing of time.

ARTICLE 2. The conservation and restoration of monuments must have recourse to all the sciences and techniques, which can contribute to the study and safeguarding of the architectural heritage.

AIM

ARTICLE 3. The intention in conserving and restoring monuments is to safeguard them no less as works of art than as historical evidence.

CONSERVATION

ARTICLE 4. It is essential to the conservation of monuments that they be maintained on a permanent basis.

ARTICLE 5. The conservation of monuments is always facilitated by making use of them for some socially useful purpose. Such use is therefore desirable but it must not change the lay-out or decoration of the building. It is within these limits only that modifications demanded by a change of function should be envisaged and may be permitted.

ARTICLE 6. The conservation of a monument implies preserving a setting which is not out of scale. Wherever the traditional setting exists, it must be kept. No new construction, demolition or modification which would alter the relations of mass and color must be allowed.

ARTICLE 7. A monument is inseparable from the history to which it bears witness and from the setting in which it occurs. The moving of all or part of a monument cannot be allowed except where the safeguarding of that monument demands it or where it is justified by national or international interest of paramount importance.

ARTICLE 8. Items of sculpture, painting or decoration which form an integral part of a monument may only be removed from it if this is the sole means of ensuring their preservation.

RESTORATION

ARTICLE 9. The process of restoration is a highly specialized operation. Its aim is to preserve and reveal the aesthetic and historic value of the monument and is based on respect for original material and authentic documents. It must stop at the point where conjecture begins, and in this case moreover any extra work

which is indispensable must be distinct from the architectural composition and must bear a contemporary stamp. The restoration in any case must be preceded and followed by an archaeological and historical study of the monument.

ARTICLE 10. Where traditional techniques prove inadequate, the consolidation of a monument can be achieved by the use of any modern technique for conservation and construction, the efficacy of which has been shown by scientific data and proved by experience.

ARTICLE 11. The valid contributions of all periods to the building of a monument must be respected, since unity of style is not the aim of a restoration. When a building includes the superimposed work of different periods, the revealing of the underlying state can only be justified in exceptional circumstances and when what is removed is of little interest and the material which is brought to light is of great historical, archaeological or aesthetic value, and its state of preservation good enough to justify the action. Evaluation of the importance of the elements involved and the decision as to what may be destroyed cannot rest solely on the individual in charge of the work.

ARTICLE 12. Replacements of missing parts must integrate harmoniously with the whole, but at the same time must be distinguishable from the original so that restoration does not falsify the artistic or historic evidence.

ARTICLE 13. Additions cannot be allowed except in so far as they do not detract from the interesting parts of the building, its traditional setting, the balance of its composition and its relation with its surroundings.

HISTORIC SITES

ARTICLE 14. The sites of monuments must be the object of special care in order to safeguard their integrity and ensure that they are cleared and presented in a seemly manner. The work of conservation and restoration carried out in such places should be inspired by the principles set forth in the foregoing articles.

EXCAVATIONS

ARTICLE 15. Excavations should be carried out in accordance with scientific standards and the recommendation defining [international principles to be applied in the case of archaeological excavation](#) adopted by UNESCO in 1956.

Ruins must be maintained and measures necessary for the permanent conservation and protection of architectural features and of objects discovered must be taken. Furthermore, every means must be taken to facilitate the understanding of the monument and to reveal it without ever distorting its meaning.

All reconstruction work should however be ruled out "*a priori*." Only anastylosis, that is to say, the reassembling of existing but dismembered parts can be permitted. The material used for integration should always be recognizable and its use should be the least that will ensure the conservation of a monument and the reinstatement of its form.

PUBLICATION

ARTICLE 16. In all works of preservation, restoration or excavation, there should always be precise documentation in the form of analytical and critical reports, illustrated with drawings and photographs. Every stage of the work of clearing, consolidation, rearrangement and integration, as well as technical and formal features identified during the course of the work, should be included. This record should be placed in the archives of a public institution and made available to research workers. It is recommended that the report should be published.

Appendix III v The Heritage Convention (1972)

Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage (1972)

www.unesco.org/

Introduction

In November 1972 The General Conference of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation adopted the Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage.

As when The Athens Charter introduced restoration of historic monuments in its widest range and The Venice Charter opened up for objects like groups of buildings and historic sites The Heritage Convention goes further in adding the natural heritage to the list of objects included in the heritage policy. The Convention leans on 38 articles with cultural and natural heritage being defined in three of them while national duty and intergovernmental responsibility is settled in 11. Funding for protection of heritage is elaborated in four of the articles, international support and assistance in eight, educational programs in two and reporting to the General Conference in one. Management and formal handling of the Convention is taken care of in the last nine articles.

The Heritage Convention is an important intergovernmental policy document summing up much of what had been launched by the previous international policy documents. The Heritage Conservation adds few new aspects to the discussion of architectural and cultural heritage except for stating the importance of intergovernmental cooperation, the role of education and the focus on decay, changing of social and economic conditions as threats to “..a harmful impoverishment of the heritage of all nations in the world”.

Convention concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage

Paris, 16 November 1972

The General Conference of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization meeting in Paris from 17 October to 21 November 1972, at its seventeenth session,

Noting that the cultural heritage and the natural heritage are increasingly threatened with destruction not only by the traditional causes of decay, but also by changing social and economic conditions which aggravate the situation with even more formidable phenomena of damage or destruction.

Considering that deterioration or disappearance of any item of the cultural or natural heritage constitutes a harmful impoverishment of the heritage of all the nations of the world,

Considering that protection of this heritage at the national level often remains incomplete because of the scale of the resources which it requires and of the insufficient economic, scientific and technical resources of the country where the property to be protected is situated,

Recalling that the Constitution of the Organization provides that it will maintain, increase and diffuse knowledge, by assuring the conservation and protection of the world's heritage, and recommending to the nations concerned the necessary international conventions,

Considering that the existing international conventions, recommendations and resolutions concerning cultural and natural property demonstrate the importance, for all the peoples of the world, of safeguarding this unique and irreplaceable property, to whatever people it may belong,

Considering that parts of the cultural or natural heritage are of outstanding interest and therefore need to be preserved as part of the world heritage of mankind as a whole,

Considering that, in view of the magnitude and gravity of the new dangers threatening them, it is incumbent on the international community as a whole to participate in the protection of the cultural and natural heritage of outstanding universal value, by the granting of collective assistance which, although not taking the place of action by the State concerned, will serve as an effective complement thereto,

Considering that it is essential for this purpose to adopt new provisions in the form of a convention establishing an effective system of collective protection of the cultural and natural heritage of outstanding universal value, organized on a permanent basis and in accordance with modern scientific methods,

Having decided, at its sixteenth session, that this question should be made the subject of an international convention, ,

Adopts this sixteenth day of November 1972 this Convention.

I. Definitions of the cultural and the natural heritage

Article 1 For the purposes of this Convention, the following shall be considered as 'cultural heritage':

monuments : architectural works, works of monumental sculpture and painting, elements or structures of an archaeological nature, inscriptions, cave dwellings and combinations of features, which are of outstanding universal value from the point of view of history, art or science; groups of buildings : groups of separate or connected buildings which, because of their architecture, their homogeneity or their place in the landscape, are of outstanding universal value from the point of view of history, art or science ;

sites : works of man or the combined works of nature and of man, and areas including archaeological sites which are of outstanding universal value from the historical, aesthetic, ethnological or anthropological points of view.

Article 2 For the purposes of this Convention, the following shall be considered as 'natural heritage':

natural features consisting of physical and biological formations or groups of such formations, which are of outstanding universal value from the aesthetic or scientific point of view;

geological and physiological formations and precisely delineated areas which constitute the habitat of threatened species of animals and plants of outstanding universal value from the point of view of science or conservation; natural sites or precisely delineated natural areas of outstanding universal value from the point of view of science, conservation or natural beauty.

Article 3 It is for each State Party to this Convention to identify and delineate the different properties situated on its territory mentioned in Articles 1 and 2 above.

II. National protection and international protection of the cultural and natural heritage

Article 4 Each State Party to this Convention recognizes that the duty of ensuring the identification, protection, conservation, presentation and transmission to future generations of the cultural and natural heritage referred to in Articles 1 and 2 and situated on its territory, belongs primarily to that State. It will do all it can to this end, to the utmost of its own resources and, where appropriate, with any international assistance and co-operation, in particular, financial, artistic, scientific and technical, which it may be able to obtain.

Article 5 To ensure that effective and active measures are taken for the protection, conservation and presentation of the cultural and natural heritage situated on its territory, each States Party to this Convention shall endeavour, in so far as possible, and as appropriate for each country:

(a) to adopt a general policy which aims to give the cultural and natural heritage a function in the life of the community and to integrate the protection of that heritage into comprehensive planning programmes;

(b) to set up within its territories, where such services do not exist, one or more services for the protection, conservation, and presentation of the cultural and natural heritage with an appropriate staff and possessing the means to discharge their functions;

(c) to develop scientific and technical studies and research and to work out such operating methods as will make the State capable of counteracting the dangers that threaten its cultural or natural heritage;

(d) to take the appropriate legal, scientific, technical, administrative and financial measures necessary for the identification, protection,

conservation, presentation and rehabilitation of this heritage; and

(e) to foster the establishment or development of national or regional centres for training in the protection, conservation and presentation of the cultural and natural heritage and to encourage scientific research in this field.

Article 6 1. Whilst fully respecting the sovereignty of the States on whose territory the cultural and natural heritage mentioned in Articles 1 and 2 is, situated; and without prejudice to property rights provided by national legislation, the States Parties to this Convention recognize that such heritage constitutes a world heritage for whose protection it is duty of the international community as a whole to co-operate.

2. The States Parties undertake, in accordance with the provisions of this Convention, to give their help in the identification, protection, conservation and presentation of the cultural and natural heritage referred to in paragraphs 2 and 4 of Article 11 if the States on whose territory it is situated so request.

3. Each State Party to this Convention undertakes not to take any deliberate measures, which might damage directly or indirectly the cultural and natural heritage referred to in Articles 1, and 2 situated on the territory of other States Parties to this Convention.

Article 7 For the purpose of this Convention, international protection of the world cultural and natural heritage shall be understood to mean the establishment of a system of international co-operation and assistance designed to support States Parties to the Convention in their efforts to conserve and identify that heritage.

III. Intergovernmental Committee for the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage

Article 8 1. An Intergovernmental Committee for the Protection of - the Cultural and Natural Heritage of Outstanding Universal Value, called 'the World Heritage Committee', is hereby established within the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. It shall be composed of 15 States Parties to the Convention, elected by States Parties to the Convention meeting in general assembly during the ordinary session of the General Conference of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. The number of States members of the Committee shall be increased to 21 as from the date of the ordinary session of the General Conference following the entry into force of this Convention for at least 40 States. 2. Election of members of the Committee shall ensure an equitable representation of the different regions and cultures of the world. 3. A representative of the International Centre for the Study of the Preservation and Restoration of Cultural Property (Rome Centre), a representative of the International Council of Monuments and Sites (ICOMOS) and a representative of the International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN), to whom may be added, at the request of States Parties to the Convention meeting in general assembly during the ordinary sessions of the General Conference of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, representatives of other intergovernmental or nongovernmental organizations, with similar objectives, may attend the meetings of the Committee in an advisory capacity.

Article 9

1. The term of office of States members of the World Heritage Committee shall extend from the end of the ordinary session of the General Conference during which they are elected until the end of its third subsequent ordinary session. 2. The term of office of one-third of the members designated at the time of the first election shall, however, cease at the end of the first ordinary session of the General Conference following that at which they were elected; and the term of office of a further third of the members designated at the same time shall cease at the end of the second ordinary session of the General Conference following that at which they were elected. Lot by the President of the General Conference of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization shall choose the names of these members after the first election.

3. States members of the Committee shall choose as their representatives persons qualified in the field of the cultural or natural heritage.

Article 10

1. The World Heritage Committee shall adopt its Rules of Procedure. 2. The Committee may at any time invite public or private organizations or individuals to participate in its meetings for consultation on particular problems. 3. The Committee may create such consultative bodies as it deems necessary for the performance of its functions.

Article 11 1. Every State Party to this Convention shall, in so far as possible, submit to the World Heritage Committee an inventory of property forming part of the cultural and natural heritage, situated in its territory and suitable for inclusion in the list provided for in paragraph 2 of this Article. This inventory, which shall not be considered exhaustive, shall include documentation about the location of the property in question and its significance. 2. On the basis of the inventories submitted by States in accordance with paragraph 1, the Committee shall establish, keep up to date and publish, under the title of World Heritage List, a list of properties forming part of the cultural heritage and natural heritage, as defined in Articles 1 and 2 of this Convention, which it considers as having outstanding universal value in terms of such criteria as it shall have established. An updated list shall be distributed at least every two years. 3. The inclusion of a property in the World Heritage List requires the consent of the State concerned. The inclusion of a property situated in a territory, sovereignty or jurisdiction over which is claimed by more than one State shall in no way prejudice the rights of the parties to the dispute. 4. The Committee shall establish, keep up to date and publish, whenever circumstances shall so require, under the title of List of World Heritage in Danger, a list of the property appearing in the World Heritage List for the conservation of which major operations are necessary and for which assistance has been requested under this Convention. This list shall contain an estimate of the cost of such operations. The list may include only such property forming part of the cultural and natural heritage as is threatened by serious and specific dangers, such as the threat of disappearance caused by accelerated deterioration, large-scale public or private projects or rapid urban or tourist development projects; destruction caused by changes in the use or ownership of the land; major alterations due to unknown causes; abandonment for any reason whatsoever; the outbreak or the threat of an armed conflict; calamities and cataclysms; serious fires, earthquakes, landslides; volcanic eruptions; changes in water level, floods, and tidal waves. The Committee may at any time, in case of urgent need, make a new entry in the List of World Heritage in Danger and publicize such entry immediately.

5. The Committee shall define the criteria on the basis of which a property belonging to the cultural or natural heritage may be included in either of the lists mentioned in paragraphs 2 and 4 of this article. 6. Before refusing a request for inclusion in one of the two lists mentioned in paragraphs 2 and 4 of this article, the Committee shall consult the State Party in whose territory the cultural or natural property in question is situated. 7. The Committee shall, with the agreement of the States concerned, co-ordinate and encourage the studies and research needed for the drawing up of the lists referred to in paragraphs 2 and 4 of this article.

Article 12 The fact that a property belonging to the cultural or natural heritage has not been included in either of the two lists mentioned in paragraphs 2 and 4 of Article 11 shall in no way be construed to mean that it does not have an outstanding universal value for purposes other than those resulting from inclusion in these lists.

Article 13 1. The World Heritage Committee shall receive and study requests for inter-national assistance formulated by States Parties to this Convention with respect to property forming part of the cultural or natural heritage, situated in their territories, and included or potentially suitable for inclusion in the lists referred to in paragraphs 2 and 4 of Article 11. The purpose of such requests may be to secure the protection, conservation, presentation or rehabilitation of such property. 2. Requests for international assistance under paragraph 1 of this article may also be concerned with identification of cultural or natural property defined in Articles 1 and 2, when preliminary investigations have shown that further inquiries would be justified.

3. The Committee shall decide on the action to be taken with regard to these requests, determine where appropriate, the nature and extent of its assistance, and authorize the conclusion, on its behalf, of the necessary arrangements with the government concerned. 4. The Committee shall determine an order of priorities for its operations. It shall in so doing bear in mind the respective importance for the world cultural and natural heritage of the property requiring protection, the need to give international assistance to the property most representative of a natural environment or of the genius and the history of the peoples of the world, the urgency of the work to be done, the resources available to the States on whose territory the threatened property is situated and in particular the extent to which they are able to safeguard such property by their own means. 5. The Committee shall draw up, keep up to date and publicize a list of property for which international assistance has been granted. 6. The Committee shall decide on the use of the resources of the Fund established under Article 15 of this Convention. It shall seek ways of increasing these resources and shall take all useful steps to this end. 7. The Committee shall co-operate with international and national governmental and non-governmental organizations having objectives similar to those of this Convention. For the implementation of its programmes and projects, the Committee may call on such organizations, particularly the International Centre for the Study of the Preservation and Restoration of Cultural Property (the Rome Center), the International Council of Monuments and Sites (ICOMOS) and the International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN), as well as on public and private bodies and individuals. 8. Decisions of the Committee shall be taken by a majority of two-thirds of its members present and voting. A majority of the members of the Committee shall constitute a quorum.

Article 14 1. The World Heritage Committee shall be assisted by a Secretariat appointed by the Director-General of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. 2. The Director-General of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, utilizing to the fullest extent possible the services of the International Center for the Study of the Preservation and the Restoration of Cultural Property (the Rome Center), the International Council of Monuments and Sites (ICOMOS) and the International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) in their respective areas of competence and capability, shall prepare the Committee's documentation and the agenda of its meetings and shall have the responsibility for the implementation of its decisions. IV. Fund for the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage

Article 15 1. A Fund for the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage of Outstanding Universal Value, called 'the World Heritage Fund', is hereby established. 2. The Fund shall constitute a trust fund, in conformity with the provisions of the Financial Regulations of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. 3. The resources of the Fund shall consist of:

- (a) compulsory and voluntary contributions made by the States Parties to this Convention,
- (b) contributions, gifts or bequests which may be made by:
 - (i) other States;
 - (ii) the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, other organizations of the United Nations system, particularly the United Nations Development Programme or other intergovernmental organizations ;
 - (iii) public or private bodies or individuals;
- (c) any interest due on the resources of the Fund;
- (d) funds raised by collections and receipts from events organized for the benefit of the Fund; and
- (e) all other resources authorized by the Fund's regulations, as drawn up by the World Heritage Committee.

4. Contributions to the Fund and other forms of assistance made available to the Committee may be used only for such purposes as the Committee shall define. The Committee may accept contributions to be used only for a certain programme or project, provided that the Committee shall have decided on the implementation of such programme or project. No political conditions may be attached to contributions made to the Fund.

Article 16 1. Without prejudice to any supplementary voluntary contribution, the States Parties to this Convention undertake to pay regularly, every two years, to the World Heritage Fund, contributions, the amount of which, in the form of a uniform percentage applicable to all States, shall be determined by the General Assembly of States Parties to the Convention, meeting during the sessions of the General Conference of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. This decision of the General Assembly requires the majority of the States Parties present and voting, which have not made the declaration referred to in paragraph 2 of this Article. In no case shall the compulsory contribution of States Parties to the Convention exceed 1 % of the -contribution to the Regular Budget of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.

2. However, each State referred to in Article 31 or in Article 32 of this Convention may declare, at the time of the deposit of its instruments of ratification, acceptance or accession, that it shall not be bound by the provisions of paragraph 1 of this Article.

3. A State Party to the Convention which has made the declaration referred to in paragraph 2 of this Article may at any time withdraw the said declaration by notifying the Director-General of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. However, the withdrawal of the declaration shall not take effect in regard to the compulsory contribution due by the State until the date of the subsequent General Assembly of States Parties to the Convention.

4. In order that the Committee may be able to plan its operations effectively, the contributions of States Parties to this Convention which have made the declaration referred to in paragraph 2 of this Article, shall be paid on a regular basis, at least every two years, and should not be less than the contributions which they should have paid if they had been bound by the provisions of paragraph 1 of this Article.

5. Any State Party to the Convention which is in arrears with the payment of its compulsory or voluntary contribution for the current year and the calendar year immediately preceding it shall not be eligible as a Member of the World Heritage Committee, although this provision shall not apply to the first election.

The terms of office of any such State which is already a member of the Committee shall terminate at the time of the elections provided for in Article 8, paragraph 1 of this Convention.

Article 17 The States Parties to this Convention shall consider or encourage the establishment of national, public and private foundations or associations whose purpose is to invite donations for the protection of the cultural and natural heritage as defined in Articles 1 and 2 of this Convention.

Article 18 The States Parties to this Convention shall give their assistance to international fund-raising campaigns organized for the World Heritage Fund under the auspices of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. They shall facilitate collections made by the bodies mentioned in paragraph 3 of Article 15 for this purpose.

V. Conditions and arrangements for international assistance

Article 19 Any State Party to this Convention may request international assistance for property forming part of the cultural or natural heritage of outstanding universal value situated within its territory. It shall submit with its request such information and documentation provided for in Article 21 as it has in its possession and as will enable the Committee to come to a decision.

Article 20 Subject to the provisions of paragraph 2 of Article 13, sub-paragraph (c) of Article 22 and Article 23, international assistance provided for by this Convention may be granted only to property forming part of the cultural and natural heritage which the World Heritage Committee has decided, or may decide, to enter in one of the lists mentioned in paragraphs 2 and 4 of Article 11.

Article 21 1. The World Heritage Committee shall define the procedure by which requests to it for international assistance shall be considered and shall specify the content of the request, which should define the operation contemplated, the work that is necessary, the expected cost thereof, the degree of urgency and the reasons why the resources of the State requesting assistance do not allow it to meet all the expenses. Such requests must be supported by experts' reports whenever possible.

2. Requests based upon disasters or natural calamities should, by reasons of the urgent work which they may involve, be given immediate, priority consideration by the Committee, which should have a reserve fund at its disposal against such contingencies.

3. Before coming to a decision, the Committee shall carry out such studies and consultations as it deems necessary.

Article 22 Assistance granted by the World Heritage Committee may take the following forms :

(a) studies concerning the artistic, scientific and technical problems raised by the protection, conservation, presentation and rehabilitation of the cultural and natural heritage, as defined in paragraphs 2 and 4 of Article 11 of this Convention;

(b) provision of experts, technicians and skilled labour to ensure that the approved work is correctly carried out;

(c) training of staff and specialists at all levels in the field of identification, protection, conservation, presentation and rehabilitation of the cultural and natural heritage;

(d) supply of equipment which the State concerned does not possess or is not in a position to acquire;

(e) low-interest or interest-free loans which might be repayable on a long-term basis ;

(f) the granting, in exceptional cases and for special reasons, of non-repayable subsidies.

Article 23 The World Heritage Committee may also provide international assistance to national or regional centers for the training of staff and specialists at all levels in the field of identification, protection, conservation, presentation and rehabilitation of the cultural and natural heritage.

Article 24 International assistance on a large scale shall be preceded by detailed scientific, economic and technical studies. These studies shall draw upon the most advanced techniques for the protection, conservation, presentation and rehabilitation of the natural and cultural heritage and shall be consistent with the objectives of this Convention. The studies shall also seek means of making rational use of the resources available in the State concerned.

Article 25 As a general rule, only part of the cost of work necessary shall be borne by the international community. The contribution of the State benefiting from international assistance shall constitute a substantial share of the resources devoted to each programme or project, unless its resources do not permit this.

Article 26 The World Heritage Committee and the recipient State shall define in the agreement they conclude the conditions in which a programme or project for which international assistance under the terms of this Convention is provided, shall be, carried out. It shall be the responsibility of the State receiving such international assistance to continue to protect, conserve and present the property so safeguarded, in observance of the conditions laid down by the agreement.

VI. Educational programmes

Article 27 1. The States Parties to this Convention shall endeavour by all appropriate means, and in particular by educational and information programmes, to strengthen appreciation and respect by their peoples of the cultural and natural heritage defined in Article

1 and 2 of the Convention.

2. They shall undertake to keep the public broadly informed of the dangers threatening this heritage and of activities carried on in pursuance of this Convention.

Article 28

States Parties to this Convention which receive international assistance under the Convention shall take appropriate measures to make known the importance of the property for which assistance has been received and the role played by such assistance.

VII. Reports

Article 29

1. The States Parties to this Convention shall, in the reports which they submit to the General Conference of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization on dates and in a manner to be determined by it, give information on the legislative and administrative provisions which they have adopted and other action which they have taken for the application of this Convention, together with details of the experience acquired in this field.

2. These reports shall be brought to the attention of the World Heritage Committee.

3. The Committee shall submit a report on its activities at each of the ordinary sessions of the General Conference of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.

VIII. Final clauses

Article 30

This Convention is drawn up in Arabic, English, French, Russian and Spanish, the five texts being equally authoritative.

Article 31 This Convention shall be subject to ratification or acceptance by States members of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization in accordance with their respective constitutional procedures.

2. The instruments of ratification or acceptance shall be deposited with the Director-General of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.

Article 32 1. This Convention shall be open to accession by all States not members of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization which are invited by the General Conference of the Organization to accede to it.

2. Accession shall be effected by the deposit of an instrument of accession with the Director-General of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.

Article 33 This Convention shall enter into force three months after the date of the deposit of the twentieth instrument of ratification, acceptance or accession, but only with respect to those States which have deposited their respective instruments of ratification, acceptance or accession on or before that date. It shall enter into force with respect to any other State three months after the deposit of its instrument of ratification, acceptance or accession.

Article 34 The following provisions shall apply to those States Parties to this Convention which have a federal or non-unitary constitutional system :

(a) with regard to the provisions of this Convention, the implementation of which comes under the legal jurisdiction of the federal or central legislative power, the obligations of the federal or central government shall be the same as for those States Parties which are not federal States;

(b) with regard to the provisions of this Convention, the implementation of which comes under the legal jurisdiction of individual constituent States, countries, provinces or cantons that are not obliged by the constitutional system of the federation to take legislative measures, the federal government shall inform the competent authorities of such States, countries, provinces or cantons of the said provisions, with its recommendation for their adoption.

Article 35 1. Each State Party to this Convention may denounce the Convention.

2. The denunciation shall be notified by an instrument in writing, deposited with the Director-General of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.

3. The denunciation shall take effect twelve months after the receipt of the instrument of denunciation. It shall not affect the financial obligations of the denouncing State until the date on which the withdrawal takes effect.

Article 36 The Director-General of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization shall inform the States members of the Organization, the States not members of the Organization which are referred to in Article 32, as well as the United Nations, of the deposit of all the instruments of ratification, acceptance, or accession provided for in Articles 31 and 32, and of the denunciations provided for in Article 35.

Article 37 1. This Convention may be revised by the General Conference of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. Any such revision shall, however, bind only the States which shall become Parties to the revising convention.

2. If the General Conference should adopt a new convention revising this Convention in whole or in part, then, unless the new convention otherwise provides, this Convention shall cease to be open to ratification, acceptance or accession, as from the date on which the new revising convention enters into force.

Article 38 In conformity with Article 102 of the Charter of the United Nations, this Convention shall be registered with the Secretariat of the United Nations at the request of the Director-General of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.

Done in Paris, this twenty-third day of November 1972, in two authentic copies bearing the signature of the President of the seventeenth session of the General Conference and of the Director-General of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, and certified true copies of which shall be delivered to all the States referred to in Articles 31 and 32 as well as to the United Nations.

Appendix III vi The Declaration of Amsterdam, (1975).

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Introduction

The Congress on the European Architectural Heritage adopted the Declaration of Amsterdam in 1975 recognising "... that Europe's unique architecture is the common heritage of all her peoples ..." and "... of the whole world ...". The basic consideration in the Declaration are the consciousness of a common history and the inclusion of not only "buildings of exceptional quality and their surroundings, but also areas of towns or villages of historic or cultural interest".

The Declaration of Amsterdam as one of the first heritage policy documents, emphasises integration of heritage planning as a major objective of town and country planning and points out the importance of the integrity of local authorities. The Declaration asserts several proposals for implementation and execution of an integrated planning system that necessitates appropriate financial means. The Declaration also claims the importance of heritage represented by social and cultural diversity that characterises the urban fabric of the old towns.

Even though The Declaration was launched and adopted in 1975 it is still a useful document proving it to be a visionary document as well as a recommendation and a guideline.

CONGRESS ON THE EUROPEAN ARCHITECTURAL HERITAGE 21 - 25 October 1975

The Declaration of Amsterdam

The Congress of Amsterdam, the crowning event of European architectural heritage Year 1975, and composed of delegates from all parts of Europe, wholeheartedly welcomes the [Charter promulgated by the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe](#), which recognizes that Europe's unique architecture is the common heritage of all her peoples and which declared the intention of the Member States to work with one another and with other European governments for its protection.

The Congress likewise affirms that Europe's architectural heritage is an integral part of the cultural heritage of the whole world and has noted with great satisfaction the mutual undertaking to promote co-operation and exchanges in the field of culture contained in the Final Act of the Congress on Security and Co-operation in Europe adopted at Helsinki in July of this year.

In so doing, the Congress emphasized the following basic considerations:

- a. Apart from its priceless cultural value, Europe's architectural heritage gives to her peoples the consciousness of their common history and common future. Its preservation is, therefore, a matter of vital importance.
- b. The architectural heritage includes not only individual buildings of exceptional quality and their surroundings, but also all areas of towns or villages of historic or cultural interest.
- c. Since these treasures are the joint possession of all the peoples of Europe, they have a joint responsibility to protect them against the growing dangers with which they are threatened - neglect and decay, deliberate demolition, incongruous new construction and excessive traffic.
- d. Architectural conservation must be considered, not as a marginal issue, but as a major objective of town and country planning.
- e. Local authorities, which whom most of the important planning decisions rest, have a special responsibility for the protection of the architectural heritage and should assist one another by the exchange of ideas and information.
- f. The rehabilitation of old areas should be conceived and carried out in such a way as to ensure that, where possible, this does not necessitate a major change in the social composition of the residents, all sections of society should share in the benefits of restoration financed by public funds.
- g. The legislative and administrative measures required should be strengthened and made more effective in all countries,
- h. To help meet the cost of restoration, adaptation and maintenance of buildings and areas of architectural or historic interest, adequate financial assistance should be made available to local authorities and financial support and fiscal relief should likewise be made available to private owners.
- i. The architectural heritage will survive only if it is appreciated by the public and in particular by the younger generation. Educational programmes for all ages should, therefore, give increased attention to this subject.
- j. Encouragement should be given to independent organizations - international, national and local - which help to awake public interest.
- k. Since the new buildings of today will be the heritage of tomorrow, every effort must be made to ensure that contemporary architecture is of a high quality.

In view of the recognition by the Committee of Ministers in the [European Charter of the architectural heritage](#) that it is the duty of the Council of Europe to ensure that the Member States pursue coherent policies in a spirit of solidarity, it is essential that periodic reports should be made on the progress of architectural conservation in all European countries in a way which will promote an exchange of experience.

The Congress calls upon governments, parliaments, spiritual and cultural institutions, professional institutes, commerce, industry, independent associations and all individual citizens to give their full support to the objectives of this Declaration and to do all in their power to secure their implementation.

Only in this way can Europe's irreplaceable architectural heritage be preserved, for the enrichment of the lives of all her peoples now and in the future.

Arising from its deliberations, the Congress submits its conclusions and recommendations, as set out below.

Unless a new policy of protection and integrated conservation is urgently implemented, our society will shortly find itself obliged to give up the heritage of buildings and sites which form its traditional environment. Protection is needed today for historic towns, the old quarters of cities, and towns and villages with a traditional character as well as historic parks and gardens. The conservation of these architectural complexes can only be conceived in a wide perspective, embracing all buildings of cultural value, from the greatest to the humblest - not forgetting those of our own day together with their surroundings. This overall protection will complement the piecemeal protection of individual and isolated monuments and sites.

The significance of the architectural heritage and justification for conserving it are now more clearly perceived. It is known that historical continuity must be preserved in the environment if we are to maintain or create surroundings which enable individuals to find their identity and feel secure despite abrupt social changes. A new type of town-planning is seeking to recover the enclosed spaces, the human dimensions, the inter-penetration of functions and the social and cultural diversity that characterized the urban fabric of old towns. But it is also being realized that the conservation of ancient buildings helps to economise resources and combat waste, one of the major preoccupations of present-day society. It has been proved that historic buildings can be given new functions which correspond to the needs of contemporary life. Furthermore, conservation calls for artists and highly-qualified craftsmen whose talents and know-how have to be kept alive and passed on. Lastly, the rehabilitation of existing housing helps to check encroachments on agricultural land and to obviate, or appreciably diminish, movements of population - a very important advantage of conservation

policy.

Although, for all these reasons, there seems a stronger justification than ever today for the conservation of the architectural heritage, it must be placed on firm and lasting foundations. It must accordingly be made the subject of basis research and a feature of all educational courses and cultural development programmes.

The conservation of the architectural heritage : one of the major objectives of urban and regional planning

The conservation of the architectural heritage should become an integral part of urban and regional planning, instead of being treated as a secondary consideration or one requiring action here and there as has so often been the case in the recent past. A permanent dialogue between conservationists and those responsible for planning is thus indispensable.

Planners should recognize that not all areas are the same and that they should therefore be dealt with according to their individual characteristics. The recognition of the claims of the aesthetic and cultural values of the architectural heritage should lead to the adoption of specific aims and planning rules for old architectural complexes.

It is not enough to simply superimpose, although co-ordinating them, ordinary planning regulations and specific rules for protecting historic buildings.

To make the necessary integration possible, an inventory of buildings, architectural complexes and sites demarcating protected zones around them is required. It should be widely circulated, particularly among regional and local authorities and officials in charge of town and country planning, in order to draw their attention to the buildings and areas worthy of protection. Such an inventory will furnish a realistic basis for conservation as a fundamental qualitative factor in the management of space.

Regional planning policy must take account of the conservation of the architectural heritage and contribute to it. In particular it can induce new activities to establish themselves in economically declining areas in order to check depopulation and thereby prevent the deterioration of old buildings. In addition, decisions on the development of peripheral urban areas can be orientated in such a way as to reduce pressure on the older neighbourhoods; here transport and employment policies and a better distribution of the focal points of urban activity may have an important impact on the conservation of the architectural heritage.

The full development of a continuous policy of conservation requires a large measure of decentralization as well as a regard for local cultures. This means that there must be people responsible for conservation at all levels (central, regional and local) at which planning decisions are taken. The conservation of the architectural heritage, however, should not merely be a matter for experts. The support of public opinion is essential. The population, on the basis of full and objective information, should take a real part in every stage of the work, from the drawing up of inventories to the preparation of decisions,

Lastly, the conservation of the architectural heritage should become a feature of a new long-term approach which pays due attention to criteria of quality and just proportions and which should make it possible henceforth to reject options and aims which are too often governed by short-term considerations, narrow view of technology and, in short, an obsolete outlook.

Integrated conservation involves the responsibility of local authorities and calls for citizens' participation.

Local authorities should have specific and extensive responsibilities in the protection of the architectural heritage. In applying the principles of integrated conservation, they should take account of the continuity of existing social and physical realities in urban and rural communities. The future cannot and should not be built at the expense of the past.

To implement such a policy, which respects the man-made environment intelligently, sensitively and with economy, local authorities should :

- use as a basis the study of the texture of urban and rural areas, notably their structure, their complex functions, and the architectural and volumetric characteristics of their built-up and open spaces;
- afford functions to buildings which, whilst corresponding to the needs of contemporary life, respect their character and ensure their survival;
- be aware that long-term studies on the development of public services (educational, administrative, medical) indicate that excessive size impairs their quality and effectiveness;
- devote an appropriate part of their budget to such a policy. In this context, they should seek from governments the creation of funds specifically earmarked for such purposes. Local authority grants and loans made to private individuals and various associations should be aimed at stimulating their involvement and financial commitment;
- appoint representatives to deal with all matters concerning the architectural heritage and sites;
- set up special agencies to provide direct links between potential users of buildings and their owners;
- facilitate the formation and efficient functioning of voluntary associations for restoration and rehabilitation.

Local authorities should improve their techniques of consultation for ascertaining the opinions of interested parties on conservation plans and should take these opinions into account from the earliest stages of planning. As part of their efforts to inform the public the decisions of local authorities should be taken in the public eye, using a clear and universally understood language, so that the local inhabitants may learn, discuss and assess the grounds for them. Meeting places should be provided, in order to enable members of the public to consult together.

In this respect, methods such as public meetings, exhibitions, opinion polls, the use of the mass media and all other appropriate methods should become common practice.

The education of young people in environmental issues and their involvement with conservation tasks is one of the most important communal requirements.

Proposals or alternatives put forward by groups or individuals should be considered as an important contribution to planning.

Local authorities can benefit greatly from each other's experience. They should therefore establish a continuing exchange of information and ideas through all available channels.

The success of any policy of integrated conservation depends on taking social factors into consideration.

A policy of conservation also means the integration of the architectural heritage into social life.

The conservation effort to be made must be measured not only against the cultural value of the buildings but also against their use-value. The social problems of integrated conservation can be properly posed only by simultaneous reference to both those scales of values.

The rehabilitation of an architectural complex forming part of the heritage is not necessarily more costly than new building on an existing infrastructure or even than building a new complex on a previously undeveloped site. When therefore comparing the cost of these three solutions, whose social consequences are quite different, it is important not to overlook the social costs. These concern not only owners and tenants but also the craftsmen, tradespeople and building contractors on the spot who keep the district alive.

To avoid the laws of the market having free play in restored and rehabilitated districts, resulting in inhabitants who are unable to pay the increased rents being forced out, public authorities should intervene to reduce the effect of economic factors as they always do when it is a case of low-cost housing. Financial interventions should aim to strike a balance between restoration grants to owners, combined with the fixing of maximum rent, and housing allowances to tenants to cover, in part or in whole, the difference between the old and new rents.

In order to enable the population to participate in the drawing up of programmes they must be given the facts necessary to understand the situation, on the one hand through explaining the historic and architectural value of the buildings to be conserved and on the other hand by being given full details about permanent and temporary rehousing.

This participation is all the more important because it is a matter not only of restoring a few privileged buildings but of rehabilitating whole areas.

This practical way of interesting people in culture would be of considerable social benefit.

Integrated conservation necessitates the adaptation of legislative and administrative measures.

Because the concept of the architectural heritage has been gradually extended from the individual historic building to urban and rural architectural complexes, and to the built testimonies of recent periods, far-reaching legislative reform, in conjunction with an increase in administrative resources, is a pre-requisite to effective action.

This reform must be guided by the need to co-ordinate regional planning legislation with legislation on the protection of the architectural heritage.

This latter must give a new definition of the architectural heritage and the aims of integrated conservation.

In addition it must make special provision for special procedures with regard to :

- the designation and delineation of architectural complexes;
- the mapping out of protective peripheral zones and the limitations on use to be imposed therein in the public interest;
- the preparation of integrated conservation schemes and the inclusion of their provisions in regional planning policies;
- the approval of projects and authorization to carry out work.

In addition the necessary legislation should be enacted in order to :

- ensure a balanced allocation of budgetary resources between rehabilitation and redevelopment respectively;
- grant citizens who decide to rehabilitate an old building at least the same financial advantages as those which they enjoy for new construction;
- revise the system of state financial aid in the light of the new policy of integrated conservation.

As far as possible, the application of building codes, regulations and requirements should be relaxed to meet the needs of integrated conservation.

In order to increase the operational capacity of the authorities, it is necessary to review the structure of the administration to ensure that the departments responsible for the cultural heritage are organized at the appropriate levels and that sufficient qualified personnel and essential scientific, technical and financial resources are put at their disposal.

These departments should assist local authorities, co-operate with regional planning offices and keep in constant touch with public and private bodies.

Integrated conservation necessitates appropriate financial means.

It is difficult to define a financial policy applicable to all countries or to evaluate the consequences of the different measures involved in the planning process, because of their mutual repercussions.

Moreover, this process is itself governed by external factors resulting from the present structure of society.

It is accordingly for every state to devise its own financing methods and instruments.

It can be established with certainty however, that there is scarcely any country in Europe where the financial means allocated to conservation are sufficient.

It is further apparent that no European country has yet devised the ideal administrative machinery to meet the economic requirements of an integrated conservation policy. In order to solve the economic problems of integrated conservation, it is important - and this is a decisive factor - to draw up legislation subjecting new building to certain restrictions with regard to their volume and dimensions (height, coefficient of utilization etc.) that will make for harmony with its surroundings.

Planning regulations should discourage increased density and promote rehabilitation rather than redevelopment.

Methods must be devised to assess the extra cost occasioned by the constraints of conservation programmes. Where possible, sufficient funds should be available to help owners who are obliged to carry out this restoration work to meet the extra cost - no more and no less.

If the criteria of extra cost were accepted, care would need to be taken of course, to see that the benefit was not diminished by taxation.

The same principle should be applied to the rehabilitation of dilapidated complexes of historic or architectural interest. This would tend to restore the social balance.

The financial advantages and tax concessions available for new building should be accorded in the same proportion for the upkeep and

conservation of old buildings, less, of course, any compensation for extra cost that may have been paid.

Authorities should set up Revolving Funds, or encourage them to be established, by providing local authorities or non-profit making associations with the necessary capital. This is particularly applicable to areas where such programmes can become self-financing in the short or the long term because of the rise in value accruing from the high demand for such attractive property.

It is vital, however, to encourage all private sources of finance, particularly coming from industry. Numerous private initiatives have shown the viable part that they can play in association with the authorities at either national or local level.

Integrated conservation requires the promotion of methods, techniques and skills for restoration and rehabilitation.

Methods and techniques of the restoration and rehabilitation of historic complexes should be better exploited and their range developed.

Specialized techniques, which have been developed for the restoration of important historic complexes, should be henceforth applied to the wide range of buildings and complexes of less outstanding artistic merit.

Steps should be taken to ensure that traditional building materials remain available and that traditional crafts and techniques continue to be used.

Permanent maintenance of the architectural heritage, will, in the long run, obviate costly rehabilitation operations.

Every rehabilitation scheme should be studied thoroughly before it is carried out. Comprehensive documentation should be assembled about materials and techniques and an analysis of costs should be made. This documentation should be collected and housed in appropriate centres.

New materials and techniques should be used only after approval by independent scientific institutions.

Research should be undertaken to compile a catalogue of methods and techniques used for conservation and for this purpose scientific institutions should be created and should co-operate closely with each other. This catalogue should be made readily available and distributed to everyone concerned, thus stimulating the reform of restoration and rehabilitation practices.

Appendix III vii The Bruges Resolution (1975)

– Resolutions of the International Symposium on the Conservation of Smaller Historic Towns.

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Introduction

The Bruges Resolution concentrates its recommendations on the conservation of smaller historic towns in a global context but at the same time points to the fact that all the cities, although being defined as historic towns, are situated and developed under different social, political and cultural circumstances. The Resolution introduces the action of revitalization and emphasizes revitalization and rehabilitation rather than restoration and preservation in the historic towns. It also points out the socio-cultural and economic aspect of the inhabitants living in historic towns.

Many of the aspects mentioned in the Bruges Resolution are relevant for the conservation policy of Zanzibar Stone Town. Not least is the fact that lack of income leads to migration of people in addition to unhealthy and wrong maintenance and repairs of the building structures. The declaration also points out “.. the increasing unit size of the social infrastructure ... that tends to destroy the scale of the town and reduce the level of services”, unsolved traffic and infrastructure problems. In this context the Resolution says, it is important for the local authorities to “... observe the existing scale of the town, ... to respect its character, .. to retain the specific visual qualities of urban spaces, streets and squares throughout the whole town’s fabric”.

The Resolution also recommend the local authorities to be especially aware of the fact that empty buildings in an urban structure often suffer a quick decay and recommend the authorities to carry out a practice allowing them to be reused in other ways than originally. The Bruges Resolution is first and foremost a policy document pointing at challenges and threats. Two other intentions on conservation of smaller historic towns, the Resolution says, are to “... stimulate a sense of pride in their (the inhabitants and political representatives’) historic environment and a sense of responsibility for its maintenance.

Resolutions of the International Symposium on the Conservation of Smaller Historic Towns, at the 4th ICOMOS General Assembly.

1. The general principles set forth in the Bruges Resolutions (1975) can be applied more or less universally to the conservation of smaller historic towns; the implementation of these resolutions must however take into account the specific social, economic and political problems of the different regions of the world.

Smaller historic towns can be classified into different types which are characterized by problems in common and by specific features which vary, among other things according to their size, cultural context and economic function. Measures adopted to revitalize and rehabilitate such towns must respect the rights, customs and aspirations of their inhabitants and must be responsive to communal aims and objectives. Consequently, as regards both strategy and tactics, each case must be judged on its own merits.

2. Often, in industrialised countries, the smaller historic town was formerly an important centre which was bypassed by the wave of 19th century industrialisation and urban growth. As a rule, such towns' economic role is as the centre of an agricultural area which gives them characteristics which distinguish them from larger cities:

- the smaller town has not yet expanded beyond its historic core (which is still visually dominant) and has sometimes kept its walls,
- the town's historic core still marks the centre of social life and business and contains a large proportion of residences,
- the surrounding landscape is still very largely unspoilt and is an integral part of the image of the town,
- in many cases there is still a balanced and diversified community structure in terms of population and employment: very few smaller historic towns are economic mono structures depending on mass-production processes.

3. Such smaller towns are subject to specific dangers of various sorts:

- they may suffer from a lack of economic activity leading to the emigration of their populations to larger centres and the resultant abandonment and decay.
- even when the population is numerically stable, there may still be a tendency, due to traffic and other inconveniences, for the inhabitants, to move to modern quarters on the fringes of the town, leading to dereliction of the historic town centre.
- on the other hand, too much economic activity may cause disruption of the old structure and the insertion of new elements which upset the harmony of the urban environment.
- measures to adapt the town to modern activities and uses may have similar effects. For example, tourism, which can be a legitimate means to economic revitalization, can also have a negative impact on the appearance and structure of the town.
- the increasing unit size of the social infrastructure such as schools and hospitals tends to destroy the scale of the town and to reduce the level of its services.

4. In the countries of the developing world, the rapid expansion of population and the accelerating influx of people to the towns threaten to destroy the existing settlement structure. The national and cultural identity of these countries will be irretrievably impoverished if the surviving links with their past are allowed to atrophy. None of these links is of greater importance than the indigenous architectural environment, which has evolved over centuries in response to local physical and climatic conditions, in terms of settlement structure, house form, building technique and the use of local materials.

Governments should be made aware of the need both to intensify their efforts to maintain the positive qualities of the indigenous urban and rural environment and to provide planning authorities with the responsibility and the authority for protecting their historic towns against the pressures of excessive expansion and industrialisation.

5. To counteract the dangers threatening smaller historic towns, strategies and measures on various levels are necessary:

- (i) Regional policy must take into account the specific needs of smaller historic towns and must ensure their conservation by assigning them a role in keeping with their special structure: above all, the economic function of smaller towns should be selected so as to imply neither disruption nor dereliction of the historic substance and structure;
- (ii) In order to accomplish this, there must be coordination at the planning stage of all public authority policies which affect the town including, for example, industrial location, transportation network and other regional facilities.
- (iii) On the local level, too, planning must recognize the need to retain and to enhance the specific values of the town, and should aim:
 - a) to observe the existing scale of the town in all new developments, to respect its character, its dominant buildings and its relation to the landscape,
 - b) to retain the specific visual qualities of urban spaces, streets and squares not only in isolated "tradition islands" but throughout the town's fabric, so as to provide, at the very least, a continuous network linking the main points of interest,
 - c) to avoid the destruction of historic elements which, at first sight, might seem to be of minor importance but whose cumulative loss would be irretrievable,
 - d) to search for appropriate new uses for empty buildings which would otherwise be threatened with decay.
- (iv) Methods for surveying, assessing and protecting the character of smaller historic towns must be developed, as a premise to their conservation. Technical, legal and financial problems should be taken fully into account. The exchange of experiences is an important aid. The UNESCO-ICOMOS Documentation Centre might undertake the collection of relevant information to put at the disposal of all.
- (v) It is, finally, essential to stimulate a sense of pride in their historic environment and a sense of responsibility for its maintenance among the inhabitants of smaller towns and among their political representatives, as a basic condition for the long-term success of conservation Policy.

6. In many places, the preservation of smaller towns has largely been the result of local initiative and such worthwhile activities must be encouraged and supported. The problems of urban conservation are, however, growing too complex for private action and purely local initiative. The future must see stronger and more comprehensive national and regional legislation to encourage the conservation of smaller historic towns, and to protect them from the threat of property speculation.

Rothenburg ob der Tauber, 29-30th May 1975.

Appendix III viii The Granada Convention (1985)

Convention for the Protection of the Architectural Heritage of Europe.

www.coe.int

Introduction

The Granada Convention was agreed upon in the Granada meeting of the Council of Europe in 1985 “Acknowledging the importance of reaching agreement on the main thrust of a common policy for the conservation and enhancement of architectural heritage”. The definition of architectural heritage in the Convention is broad and inclusive. The Convention demands each country party to the Convention if not already done, to document and identify all relevant objects, execute necessary actions and highlight the responsibility of local and national legal authorities. The Granada Convention is an action-oriented policy document that highlights objects as well as intentions and actions.

Convention for the Protection of the Architectural Heritage of Europe Granada, 3.X.1985

The member States of the Council of Europe, signatory hereto,

Considering that the aim of the Council of Europe is to achieve a greater unity between its members for the purpose, *inter alia*, of safeguarding and realising the ideals and principles which are their common heritage;

Recognising that the architectural heritage constitutes an irreplaceable expression of the richness and diversity of Europe's cultural heritage, bears inestimable witness to our past and is a common heritage of all Europeans;

Having regard to the [European Cultural Convention](#) signed in Paris on 19 December 1954 and in particular to Article 1 thereof;

Having regard to the European Charter of the Architectural Heritage adopted by the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe on 26 September 1975 and to Resolution (76) 28, adopted on 14 April 1976, concerning the adaptation of laws and regulations to the requirements of integrated conservation of the architectural heritage;

Having regard to Recommendation 880 (1979) of the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe on the conservation of the European architectural heritage;

Having regard to Recommendation No. R (80) 16 of the Committee of Ministers to member States on the specialised training of architects, town planners, civil engineers and landscape designers, and to Recommendation No. R (81) 13 of the Committee of Ministers, adopted on 1 July 1981, on action in aid of certain declining craft trades in the context of the craft activity;

Recalling the importance of handing down to future generations a system of cultural references, improving the urban and rural environment and thereby fostering the economic, social and cultural development of States and regions;

Acknowledging the importance of reaching agreement on the main thrust of a common policy for the conservation and enhancement of the architectural heritage,

Have agreed as follows:

Definition of the architectural heritage

Article 1

For the purposes of this Convention, the expression "architectural heritage" shall be considered to comprise the following permanent properties:

1. monuments: all buildings and structures of conspicuous historical, archaeological, artistic, scientific, social or technical interest, including their fixtures and fittings;
2. groups of buildings: homogeneous groups of urban or rural buildings conspicuous for their historical, archaeological, artistic, scientific, social or technical interest which are sufficiently coherent to form topographically definable units;
3. sites: the combined works of man and nature, being areas which are partially built upon and sufficiently distinctive and homogeneous to be topographically definable and are of conspicuous historical, archaeological, artistic, scientific, social or technical interest.

Identification of properties to be protected

Article 2

For the purpose of precise identification of the monuments, groups of buildings and sites to be protected, each Party undertakes to maintain inventories and in the event of threats to the properties concerned, to prepare appropriate documentation at the earliest opportunity.

Statutory protection procedures

Article 3

Each Party undertakes:

1. to take statutory measures to protect the architectural heritage;
2. within the framework of such measures and by means specific to each State or region, to make provision for the protection of monuments, groups of buildings and sites.

Article 4

Each Party undertakes:

1. to implement appropriate supervision and authorisation procedures as required by the legal protection of the properties in question;
2. to prevent the disfigurement, dilapidation or demolition of protected properties. To this end, each

Party undertakes to introduce, if it has not already done so, legislation which:

- a. requires the submission to a competent authority of any scheme for the demolition or alteration of monuments which are already protected, or in respect of which protection proceedings have been instituted, as well as any scheme affecting their surroundings;
- b. requires the submission to a competent authority of any scheme affecting a group of buildings or a part thereof or a site which involves:
 - demolition of buildings,
 - the erection of new buildings,
 - substantial alterations which impair the character of the buildings or the site;
- c. permits public authorities to require the owner of a protected property to carry out work or to carry out such work itself if the owner fails to do so;

- d. allows compulsory purchase of a protected property.

Article 5

Each Party undertakes to prohibit the removal, in whole or in part, of any protected monument, except where the material safeguarding of such monuments makes removal imperative. In these circumstances the competent authority shall take the necessary precautions for its dismantling, transfer and reinstatement at a suitable location.

Article 6

Each Party undertakes:

1. to provide financial support by the public authorities for maintaining and restoring the architectural heritage on its territory, in accordance with the national, regional and local competence and within the limitations of the budgets available;
2. to resort, if necessary, to fiscal measures to facilitate the conservation of this heritage;
3. to encourage private initiatives for maintaining and restoring the architectural heritage.

Article 7

In the surroundings of monuments, within groups of buildings and within sites, each Party undertakes to promote measures for the general enhancement of the environment.

Article 8

With a view to limiting the risks of the physical deterioration of the architectural heritage, each Party undertakes:

1. to support scientific research for identifying and analysing the harmful effects of pollution and for defining ways and means to reduce or eradicate these effects;
2. to take into consideration the special problems of conservation of the architectural heritage in anti-pollution policies.

Sanctions

Article 9

Each Party undertakes to ensure within the power available to it that infringements of the law protecting the architectural heritage are met with a relevant and adequate response by the competent authority. This response may in appropriate circumstances entail an obligation on the offender to demolish a newly erected building which fails to comply with the requirements or to restore a protected property to its former condition.

Conservation policies

Article 10

Each Party undertakes to adopt integrated conservation policies which:

1. include the protection of the architectural heritage as an essential town and country planning objective and ensure that this requirement is taken into account at all stages both in the drawing up of development plans and in the procedures for authorising work;
2. promote programmes for the restoration and maintenance of the architectural heritage;
3. make the conservation, promotion and enhancement of the architectural heritage a major feature of cultural, environmental and planning policies;
4. facilitate whenever possible in the town and country planning process the conservation and use of certain buildings whose intrinsic importance would not warrant protection within the meaning of Article 3, paragraph 1, of this Convention but which are of interest from the point of view of their setting in the urban or rural environment and of the quality of life;
5. foster, as being essential to the future of the architectural heritage, the application and development of traditional skills and materials.

Article 11

Due regard being had to the architectural and historical character of the heritage, each Party undertakes to foster:

- the use of protected properties in the light of the needs of contemporary life;
- the adaptation when appropriate of old buildings for new uses.

Article 12

While recognising the value of permitting public access to protected properties, each Party undertakes to take such action as may be necessary to ensure that the consequences of permitting this access, especially any structural development, do not adversely affect the architectural and historical character of such properties and their surroundings.

Article 13

In order to facilitate the implementation of these policies, each Party undertakes to foster, within its own political and administrative structure, effective co-operation at all levels between conservation, cultural, environmental and planning activities.

Participation and associations

Article 14

With a view to widening the impact of public authority measures for the identification, protection, restoration, maintenance, management and promotion of the architectural heritage, each Party undertakes:

1. to establish in the various stages of the decision-making process, appropriate machinery for the supply of information, consultation and co-operation between the State, the regional and local authorities, cultural institutions and associations, and the public;
2. to foster the development of sponsorship and of non-profit-making associations working in this field.

Information and training

Article 15

Each Party undertakes:

1. to develop public awareness of the value of conserving the architectural heritage, both as an element of cultural identity and as a source of inspiration and creativity for present and future generations;
2. to this end, to promote policies for disseminating information and fostering increased awareness, especially by the use of modern communication and promotion techniques, aimed in particular:
 - a. at awakening or increasing public interest, as from school-age, in the protection of the heritage, the quality of the built environment and architecture;
 - b. at demonstrating the unity of the cultural heritage and the links that exist between architecture, the arts, popular traditions and ways of life at European, national and regional levels alike.

Article 16

Each Party undertakes to promote training in the various occupations and craft trades involved in the conservation of the architectural heritage.

European co-ordination of conservation policies

Article 17

The Parties undertake to exchange information on their conservation policies concerning such matters as:

1. the methods to be adopted for the survey, protection and conservation of properties having regard to historic developments and to any increase in the number of properties concerned;
2. the ways in which the need to protect the architectural heritage can best be reconciled with the needs of contemporary economic, social and cultural activities;
3. the possibilities afforded by new technologies for identifying and recording the architectural heritage and combating the Deterioration of materials as well as in the fields of scientific research, restoration work and methods of managing and promoting the heritage;
4. ways of promoting architectural creation as our age's contribution to the European heritage.

Article 18

The Parties undertake to afford, whenever necessary, mutual technical assistance in the form of exchanges of experience and of experts in the conservation of the architectural heritage.

Article 19

The Parties undertake, within the framework of the relevant national legislation, or the international agreements, to encourage European exchanges of specialists in the conservation of the architectural heritage, including those responsible for further training.

Article 20

For the purposes of this Convention, a Committee of Experts set up by the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe pursuant to Article 17 of the Statute of the Council of Europe shall monitor the application of the Convention and in particular:

1. report periodically to the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe on the situation of architectural heritage conservation policies in the States Parties to the Convention, on the implementation of the principles embodied in the Convention and on its own activities;
2. propose to the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe measures for the implementation of the Convention's provisions, such measures being deemed to include multilateral activities, revision or amendment of the Convention and public information about the purpose of the Convention;
3. make recommendations to the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe regarding invitations to States which are not members of the Council of Europe to accede to this Convention.

Article 21

The provisions of this Convention shall not prejudice the application of such specific more favourable provisions concerning the protection of the properties described in Article 1 as are embodied in:

- the Convention for the Protection of World Cultural and Natural Heritage of 16 November 1972;
- the European Convention on the Protection of the Archaeological Heritage of 6 May 1969.

Final clauses

Article 22

1. This Convention shall be open for signature by the member States of the Council of Europe. It is subject to ratification, acceptance or approval. Instruments of ratification, acceptance or approval shall be deposited with the Secretary General of the Council of Europe.
2. This Convention shall enter into force on the first day of the month following the expiration of a period of three months after the date on which three member States of the Council of Europe have expressed their consent to be bound by the Convention in accordance with the provisions of the preceding paragraph.
3. In respect of any member State which subsequently expresses its consent to be bound by it, the Convention shall enter into force on the first day of the month following the expiration of a period of three months after the date of the deposit of the instrument of ratification, acceptance or approval.

Article 23

1. After the entry into force of this Convention, the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe may invite any State not a member of the Council and the European Economic Community to accede to this Convention by a decision taken by the majority provided for in Article 20.d of the Statute of the Council of Europe and by the unanimous vote of the representatives of the Contracting States entitled to sit on the Committee.
2. In respect of any acceding State or, should it accede, the European Economic Community, the Convention shall enter into force on the first day of the month following the expiration of a period of three months after the date of deposit of the

instrument of accession with the Secretary General of the Council of Europe.

Article 24

1. Any State may, at the time of signature or when depositing its instrument of ratification, acceptance, approval or accession, specify the territory or territories to which this Convention shall apply.
2. Any State may at any later date, by a declaration addressed to the Secretary General of the Council of Europe, extend the application of this Convention to any other territory specified in the declaration. In respect of such territory the Convention shall enter into force on the first day of the month following the expiration of a period of three months after the date of receipt of such declaration by the Secretary General.
3. Any declaration made under the two preceding paragraphs may, in respect of any territory specified in such declaration, be withdrawn by a notification addressed to the Secretary General. The withdrawal shall become effective on the first day of the month following the expiration of a period of six months after the date of receipt of such notification by the Secretary General.

Article 25

1. Any State may, at the time of signature or when depositing its instrument of ratification, acceptance, approval or accession, declare that it reserves the right not to comply, in whole or in part, with the provisions of Article 4, paragraphs c and d. No other reservations may be made.
2. Any Contracting State, which has made a reservation under the preceding paragraph, may wholly or partly withdraw it by means of a notification addressed to the Secretary General of the Council of Europe. The withdrawal shall take effect on the date of receipt of such notification by the Secretary General.
3. A Party, which has made a reservation in respect of the provisions mentioned in paragraph 1 above, may not claim the application of that provision by any other Party; it may, however, if its reservation is partial or conditional, claim the application of that provision in so far as it has itself accepted it.

Article 26

Any Party may at any time denounce this Convention by means of a notification addressed to the Secretary General of the Council of Europe.

1. Such denunciation shall become effective on the first day of the month following the expiration of a period of six months after the date of receipt of such notification by the Secretary General.

Article 27

The Secretary General of the Council of Europe shall notify the member States of the Council of Europe, any State which has acceded to this Convention and the European Economic Community if it has acceded, of:

- a. any signature;
- b. the deposit of any instrument of ratification, acceptance, approval or accession;
- c. any date of entry into force of this Convention in accordance with Articles 22, 23 and 24;
- d. any other act, notification or communication relating to this Convention.

In witness whereof the undersigned, being duly authorised thereto, have signed this Convention.

Done at Granada, this 3rd day of October 1985, in English and French, both texts being equally authentic, in a single copy which shall be deposited in the archives of the Council of Europe. The Secretary General of the Council of Europe shall transmit certified copies to each member State of the Council of Europe and to any State or to the European Economic Community invited to accede to this Convention.

Appendix III ix The Washington Charter (1987)

Charter for Conservation of Historic Towns and Urban Areas.

www.icomos.org

<http://www.international.icomos.orgcentre-doc-icomos@unesco.org>

Introduction

The Washington Charter was adopted by ICOMOS in October 1987 and is to be regarded as complementary to the ICOMOS' Venice Charter (1964). The Washington Charter goes further than the Venice Charter and includes all historic urban areas "... together with their natural and man-made environments" as the carrier of urban history and development worldwide.

The Washington Charter focuses on the concept of integrated planning saying that "... the conservation of historic towns and other historic urban areas should be an integral part of coherent policies of economic and social development and of urban and regional planning at every level". The Charter is recommending methods and instruments for conservation management and emphasizes the role of local politicians, legal authorities and the contribution of multidisciplinary groups.

CHARTER FOR THE CONSERVATION OF HISTORIC TOWNS AND URBAN AREAS

(Washington Charter - 1987)

Adopted by ICOMOS General Assembly in Washington D.C., October 1987

PREAMBLE AND DEFINITIONS

All urban communities, whether they have developed gradually over time or have been created deliberately, are an expression of the diversity of societies throughout history

This charter concerns historic urban areas, large and small, including cities, towns and historic centres or quarters, together with their natural and man-made environments. Beyond their role as historical documents, these areas embody the values of traditional urban cultures. Today many such areas are being threatened, physically degraded, damaged or even destroyed, by the impact of the urban development that follows industrialisation in societies everywhere

Faced with this dramatic situation, which often leads to irreversible cultural, social and even economic losses, the International Council on Monuments and Sites (ICOMOS) deems it necessary to draw up an international charter for historic towns and urban areas that will complement the "International Charter for the Conservation and Restoration of Monuments and Sites," usually referred to as "The Venice Charter." This new text defines the principles, objectives, and methods necessary for the conservation of historic towns and urban areas. It also seeks to promote the harmony of both private and community life in these areas and to encourage the preservation of those cultural properties, however modest in scale, that constitute the memory of mankind.

As set out in the UNESCO "Recommendation Concerning the Safeguarding and Contemporary Role of Historic Areas" (Warsaw - Nairobi, 1976), and also in various other international instruments, "the conservation of historic towns and urban areas" is understood to mean those steps necessary for the protection, conservation and restoration of such towns and areas as well as their development and harmonious adaptation to contemporary life.

PRINCIPLES AND OBJECTIVES

1. In order to be most effective, the conservation of historic towns and other historic urban areas should be an integral part of coherent policies of economic and social development and of urban and regional planning at every level.

2. Qualities to be preserved include the historic character of the town or urban area and all those material and spiritual elements that express this character, especially:

- a) Urban patterns as defined by lots and streets;
- b) Relationships between buildings and green and open spaces
- c) The formal appearance, interior and exterior, of buildings as defined by scale, size, style, construction, materials, colour and decoration;
- d) The relationship between the town or urban area and its surrounding setting, both natural and man-made; and
- e) The various functions that the town or urban area has acquired over time.

Any threat to these qualities would compromise the authenticity of the historic town or urban area.

3. The participation and the involvement of the residents are essential for the success of the conservation programme and should be encouraged. The conservation of historic towns and urban areas concerns their residents first of all.

4. Conservation in a historic town or urban area demands prudence, a systematic approach and discipline. Rigidity should be avoided since individual cases may present specific problems.

METHODS AND INSTRUMENTS

5. Planning for the conservation of historic towns and urban areas should be preceded by multidisciplinary studies.

Conservation plans must address all relevant factors including archaeology, history, architecture, techniques, sociology and economics.

The principal objectives of the conservation plan should be clearly stated as should the legal, administrative and financial measures necessary to attain them.

The conservation plan should aim at ensuring a harmonious relationship between the historic urban areas and the town as a whole.

The conservation plan should determine which buildings must be preserved, which should be preserved under certain circumstances and which, under quite exceptional circumstances, might be expendable.

Before any intervention, existing conditions in the area should be thoroughly documented.

The conservation plan should be supported by the residents of the historic area.

6. Until a conservation plan has been adopted, any necessary conservation activity should be carried out in accordance with the principles and the aims of this Charter and the Venice Charter.
7. Continuing maintenance is crucial to the effective conservation of a historic town or urban area.
8. New functions and activities should be compatible with the character of the historic town or urban area.
Adaptation of these areas to contemporary life requires the careful installation or improvement of public service facilities.
9. The improvement of housing should be one of the basic objectives of conservation.
10. When it is necessary to construct new buildings or adapt existing ones, the existing spatial layout should be respected, especially in terms of scale and lot size.
The introduction of contemporary elements in harmony with the surroundings should not be discouraged since such features can contribute to the enrichment of an area.
11. Knowledge of the history of a historic town or urban area should be expanded through archaeological investigation and appropriate preservation of archaeological findings.
12. Traffic inside a historic town or urban area must be controlled and parking areas must be planned so that they do not damage the historic fabric or its environment.
13. When urban or regional planning provides for the construction of major motorways, they must not penetrate a historic town or urban area, but they should improve access to them
14. Historic towns should be protected against natural disasters and nuisances such as pollution and vibrations in order to safeguard the heritage and for the security and well-being of the residents.
Whatever the nature of a disaster affecting a historic town or urban area, preventative and repair measures must be adapted to the specific character of the properties concerned.
15. In order to encourage their participation and involvement, a general information programme should be set up for all residents, beginning with children of school age
16. Specialised training should be provided for all those professions concerned with conservation.

Appendix III x Our Common Future (1987)

www.un.org

Introduction

Our Common Future (1987) is one of the three selected documents not having the focus on heritage or architectural heritage but decisive for the design of international as well as local policy documents concerned about ethics and sustainable development. The report is produced on request from the United Nation as a proposal for “A Global Agenda for Change” with focus on the uneven distribution and hazardous exploitation of the world’s resources. Some of the key concepts in the report are sustainable development, globalisation, localisation, diversity, management, environment, self-reliance, community participation and cooperation.

Even when *Our Common Future* mainly focuses on environmental issues it also embraces the aspect of diversity and the importance of networks for the protection and conservation of areas of certain interest (page 13). In its chapter on urban challenges the Report highlights the aspects of self-reliance and relationship between citizens and government (page 253). All these aspects and aims are relevant in relation to the management of Zanzibar Stone Town and to the influence between the international and local level of management.

Appendix III xi The Nara Document on Authenticity (1994) **<http://www.international.icomos.org>**

The Nara Document was adopted by ICOMOS in 1994 and is, as many of the previous international policy documents produced against the background and in the spirit of the Charter of Venice (1964). The Nara Document emphasises as the title indicates: authenticity. None the less globalisation and homogenisation, nationalism and suppression and the consideration of conservation practice are subjects highlighted in the Document that also put forward the national and regional responsibility for a sustainable heritage management. The Nara Document also says; “The understanding of authenticity plays a fundamental role in all scientific studies of the cultural heritage, ... “.

THE NARA DOCUMENT ON AUTHENTICITY (1994)

Preamble

1. We, the experts assembled in Nara (Japan), wish to acknowledge the generous spirit and intellectual courage of the Japanese authorities in providing a timely forum in which we could challenge conventional thinking in the conservation field, and debate ways and means of broadening our horizons to bring greater respect for cultural and heritage diversity to conservation practice.
2. We also wish to acknowledge the value of the framework for discussion provided by the World Heritage Committee's desire to apply the test of authenticity in ways which accord full respect to the social and cultural values of all societies, in examining the outstanding universal value of cultural properties proposed for the World Heritage List.
3. The Nara Document on Authenticity is conceived in the spirit of the Charter of Venice, 1964, and builds on it and extends it in response to the expanding scope of cultural heritage concerns and interests in our contemporary world.
4. In a world that is increasingly subject to the forces of globalisation and homogenisation, and in a world in which the search for cultural identity is sometimes pursued through aggressive nationalism and the suppression of the cultures of minorities, the essential contribution made by the consideration of authenticity in conservation practice is to clarify and illuminate the collective memory of humanity.

Cultural Diversity and Heritage Diversity

5. The diversity of cultures and heritage in our world is an irreplaceable source of spiritual and intellectual richness for all humankind. The protection and enhancement of cultural and heritage diversity in our world should be actively promoted as an essential aspect of human development.
6. Cultural heritage diversity exists in time and space, and demands respect for other cultures and all aspects of their belief systems. In cases where cultural values appear to be in conflict, respect for cultural diversity demands acknowledgment of the legitimacy of the cultural values of all parties.
7. All cultures and societies are rooted in the particular forms and means of tangible and intangible expression which constitute their heritage, and these should be respected.
8. It is important to underline a fundamental principle of UNESCO, to the effect that the cultural heritage of each is the cultural heritage of all. Responsibility for cultural heritage and the management of it belongs, in the first place, to the cultural community that has generated it, and subsequently to that which cares for it. However, in addition to these responsibilities, adherence to the international charters and conventions developed for conservation of cultural heritage also obliges consideration of the principles and responsibilities flowing from them. Balancing their own requirements with those of other cultural communities is, for each community, highly desirable, provided achieving this balance does not undermine their fundamental cultural values.

Values and authenticity

9. Conservation of cultural heritage in all its forms and historical periods is rooted in the values attributed to the heritage. Our ability to understand these values depends, in part, on the degree to which information sources about these values may be understood as credible or truthful. Knowledge and understanding of these sources of information, in relation to original and subsequent characteristics of the cultural heritage, and their meaning, is a requisite basis for assessing all aspects of authenticity.
10. Authenticity, considered in this way and affirmed in the Charter of Venice, appears as the essential qualifying factor concerning values. The understanding of authenticity plays a fundamental role in all scientific studies of the cultural heritage, in conservation and restoration planning, as well as within the inscription procedures used for the World Heritage Convention and other cultural heritage inventories.
11. All judgements about values attributed to cultural properties as well as the credibility of related information sources may differ from culture to culture, and even within the same culture. It is thus not possible to base judgements of values and authenticity within fixed criteria. On the contrary, the respect due to all cultures requires that heritage properties must be considered and judged within the cultural contexts to which they belong.
12. Therefore, it is of the highest importance and urgency that, within each culture, recognition be accorded to the specific nature of its heritage values and the credibility and truthfulness of related information sources.
13. Depending on the nature of the cultural heritage, its cultural context, and its evolution through time, authenticity judgements may be linked to the worth of a great variety of sources of information. Aspects of the sources may include form and design, materials and substance, use and function, traditions and techniques, location and setting, and spirit and feeling, and other internal and external factors. The use of these sources permits elaboration of the specific artistic, historic, social, and scientific dimensions of the cultural heritage being examined.

Appendix 1

Suggestions for follow-up (proposed by H. Stovel)

1. Respect for cultural and heritage diversity requires conscious efforts to avoid imposing mechanistic formulae or standardized procedures in attempting to define or determine authenticity of particular monuments and sites.
2. Efforts to determine authenticity in a manner respectful of cultures and heritage diversity requires approaches which encourage cultures to develop analytical processes and tools specific to their nature and needs. Such approaches may have several aspects in common:
 - efforts to ensure assessment of authenticity involve multidisciplinary collaboration and the appropriate utilisation of all available expertise and knowledge;

- efforts to ensure attributed values are truly representative of a culture and the diversity of its interests, in particular monuments and sites;
- efforts to document clearly the particular nature of authenticity for monuments and sites as a practical guide to future treatment and monitoring;
- efforts to update authenticity assessments in light of changing values and circumstances.

3. Particularly important are efforts to ensure that attributed values are respected, and that their determination included efforts to build, as far as possible, a multidisciplinary and community consensus concerning these values.

4. Approaches should also build on and facilitate international co-operation among all those with an interest in conservation of cultural heritage, in order to improve global respect and understanding for the diverse expressions and values of each culture.

5. Continuation and extension of this dialogue to the various regions and cultures of the world is a prerequisite to increasing the practical value of consideration of authenticity in the conservation of the common heritage of humankind.

6. Increasing awareness within the public of this fundamental dimension of heritage is an absolute necessity in order to arrive at concrete measures for safeguarding the vestiges of the past. This means developing greater understanding of the values represented by the cultural properties themselves, as well as respecting the role such monuments and sites play in contemporary society.

Appendix II Definitions

Conservation: all efforts designed to understand cultural heritage, know its history and meaning, ensure its material safeguard and, as required, its presentation, restoration and enhancement. (Cultural heritage is understood to include monuments, groups of buildings and sites of cultural value as defined in article one of the World Heritage Convention).

Information sources: all material, written, oral and figurative sources which make it possible to know the nature, specifications, meaning and history of the cultural heritage.

The Nara Document on Authenticity was drafted by the 45 participants at the Nara Conference on Authenticity in Relation to the World Heritage Convention, held at Nara, Japan, from 1-6 November 1994, at the invitation of the Agency for Cultural Affairs (Government of Japan) and the Nara Prefecture. The Agency organized the Nara Conference in cooperation with UNESCO, ICCROM and ICOMOS. This final version of the Nara Document has been edited by the general rapporteurs of the Nara Conference, Mr. Raymond Lemaire and Mr. Herb Stovel.

Appendix III xii The Istanbul Declaration – The Habitat Agenda (1996)

www.undp.org/

Introduction

The Istanbul Declaration and the Habitat Agenda were adopted at the United Nations Conference on Human Settlements (Habitat II) in June 1996 and lean on the Rio Declaration on Environment and Development and the principles for sustainable development set out in Agenda 21. In chapter II: Goals and Principles the Declaration says in article 30: “The quality of life of all people depends, among other economic, social, environmental and cultural factors, on the physical conditions and spatial characteristics of our villages, towns and cities”. Further it says: “The preservation of the natural heritage and historical human settlements, including sites, monuments and buildings, particularly those protected under the UNESCO Convention on World Heritage Sites, should be assisted, including through international cooperation” (page 18). A Plan of Action guides the Declaration: the Habitat Agenda, which goes even further in focusing on the importance of conservation and rehabilitation of the historical and cultural heritage as a means of identity building “... represent an important element of stable and humane social life and community pride” (page 88).

In the cultural context and history of Zanzibar and the heritage management of the Stone Town re-conceptualisation of identity is one of the main challenging topics to be developed. The change of inhabitants and the change of the use of buildings have caused challenges of both technical and aesthetic nature.

Appendix III xiii International Cultural Tourism Charter (1999)
Managing Tourism at Places of Heritage Significance.
<http://www.international.icomos.org>

Introduction

Once again ICOMOS is the launcher of a heritage charter. In its introduction the Charter points out the fact that "... cultural heritage belongs to all people. We each have a right and responsibility to understand, appreciate and conserve its universal value". The Charter includes "... landscapes, historic places, sites and built environment as well as bio-diversity, collections, past and continuing cultural practices, knowledge and living experiences" and argues that globalisation, segregation, fundamentalism and illiteracy are the largest threats to the deprivation of a common cultural heritage. The objectives of the International Cultural Tourism Charter are to facilitate and encourage bodies in charge of heritage management to manage the increase of tourism and to support the cooperation and dialogue between the tourism industry and heritage management.

As seen in the streets of Zanzibar Stone Town the amount of tourists has increased and the articles and owners of the shops have changed from serving the local inhabitants to selling tourist oriented objects. By including the Ministry of Tourism in the Advisory Board of STCDA the intention was to support a dialogue between tourism and heritage management. This dual co-operation is scarcely seen in the street life and the management of tourism in the Stone Town.

INTERNATIONAL CULTURAL TOURISM CHARTER
Managing Tourism at Places of Heritage Significance.
1999)

Adopted by ICOMOS at the 12th General Assembly in Mexico, October 1999

INTRODUCTION

The Charter Ethos

At the broadest level, the natural and cultural heritage belongs to all people. We each have a right and responsibility to understand, appreciate and conserve its universal values.

Heritage is a broad concept and includes the natural as well as the cultural environment. It encompasses landscapes, historic places, sites and built environments, as well as bio-diversity, collections, past and continuing cultural practices, knowledge and living experiences. It records and expresses the long processes of historic development, forming the essence of diverse national, regional, indigenous and local identities and is an integral part of modern life. It is a dynamic reference point and positive instrument for growth and change. The particular heritage and collective memory of each locality or community is irreplaceable and an important foundation for development, both now and into the future.

At a time of increasing globalisation, the protection, conservation, interpretation and presentation of the heritage and cultural diversity of any particular place or region is an important challenge for people everywhere. However, management of that heritage, within a framework of internationally recognised and appropriately applied standards, is usually the responsibility of the particular community or custodian group.

A primary objective for managing heritage is to communicate its significance and need for its conservation to its host community and to visitors. Reasonable and well managed physical, intellectual and/or emotive access to heritage and cultural development is both a right and a privilege. It brings with it a duty of respect for the heritage values, interests and equity of the present-day host community, indigenous custodians or owners of historic property and for the landscapes and cultures from which that heritage evolved.

The Dynamic Interaction between Tourism and Cultural Heritage

Domestic and international tourism continues to be among the foremost vehicles for cultural exchange, providing a personal experience, not only of that which has survived from the past, but of the contemporary life and society of others. It is increasingly appreciated as a positive force for natural and cultural conservation. Tourism can capture the economic characteristics of the heritage and harness these for conservation by generating funding, educating the community and influencing policy. It is an essential part of many national and regional economies and can be an important factor in development, when managed successfully.

Tourism itself has become an increasingly complex phenomenon, with political, economic, social, cultural, educational, bio-physical, ecological and aesthetic dimensions. The achievement of a beneficial inter-action between the potentially conflicting expectations and aspirations of visitors and host or local communities, presents many challenges and opportunities.

The natural and cultural heritage, diversities and living cultures are major tourism attractions. Excessive or poorly-managed tourism and tourism related development can threaten their physical nature, integrity and significant characteristics. The ecological setting, culture and lifestyles of host communities may also be degraded, along with the visitor's experience of the place

Tourism should bring benefits to host communities and provide an important means and motivation for them to care for and maintain their heritage and cultural practices. The involvement and co-operation of local and/or indigenous community representatives, conservationists, tourism operators, property owners, policy makers, those preparing national development plans and site managers is necessary to achieve a sustainable tourism industry and enhance the protection of heritage resources for future generations.

ICOMOS, the International Council on Monuments and Sites, as the author of this Charter, other international organisations and the tourism industry, are dedicated to this challenge.

Objectives of the Charter

The Objectives of the International Cultural Tourism Charter are:

- To facilitate and encourage those involved with heritage conservation and management to make the significance of that heritage accessible to the host community and visitors.
- To facilitate and encourage the tourism industry to promote and manage tourism in ways that respect and enhance the heritage and living cultures of host communities.
- To facilitate and encourage a dialogue between conservation interests and the tourism industry about the importance and fragile nature of heritage places, collections and living cultures, including the need to achieve a sustainable future for them.
- To encourage those formulating plans and policies to develop detailed, measurable goals and strategies relating to the presentation and interpretation of heritage places and cultural activities, in the context of their preservation and conservation.

In addition,

- The Charter supports wider initiatives by ICOMOS, other international bodies and the tourism industry in maintaining the

integrity of heritage management and conservation.

- The Charter encourages the involvement of all those with relevant or at times conflicting interests, responsibilities and obligations to join in achieving its objectives.
- The Charter encourages the formulation of detailed guidelines by interested parties, facilitating the implementation of the Principles to their specific circumstances or the requirements of particular organisations and communities.

PRINCIPLES OF THE CULTURAL TOURISM CHARTER

Principle 1

Since domestic and international tourism is among the foremost vehicles for cultural exchange, conservation should provide responsible and well managed opportunities for members of the host community and visitors to experience and understand that community's heritage and culture at first hand.

1.1 The natural and cultural heritage is a material and spiritual resource, providing a narrative of historical development. It has an important role in modern life and should be made physically, intellectually and/or emotively accessible to the general public. Programmes for the protection and conservation of the physical attributes, intangible aspects, contemporary cultural expressions and broad context, should facilitate an understanding and appreciation of the heritage significance by the host community and the visitor, in an equitable and affordable manner.

1.2 Individual aspects of natural and cultural heritage have differing levels of significance, some with universal values, others of national, regional or local importance. Interpretation programmes should present that significance in a relevant and accessible manner to the host community and the visitor, with appropriate, stimulating and contemporary forms of education, media, technology and personal explanation of historical, environmental and cultural information.

1.3 Interpretation and presentation programmes should facilitate and encourage the high level of public awareness and support necessary for the long term survival of the natural and cultural heritage.

1.4 Interpretation programmes should present the significance of heritage places, traditions and cultural practices within the past experience and present diversities of the area and the host community, including that of minority cultural or linguistic groups. The visitor should always be informed of the differing cultural values that may be ascribed to a particular heritage resource.

Principle 2

The relationship between Heritage Places and Tourism is dynamic and may involve conflicting values. It should be managed in a sustainable way for present and future generations.

2.1 Places of heritage significance have an intrinsic value for all people as an important basis for cultural diversity and social development. The long term protection and conservation of living cultures, heritage places, collections, their physical and ecological integrity and their environmental context, should be an essential component of social, economic, political, legislative, cultural and tourism development policies.'

2.2 The interaction between heritage resources or values and tourism is dynamic and ever changing, generating opportunities and challenges, as well as potential conflicts. Tourism projects, activities and developments should achieve positive outcomes and minimise adverse impacts on the heritage and lifestyles of the host community, while responding to the needs and aspirations of the visitor.

2.3 Conservation, interpretation and tourism development programmes should be based on a comprehensive understanding of the specific, but often complex or conflicting aspects of heritage significance of the particular place. Continuing research and consultation are important to furthering the evolving understanding and appreciation of that significance.

2.4 The retention of the authenticity of heritage places and collections is important. It is an essential element of their cultural significance, as expressed in the physical material, collected memory and intangible traditions that remain from the past. Programmes should present and interpret the authenticity of places and cultural experiences to enhance the appreciation and understanding of that cultural heritage.

2.5 Tourism development and infrastructure projects should take account of the aesthetic, social and cultural dimensions, natural and cultural landscapes, bio-diversity characteristics and the broader visual context of heritage places. Preference should be given to using local materials and take account of local architectural styles or vernacular traditions

2.6 Before heritage places are promoted or developed for increased tourism, management plans should assess the natural and cultural values of the resource. They should then establish appropriate limits of acceptable change, particularly in relation to the impact of visitor numbers on the physical characteristics, integrity, ecology and biodiversity of the place, local access and transportation systems and the social, economic and cultural well being of the host community. If the likely level of change is unacceptable the development proposal should be modified

2.7 There should be on-going programmes of evaluation to assess the progressive impacts of tourism activities and development on the particular place or community.

Principle 3

Conservation and Tourism Planning for Heritage Places should ensure that the Visitor Experience will be worthwhile, satisfying and enjoyable

3 Conservation and tourism programmes should present high quality information to optimise the visitor's understanding of the significant heritage characteristics and of the need for their protection, enabling the visitor to enjoy the place in an appropriate manner.

3.2 Visitors should be able to experience the heritage place at their own pace, if they so choose. Specific circulation routes may be necessary to minimise impacts on the integrity and physical fabric of a place, its natural and cultural characteristics.

3.3 Respect for the sanctity of spiritual places, practices and traditions is an important consideration for site managers, visitors,

policy makers, planners and tourism operators. Visitors should be encouraged to behave as welcomed guests, respecting the values and lifestyles of the host community, rejecting possible theft or illicit trade in cultural property and conducting themselves in a responsible manner which would generate a renewed welcome, should they return

3.4 Planning for tourism activities should provide appropriate facilities for the comfort, safety and well-being of the visitor, that enhance the enjoyment of the visit but do not adversely impact on the significant features or ecological characteristics.

Principle 4

Host communities and indigenous peoples should be involved in planning for conservation and tourism.

4.1 The rights and interests of the host community, at regional and local levels, property owners and relevant indigenous peoples who may exercise traditional rights or responsibilities over their own land and its significant sites, should be respected. They should be involved in establishing goals, strategies, policies and protocols for the identification, conservation, management, presentation and interpretation of their heritage resources, cultural practices and contemporary cultural expressions, in the tourism context.

4.2 While the heritage of any specific place or region may have a universal dimension, the needs and wishes of some communities or indigenous peoples to restrict or manage physical, spiritual or intellectual access to certain cultural practices, knowledge, beliefs, activities, artefacts or sites should be respected.

Principle 5

Tourism and conservation activities should benefit the host community

5.1 Policy makers should promote measures for the equitable distribution of the benefits of tourism to be shared across countries or regions, improving the levels of socio-economic development and contributing where necessary to poverty alleviation.

5.2 Conservation management and tourism activities should provide equitable economic, social and cultural benefits to the men and women of the host or local community, at all levels, through education, training and the creation of full-time employment opportunities.

5.3 A significant proportion of the revenue specifically derived from tourism programmes to heritage places should be allotted to the protection, conservation and presentation of those places, including their natural and cultural contexts. Where possible, visitors should be advised of this revenue allocation.

5.4 Tourism programmes should encourage the training and employment of guides and site interpreters from the host community to enhance the skills of local people in the presentation and interpretation of their cultural values.

5.5 Heritage interpretation and education programmes among the people of the host community should encourage the involvement of local site interpreters. The programmes should promote a knowledge and respect for their heritage, encouraging the local people to take a direct interest in its care and conservation.

5.6 Conservation management and tourism programmes should include education and training opportunities for policy makers, planners, researchers, designers, architects, interpreters, conservators and tourism operators. Participants should be encouraged to understand and help resolve the at times conflicting issues, opportunities and problems encountered by their colleagues.

Principle 6

Tourism promotion programmes should protect and enhance Natural and Cultural Heritage characteristics.

6.1 Tourism promotion programmes should create realistic expectations and responsibly inform potential visitors of the specific heritage characteristics of a place or host community, thereby encouraging them to behave appropriately.

6.2 Places and collections of heritage significance should be promoted and managed in ways which protect their authenticity and enhance the visitor experience by minimising fluctuations in arrivals and avoiding excessive numbers of visitors at any one time.

6.3 Tourism promotion programmes should provide a wider distribution of benefits and relieve the pressures on more popular places by encouraging visitors to experience the wider cultural and natural heritage characteristics of the region or locality.

6.4 The promotion, distribution and sale of local crafts and other products should provide a reasonable social and economic return to the host community, while ensuring that their cultural integrity is not degraded.

Appendix III xiv The Declaration on our Cultural Diversity (2002)

www.unesco.org

The Declaration on our Cultural Diversity was launched by UNESCO at the World Summit on Sustainable Development in Johannesburg, 2002. The concept of diversity within the frame of cultural heritage was for the first time introduced in 1975 in accordance with the Declaration of Amsterdam, the European Charter of the Architectural Heritage and in the Bruges Resolution the same year. Eight years later Our Common Future set focus on the concept of diversity and since then all international policy documents analysed in this thesis have taken the aspect of diversity into consideration.

As the Declaration was initiated in the wake of September 11th 2001, it also emphasizes identity and cultural rights “..., two approaches brought together by the Declaration, which has highlighted the causal link uniting two complementary attitudes. One cannot exist without the other”. (Cultural Diversity: A Vision, 2002:2). The Declaration also argues in its introductory remarks; “Noting that culture is at the heart of contemporary debates about identity, social cohesion, and development of knowledge based economy”.

In its 12 articles the Declaration focuses on diversity, identity and pluralism, human rights, creativity and international solidarity and emphasises the importance of international cooperation and the impact on policy making.

Appendix III xv Inscription

Justification for inscription of Zanzibar Stone Town on the World Heritage List (2000)

www.unesco.org Operational Guidelines

In accordance to the UNESCO' World Heritage Convention (1972) UNESCO established the World Heritage List, the List of World Heritage in Danger and the World Heritage Fund.

The establishment of the World Heritage List is guided by eight Principles under which there are 67 paragraphs elaborating and stating the criteria for the cultural and natural sites being listed, the obligations of the states parties, and procedures for election and delectation as well as, the formal appearance of the applications and content of nomination, procedures and schedule.

The third Principle sets the Criteria for the inclusion of cultural properties in paragraph 23, 24, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32 33 and 34. Among the criteria under paragraph 24 the justification for inclusion on the World Heritage List was linked to the following three criteria:

Criterion (ii) The Stone Town of Zanzibar is an outstanding material manifestation of cultural fusion and harmonization.

Criterion (iii) For many centuries there was intense sea borne trading activity between Asia and Africa, and this is illustrated in an exceptional manner by the architecture and structure of the Stone Town.

Criterion (vi) Zanzibar has great symbolic importance in the suppression of slavery, since it was one of the main slave trade ports in East Africa and also the base from which its opponents such as David Livingston conducted their campaign

In addition to the three criteria the enlisting committee also state as an argument to be listed for the Stone Town.

“The Committee request the State Party to report to the 26th session of the Committee on the progress made in clarifying the co-ordinating and the supervisory role and strengthening of the Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority.”

The consequence of Zanzibar Stone Town being listed is discussed in chapter 4.5.2

Appendix IV i Zanzibar - Planning Periods from 1922 - 1994

An overview and introduction to the legal instruments of Zanzibar:

Planning periods – external, internal (local) experts and aims of the policy documents

1922	Towns Decree
1923	Lanchester - Plan
Ext. expert:	H. V. Lanchester
Internal “	R. C. Crofton, SWT Lie, Rankine, Taylor
Aim:	Health improvements, racial order, establishing limits of alignments
1929	The Township Decree – The Town and Planning Decree
1929	The Ancient Monument Preservation Decree
1946 – 55	Development Plan
Ext. expert:	H. Thornley–Dyer
Internal “	E. A. Dutton, R. S. Wheatly
Aim:	Self-reliant municipality, Model Homes, Model Layouts
1955	Town and Planning Bill
1954 – 64	Zanzibar Town Planning Scheme
Ext. expert:	H. Kendall
Internal “	G. Mill, A. P. Cumming-Bruce, H. Hawker
Aim:	Zoning, population, decentralisation, preventing suburbs
1959	Planning Scheme
1968	Zanzibar Town Master Plan
Ext. expert:	H. Scholz, GDR Team
Internal „	A. Karume, A. Jumbe, A. A. Abdulwahab
Aim:	Better housing for everybody
1982	Zanzibar Town Master Plan
Ext. expert:	Quian Kequan, Expert Team of PRC
Internal “	A. Jumbe, Salim Amour, I. A. Wakil, A. A. Abdulwahab
Aim:	Decentralization, zoning, reintroducing of local authorities, municipal bodies.
1994	The Town and Country Planning Decree (Cap 85)
Ext. expert:	Francesco Siravo, The Aga Khan Trust for Culture
Internal:	Ministry of Water, Construction, Energy, Lands and Environment and Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority.
Aim:	Planning statement and regulations for the Stone Town Conservation Plan.
1994	Master Plan for the Historic Stone Town of Zanzibar

Appendix IV ii Comments on Township Decree, 1929

AB 39/182 Townships Decree

The introduction starts with: *It should be lawful for the British Resident by Notice to constitute a town in any suitable area and to define limits and boundaries.*

In para 16: It shall be lawful for the Government to remove all obstructions in streets such as verandas, door-ways, placed in position prior to date of survey upon compensation to be determined by arbitration.

Para 17: All obstructions placed since survey plan to be removed with or without compensation as may be determined.

For the first time a Building Authority is established which says that every building already erected or that may hereafter be erected in a town shall be subject to control and supervision of the Building Authority and to inspection. A building law and regulations are set up which contain a chapter on Preservation of Trees but do not mention anything about preserving architecture or other cultural items. The content of the Building Decree and later amendments¹ is to establish rents and charge debts.

A DECREE FOR THE REGULATION OF TOWNS No. 2 of 1929

The object of the Decree is to enact a code of municipal law of general application for the Government of Towns in the Protectorate. "The Towns Decree, 1929" consisting of Rating, Streets, Buildings and Advertisements, Drainage, Street Cleaning and Removal of Refuse, Lighting, Water Supply, Fire Protection. Parks, Gardens and Trees.

Based on communication between the Acting British Resident R. H. Crofton and the Sultan of Zanzibar Khalifa bin Harub, where Mr. Crofton however comments on *this peculiar form of decentralised administration*².

The last amendment signed 22nd. December 1955 as one in a long formal row of communication between the Sultan of Zanzibar and the Attorney General.

¹ ZNA: AB 39/182. A bill entitled; A Decree to Amend the Towns Decree, signed 19th. September 1940

² Legal Report by Attorney General. The Towns Decree, No. 2 of 1929

Appendix IV iii Comments on The Town and Planning Bill 1955

Ref.: ZNA: DA-1/261 Planning precedence – controlling

A comment from the Housing officer on the Board, A.P. Cumming-Bruce to the secretary to the Town and Planning Board: “*are we not trying to forge a stupendous hammer in order to crack four small (huts are corrected into) nuts?*” Cumming-Bruce questions the draft as being incomprehensible to the lay public who at that time had positions on the urban council and asked for qualified Town Planning Staff.

The planning staff were obviously not the only ones not fit for their positions at that time. In a letter from the Landowners’ Association dated 8th January 1959 the organisation’s Vice President says:

“Moreover, most of the landlords whose properties are affected, do not even know of what and how their buildings and plots are affected and as such there is strong general dissatisfaction, misunderstanding and fear in the minds of the Landlords.”

Most of the members do not understand the plans, which have been published and exhibited, and as such our association again request that the time for lodging objections be extended upon 8th. June 1959.

The Town and Planning Bill 1955

“The object of this Bill is the replacement of the Town Planning Decree with a comprehensive measure more in keeping with present day requirements and the modern conception of town and country planning. The general purpose and scope of the legislation, which this Bill seeks to effect, is explained below”.

Part IV gives additional powers of control to planning authorities in relation to the preservation of trees and woodlands and of buildings of special architectural and historical interest.

Comments referring to a debate dated 25th August 1955 where part IV says:

“The Bill itself does not make any specific provisions. What it does is to make provisions for suitable regulations to be made as and when necessary”.

Part IV – Additional Powers of Control.

“Preservation of buildings of special architectural or historical interest”.

If it appears to a planning authority that is expedient to make provisions for the preservation of any building of special architectural or historical interest in the area for which the authority has been appointed, it may for that purpose make an order (a building preservation order) restricting the demolition, alteration or extension of the building.

The consent of the planning authority must be obtained for the execution of the works of any description specified in this order. And a system of applying, permission, payment and objections are introduced.

“A building preservation order shall not take effect until the British Resident confirms it, and the British Resident may confirm any such order either without modifications or with such modifications, as he considers expedient.

Provided that no such order shall be made by planning authority or confirmed by the British Resident, unless the authority and the British Resident are satisfied that the execution of the works specified in the order would not seriously affect the character of the building.

Nothing in this section or in any order made there under shall render unlawful the execution of any works which are urgently necessary in the interest of safety or health or for the preservation of the building and the neighbouring property, so long as notice in writing of the proposed execution of the works is given as soon as may be after necessity for the works arises to the authority by whom the order was made.”

Appendix IV iv Comments on The Planning Scheme (1959)

and The Chinese Master plan (1982)

The Planning Scheme (1959)

In July 1959 the British Resident directed a Planning Scheme to be put into force from August 1st. 1959.

“...to ensure a proper development of Zanzibar when it comes to structural soundness and overcrowding and both in relation to the natural growth and the improvement of the existing conditions”.¹

The Planning Scheme was based upon a thorough survey and registration. In short the Scheme was concentrated on improvement of living conditions illustrated by a zoning plan, and the development of roads. However it also included regulations covering the design of existing buildings where alterations and improvements were to take place. The Scheme Plans also define certain regulation lines intended to secure the proper development of the particular area concerned², referring to the proposed plan, which illustrates areas of certain interest.

“And it is therefore most important that everything should be done to ensure that Zanzibar retains its traditional romantic aspect”³.

The Planning Scheme relates the development within the Stone Town to two factors; residential density and building density. Unlike the Lanchester Plan (1929) that divides the Town into racial zones the Planning Scheme of 1959 divides the areas into five categories of residential zones like high class and medium class zones, areas intended to encourage development of permanent dwellings based on different density, and a village zone on the urban periphery.

The Chinese Master Plan (1982)

From 1980 to 1982 a team of town planners from the People’s Republic of China drew up a new land use plan for the entire town area. The plan was not specifically concentrated on the Stone Town. The Master Plan called for preservation of the historic area but made no recommendations on specific conservation actions for the Stone Town as a unique heritage contrary to the remaining part of the Zanzibar municipality, although it had been apparent since the 1970s that several historic buildings and monuments began to show serious evidence of decay.

The Chinese Master Plan remained an abstract scheme on the drawing board. To reinforce the “existing image” of the Stone Town, the Chinese team recommended that the planning authority should strictly control new or renovated buildings to ensure that they harmonized with the existing building line, height, spacing and tone of the streetscape: All historical structures should be documented and classified into two grades. They were not experts in conservation and their primary focus lay elsewhere. The Chinese understood the historical value of the Stone Town in at least two senses. One was its inherent worth as a site of indigenous heritage. The other was its potential as an economic asset in the process of reconstruction of nationalism and in the development of tourism.

¹ ZNA: AK-19/15TOWN AND COUNTRY PLANNING DECREE 1955

² ZNA: AK-19/15 Ibid

³ ZNA: AK-19/15 Departmental Observations by Senior Commissioner, 1958

**THE STONE TOWN CONSERVATION AND DEVELOPMENT
AUTHORITY ACT, 1994**

ARRANGEMENT OF SECTIONS

SECTION	TITLE
1.	Short title and commencement.
2.	Interpretation.
3.	Establishment of the Authority.
4.	Composition of the Authority.
5.	Appointment of the Director General and others.
6.	Functions of the Authority.
7.	Power of the Authority to make Rules.
8.	Administration.
9.	Board.
10.	Functions of the Advisory Board.
11.	Procedure of Appeal.
12.	Quorum of a meeting.
13.	Powers of the Minister.
14.	Offences.
15.	Emergency conservatory measures.
16.	Penalty where not expressly provided.
17.	Overriding power.

ACT NO. 3 OF 1994

I ASSENT

DR. SALMIN AMOUR
PRESIDENT OF ZANZIBAR
AND
CHAIRMAN OF THE REVOLUTIONARY COUNCIL

2 JUNE, 1994

AN ACT TO ESTABLISH THE STONE TOWN CONSERVATION
AND DEVELOPMENT AUTHORITY AND OTHER MATTERS
CONNECTED THEREWITH

ENACTED by the House of Representatives of Zanzibar.

PART I
PRELIMINARY

Short title
and
commence-
ment.

1. This Act may be cited as the Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority Act, 1994 and shall come into operation immediately ~~after~~ being assented to by the President.

Interpreta-
tion.

2. In this Act unless the context otherwise requires:-

"Authority" means the Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority established under section 3 of this Act;

"Board" means the Stone Town Advisory Board established by this Act;

"Conservation Area" means the area declared as such by the Minister as more particularly shown in the map which is a schedule hereto;

"Conservation" means the process of managing and maintaining a place, a building or any object so as to return its historical, cultural significant qualities; and also includes preservation, restoration, reconstruction or adaptation;

"Development" means the carrying out of building, engineering, mining or other operations in, or, over the land; or the making of any material changes in the use of any building or land; or the deposit of material; or the sub-division of any land;

"Director General" means the Director General of the Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority.

"Minister" means the Minister for the time being responsible for the Stone Town;

"Stone Town" means all that area of Zanzibar Town west of the Creek Road and a strip of 50 meters on both sides of the middle of Darajani Street.

PART II THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE AUTHORITY AND OTHER COMMITTEES

3.-(1) There is hereby established an Authority to be known as the Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority.

Establishment of the Authority.

(2) The Authority shall be an autonomous Government Organ with a common seal and shall be capable in its name of:-

- (a) Suing and being sued;
- (b) borrowing and lending money; and
- (c) taking, purchasing or otherwise acquiring, holding, changing and disposing of movable and immovable property.

(3) The Authority shall have exclusive jurisdiction in the administration of Stone Town.

(4) The Authority shall be answerable to the Minister.

4. The Authority shall consist of the following members:-

Composition of the Authority.

- (a) The Director General who shall be Chief Executive of the Authority;
- (b) Director of Departments of the Authority.

5.-(1) The Director General and other Directors of Departments shall be appointed by the President.

Appointment of the Director General and others.

(2) The Director General shall take oath of allegiance before the President.

(3) The Authority may appoint such other officers and staff as it may consider necessary for the efficient discharge of responsibilities and duties of the Authority.

(4) The Director General shall, on his own or by officers of the Authority or, where appropriate, by agent, be responsible to exercise all the powers of the Authority.

Functions of
the
Authority.

6.-(1) The Authority shall exercise the following functions:-

- (a) to initiate, plan, prepare, co-ordinate and control all matters related to the conservation of the Stone Town.
- (b) to examine and approve all conservation and development efforts and projects in the Stone Town and monitor infrastructure development;
- (c) to prepare and declare conservation Master Plan for the Stone Town or conservation area and monitor developments to bring them in conformity with the plan;
- (d) to advise the private sector, Government departments or other institutions on issues concerning restoration, rehabilitation, conversion of buildings and open spaces;
- (e) to execute the plan approval procedure, the issuing of building permits and monitoring of building projects;
- (f) to take care for the proper use and maintenance of public areas and Government building in the Stone Town;
- (g) to take legal action against any person who constructs, uses, demolishes or alters any building or open space unlawfully;
- (h) to do all such other acts as may be incidental or conducive to the attainment of the objectives of the Authority under the provisions of this Act; and
- (i) to do any other thing given to the Authority by the Minister under this Act.

(2) For the purpose of carrying out the functions and objectives specified in subsection (1), the Authority shall perform the following powers:-

- (a) to advise the Minister on all aspects of development of the Stone Town; and
- (b) to implement the policies and programmes of the Government with regard to development of the Stone Town.

7.-(1) Without prejudice to the generality of the powers conferred under this, the authority shall make such rules as may be required for the purpose of ensuring orderly and fair development of the Stone Town and in particular rules to:-

Power of the Authority to make Rules.

- (a) determine application procedures and criteria for the approval of any person in the Stone Town;
- (b) ensure adequate security within the Stone Town; and
- (c) determine the form of permits to be issued under this Act, and the procedures for amendment and revocation of such permits.

(2) All rules made under this Act shall be approved by the Minister and shall be published in the Gazette:

Provided that the rules shall not be invalid and ineffectual by reason only of not being published in the Gazette.

8. The management and control of the Stone Town conservation and Development Authority shall be under the direction of the Minister.

Administration.

9.-(1) There shall be an Advisory Board constituted of a Chairman and not less than five and not more than seven members.

Board.

(2) The Chairman shall be appointed by the President and members shall be appointed by the minister.

(3) The Director General of the Authority shall be the secretary of the Board.

(4) Members may, in the absence of Chairman, appoint one member to preside at the meeting.

(5) Chairman and members shall hold office for such a term as prescribed in their instruments of appointment and if no term is provided, for three years but shall be eligible for reappointment.

(6) The Board shall meet at least once in every 3 months.

(7) The Authority or the Board as the case may be, may appoint sub-committee, whether of its own members or staff or otherwise, to carry out such general or specific function as may be specified by the Authority or by the Board as the case may be and may delegate any of its powers to the Committee.

Functions
of the
Advisory
Board.

10. The Advisory Board shall play an advisory role to the Authority on the following matters:-

- (a) on the declaration of any area to be a conservation Area and give guide lines for its conservation;
- (b) on the declaration of reconstruction areas and give guide lines for its redevelopment;
- (c) on the contents and procedures of conservation Master plans, conservation plans and reconstructive plans for the Stone Town;
- (d) on the contents and procedures of building permits for the Stone Town.
- (e) on the appointment of the sub-committees and give guide lines for its functions and operation;
- (f) on any other matter relating to the Stone Town.

Procedure
of Appeal.

11.-(1) Any person who applies for a building permit for a new building, extension, alteration or demolition of a building or the use or change of use of a building or plot which is required according to Building Regulations or a master plan made under this Act, aggrieved by the decision of the Authority shall have the right of appeal to the Minister.

(2) The appellant shall submit his Memorandum of Appeal before the Minister within one month from the date of receiving the decision from the Authority.

(3) The Minister shall hear both parties and give his decision within three months from the date of hearing such an appeal.

(4) The Minister may, in deciding the appeal or any part thereof, seek advice or assistance of any person or office he deems appropriate but shall not be bound by such advice or assistance.

(5) The decision of the Minister on the point of fact shall be final and binding to the parties.

(6) Notwithstanding the provisions of subsection (5) where the issue in dispute is on a point of law any party aggrieved by the decision of the Minister may appeal to the court of competent jurisdiction and on hearing the appeal, the court shall not be prevented from varying or quashing any finding of the

Minister on either point of fact or law.

12. One half of the members and the Secretary shall constitute a quorum at any meeting of the Board or sub-committee. Quorum of a meeting.

13. The Minister may, by order published in the Gazette, exercise the following powers:- Powers of the Minister.

- (a) declare any area to be a conservation area;
- (b) declare any area within a conservation area to be a reconstruction area;
- (c) to do anything for the purpose of efficient implementation of anything which this Act whether expressly or impliedly has authorised to be done;
- (d) delegate any of his powers to the authority.

14.-(1) Any person who wilfully or negligently constructs, builds, alters or demolishes a building or any part of a building, street or open space, or changes the use of a building or open space, or contravenes any Building Regulation, Master Plan or any other Regulations made under the Act, without a written permit from the authority, is guilty of an offence and shall be liable to a fine of not less than five hundred thousand shillings or twelve months imprisonment or to both such fine and imprisonment. Offences.

(2) Any person who wilfully or negligently constructs, builds, alters or demolishes a building or any part of building or any part of building, street or open space in the construction area or reconstruction area without written permit from the Authority is guilty of an offence and shall be liable on conviction to a fine of not less than five hundred thousand shillings or twelve months imprisonment or to both such fine and imprisonment.

(3) In addition to any such penalty provided under subsections (1) and (2) he shall be ordered, at his own cost, to make good any default. Upon failure or neglect such order the Authority shall make good such default and shall be entitled to recover the cost from such person and the recovery claim shall be deemed to be application for execution of court order.

15.-(1) Notwithstanding the provisions of section 14 where the Authority is of the opinion that anything is done in contravention of this Act or any regulation made under this Act shall immediately give notice of default to a person responsible for such an act. Emergency conservatory measures

(2) Where after issuing notice of default an act of default is not ceased, the Authority shall issue a stop order in writing and may affix or put such mark at the site of default to show that a stop order has been issued.

(3) If a stop order is not observed the Authority may without any further notice take any appropriate measure including but not limited to demolition, dismantling or pull down any structure erected in contravention of a stop order and the Authority shall be entitled to recover the cost under section 14(3) of this Act.

Penalty where not expressly provided.

16.-(1) Any person guilty of any offence against or contravention of, or default in complying with, any provision of this Act or of any Rules or order made thereunder shall, if no penalty is expressly provided for such offence be liable to a fine not exceeding five hundred thousand shillings or to imprisonment for a term of twelve months or to both such fine and imprisonment, and if the offence, contravention or default is of continuing nature, to a further fine not exceeding ten thousand shillings for each day of such further default or contravention.

(2) The minister may from time to time increase the amount of fine provided under the provisions of this Act and upon such increase the new fine shall be valid and effectual as if imposed by this Act.

Overriding power.

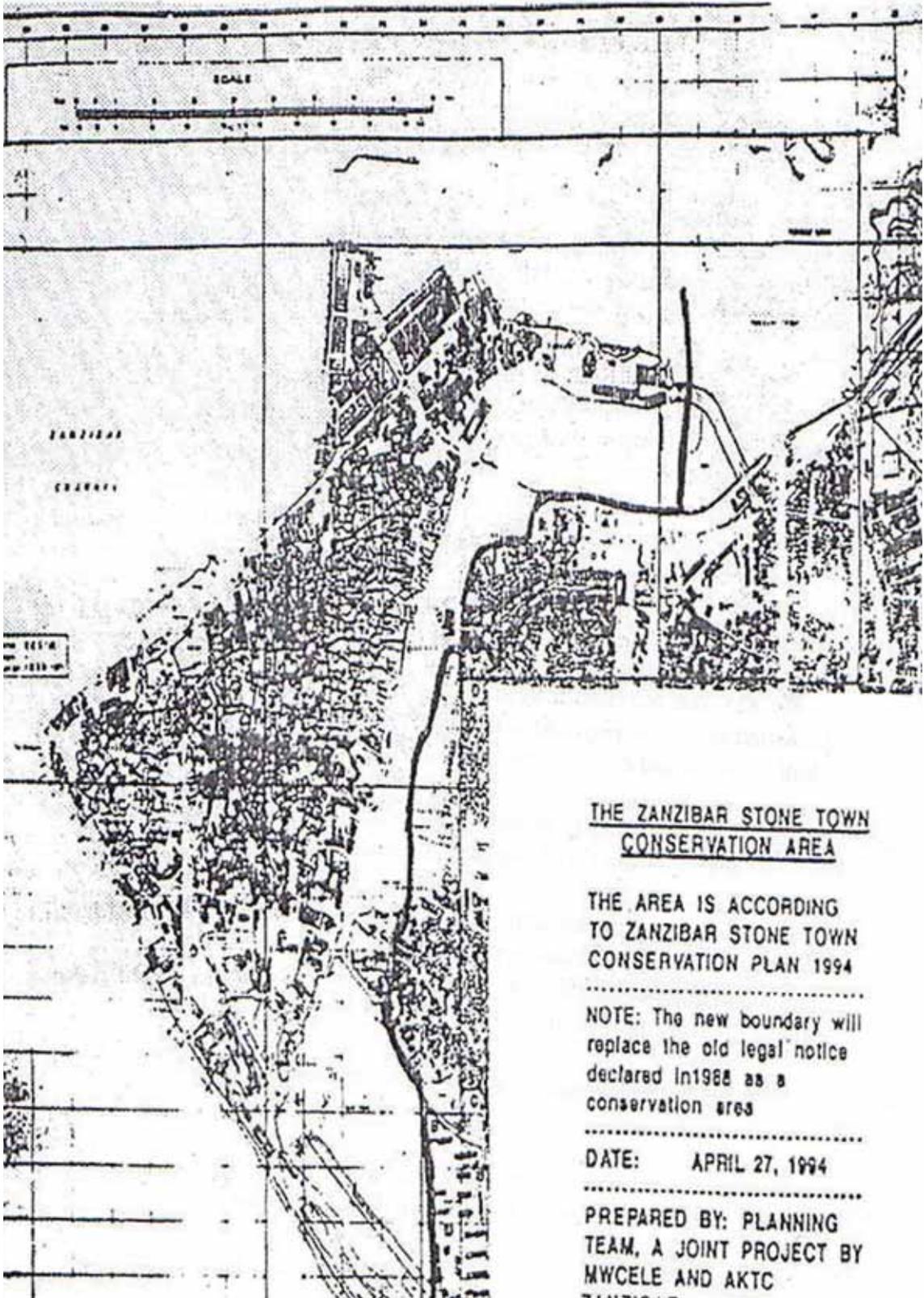
17. This Act shall override the provisions of any other Act to the extent which they contradict with the provisions of this Act:

Provided, and for avoidance of doubt it is hereby expressly provided, that nothing in this Act confers upon the Authority power to distribute, alienate or lease land in the conservation areas unless it is directed to do so by and on behalf of the Land Commission.

Passed in the House of Representatives on the 23rd day of March, 1994

KHAMIS JUMA CHANDE
Clerk to the House of Representatives

SCHEDULE



Appendix IV vi Planning Statement and Regulations

The Town and Country Planning Decree (Cap 85)

REGULATIONS (Under Section 37)

EXERCISE of the powers conferred upon me under Section 37 of the Town and Country Planning Decree, Cap 85, I, SALUM HASHIM RAJAB, Minister for Water, Construction, Energy, Lands and Environment, do hereby make the following Regulations:

PART I - Preliminary

Title and Commencement

These regulations may be cited as the Stone Town Planning Regulations 1994 and shall come into operation on the 1st July, 1994.

Application

These regulations shall apply to the area of jurisdiction known as the Zanzibar Stone Town Conservation Planning Area, as shown on the Stone Town Conservation Plan 1994 Maps P1-P4, and is the Town and Country Planning Decree, Cap 85, Section 3, Declaration Order, signed on 1st September 1993, by the Minister for Water, Construction, Energy, Lands and Environment.

Maps

These regulations shall be read in conjunction with the Plan Maps, P1 - Land use and Zoning, P2 - Conservation and Development Measures, P3 - Circulation and Parking, and P4 - Infrastructure Improvements.

Interpretation

In these regulations, unless the context otherwise requires:

Action area means an area designated as such on the Conservation and Development Map P2. This area shall be developed in accordance with a detailed planning scheme approved by the STCDA and other relevant authorities.

Addition means any structure added to an existing building either onto the roof or at any of its sides.

Adjacent building means any building that abuts along a full side of the building or vacant plot in question.

Architectural features means parts of a building, or elements attached to or built into, a building. Such features include carved doors, covered passages, decorative plasterwork, decorative tilework, entry porches, fascia boards, fenestration, niches and arches, balconies and teahouses, and timber staircases.

Balcony means a platform with railings projecting from the side of a building.

Bonza means a stone bench built into an interior or exterior wall.

Building line means a line defined by the frontages of existing plots and buildings.

Carved door means any wooden door and door frame carved in the traditional manner.

Commercial establishment means a place where business is transacted, such as wholesale and retail shops, offices, restaurants and cafes.

Conservation Plan, also referred to as "the Plan," means the Zanzibar Stone Town Conservation Plan, 1994 which comprises the planning statement and maps, and applies to the Zanzibar Stone Town Conservation Planning Area.

Dala-dala means a public transport vehicle operating within the area of Zanzibar Town.

Facade means the exterior wall of a building.

Garage means land or a building used for the purposes of repairing cars and other motor vehicles.

Godown means a building built or adapted and used for the storage, but not the sale, of goods.

Guest house means an accommodation for visitors which does not exceed a total of 10 beds.

Height of building means the height measured from the ground level to the top of the parapet on the flat roof or to the eaves of the roof whichever is the higher.

Hotel means an accommodation for visitors that exceeds 10 beds.

Listed buildings are those buildings protected under the terms of the

Conservation Plan. Grade I listed buildings are those of outstanding historical, architectural or cultural significance. Grade II listed buildings are those which make a significant architectural, historical or cultural contribution to the urban environment.

Mixed use refers to uses where commercial and other activities are combined.

MWCELE means the Ministry of Water, Construction, Energy, Lands and Environment.

New development describes change of land use, demolition of existing buildings, and the construction of temporary or permanent structures.

Open space describes all unbuilt-on land, excluding streets and other public highways and passages, and includes squares, parks, recreation grounds, graveyards and beaches.

Plot means a legally recognized parcel of developed or undeveloped land, the position and boundaries of which are delineated on a plan indicating plot subdivision and recognized as such by the Commission for Lands and Environment.

Private open space means open space kept for private use such as private gardens and private graveyards.

Protected architectural features means those architectural features protected as such under the provisions of this Plan.

Protected streetscape features are those streetscape features protected as such under the provisions of this Plan.

Public open space means open space for public use, such as recreation space, public gardens, public graveyards and land used for sea related activities.

Public use refers to educational, governmental, administrative, cultural and social uses.

Regulations means the regulations contained in this Conservation Plan and apply to land use, conservation and development, circulation and parking and environmental concerns within the Stone Town Conservation Planning Area.

Residence means a building or part thereof built, and used solely, for the purpose of habitation.

Shamba bus or lorry means a public transport vehicle operating between Zanzibar Town and other parts of the island.

Small workshop means a building or part thereof used for the purposes of making and repairing furniture and other handmade goods, employing a maximum of 10 people.

STCDA means the Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority, hereinafter referred to as "the Authority," and which is responsible for the enforcement of the Plan.

Street furniture includes items such as benches, rubbish collection and receptacles, bus shelters, bicycle racks, and other conveniences placed in public spaces.

Street paving, details and fitting includes all street paving materials, as well as elements such as kerbs, drains, manholes, manhole covers, bollards, pedestrian crossings, ramps and steps.

Streetscape features are both natural and constructed features which contribute to the character of the street and urban environment. This category includes features such as facades, fountains, gateways, external stairways, tombs, trees and vistas.

Upgrading area means an area designated as such on the Conservation and Development Map and subject to environmental and infrastructure improvements, to be approved by the Authority and other relevant authorities.

Warehouse has the same meaning as godown.

Zone means an area of land shown on the Land Use and Zoning Map P1 and within which land and buildings must be used in accordance with the provisions of these regulations.

PART II - Application of these Regulations

5. The ambit of these Regulations

(1) These Regulations shall be read together with the ancient Monuments Preservation Decree (Cap 102) and any other principal and Subsidiary legislation regulating planning and building in Zanzibar Stone Town.

(2) Where there is conflict between these Regulations and other regulations contained in other principal legislation, these Regulations shall prevail.

6. Compliance with these regulations

Any person who builds, alters, removes or demolishes a building, part of a building, an architectural or streetscape feature, or occupies any open space, or alters the use of a building or open space shall comply with the requirements of these regulations.

7. Planning and building applications

(1) No person shall occupy any open space, or alter the use of a building or open space without first making a planning application to the Authority for written permission.

(2) No person shall build, alter, remove or demolish a building, part of a building, an architectural feature or streetscape feature without first making a building application to the Authority for written permission. Any application for demolition shall be accompanied by new development proposals.

(3) Any planning and building application shall be accompanied by a set of drawings, description of works, including proposed method of drainage and water supply, and specification of materials to be used, such that the full scope and nature of the works can be understood by the Authority.

(4) The Authority may request additional information and structural calculations from the applicant before considering a particular planning or building application.

8. Granting of permits

(1) The Authority, within sixty days of receipt of all the necessary drawings, description of work, specification and any other information with which to consider a planning or building application, shall, in writing, either grant or refuse to grant permission to start work.

(2) The Authority may specify certain amendments to, or conditions for the proposed works in order for a planning or building permit to be granted. In certain cases, it may also specify additional works to ensure the structural stability or effective maintenance of the building.

(3) The planning and building permit is valid for twelve months, after which time it is no longer applicable. If building works do not commence within that period, a fresh application will have to be made as if it were a first application.

9. Refusal of permits

(1) If the Authority considers that the planning or building application fails to meet the requirements of these or any other existing regulations,

it shall, within sixty days of descriptions of work, specifications and any other building application, issue a written notice of rejection to the applicant accompanied by an explanation of the reasons for the rejection.

(2) The Authority may make recommendations for changes to the proposed work in order that the application may comply with these and other relevant regulations.

10. Procedure of appeal

An unsuccessful applicant may appeal, in the manner prescribed by the Authority, against the rejection of a planning or building application.

11. Public notice of intention to carry out works

(1) Any person intending to carry out any works as specified in paragraph 6 of these Regulations, shall post a notice of their intention to do so on the site, plot, or building so affected, stating the nature of the intended works and that the plans are available for inspection at the offices of the Authority.

(2) This notice shall be posted for the period during which the Authority is considering the said planning or building application.

12. Safety of operations

(1) Any person who carries out repairs, alterations, restoration, excavation and new building work, demolition work, or the erection of scaffolding or any other apparatus used for building operations shall ensure that the work is carried out in a structurally sound and safe manner. Public routes must be kept clear at all times.

(2) The Authority may give guidance on how to comply with these Regulations for the purposes of securing the safety of the building works and of the general public.

13. Inspection of building works

(1) The Authority may at any time during the execution of any works described in these regulations make an inspection thereof, without giving previous notice of its intention to do so.

(2) If, upon such an inspection, the Authority finds that the work is being carried out in contravention of these regulations, it may, by written notice and within a given period of time, require that the work be altered in such a way as to make it comply with the regulations.

14. Completion of building works

(1) Any person who executes any work as described in these Regulations

shall, within one month of completion of the work, give to the Authority notice in writing of the completion and shall give to the Authority all necessary facilities for the inspection of such work.

(2) If the Authority decides to inspect the work, it shall be done within twenty-one days of receipt of the completion notice.

(3) Upon inspection, the Authority may, in writing:

(a) give permission for the occupation and use of such building or works;

(b) refuse to give such permission if the works have been carried out in contravention of these and other applicable regulations. In this case, the Authority may specify, in writing, how the building or works may be altered in such a way as to comply with the regulations.

(4) No person shall occupy any such building or works until written permission by the Authority has been granted, or if the Authority fails to inspect such works within twenty-one days of receipt of the completion of works notice.

15. *Issuing of guidelines*

(1) Whenever deemed necessary, the Authority may issue guidelines and make additional and/or specific provisions with regard to conservation and development within the Conservation Planning Area.

(2) All guidelines issued under this regulation will be made public through the issuing of notices and other appropriate means.

16. *Offences*

Any person who willfully or negligently fails to comply with, or contravenes, these regulations is guilty of an offence and shall be liable to the punishment as provided for under the Act No. 3 of 1994, the Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority Act, 1994.

PART III - Land Use and Zoning Regulations

17. *Use of land and building*

(1) No land or building situated in any zone shown on Map P1 contained in the plan, shall be put to any use other than a use approved by the Authority in accordance with the Plan. Table 1 in Part VIII provides a schedule of uses.

(2) The use of land or building other than those specified in the Plan will be at the discretion and approval of the Authority.

(3) If, when these Regulations come into force, any land or building is then being put to a use other than that prescribed for the zone in which it is situated, it may continue to be put to such use until further development of the land or building occurs, at which time the new development must conform to these zoning regulations.

18. *Shops, workshops, and trades*

Where shops, workshops and trades are permitted they shall be situated or carried on only in buildings especially constructed for such purpose or otherwise suitably adapted to the satisfaction of the Authority.

19. *Garages and warehouses*

(1) In general, garages and warehouses shall not be permitted within the Conservation Planning Area except in areas indicated on the maps as accessible to vehicles and subject to the discretion of the Authority.

(2) Any land or building used as a garage or warehouse when these Regulations come into force, will be permitted to remain as such until further development of the land or building occurs, at which time the new development will conform to these zoning regulations.

(3) Table 2 in Part VIII lists those garages or warehouses which currently contravene the provisions of these zoning regulations. These shall be changed as the Authority may direct.

20. *Zone 1 - Residential*

(1) The predominant use in this zone shall be residential. Educational, religious and cultural establishments, as well as private open spaces, are also permitted.

(2) A limited amount of commercial activity may be allowed on the ground floor, subject to a maximum floor area of 200 m².

(3) Subject to a review five years after these Regulations come into effect, no further hotels or guest houses than are presently in operation, or for which planning permission has already been granted, shall be allowed within this zone.

21. *Zone 2 - Mixed use*

The predominant use in this zone will be mixed residential and commercial. Land and building uses specified for Zone 1 will also be permitted, as well as small workshops.

22. *Zone 3 - Commercial*

The predominant use in this zone will be commercial, including small

workshops, land and building uses specified for Zone 2 will also be permitted.

25. Zone 4 - Proposed business expansion zone

This zone is designated as an Action Area for Conservation and Development. Business Map P2. The area is reserved for expansion of business activities and as such, permitted land and building use will be mainly commercial or mixed use. All future development in this zone will be subject to planning means as described in section 58 and Part VII section 2 of these regulations.

26. Zone 5 - Cultural/institutional/public

The predominant land and building use in this zone will be for cultural, institutional and other public activities.

27. Zone 6 - Health

Permitted land and building uses in Zone 6 are those related to the provision of health services. No other land and building uses will be permitted.

28. Zone 7 - Port

This zone is for port facilities and related activities only.

29. Zone 8 - Public open space

(1) Land in this zone shall be kept open for public use. No other land uses will be permitted.

(2) Development of these areas, including the erection of temporary or permanent structures, will not be permitted except in order to improve the landscaping and infrastructure of these areas.

30. Conflicting land uses

No expansion of the conflicting land uses, as indicated on Map P2, shall be allowed. They may be continued until such time as a change of use can result in a use that conforms with the prescribed land use.

31. Illegally blocked streets

The Authority may at any time restore any illegally blocked streets to public use.

PART IV - Conservation Regulations

32. Repair and restoration notices

(1) The Authority may issue a written repair notice to the owner or user of any building, listed or non-listed, if the building or part thereof, including architectural and streetscape features, is in a serious condition or in urgent need of repair.

(2) The Authority may also issue written restoration notices to the owner or user of any building if any part of the building has been changed, purposely or by accident, without prior written approval from the Authority.

(3) Within a period stated in the notice, the owner or user of the particular building in question is compelled to comply with the repair or restoration notice. If the owner or user does not undertake the stated work within this period the Authority may, if necessary, undertake the work itself, with costs recoverable from the owner.

33. Repairs to existing buildings

All repair work in existing buildings, including listed buildings, and architectural and streetscape features shall use the same, compatible, or similar materials and finishes as the original materials and finishes.

34. Listed buildings

(1) The Conservation Plan designates Grade I and Grade II listed buildings within the Conservation Planning Area. These are identified on the Conservation and Development Measures Map P2, and Table 4 in Part VIII lists the Grade I listed buildings.

(2) **Grade I.** No alterations or additions, either externally or internally, will be allowed to Grade I listed buildings, except in exceptional circumstances as authorized by the Authority. Any building work carried out on the building must involve preserving and/or recreating the original building fabric and its associated architectural features.

(3) **Grade II.**

(a) No alteration or additions to the structure or the external walls of Grade II listed buildings will be allowed, except in exceptional circumstances as authorized by the Authority. Any building work carried out on the structure or external walls must involve preserving and/or recreating the original design.

(b) Internal changes will be permitted, subject to the discretion of the Authority. Alterations shall be limited to necessary improvements of living and working spaces and shall be executed with special regard to the historical and architectural features of the buildings. These changes shall be compatible with, and sympathetic to, the old building and should be of such a nature that, when removed, they will not affect the original building design.

35. Protected architectural features

(1) The architectural features identified on Map P2 are historically, architecturally or culturally significant and are protected as such. In any case, all architectural features over 50 years old shall be preserved.

(2) Changes to protected architectural features are not allowed except to preserve and/or restore the original design.

(3) All materials and finishes used on protected architectural features for renovation and restoration work shall be the same or compatible with the existing materials and finishes as may be specified by the Authority.

35. Protected streetscape features

(1) The streetscape features identified on the Map P2 are historically, architecturally or culturally significant and are protected as such.

(2) Changes to protected streetscape features are not allowed except to preserve and/or restore the original design.

(3) All materials and finishes used on protected streetscape features for renovation and restoration work shall be the same or compatible with the existing materials and finishes and may be specified by the Authority.

(4) Trees identified individually on the Map P2, as well as all trees within protected green space, upgrading areas and Action Areas are to be protected.

36. Protected green space

(1) The open spaces specified on Map P2 are culturally or historically important and make a significant contribution to the urban environment, and are protected as such.

(2) The use of any protected green space for the storage of building materials or any other goods is not permitted without the permission of the Authority.

PART V - Development Regulations

36. New development, additions and alterations

(1) The regulations set out in this Part are applicable to all new development, as well as to additions and alterations to existing buildings, within the Conservation Planning Area.

(2) In all cases, sites for new development shall be of appropriate size, location and siting, and subject to approval by the Authority. New development is not permitted in protected green space, streets and squares and any other public open space.

37. Planning

(1) Plot subdivision: A plot may only be subdivided with the Authority's approval.

(2) Building lines:

(a) Any new building or addition shall be sited so that walls and facades facing onto streets are in line with adjacent building lines. This applies to the ground floor and all storeys above. Balconies, canopies, roof overhangs and gutters may be built beyond the building lines to a maximum of one third the width of the street, or in any case not more than 1m. Barazas and steps may be built beyond the building line to a maximum of 0.4m and signboards may extend to a maximum of 0.5m.

(b) When a new development is replacing an existing or collapsed building, it should generally follow the existing building line. The Authority may recommend a new building line if in doing so the streetscape will be improved.

(c) All regulations regarding building lines also apply to garden walls, fences and any built-up boundary. Only durable materials shall be used for such constructions. Wire fences, barbed wire and corrugated iron sheeting are not permitted. No building may be built to extend beyond the plot boundary.

(3) Siting: The Authority may specify particular or additional requirements for the siting of new buildings, alterations and additions in response to the particular characteristics of a given 'infill' site.

(4) Height: The height of any permanent addition to an existing building, or of any new building, may not exceed the maximum height of the adjacent buildings, and in any case, may not exceed three storeys. The Authority may limit the height of a building to protect a Grade I or Grade II listed building or a protected architectural or streetscape feature. Penthouses, terraces and other such rooftop additions may be permitted subject to the discretion of the Authority.

(5) Scale and massing: New buildings, alterations and additions shall be compatible in scale and massing with the character of the Stone Town.

(6) Streets:

(a) No person shall build, set up or place against or in front of any building any structure or fixture which will in any way encroach upon or obstruct the safe and convenient passage of the public along any street, or project into or encroach upon any drain or open channel so as to interfere with the proper working of such drain or open channel.

(b) The Authority may give notice in writing to the owner or user of such an offending structure or fixture to remove it, or alter it to the Authority's satisfaction, within a period stated in the written notice.

38. **Structure and finishes**

(1) **Building materials:** Standards and finishes of building materials must conform to the existing buildings in the Stone Town.

(2) **Details and fittings:** Details and fittings for new buildings and additions shall be compatible, in appearance and proportion, with the traditional character of the Stone Town.

(3) **Colours:** used on the outside of new buildings and additions must blend with the range of tones and colours found in the Stone Town.

39. **Health and sanitation**

(1) **Approval by the Authority:** All health, sanitation and water supply provisions must be approved by the Authority.

(2) **Light and ventilation:** The Authority will review all applications with respect to the proper siting of buildings to allow enough space for light and ventilation.

(3) **Drainage:** Plans for new buildings and, if appropriate, additions must show that satisfactory provisions have been made for drainage. Roofs must be provided with sufficient gutters and down pipes to prevent rainwater from infiltrating any part of the building and to carry rainwater to the street drains. No rainwater shall be discharged directly into the street from a height above 20 cm.

(4) **Sanitation:**

(a) Construction plans for new buildings and, where appropriate, additions and alterations shall show that satisfactory provision has been made for sanitation and waste water facilities.

(b) The Authority may require the owner or builder to do additional work to ensure satisfactory discharge of household waste water and sewage into the existing sewage network, including the reconstruction, if necessary, of the sewer pipe outside the new building or addition.

40. **Action Areas**

(1) The Conservation and Development Map identifies four public areas as Action Areas. These are:

- the Scaffold,
- the New Port Entrance,
- the Creek Road and Market Area,
- the Malindi Business District.

(2) The development of these areas is subject to comprehensive planning

measures approved by the Authority and no development will be allowed in these areas until such plans have been approved. All future development within these areas will be subject to the planning framework detailed in the Action Area plans. These are outlined in Section E of Part VII.

PART VI - Circulation and Parking

41. **Issuing of Circulars**

(1) These section is to be read in conjunction with Map P3.

(2) The Authority, in consultation with the Traffic Police, Municipal Council and other relevant Ministries, will issue circulars detailing specific traffic regulations covering private and public transport, parking, access and any other measures that may be deemed necessary. The Map P3 will be modified and amended in accordance with such provisions.

42. **Motorized traffic circulation**

Only those streets indicated on Map P3 as motorized vehicular routes may be used for motorized traffic. Both two-way and one-way streets are identified as well as those open to motorized traffic for access only. All other areas within the Stone Town are closed to motorized traffic.

43. **Weight limit**

The maximum weight of any vehicle permitted within the Stone Town will be two tonnes. Signs will be located at the relevant road junctions indicating this restriction.

44. **Traffic calming**

To reduce the speed of motorized traffic and encourage safe driving in the Stone Town, the Authority, in coordination with the Traffic Police, may institute traffic calming devices such as signs, speed bumps and demarcation on the roads. These will be specified in special traffic circulars.

45. **Motorcycles**

(1) Motorcycles are classified as motorized vehicles and as such will be restricted to the streets indicated for motorized traffic. In addition, three other routes are accessible to motorcycles. These are indicated on Map P3.

(2) The riding of motorcycles anywhere else in the Stone Town will not be permitted.

46. **Parking**

The parking of motorcars, taxis, lorries, shamba buses, dala-dalas and

other motorized vehicles is only allowed in places specifically marked for such purposes on Map P3.

47. Godowns for motorcycle parking

Map P3 shows certain godowns that can be used as secure lockups for motorcycles. These are also listed in Table 3 in Part VII. As and when appropriate, the Authority, in conjunction with the MWCLE, and other relevant bodies will issue notices indicating new godowns that can be used as secure lockups.

48. Bicycles

Bicycles are allowed on all streets in the Stone Town. Certain internal streets, however, are designated as one way only for bicycles. These are:
(a) Mkunazini Street and Tharia Street - running north to south;
(b) Khod Bazaar and Changia Bazaar - running east to west;
(c) Sokomhogo Street - running south to north;
(d) Cathedral Street - running north to south;
(e) Girenga Street - running east to west.

Clearly marked bicycle lanes will be provided on the main roads.

PART VII - Environmental Provisions

49. Infrastructure Improvements

Whenever deemed necessary, the Authority, in consultation with the Municipal Council and other relevant authorities, may issue instructions on the implementation and details of infrastructure improvements. The Infrastructure Improvements Map P4 will be modified and amended in accordance with these measures.

50. Excavation work

All excavation work, except in the Creek Road area, shall be carried out manually to minimize the impact on the surrounding buildings. In any case, all excavation work will be subject to approval by the Authority.

51. New pipework

Where new pipes are laid, flexible joints between connections shall be used, particularly where they enter the buildings and penetrate existing walls.

52. Rubbish disposal

(1) All streets shall be kept clean and clear of rubbish;

(2) All rubbish shall be disposed of in appropriate containers and shall

be left in such places as approved of by the Municipal Council for collection.

53. Septic tanks

Individual septic tanks shall be emptied when necessary by the individual building owners or users.

54. Cables, wires and street lighting

Cables, wires and street lighting shall be mounted on the walls of buildings or hung between buildings in an organized, safe and sympathetic manner with regard to the preservation of the architectural environment. Their visual impact on the appearance of the buildings must be minimized. All fixtures and fittings, including free-standing lamp posts, must have the prior approval of the Authority.

55. Street paving, details and fittings

(1) Street paving materials shall be in keeping with the existing historical and architectural character of the Stone Town. They, and other landscaping materials, and their detailing jointing shall be approved by the Authority.

(2) Expansion joints must be provided at the junction between the new paving slabs and the base of the buildings to allow for differential movement.

(3) Any damage resulting from the excavation and digging of streets and street paving while installing services or infrastructure works will be repaired as new by the individual or authority responsible for carrying out the works.

56. Street furniture

Any new street furniture shall be designed and installed in keeping with the existing historical and architectural character of the Stone Town and must be approved by the Authority.

57. Storage

(1) No storage or sale of building materials or any other goods shall be permitted in the streets and open spaces without prior written approval by the Authority. Approval for such storage will be dependent, among other considerations, on the applicant observing health and safety regulations and keeping the area generally clear for public passage and use.

(2) The Authority may order the removal of building materials, goods, garbage or debris from collapsed buildings. These materials will be disposed of in a safe manner outside the designated Conservation Planning Area.

58. **Signs and advertisements**

(1) The erection of signs and other forms of advertising is subject to approval by the Authority.

(2) The use of large projecting signboards, signs made of plastic materials or illuminated signs, as well as any other form of advertising considered inappropriate in character, form or scale for the Stone Town will not be permitted.

PART VIII - Appendices

A. Table 1 - Showing permitted land and building uses in each zone

"I" means development which is permissible by the STCDA in accordance with the Conservation Plan and Maps.

"D" means development which is permissible subject to the discretion of the STCDA in accordance with the Conservation Plan and Maps.

"X" means development which is not permissible by the STCDA.

LAND OR BUILDING USE	ZONE							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Residential buildings	P	P	D	X	D	X	X	X
2. Commercial/residential bldgs	D	P	P	D	D	X	X	X
3. Hotels & guesthouses	X	P	P	X	D	X	X	X
4. Social & recreation clubs	D	P	P	X	P	X	X	D
5. Educational buildings	P	P	P	X	P	X	X	X
6. Institutional buildings	D	P	P	D	P	X	X	X
7. Art galleries & museums	D	P	P	D	P	X	X	X
8. Religious buildings	P	P	P	X	P	X	X	X
9. Civic & community bldgs	P	P	D	D	P	X	X	X
10. Cinemas & places of entertainment	D	D	P	D	P	X	X	X
11. Restaurants & eating houses	D	P	P	D	P	X	X	X
12. Retail shops	D	P	P	P	D	X	X	X
13. Commercial offices	D	P	P	P	D	X	X	X
14. Hospitals & other health facilities	D	D	D	X	P	P	X	X
15. Small workshops	D	P	P	D	X	X	X	X
16. Small wkshops w/ residential above	D	P	P	D	X	X	X	X
17. Warehouses & godowns	X	X	D	D	D	X	P	X
18. Minor storage for shops & offices	D	P	P	P	D	X	P	X
19. Garages	X	D	D	X	X	X	X	X
20. Outside small scale vending	D	D	D	D	D	X	D	D

B. Table 2 - List of warehouses in the Stone Town recommended for residential or commercial change of use

PLOT NO.	LOCATION	PRESENT CONDITION	PRESENT USE	RECOMMENDED USE
905/904	Malindi North	Poor	Storage	Mixed-use infill plot
MN1D	Malindi North	Good	Storage of foodstuffs	Return to original intended use as nursery school
3101	Malindi North	Deteriorating	Storage of foodstuffs	Drastically reduce frequency of deliveries otherwise convert to residential or community use
MS1C/MS1E	Malindi South	Good	Warehouse	Retailing (part of Port Action Area)
MS1F	Malindi South	Poor	STCDA workshop and storage	Demolition (Part of Port Action Area)
1259A	Malindi South	Deteriorating	Wholesale cigarettes	Commercial or auction space
601	Malindi South	Deteriorating	Building contractors office	Commercial or mixed use
1247A	Malindi South	Poor	Storage	Commercial or auction space
620A	Malindi South	Deteriorating	Storage of heavy goods	Residential infill plot
542	Sokomuligo	Deteriorating	Poultry keeping	Commercial or mixed use
2001A/2002	Kajficheni	Ruin	Vacant	Residential or mixed use
2006	Kajficheni	Ruin	Vacant	Residential or mixed use
1947A/1949	Kajficheni	Deteriorating	Storage of building materials	Workshop or mixed use
66	Stungani	Poor	Storage of chemicals	Residential infill
179	Foodhani	Deteriorating	Storage	Mixed use
751	Foodhani	Ruin	Vacant	Residential or mixed use

C. Table 3 - List of warehouses recommended for use as motorcycle storage

PLOT NO.	LOCATION	PRESENT USE
3102	Malindi North	Storage of foodstuffs by Bitange
956 - 958	Malindi South	Storage of foodstuffs by Bitange
5115/5A	Malindi South	Storage of spare parts for adjacent shop
142A	Forodhani	Storage of foodstuffs by Sukita
VN2H	Vuga North	Storage of building materials by MWCLLE

D. Table 4 - List of Grade I listed buildings in the Stone Town

Note: "Gazetted" means the building has already been gazetted as a monument under Cap 102, the Ancient Monuments Preservation Decree. This is in addition to the Grade I listing of this Conservation Plan.

BUILDING	PRESENT CONDITION	GAZETTED	LOCATION
1. Kilosa House	Deteriorating	No	Shangani
2. Former British Consulate	Poor	No	Shangani
5. Mambo Msiage House	Poor	No	Shangani
4. Tippu Tip House	Deteriorating	No	Shangani
5. Tembo House	Deteriorating	No	Shangani
6. Beit al-Ajab	Deteriorating	No	Forodhani
7. Old Fort	Poor	Yes	Forodhani
8. People's Palace	Good	No	Forodhani
9. Royal Tombs	Deteriorating	Yes	Forodhani
10. Aga Khan Mosque	Good	No	Forodhani
11. Royal Baths	Deteriorating	No	Forodhani
12. Hindu Temple	Deteriorating	No	Forodhani
13. St. Joseph's Cathedral	Good	No	Sokomalogy
14. High Court	Deteriorating	No	Vuga South
15. State House	Good	No	Vuga South
16. Mvazi Mmoja Hospital	Good	No	Vuga South
17. Peace Memorial	Deteriorating	No	Vuga South
18. Hamami Baths	Deteriorating	Yes	Kajfichei
19. Minaret of the Shia Ibrahsheri Mosque	Deteriorating	No	Kajfichei
20. Anglican Cathedral	Deteriorating	Yes	Mkunazi
21. Market Building	Deteriorating	No	Mkunazi

D. Table 4 - List of Grade I listed buildings in the Stone Town (continued)

22. Darajani Chawl	Poor	No	Kiponda
25. Khoja Ismaili Charitable Musafidhana	Deteriorating	Yes	Kiponda
21. Old Dispensary	Deteriorating	No	Malindi South
25. Ibharmul Building	Deteriorating	No	Malindi South
26. Malindi Mvata Mosque	Deteriorating	Yes	Malindi South

E. Action Area Briefs

Detailed planning proposals for the Action Areas are to include the following:

Seafront

1. Infrastructure upgrading along the seafront including a suggested minimum rehabilitation programme for the seawall, landing steps and piers.
2. Rationalization of vehicular traffic and the pedestrian promenade along the seafront, including suggestions for paving, street furniture and public lighting.
3. A facade improvement scheme for the monuments and historical buildings facing onto the seafront as well as suggestions on the re-use of some of the buildings presently vacant.
4. Re-landscaping of the square in front of the Sayyid Humood Friday Mosque. This is to include measures regulating parking in the area and the accommodation of traditional boat building activities around the big tree.
5. Re-landscaping of Forodhani Park to serve both as a public park and an informal selling area in the evening. Improvements in and around the park are to include better drainage, new paving, street lighting, green areas, street furniture, garbage collection points, public water taps and public toilets.

Port Entrance

1. Rationalization and improvement of vehicular and pedestrian traffic as well as the provision of additional parking, drop-off points and unloading areas close to the new passenger terminal.
2. The provision of additional parking facilities in the public square behind the existing warehouses.
3. Relocation of the existing petrol station in order to ease traffic congestion and facilitate circulation.

4. Appropriate siting of the new passenger terminal and re-organization of the public areas surrounding it, including re-organization of the proposed passenger quay.
5. The appropriate reuse of the presently undensified warehouses for duty-free retail shops.
6. Suggestions for the reuse of the Government owned historical building adjacent to the present petrol station.

Central Market

1. Re-landscaping of the entire area, including new paving and proper surface drainage, and rehabilitation and repair of the existing infrastructure. Suggestions of typical details for street furniture, such as fences, walls, benches as well as lighting and paving.
2. Improving pedestrian access and circulation within and through the market as well as expanding storage and selling areas and public facilities such as toilets and standpipes.
3. Recommendations on the appropriate restoration and rehabilitation of the Market Building, Darajani Chawl and Estella Market.
4. Re-organization of traffic and pedestrian circulation to ease congestion along Creek Road and around the market. This will include:

- the provision of paved pedestrian routes, bicycle lanes and traffic calming measures along Creek Road;
 - the provision of improved and expanded parking facilities for private cars, taxis, *dala-dalas* and *shamba buses* as well as shelters and public toilets for passengers.
5. The removal of the containers along Creek Road in proximity to the schools and re-landscaping of the area into a park.

Malindi Action Area

1. Plans for the redevelopment of a new commercial/business district along the northwest side of Bwawani Road with provisions for public and private parking and commercial on- and off-loading.
2. The development of a generic building type that could be used for the new business area.
3. Consideration of other proposed plans for buildings and land in the area. These include proposals to:
 - convert the Motor Trade Building into a hyper-market;
 - redevelop the swamp area in front of the Bwawani Hotel in part as a religious centre and in part as an urban park.
4. Suggestions for the design of public pathways, open areas and potential infill sites in the Malindi North area behind the proposed business district.

Zanzibar,
1st July, 1994

SALUM HASIIM RAJAB
Minister for Water, Construction, Energy
Lands and Environment

Market Building, Darajani Chawl and Estrella Market.

religious centre and in part as an urban park.

4. Re-organization of traffic and pedestrian circulation to ease congestion along Creek Road and around the market. This will include:

4. Suggestions for the design of public pathways, open areas and potential infill sites in the Malindi North area behind the proposed business district.

Zanzibar,
1st July, 1994

SALUM HASHIMRAJAB
Minister for Water, Construction, Energy
Lands and Environment

Appendix IV vii Nomination of Zanzibar Stone Town

- 1.0 Location:
- (a) Name of Country: The United Republic of Tanzania
 - (b) Region: Zanzibar
 - (c) District: Urbana
 - (d) Name of Property Owner: Zanzibar Stone Town Authority
 - (e) Exact location on map and indication of geographical co-ordinates: Latitude: 5 22° East Longitude: 93 18' North

Core Area: Zanzibar Stone Town located on the island of Unguja at the edge of the Indian Ocean started from the western tip of a triangular peninsula projecting into the Zanzibar Channel, about halfway down the island's western coastline. The peninsula is separated from the main island by a former creek (where the creek road now lies) to the east, and connected to it by a neck of land to the south. It covers a total surface area of 125 hectares comprising the built-up area and the open space along its eastern border plus the older part of Darajani Street.

Maps:

- Map no 1: Map showing early contacts between Zanzibar and outside world
- Map no 2: Surveyed and Protected Stone Town area and administrative zones
- Map no 3: Location Zanzibar Stone Town 1892
- Map no 4: Zanzibar Stone Town Conservation Plan Existing Land Use
- Map no 5: Zanzibar Stone Town Conservation Plan:

2. Juridical data:

- (a) Owner: Zanzibar Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority
- (b) Legal status: Existing legislation:

THE UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA

NOMINATION OF ZANZIBAR STONE TOWN FOR INCLUSION IN THE WORLD HERITAGE LIST 1997 – 98

Except when they have been expressly repealed, the laws in force before the 1964 Revolution are still applicable in Zanzibar. This includes statutory law as well as customary and Islamic law that may have a direct bearing on planning, development and land tenure. The laws controlling town planning, building controls, land use, new development and urban services are largely those introduced by the British administration in the 1920's and later updated in the 1950's. In particular, the principal decrees regulating planning and building controls are Chapter 79, "Towns" of 1339 (revised in 1955), and Chapter 85, "Town and Country Planning" of 1955. Chapter 79 includes building regulations and other controls related to new development in urban areas, such as streets, drainage, lighting and water supply. The principal legislation in Chapter 79, however, was repealed in 1986 and replaced with the Local Government Act, which is concerned with the administration of the town as a whole and does not contain detailed building and development regulations. The legislation in Chapter 85, contrary to Chapter 79, is still in place and gives the Minister – during the colonial period it was the British Resident – the power to declare a town, or part of a town, a planning area, and to appoint a Planning Authority to prepare a "planning scheme" for the area. The Minister then has the power to put into force, with or without modifications, according to his discretion, the planning scheme. The Planning Authority, or a delegated body, is then responsible for enforcing the plan.

In addition to general legislation, specific planning measures, which are legally binding, were foreseen by the different planning schemes adopted over time. The Town and Country Planning Decree of 1955 did in fact provide the legal framework for the preparation of the 1958 Zanzibar Planning Scheme.

In addition to these decrees and planning schemes, Zanzibar's legislative framework includes legal provisions for the protection of monuments that are of some relevance for the historic area. These were enacted under Chapter 102, the Ancient Monuments Preservation Decree of 1927. This decree defines a monument as "any structure...which is of archaeological, historic, or artistic interest" and includes the site of the monument as well as any portion of land adjoining the site. To date, forty-nine monuments have been gazetted under Chapter 102, six of which are located in the Stone Town. The gazettement process required under the Ancient Monuments Preservation Decree has proven lengthy and bureaucratic, while protection over time is possible only if owners cooperate fully. Furthermore, although appropriate in the case of individual monuments and archaeological sites outside the town, the decree is not adequate for the protection of inhabited structure or groups of buildings in the historic area.

The laws governing land tenure are also of particular relevance in effecting preservation and controlling development in the Stone Town. After the 1964 Revolution all land was transferred to government ownership under Presidential decree to be held for the common benefit of the people of Zanzibar. As a result, even though public ownership of land and buildings has decreased since 1982, the government remains a major property owner and landlord in the Stone Town. Zanzibar's land tenure system, however, maintains the fundamental distinction of Islamic law between the land itself and what is developed on the land. Thus, although the land belongs to the government, an individual may have the right to effectively own the building that is built upon it. Inheritance of these properties is regulated by the customary laws of the Muslim and Hindu communities inhabiting the historic area.

However, the principal changes in the legal and institutional framework regulating planning in the historic area occurred in 1994 with the formal approval of the conservation Plan and establishment of Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority's mission and tasks as well as its organization and legal powers. The Authority mission is to stimulate, guide plan, and co-ordinate conservation

activities in the Stone Town, while its principal tasks are the preparation of the land use plan and supervision of all conservation and development in the Stone Town. Finally, the 1994 Act provides Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority with the legal power that is intended to give the Authority the autonomy and means to operate effectively, thus assuming sensitive legal and financial responsibility

(c) Responsible

Administration: Ministry of Water, Construction, Energy, Lands and Environment, Zanzibar Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority P.O. Box 4233, Zanzibar, Tanzania.

(c) Collaborating National agencies & Organisations: Department of Archives, Museums and Antiques, P.O. Box 116, Zanzibar, Tanzania

Wak? And Trust Comission, P.O. Box 4092, Zanzibar, Tanzania

Zanzibar Municipal Council, P.O. Box 1288, Zanzibar, Tanzania

Commission for Land and Environment, P.O. Box 811, Zanzibar, Tanzania

3. Identification:

(a) History and research

The name Zanzibar reflects its people. The ancient term “Zenj” derives from the Persian word “Zang” which means Negro people of the coast of Africa. The history of Zanzibar is a romantic tale of tiny island which for some centuries have been visited by all kinds of merchants, traders and conquerors from distant lands. It is said that 500 years before Christ, Arabs, Persians and Indians reached the coast of Africa especially for business. They used the north-east and south-west monsoon to trade with the coast. Through these contacts three broad cultural streams have converged here: the Asian (Arab, Indian and Shirazi etc.), the European (Portuguese, British etc.) and the Bantu African to produce an exotic mixture of population and cultures.

The early history of Zanzibar is very much connected to that of the other parts of East African Coast. The traders who had settled along the East African coast between the ninth and the twelfth centuries brought with them a new religion, Islam and established a series of trading centres from Somalia in the south to Mozambique in the north. Gradually, up and down this seaboard, there evolved a series of harbour towns and a new culture, Swahili, resulting from contacts between an established African population along the coast and traders from Arabia and the Persian Gulf. The many ruins along the coast and the nearby islands are a testament to the early history of Swahili Civilisation, which reached its zenith from the thirteenth through the fifteenth centuries.

The Stone Town of Zanzibar therefore owes its present form largely to the economic transformations of the nineteenth century. The town originated as a fishing village on the Shangani peninsula in the twelfth century. It is heir to a long tradition of urban life along the East African Coast, which has been closely associated with the international economy in Indian Ocean, and ideologically with Islam as a way of life.

There are various reports documenting the early harbour-towns of East Africa, but it is not until the very end of the fifteenth century that there is a firsthand account that specifically mentions the island of Zanzibar. In 1499, on his return voyage from the East Indies, Vasco da Gama wrote, “we came close to a large island called “Jangibar” which is peopled by Moors”. Settlement on the island, however, dates from a much earlier period

As the first Europeans to round the tip of Africa and find the sea route to the Orient. The Portuguese sought to control the lucrative Indian Ocean trade, and began to extract tribute from the rich coastal trading towns.

With firearms and faster ships the Portuguese had all of the East African littoral under their control by 1505. Zanzibar, however was never an important part of Portugal’s Indian Ocean sphere. No fort was constructed and no garrison installed except a chapel (whose front wall forms part of the western wall of the Old Fort) was built in the Stone Town. It was first documented by a Father Monclaro in 1569 in his journey from Kilwa to Pate. Nevertheless, by 1591, Zanzibar’s harbour was a port of call and, from the seventeenth century onward, references to it by European sailors and travellers became more frequent. In 1634, Pedro Barretto de Rezende describes Zanzibar as an island “... for the most part inhabited by Arabian Moors who have ... a Moorish king. There is also a church with a vicar of the order of St. Augustine to whom king does all the possible favour.”

After the expulsion of the Portuguese at the end of the 17th Century by the alliance of Swahili and Omani and with a raging civil war in Oman, the Omani moved very slowly to fill the vacuum left by the Portuguese. Since then, Zanzibar had been under direct Omani rule and as a result the number of Omani Arabs, primarily traders increased tremendously. It was during this period that the Arab mansions at Shangani and Forodhani neighbourhoods were constructed. The town was then an established market for the export of beeswax, tortoise shell, mangrove poles, food grains dried fish and ivory. Subsequently, the town itself had begun to reflect its growing importance in the region, with as Smee noted “a good number of stone building in the town”. It was not until the 1830s when Seyyid Said, the new Loed of Muscat, decided to shift his seat from Oman to Zanzibar and established plantation economy and international trade centre that Zanzibar became an island metropolis. During the second half of the 18th Century trade began to pick up especially in slaves to supply the date-palm plantations of Oman and more importantly the sugar plantations in the French Indian Ocean islands, such as Mauritius.

In the 19th century Zanzibar Town became a capital of great East African empire, a seat of learning and important dispersal point of an itinerant “ulema”. The Ukutani centre for example, was the seat of the famed Sheikh Ahmed bin Sumeit – an eminent scholar from whom such strategic world Islamic leaders including the Mufti of Mecca sought consultations, It was also the centre for the propagation of Christian missions. Zanzibar at that time was the venue of international diplomacy where in 1839 the Americans established their consulate, the first ever in East Africa at the site where the Tembo Hotel now stands. Other European powers followed suit: the Hanseatic German in the Roscher House, the British in the current offices of the Zanzibar Wharfage. Indeed, Zanzibar as a trade market of the East Coast was the very centre of the stirring drama of the final suppression of the slave trade as well as, the centre of the great European race for the acquisition of land in Africa. All of these events have made records of Zanzibar a richly embroidered tapestry and given this old island an important status immeasurably higher than many places of similar size.

In the evolution of the Stone Town, the old Fort is a vital link between the old and new. A preliminary investigation has revealed that the site has been occupied since the beginning of 11th century. Thus the Old Fort represents the triple heritage of Zanzibar, the prevalent Swahili culture, the Portuguese occupation in the 16th Century, and the Omani Arabs in the 19th Century. In this process of transformation of Zanzibar, the Stone Town maintained its authenticity by evolving spontaneously so that to date – its typical features of fine doorways, arches, pillars and the town landscape still dictate the lifestyle of the people just as it was a century ago.

The Stone Town of the early 19th Century stretched from North at Forodhani where a house of Governor Khalid bin Said stood. The south boundary did not extend beyond Kibokoni. On the East the old minaret mosque at Malindi (probably the oldest standing structure in the town) was the line of demarcation and the creek at “Pwani ndogo” was not wider enough to permit dhow coming up. Areas such as Vuga, Kidutani etc., were referred to as “nje ya mji” and indeed, Ngámbo (the other side of the creek) was not yet built upon.

With the appointment of various governors the town grew gradually; it acquired a facelift when Seyyid Said built up his Beit el Sahil Palace in 1835, then Beit el Hukum and Beit el Thani for his Persian wife Lady Sharhruzad Mirza at Forodhani. Some of these palaces do still exist. This period of rapid growth of the town is documented in the earliest reliable map of the town prepared in 1846 by Charles Guillain, a French Naval Captain. This map is the earliest detailed record of the town to survive. It shows an established Stone Town surrounded by mud and thatch houses that covered most of the peninsula and spread across the creek at Darajani, the narrowest crossing point.

However, the modern development of the town was very much accelerated by Seyyid Barghash when he came back from exile in India in 1861 and took over the throne in 1870. He built up the massive House of Wonders, and two other palaces at Marhubi and Chuini outside the Stone Town. In 1875 he built a railway connecting the town and his country Palace at Chukwani, widened the town roads for his carriage to the town palaces, demolished some buildings and issued rules on reclaimed land.

He also introduced piped water supply and electricity from steam generators. It is interesting to note that Zanzibar enjoyed street lights powered by electricity much earlier than London which had to make do with gas lamps. Sultan Barghash built also the old cable house at Shangani (currently Serena Inn) which enabled Zanzibar to communicate with overseas as far as Aden and Durban. Furthermore, he established the Victoria gardens and taarab music for his household. Few years later the most popular Indian Merchant Esmail Jivanji established his private garden at Vuga decorated with unique arch entrance of Porebunder stone.

The European structures were actually introduced in Zanzibar only from the 1870's. These were church and religious facilities built by the Christian Missionaries who. Like the agents and consuls established themselves initially in houses near the sea-front. The missionaries raised up two landmark buildings with unique architectural styles in Town. The University Mission to Central Africa built up their cathedral in 1873 on the very site of the open slave market and its steeple was decorated with a gift of Clock donated by Sultan Barghash bin Said. To express the religious tolerance prevalent in Zanzibar Sultan Majid bin Said offered a land to the Roman Catholics on which they built their Cathedral of Basilican design similar to that of Notre Dame in Marseilles which was opened in 1899.

After Zanzibar became a British Protectorate in 1890 several measures were taken including the establishment of the Department of Public Works. A number of British engineers and architects particularly in the construction of representative buildings left their marks in the Stone Town. The department of Works introduced new concepts and town regulations pertaining to erection of buildings, use of open spaces and encroachments upon the public streets were issued. Interestingly, all houses built from the end of the 19th century until 1964 portray the strict building regulations of the time. A wall for one storey house for instance had to be 2 feet thick in the ground floor; 2 feet and 3 inches for two storey house and a foundation of 6 inches broader than the walls immediately above. They should be at least 5 feet deep. In 1892 the survey of India was commissioned to carry out a detailed survey and drew up the first map to accurately show the street patterns and the different wards of town – a copy of which has been preserved at the Zanzibar Archives. The most striking change by this time is the overall growth of the town. Zanzibar had spread substantially in all directions: south along the new Mnazi Mmoja Road, north towards Mtoni and East in a wide sweep expansion of the Ngámbo.

The initiative to provide public buildings for various services started in 1896 with the construction of the old Indian Jail at the present site of Museum annex at Mnazi Mmoja and the European Hospital. The Sanitary department in 1900s opened public markets such as Estella and Seyyidieh for the sale of meat, fish and other fresh provisions and later the slaughter house was built at Gulioni.

By the early 19th Century the town had already acquired its social structures as reflected by several institutions representing different races and classes. Within the town were the English Club, the German Club and Book Club etc., while the suburbs of Saateni and Ziwani accommodated the Punjabbhai and Gymhana clubs respectively. The Bohora had their jamat (community hall), Hindoo Muslim Kumbir had their Hindoo Gymkhana Vyashalla. The Indian caste system made the Bhalia upper class Hindoo had their own religious building – Arya Samaj Temple at Forodhani and the other building nearby was used by Shree Shivyala Vyasthapale Mandal. Hindu Muslims had their Jamat around Sokomuhogo and Shia had their religious buildings at Kiponda. The Goans later on built their community hall at Vuga.

The tightly built up pedestrian Stone Town of Zanzibar has all the most valuable elements of an attractive town-scape and some buildings are of outstanding merit representing fine examples on the local architecture and buildings tradition. The typical vernacular architecture of the old town, is of two storey buildings constructed of massive walls of coral rubble, - with long, narrow rooms arranged around an open courtyard, - the width of rooms determined by the length of the mangrove poles capable of supporting the heavy stone ceilings.

These massive buildings of Zanzibar town are often crenellated at the top in an almost fortified manner, but the aloofness is frequently softened by airy balconies or screened off loggias at the flat roofs covered with corrugated iron sheets as an adjustment to the rainy climate. Topmost is a roof pavilion framed with a wooden lattice screen on all four sides of the town, - a marvellous space for recreation and pleasure. The upper floors are reached by wooden staircases, which appear rather casual related to the formal planning of the main-rooms. Besides, there is a section of façade of a crenellation forming the balustrade of roof terrace. All these combined features recalling the architecture of far away <Persia and Arabia.

Most of these buildings are fitted with carved doors which are of world fame. The frames of these doors are often exquisitely decorated with patterns and motifs based on lotus which signify power, fish which symbolise fertility, incense which symbolise wealth and chain represents strength. Over the top is an Arabic inscription, usually a passage from the Koran. Similar patterns are often to be seen on the front walls of mosques particularly in the part which forms the niche for the Imam.

With the development of Dar es Salaam and Mombasa Ports in the late 19th Century and later on the Uganda railway, Zanzibar Town inevitably declined from the proud rank of the “City metropolis of East Africa”. Nevertheless, it continued to develop under its new economic patterns.

And from 1900 the British administration introduced the signs of modernity as in Western Europe and new government buildings were influenced by the European architecture and more particularly by Sinclair’s designs – then Colonial Secretary. Among buildings designed by Sinclair are the Residency (State House) in 1901, the High Court of 1904, the Post Office in 1907, the Peace Memorial Museum of 1925 to mention but a few. Sinclair adopted classical detail as well as Islamic forms in Saracenic style. Though certainly, quite different from Zanzibar traditional building style, they blended well in the context of the Stone Town.

In order for the government to introduce proper town planning projects, it was necessary to acquire more land and establish control over it, hence the introduction of a Municipal body in 1910. The government adapted several measures to acquire land: the seizure of private land, development of new sites, donation from the Sultans. Wakf land as well as purchase and exchange of lands. As a result of this, several new locations such as Mji Mpya, Funguni and Maisara as well as a network of roads were developed across the town and beyond, forming almost the present boundaries of the Stone Town.

In 1923, Henry Vaughan Lancaster, a well known British architect and planner, produced the first planning studies for Zanzibar. He carried out a detailed physical survey of the town and recommended a series of improvements, which were published as Zanzibar: A study in Tropical Planning. Following his recommendation the creek was eventually drained and entirely filled in 1950s and thus the Stone Town directly connected with other parts of the town. During the 1940s, the Town Planning Board set out to ameliorate living conditions in the town in order to improve and neaten up the township of Zanzibar. These projects were intended not only to bring “contentment and healthier standards of living but to render the country more attractive for tourist trade”. This reference to the tourist trade is interesting as it draws attention for the first time to the prospect of tourism as a new economic sector for Zanzibar. After 1940 and increasingly in the 1950s western architectural forms and construction techniques became more apparent in the Stone Town, particularly in the small apartment blocks, residences, office buildings and certain cinemas built along the edges of the historic area, in Vuga, Malindi and near Creek Rad. The impact of these models and materials on the historic fabric, however, was limited and did not alter substantially the overall appearance of the Stone Town.

Another urban plan was drawn in 1958 by a team of British Planners which covered both the Stone Town and Ngamambo. The plan sought to reduce the density in the Stone Town, at its highest in those years. It also proposed the control of development in the Stone Town through land use zoning and encouraged people to move to the outlying areas. At least more than 50% of the plan was implemented.

The 1964 Revolution, which overthrew the Arab ascendancy and gave the African majority a Socialist State brought a significant social and economic changes in the Stone Town. Many of the wealthiest merchants and craftsmen Arab and Indian left the country abandoning their fine old houses and commercial buildings. The government subsequently confiscated the abandoned buildings and placed in them low-income residents from the Nga’ mbo, immigrants from rural areas and Pemba. The dramatic increase in tenancy in Stone Town coincided with a decline in the physical condition of buildings and in economic life. The subsequent lack of maintenance and neglect of the Stone Town buildings in the past is the main cause of their wide spread decay.

In the late 1960’s and early 1970s, construction in the Stone Town came to a virtual halt as urban development and most building activities shifted to the expansion areas, where rural-urban migration was increasing the population at a rapid rate.

It was not until the 1980s that the cumulative impact of contemporary building ideas, forms and especially materials based on extraneous western models began to have a negative effect in the Stone Town resulting to a growing number of ill-proportioned structures out of harmony to the existing fabric.

From 1980 to 1982 a new land use plan for the entire town was drawn up by a team of town planners from the people’s Republic of China. This Master plan was eventually approved by the Revolutionary Council in 1985 and to this day, constitutes the legal basis for urban planning in Zanzibar. The plan was not specifically concerned with the Stone Town, focusing primarily on the outside expansion areas. It recommended, however, among other things that government functions be removed from the historic centre to a new administrative district and the vacated buildings be converted into tourist facilities. None of these recommendations were in fact carried out, and, although the Master plan called for the preservation of the historic area, no specific conservation measures of detailed rehabilitation schemes were implemented following its formal adoption.

The need for specific actions to preserve the traditional structures of the Stone Town, as unique heritage contrary to the remaining part of Zanzibar municipality, had been apparent from the early 1970s when several historic buildings and monuments began to show serious evidence of decay. Initially, government preservation efforts focused on the Stone Town’s most important monuments: six historic structures were gazetted in 1979 and put under the care of the Ministry of Sports and Culture. Later on the government recognized the significance of this unique heritage and decided to preserve the Stone Town as a whole. Consequently, the Stone Town Conservation and Development (STCDA) was created in 1985 to coordinate all planning and building activities in the Stone Town.

(b) Description & inventory: The Stone Town of Zanzibar forms a unique urban settlement due to a spectrum of geographical and historical factors.

The Stone Town of Zanzibar developed on Unguja island, the main island of Zanzibar archipelago whose strategic position, natural harbour, tropical climate, fertile soil, plentiful sweet water and ready supply of building materials offered all that was needed for eventual urban development. The town grew at the western tip of a triangular peninsula projecting into the Zanzibar Channel, about halfway down the island’s western coastline. The peninsula was separated from the main island by a creek to the east, and connected

to it by a neck of land to the south.

The Stone Town covers a total surface of 125 hectares comprising the built-up portion of the Stone Town and the open areas along its eastern border plus the older part of Darajani Street. This comprises about 5% of the municipality's total area of 1600 hectares. The current resident population is estimated at 16,000 about 8.2% of Zanzibar Town's population though its floating population may be twice that number. Nearly 60% of the property in Stone Town is privately owned. These are mainly commercial and residential buildings. About 20% of the properties including residential and commercial buildings, schools and religious buildings are owned by religious bodies and the rest by public/government.

Typologically and functionally, the largest class of traditional structures of the Stone Town are the shopfront buildings derived from Indian precedents. These amount to 32% of the total building stock of about 1700 buildings. A further 25% are houses derived from Arab models. In addition there are two types of structures i.e. the "traditional unclassified", where the construction technique is traditional but the architectural origins are unclear and the "contemporary" which essentially covers all other buildings built over the past 30 years, many of which are residential buildings and do not conform to the traditional urban fabric of the Stone Town. Statistically these buildings include: Arab residences (426), Arab mosques (30), Indian shopfronts (546), Indian residences (108), Indian mosques/temples (8), Caravanserai (10), Jamats (10), Swahili houses (92), European residences (74), European public purpose (57), Traditional unclassified (82), Contemporary (256). See Annex NO 2 Part VIII.

Although it is the overall urban fabric and townscape that gives the Stone Town of Zanzibar its unique character, there are many individual buildings of historical and architectural significance as well as representing fine examples of the local architecture and buildings tradition. These include 628 significant buildings and 24 gazetted monuments some of which are summarily described below:

Old Fort It stands on a site occupied circa 1710 by a ruined Portuguese Church and residential quarters which had been converted by the Arabs into fort for the use of the town garrison. The fort was unsuccessfully attacked by Mzuri Arabs from Mombasa in 1754. The existing fort was in the form of an irregular quadrilateral with square gateways and fine towers (of which only four remain) joined by crenellated walls. Until after the bombardment in 1896 the Fort was used as a goal and also as the quarters of the Sultan's Baluchi bodyguard. Just behind it was the old fruit and vegetable market and the place of execution (by sword), the last public executions having taken place as recently as the reign of Seyyid Khalifa bin Said (Sultan, 1888 – 90). Until 1928 the fort was the depot of the Bubuhu Railway before it became a Lady Club. It is a gazetted monument which has been renovated recently and partly converted into a Cultural Centre.

The House of Wonders The house named Beit al Ajab in Arabic was built for ceremonial purpose by Sultan Barghash in 1883 from a design by a British Marine Engineer. The palace is unique in Zanzibar and the whole of East Africa in terms of its size and history. It was among the first building in East Africa to be installed with electricity and tap water. Dominating the seafront the building was used later as residence of two successive Sultans before it was bombarded by the British fleet in 1896 in what is recorded as the Shortest War in history. It was later on reconstructed and converted into a government seat. The building contains unique architectural elements, decorated veranda and other rooms are fitted with fretted cedar and teak panelling as well as handsome examples of carved doors covered with gilded texts from the Quran. This un-gazetted building is in deteriorating condition and will be converted into the Museum of History and Swahili Culture.

Old Dispensary It was built by a wealthy Ismaili businessman Tharia Topan in 1887 to mark the Queen Victoria's Golden Jubilee by a skilled Architect Virjee Patel from India. The design of the hospital was based on Anglo-Indian motifs. The projecting double balcony with its carved posts and tracery barge boards is the centre piece of this elaborate building. Although a typical of Indian buildings, it is a symbol of the many different people, cultures and influences that contributed to the development of Zanzibar in the 19th century. It has been recently well restored by the Aga Khan Cultural Services and converted into Zanzibar Cultural Centre.

Roman Catholic Cathedral (St. Joseph's) Established themselves in Zanzibar since 1860, the Catholics built their Cathedral in 1896. It was designed in French Neo-Romanesque by M. Berangier, the Architect of Notre Dame de la Marseille. The plan is a massive dignified cruciform structure with basilica apse, octagonal dome, a nave pierced with circular clerestory lights and two towers as Campanilli at the West end, it is a gazetted monument in good condition.

Anglian Cathedral (Christ Church) Standing on the site of the last open slave market to be open in Zanzibar, it is a monument to commemorate the history of official abolition of slave trade in Sultan's dominions. The foundation stone was laid in the X-Mass day of 1873 and consecrated in 1903 named after "Christ Church" the Canterbury Cathedral. Designed by C.F. Hayward, the building follows a simple basilican plan and presents unusual combination of perpendicular Gothic and Islamic details – multiple arches and crenellations which were inspired by the buildings context of Zanzibar. It is a gazetted monument in deteriorating condition.

Tippu Tip House This is a fine example of the vernacular Arab town house which also demonstrates the changes of the built form common to the development of Zanzibar town. It has black and white marble steps and a fine carved door. The building has a specific historic significance as the former residence of the well known ivory and slave merchant – Tippu Tip whose name in the time of Livingstone and Stanley was a power from Congo to the Indian Ocean. It is un-gazetted building in deteriorating condition.

Malindi Balnara Mosque Malindi Minaret Mosque is one of the few mosques in Zanzibar with a minaret. It is decorated with double chevron pattern of the same kind as that to be seen at Zimbabwe. The mosque belongs to the Sunnis and was built about 1831 by Mohammed Abdul-Qadir el-Mansabi, an Arab whose remains are buried in front of the Mihrab; but the minaret itself is thought to be much older. It is a gazetted monument in deteriorating condition.

Jamat Khan This religious building was built in 1907 used exclusively by the followers of Esmaili of His Highness Aga Kahn. It is an imposing and beautiful architectural work. The great hall, the ceiling of which is supported by massive stone pillars with exquisitely carved capitals and pillars of inlaid wood and elaborate carving fine coup d'oeil. The exterior of the building is striking like one of the old palaces in Venice. It is un-gazetted monument in deteriorating condition.

Royal Cemetery Adjoining the Beit el Sahil Palace is the Royal Cemetery where there stands a half-finished tomb with delicately fluted columns. In this are buried the remains of Seyyid Said (Sultan, 1804-56), the founder of modern Zanzibar, and his sons Khaled, Barghash (Sultan, 1870 – 88) and Khalifa (Sultan 188 – 90) etc. The erection of the mausoleum was begun by Seyyid Majid (Sultan, 1856 – 70), but was stopped at the request of certain puritans of the Ibadhi sect (the Muslim sect to which the Royal House belongs) who held that it was impious to cover a grave with a roof. The cemetery also contains the remains of other member of the Royal Family. It is a gazetted monument in deteriorating condition.

Persian Baths The Persian-style baths are quite unique type of institution in Africa in terms of their functions, style, decorations and history. About eight baths were built on the island of Zanzibar during the 19th century two of which are in the Stone Town. Among these Hamamni bath complex situated in the middle of the Stone Town is the most elaborate. It is indeed the largest and among the best preserved historic monuments of Zanzibar built for public use by Hadj Gulamhusein commissioned by Seyyid Barghas (1870 – 1888). It is a gazetted monument in deteriorating condition.

Many Royal baths of Zanzibar are located outside the town centre forming part of the preserved historic monuments. One Royal bath building survives in the Stone Town located at Forodhani immediately behind the Beit el Sahil palace. It was built by Seyyid Said in 1830s (Sultan, 1804 – 56) for his wife, a member of the Persian Royal Family. It is a gazetted monument in deteriorating condition.

In addition, those buildings contain features such as the carved doors (approximately 277), elaborate balconies and intricate fretwork which are distinctive features in and of themselves. Such features include Monuments (24), Significant buildings (628), Carved doors (277), Balcony/teahouse (127), Fenestration (90), Fascia board (142) (142), Façade features (142) Plaster work (27), Doorway (14), Covered passage (13), Tile work (52), Timber staircase (30), Arches/niches (220), Other (43). Moreover, the Stone Town possesses Streetscape elements including old tombs, stairways, fountains, trees and vistas as well as graveyards, park and other green areas. (See Annex: NO. 2 Part VIII).

Many of the basic construction techniques used in the different types of buildings have been employed along the East African coast for many centuries. These essentially consisted of coral rag masonry set in a thick mortar, consisting of lime, earth and sand, finally covered with lime plaster and lime wash. The typical vernacular architecture of the old town, is two storey buildings constructed of massive walls of coral rubble, - with long, narrow rooms arranged around an open courtyard. The dimensions of building and individual rooms were determined by the length of the locally grown "boriti" - the mangrove poles generally 2.5 to 3 metres capable of supporting the heavy stone ceilings. It was only with the introduction of modern building materials and techniques that these centuries old proportions and dimensions began to change.

The land use policies constitute the backbone of the newly approved Conservation Plan. Eight zones of land and building use have been designated, including that of public open space, such as gardens, recreation grounds and sea related activities. Religious activity and educational facilities are distributed throughout the town and therefore are not designated separately. (See Annex: NO2 Part 111)

(c) Maps, photographic & Cinematography documentation

Annex:

*Aerial photo

* Video Film

* Black and white photographic documentation 1997

(d) Bibliography

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4. State of preservation and conservation

a) diagnosis

The unique cultural patrimony of the Stone Town is in danger of being lost. The result of the survey carried out in 19993 shows that the bulk of the Stone Town heritage both traditional and most recent is in poor condition. Rapid physical deterioration over the past three decades has caused alarm both within the island administration and in the International community. The cause of the decay are many:

Firstly, as already explained the absence of resident landlords and the low income of the new tenants, has greatly facilitated the current lack of routine maintenance, hence decay.

Secondly, the generally poor condition of the buildings is exacerbated by the island's tropical climate and by problems inherent in the building technology and material employed for centuries along the East African Coast. The environmental causes of destruction are mainly infiltration of rainwater in the flat roofs. The floors and flat roofs of the old buildings are made of closely laid joist supporting a thick masonry slab made of coarse aggregate of coral and mortar with widely used mangrove poles. All these are susceptible to damp and water infiltration. As water seeps through the masonry and creates wet conditions, particularly near joists' bearing ends, the timber becomes subject to wet rot and insect attack. In time, the resulting softened joists lose their capacity to bear loads and began to separate from the masonry. Eventually, the walls lose their lateral stability and collapse. Metal is also a common element in Zanzibar's old buildings including steel beams and the ubiquitous corrugated iron as well as cast iron columns, brackets, balustrades and other precast elements. These elements are first and foremost liable to rust which is particularly insidious in Zanzibar where the high relative humidity and salty air act as powerful corrosive agents. The oxidation process is rapid, particularly when protective coatings of paint have not been maintained or broken elements repaired.

The survey shows that over 84% of the buildings stock is either in poor or deteriorating condition, and only 231 of the total 1709 buildings are in good repair. Some 85 buildings have completely collapsed over the past 10 years, while a further 15 have partially collapsed. Among the Architecturally significant buildings in deteriorating or poor condition. The buildings in worst condition tend to be residential and commercial properties in Government and Wakf (religious trustee) ownership. Around 90% of these buildings are in poor and deteriorating condition. Rents for these properties are so low that they do not cover the cost of maintenance and tenant's insecure tenure leave them with little incentive for investment. The figures are somewhat better for privately owned buildings, particularly commercial properties, where income-generating provide funds and incentive for maintenance and repairs. While there has been overall improvement in the condition of the buildings since 1983, the current economic boom has not affected the majority of the old buildings.

Sewage is yet another problem to the town. The Stone Town has an old network of sewers that were installed in the early part of this century. This system, made of underground cast iron pipes connect a limited number of houses within the Stone Town with a Sewer each with its own outfall to the sea or alternatively, into the creek along the eastern edge of the town. Today, most of these sewers are dilapidated and indeed of extensive repairs or outright replacement. Severe seasonal rains exacerbate problems caused by blocked drains and inadequate drainage infrastructure thus over flooded sewage washing through the narrow streets. In addition, the difficulties encountered in the past in effecting preservation and controlling development in the Stone Town may, to a great extent, be attributed to the lack of a plan and the absence of an institutional setting with supporting legislation.

Although concern for the rapid pace of deterioration in the historic area goes back to the late 1970s and a subsequent planning study which was completed by UNCHS in 1982, no formal plan for the Stone Town was prepared until the present one, ratified in July of 1994. Until then, the government planning offices have to rely on the general planning schemes prepared for the entire city of Zanzibar. The latest was the Chinese Master plan prepared in 1982 and formally adopted in 1985. Like the previous planning schemes, the Chinese Master plan was not specifically formulated for the Stone Town. Thus, the specific issues prevailing in the historic area and its particular development and conservation problem had never been addressed independently except in this 1994 Conservation Master Plan.

b) Agent responsible for preservation & conservation:

The Stone Town conservation and development authority is presently the principal authority responsible for planning, conservation and development in the Stone Town and:

The Department of archives, museum and antiques is responsible for few gazetted historic monuments within the Stone Town.

b) History of preservation and conservation

Efforts to preserve the Zanzibar Stone Town started as early as the beginning of the 20th century whereby regulations were set to preserve the town architecture, control of encroachment of the streets and the use of open space. However, the need for specific actions to preserve the traditional structures were gazetted in 1979 and put under the care of the ministry of sports and culture. Later on, the government recognised the significance of this unique heritage and decided to preserve the Stone Town.

Action to preserve Zanzibar's historic Stone Town began effectively in 1982 when the Government asked the United Nations Centre for Human Settlements (UNCHS/Habitat) to undertake a comprehensive study of the Historic Stone Town area and recommend appropriate measures to arrest its deterioration. The initial study was completed in 1983, and was followed in 1984 by a more detailed report entitled strategy for Integrated Development Authority (STCDA) in 1985 to coordinate all planning and building activities in the Stone Town and in 1998 with the restoration of a small number of historic buildings, including the Bharmal and Kilosa.

Rehabilitation of few buildings have been done by STCDA itself including its modest Office the Sultan's palace now accommodating the Palace Museum, The Commission for Land and Environment building, to mention but a few. All these building sites were locally financed. And an attempt to restore the traditional lime technology earned the STCDA the UNCHS scroll of honour for 1990. The UNDP- project, technical assistance only came into operation in 1988 before the five project sites were approved. The German Development Service had simultaneously been assisting the conservation process by providing the STCDA with material and technical support, especially in carpentry, where the carpentry workshop has been handsomely provided with experts and equipment.

The first Stone Town workshop in 1990 realised the modest limitation to construction work that would hardly save the Stone Town and urged the STCDA to prepare the conservation master plan as an effort to reverse the decline and guide future development in the historic area in the town's natural environment, historical character and important architectural features. The plan was prepared over a period of two years, as a joint initiative of the Stone Town Conservation and development authority and the historic cities Stone Town Zanzibar government in 1994.

Since 1991, there has been substantial renewed interest in the Stone Town and its future preservations and development on the part of the government and international aid organisations. Activities which are relevant to the Stone Town's preservation and economic development, which are either under consideration or presently being carried out with the International donor assistance include: restoration and adaptive re-use of the Old Dispensary, one of the finest historic structures in Zanzibar by Aga Khan, renovation and adaptive re-use of the Old Fort and Beit al-Ajab (EU); feasibility studies and implementation proposals for major rehabilitation works of the town's sewers and storm water disposal system (KWF), as well as the water supply networks (FINNIDA); and finally, development of a centre for conservation in the Customs House, including a restoration training course and materials conservation laboratory (UNESCO).

These many initiatives sprang from the recognition that action is urgently needed in the face of widespread deterioration of the old Stone Town. Their aim is to contribute to the physical rehabilitation and economic development of the area, which, with its rich and diverse architectural heritage, remains the largest and most important living historic town in eastern African region.

d) Management Plan:

The Conservation Plan for the Stone Town was approved in July of 1994. It covers a total surface area of 125 hectares, comprising the built-up portion of the Stone Town and the open areas along its eastern border plus the older part of Darjani Street. As stated in the accompanying Planning Statement, the Plan's general objective is "to establish guidelines for, and controls on future development in the Stone Town which will encourage growth while preserving the town's natural environment, historical character and important architectural features."

The Plan pursues its objective through two distinct but complementary levels of action. The first is the setting up of a general planning framework which provides the broad policies necessary to co-ordinate the organisation of the Stone Town and regulate its future development.

The second level of action is the identification of areas to be upgraded within the town, and the development of planning proposals for selected Action Areas:

More specifically, through its various components, the Plan:

- proposes land and building uses that are in keeping with existing land use pattern and the historic character of the town, and identifies uses that conflict with them and that should not be permitted;
- recommended protective measures for those buildings, facades, architectural features and open spaces that contribute to the townscape and environment of the Stone Town;
- regulates private and public building activity so that both new development and alterations to existing buildings will be in keeping with the architectural character of the town;
- recommends a transport and traffic network within and around the historic area, and outlines a co-ordinated programme of infrastructure improvements;
- *provides a framework for the implementation of detailed planning schemes in the specified Action Areas and Areas to be upgraded.

Conclusion:

Cultural property.

Zanzibar Stone Town meets the criteria for inclusion in the World Heritage List mentioned in the Operational Guidelines:

24 a) (iii), (iv) and (v)

24 b) (i) and (ii)

27 (iii)

29 (i) and (ii)

The stone town of Zanzibar, located on an island of Unguja at the edge of the Indian Ocean is the largest and most renowned of the East Africa's coastal towns. Its uniqueness lies in its size, complexity, history and culture. Indian Ocean is a large bay limited by the African, Arab and Indian coastlines. The seasonal monsoon made it possible for Arab and Persian traders to reach the coasts of Africa and India since thousands years ago in their small sailing vessels. Through this trade a line of commercial city-states emerged along the African coastline from Mogadishu in the north to Mozambique in the south. The common culture grew out of a mixture of African and oceanic cultural elements. The culture is known as Swahili Culture.

Unlike many other city-states, Zanzibar has survived major crisis, and remains the largest and most important living historic town in eastern African region where distinct building types originating from the Oman, India, East Africa and Europe can still be discerned. And although the town urban life along the east African Coast, which has been closely associated with the international economy in Indian Ocean, and ideologically with Islam as a way of life and as such it continues to link it to the onetime sultanates and harbour-towns that lined the western Indian Ocean - Kilwa, Mombasa, Malindi, Lamu and Mogadishu as well as the ancient trading ports of Arabian Peninsula and the Persian Gulf.

In the 19th century Zanzibar became one of the richest spice producing islands in the world while Stone Town was a capital of afro Arab dynasty, a centre of commerce of great East African empire and international diplomacy, a seat of learning and important dispersal point of itinerant "ulema" and a gateway to Africa. It was also the centre for the propagation of Christian missions and the spread of international diplomacy, it was the centre of the stirring drama of the final suppression of slave trade and closure of the last open slave market in Africa and indeed the centre of the great European race for the acquisition of land in Africa. It was this town also where a history of modern and technological development in East Africa was first recorded. It was the first town in Eastern Africa to be installed with street lights, telephones, telegraph service connecting with Europe and other parts of Africa as well as tap water

to mention but a few Most of these infrastructural system exist and some, like the sewer system and the water distribution network are still in use. All of these events have made records of Zanzibar richly embroidered tapestry and give this town an important status immeasurably higher than many places of similar size.

As an unique urban ensemble, Zanzibar stone town is of high historic and architectural interest and a living museum among the coastal towns. Here the past is clearly interwoven in monuments and the spirit of traditional and modern buildings blend in the Saracenic , Byzantine, Gothic and contemporary architectural styles to produce a unique architectonic entity. The town consist of the buildings with domes, towers and minarets, and structures to meet every need of man from a cradle to the grave. There are mosques and Churches where people worshipped, married and christened; the family vaults and cemeteries where people where buried, a Post Office and Banks where people correspond and save money: there are clubs, social halls, parks and gardens where people spent their leisure time. There are indeed palaces and Persian baths where the Arab sultanate exercised their power and spent their leisure time with their royal household. In this connection the stone town traditional coral stone buildings, narrow bazaar streets, massive carved doors, and intricate multistoried balconies create a distinct urban context, and are a living testament to the great variety of influence which, over a period of two and a half centuries created Zanzibar's unique blend of history, culture and architecture.

What is recognisable in the urban structure and fabric is recognisable in the living culture of population on the town too. The tolerance of , and consideration for other peoples' feelings which have been the hallmark of Zanzibar for so many generations, have permitted different cultures to grow up side by side and allow them to coalesce into a new whole. Thus, the stone town is a melting point of cultures and reflects the cosmopolitan nature of Zanzibar more then anywhere else in East Africa.

The present state of preservation is alarming and action is urgently needed in the face if widespread deterioration of the old Stone Town as already fabric can be saved if an immediate action is initiated. The relative starting a comprehensive programme that will have a positive impact in the economy of the town as a whole.

Finally, the recent approval of the Stone Town conservation Plan and passage of the Stone Town Conservation and Development Act have created in Zanzibar the preconditions for better planning and execution for the conservation of in the historic area.

List of annexes:

Annex: 1 Chapter 79, The principal decree regulating planning and buildings controls.

Annex: 2 Publication of Stone Town Conservation Planning Scheme. Putting the Scheme into force. (made under Section 7). Including Planning Statement and Regulations and List of Grade 1 listed building.

Annex: 3 Chapter 102, the Ancient Monuments Preservation Decree of 1927.

Annex: 4 The establishment of STCDA Act of 1994 Act.

Annex: 5 Photos, 40 black and white, 6 Coloured, 1 Video tape

Annex: 8 Maps

- Condition of buildings
- Ownership
- New buildings and alterations
- Existing infrastructure
- Land Use Plan for the Conseration Area
- Significant buildings and Streetscape Elements

ZANZIBAR VISION 2020

**MINISTRY OF WATER, CONSTRUCTION, ENERGY, LANDS
AND ENVIRONMENT.**

**STONE TOWN CONSERVATION AND
DEVELOPMENT AUTHORITY.**

HISTORY OF THE SUBSECTOR (1970 - 1985)

It is safe enough to regard Zanzibar as having no specific policy in the preservation of its cultural (built) heritage. The Ancient Monuments Preservation Decree was by itself not a policy even if it were fully implemented. Under the Decree, monuments were declared mainly for historical or political criteria and not other pertinent, equally important attributes. The result was sporadic declaration as monuments to some structures and ancient sites - mostly ruins and, in town, few isolated buildings with history attached. If anything, such were "hands off" declarations to the general public, making the sites more open to tourists and other foreign visitors than the society around them.

Any seemingly successful step in preserving built cultural heritage between 1970 and 1985 is therefore more a matter of chance than a result of strategic policies.

This speaks as to why despite the Stone Town and some of those sporadic monuments, there are many more sites and structures in Zanzibar that are not realised as worth being gazetted, despite their historical, social, economic, emotional, aesthetic, antique, innovative, environmental and other attributes.

One would have expected that with the richness of heritage Zanzibar possesses, there would also be declared heritages at local governments, districts and regional levels.

These may have been such natural heritages as the spring cave at Mvuleni and the mangoes avenue at Bungi. Or, in terms of built heritages sites like the pre-revolution site and service housing scheme at Kidongo Chekundu, the windmill, pump at Hanyagwamchana, the cattle-dip at Kiembesamaki or ruins of the slaves rehabilitation settlement at Mbweni.

ACHIEVEMENTS

The greatest achievement of the STCDA is the awareness of the people. From treating the Stone Town as only a relic of colonialism to accepting it as their ancestral habitat. From under-utilised commercial spaces then to overcrowded flats now. From being a squatters paradise to being a show-case of escalating gentrification.

Apart from this "overall-awareness" Zanzibaris are once again proud of the Stone Town. Stone Town has become - just like the cloves - the common symbol of Zanzibar as a country. Its architectural features are propagated outside its peripheries: decorated facia-boards, arching fencing walls, crenellated parapets, elaborately curved doors. Just like the spoken Swahili, Stone Town architecture is firstly becoming the common visual language of Zanzibaris. Zanzibar is re-discovering itself. Through the Stone Town!

That at least one third of Stone Town buildings is in fair to good condition, compared to the 1982 situation where less than a third fell in the category, is by itself an achievement. Another achievement worth mentioning is the fact that at least some buildings owners have "rediscovered" the use of lime as the ideal binding material for Stone Town buildings. Before that (although even in some considerable cases up till now) repairs of the masonry buildings were done using cement as binder which caused a lot of detriment to the buildings.

Now to control this piece of planning without planners and architecture without architects there is the conservation Master plan being implemented. Through it, the town could be utilised and conserved without threat to its future. It envisages the rational utilisation of land, buildings and site while retaining its socio-economic set-up. It recognises and encourages the activities of the people: their customs, economics and social relations, jobs, beliefs, and urban rituals. Once again, there is now a known yet flexible direction of the town as it heads to the future. The Master Plan, in short, is today's effort in not robbing tomorrow of its past.

Yet more remarkable achievement is how the historical town comes with modernity without surrendering its identity. Foreign and local investment is pouring in Stone Town thereby creating jobs, bringing in new innovations, improving infrastructure, facilitating development and - more importantly - consolidating the town's rehabilitation.

Even more important is the rejuvenation of informal sector which not only provides employment, but also complements the public and private sector in completing the daily necessities of both the resident and floating population of the town and the Municipality in general.

IMPLEMENTATION STRATEGIES

The main strategy in the overall restoration of the Stone Town lies in preventive - rather than curative - maintenance. The department is designing methods whereby it will be necessary for building owners to do preventive maintenance on their buildings in the following routine.

- (i) DAILY ROUTINE: Sweepers, cleaners and dwellers should look out for new cracks, deflection and other failures in their houses, and monitor and/or report them to the Authority. Fire extinguishers in public buildings should be checked

against leakages. Any new leakages in pipes, roof and drains should be noted and reported.

(ii) WEEKLY ROUTINE: Superficial cracks and descaling of wall/surfaces should be repaired, rotten mangrove poles (identified by visual deflection) should be replaced. Stormwater should be well-drained from the wall footings.

(iii) MONTHLY ROUTINE: Vegetable growths to be removed from the buildings, drainage pipes cleaned against clogging, organic materials (dry leaves etc) to be cleaned from roofs etc.

(iv) YEARLY ROUTINE: Mangrove poles should be checked. Structural system thoroughly checked and maintained. Detailed inspection/monitoring to be done. Fittings (Electrical, Drainage, AC's) to be checked and repaired. Another preventive maintenance will be for both new buildings and curative maintenance for those in poor condition. The former will be achieved by collaborating with the Master Plan and implementation department in scrutinising applications and monitoring their implementations. With the later, we are currently looking at legal provisions enabling us to enforce owners of such buildings to forcefully maintain their buildings, otherwise face consequences like the Authority appropriating the building after repairing it until the owner pays back.

CURRENT STATUS OF THE SUBSECTOR (1986-1996)

Action to preserve Zanzibar Historic Stone Town began effectively in 1982 when the Government asked the United Nations Centre for Human Settlement (UNCHS/HABITAT) to undertake a comprehensive study of the historic area and recommend appropriate measures to arrest its deterioration. The initial study was completed in 1983, and was followed in 1984 by a more detailed report entitled Strategy for Integrated Development.

The most significant result of the HABITAT study was the creation in 1985 of the Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority (STCDA) to coordinate all planning and building activities in the Stone Town. Immediately after its formation, the authority went into action. The policy adopted was to "save the situation".

For the last 20 years the Stone Town - from its heydays - had seen nothing but deterioration. Houses were falling down and people were killed because of that. Therefore the formation of Stone Town, one would say, was very timely. One of the strategy used to "save the situation" was to sell some of the government - owned buildings (which were in poor condition) to the private sector. The demand to buy was high but the prices were put low on purpose to allow the would-be owners to renovate their buildings to the required standard, within two years from the date of purchase. 300 buildings were sold and at the end of two years 85% of the sold stock were repaired to our satisfaction. Privately owned buildings followed suit. The trade - liberalization in 1985 caused a high demand for commercial activities. This triggered alot of renovation works in Stone Town being the center of commercial activities from the very old days.

The International Aid Organizations have also been helping restore some of the very important historical buildings, like the Bharmal Building, Kilose House, Old Fort etc.

Challenges:

While poverty and neglect will hasten the deterioration of historic buildings, wealth and unregulated new development can be equally detrimental. With increasing development activity in Zanzibar, new structures are being built and historic buildings altered or renovated in ways that are incompatible with their surrounding context and original building materials. Too often, the old buildings are perceived as a hindrance to progress, and the historic fabric is thus slowly but irreversibly transformed. Approximately 85 buildings have been newly constructed or radically altered since the 1982 survey. This figure represent five percent of the Stone Town building stock. The majority of these buildings are privately owned and, in general, are used for commercial purposes.

The Legal and Institutional setting

Five years after the formation of STCDA in 1985, the situation in Stone Town had become almost normal; and therefore the policy of “save the situation” was abandoned. The next strategy was to plan, because it was realised that the difficulties encountered in effecting preservation and controlling development may, to a great extent, be attributed to the lack of a plan and the absence of an institutional setting with supporting legislation.

Therefore, the plan was prepared over a period of two years, as a joint initiative of the Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority and the Historic Cities Support Programme of the Aga Khan Trust for culture and was formally adopted by the Zanzibar Government in 1994.

At the same period of time building regulations were formulated and an act was prepared which would provide STCDA with special legal powers intended to give the Authority the independence and means to operate effectively.

VISION 2020

We have to ask ourselves: what problems will the Stone Town face in the future? and how can its conservation and future development be made part of a process of balanced and sustainable growth for Zanzibar entire urban area.

At present, all seems to indicate that although the population in the Stone Town is unlikely to increase, considerable pressure will be exerted on the town centre from the surrounding areas, both in terms of ever greater demand for public services and commercial outlets, and as the principal destination of goods and commuters. Therefore some activities should be selectively and gradually decentralized to the surrounding developing areas to relieve pressure on the centre and phase out incompatible land uses. For example, the construction of the proposed wholesale market outside the Stone Town is

Mwanakwerekwe, would provide welcome relief of the present congestion in and around the central market. Many other conflicting and cramped activities could also be relocated away from the centre, such as larger industrial workshops and storage facilities as well as public and recreational activities¹ which require extensive parking or involve a large influx of people and goods.

Most importantly, however, land should urgently be set aside in the newer developing areas to accommodate greater Zanzibar's need for essential infrastructure, educational and public facilities which at present are either inadequate or totally lacking. This would lessen the expansion areas' present dependency on the Stone Town and promote a more balanced development of Zanzibar as a whole.

In the long run, Zanzibar should pursue a model of balanced growth, in which the Stone Town maintains its capital role and traditional urban character, and the rest of the urban area is gradually equipped to respond to the needs of its neighbourhoods. Only in this way can the future pressure on the Stone Town be contained, its historic character preserved and a process of sustainable growth for the city as a whole satisfactorily pursued.

Strategies to achieve desired objectives/Action Programmes/Intervention

Following is a summary of the policies that should be pursued to enhance positive interventions and counteract negative trends in the historic area.

- **Curb the uncontrolled proliferation of commercial and tourist land uses and decentralize in appropriate activities** in order to maintain the traditional balance of retail and residential activity, reduce congestion and commercial pressure, and contain the rapid transformation of the historic fabric. This can be done by monitoring land use as well as strengthening planning controls over new developments and alteration to existing buildings.

programme as a means to facilitate direct private investment has proved very successful before. Further measures and incentives might include access to credit and tax relief for owners who invest in the upkeep of their properties. Also, the institution of grants for listed buildings and special revolving funds to pay for rehabilitation works may be considered. These incentives, however, require strong administrative support and constant monitoring, and may thus be more appropriate at a later stage, when the Authority is in a stronger position and can mobilize means and personnel for the task.

Finally, there is a need to reintroduce traditional construction techniques and sound conservation methods. Local awareness of the value of traditional buildings will need to be raised, specialized contractors licensed, and a new generation of craftsmen trained to carry out repairs and rehabilitation works. Only such a public policy pointed firmly in the right direction can reverse the present unsatisfactory trend and revive the increasingly threatened and dilapidated historic fabric.

- **Reorganise the principal public spaces** and offer integrated solutions for key areas in the Stone Town. The reorganization of these public spaces will contribute to resolving a number of important problems which have a bearing on the functioning of the entire town. This exercise will also provide an opportunity for identifying innovative solutions which can subsequently be applied to other parts of the town. Above all, it will place public planning at centre stage, and reassert the role public planning can and should play in the development of the town's civic spaces and as the catalyst of future urban development.

- **Upgrade the existing infrastructure.** The Stone Town has been the better serviced part of the town, with a fairly extensive and solid infrastructure network. The rehabilitation of the systems which were for the most part installed fifty or more years ago has already started. Because of the historic area's fragile environment, and because the installation of totally new systems would be very expensive, the emphasis is

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The use of private cars will need to be discouraged with a series of carefully worked out controls and incentives, including access restrictions, traffic-calming devices, peripheral parking and the institution of a public transport circuit around the Stone Town. Moreover, cycling and pedestrian alternatives, which are ideally suited to the compact urban environment of the Stone Town, should be encouraged by making streets safer for people and cyclists and establishing secure, conveniently located bicycle stands throughout the central area.

- **Mobilize resources to finance conservation and development in the Stone Town.**

No plan or programme of action, however desirable or beneficial, can be implemented without funds. Resources must be identified and mobilized prior to initiating any concrete improvement programme. In this respect the Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority would pursue a comprehensive strategy for the mobilization and use of resources, both in terms of generating additional public income and channeling private and donor funding towards objectives benefiting the historic area.

Prospects to be explored for mobilizing public resources include increased taxes on private property, the collection of reasonable user charges for services, and the charging of rents based on recurrent and maintenance costs for government - owned buildings. These measures should be implemented gradually and in ways that do not penalize the weaker strata of population.

In addition to public funds and the residents' potential to contribute directly to improving the historic area, there are opportunities for mobilizing resources from the international non-governmental and private sectors. Public policies to this effect might include securing international support to finance capital intensive programmes and creating incentives to attract investment to the historic area in an effort to generate more employment and revitalize economic activity. In the end, the administration's ability to use public fund

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central area are the key to establishing public credibility, raising the revenue base, attracting additional funds from external sources and receiving active support from the community.

The implementation of the general strategies outlined above will set the stage for the future development of the Stone Town in ways that are compatible with its historic fabric and consistent with a model of balanced growth for the entire town of Zanzibar.

HUMAN RESOURCES REQUIREMENTS

Given these circumstances and background summarized above, obviously the Stone Town should be managed by a properly planned and selected manpower. The following areas will be given priority:

- Town planning
- Land use control experts
- Conservation professionals
- Financial control and management
- Legal experts

SIZE

STCDA consist of a labour force of about one hundred employees which are divided into three (3) departments. We are planning to maintain the same size of work force but strengthen the technical know how in order to cope with desired objectives and strategies.

TYPE OF MANPOWER

Three types of manpower is required in order to administer the said strategies and action

Each of the three categories will be systematically upgraded by being given the relevant training in accordance to the needs of the organization and the resources allocation.

Currently STCDA has twenty semi-professional staff. These are to be developed and upgraded in the relevant professions within and outside the country. Graduate staff members will be gradually upgraded to the postgraduate/masters level and possibly Ph.D. levels.

GENDER

This institution will see to it that we strike a balance between male and female staff requirement. This could be achieved through encouraging the female college and school leavers to joint the conservation trade or to pursue studies related to this field.

The existing number of female graduate staff is five (5). this is expected double by the turn of 2020.

Appendix IV viii b, Comments on Zanzibar Vision 2020

Zanzibar Vision 2020

Ministry of Water, Construction, Energy, Lands and Environment
STCDA

The document points out the haphazard cultural heritage preservation going on in the years between 1970 and 1985 due to lack of adequate legal tools.

Achievements of the STCDA

- The awareness of people
- Turning the trend from being a squatter area to being a show-case of escalating gentrification
- Rediscovering of the Zanzibar identity through the architecture of the Stone Town

Intentions:

Visions

- Conservation without threat to its future
- Rational utilisation of land, buildings and site
- Retaining the socio-economic set-up
- Encourage the activities of the people
- Rejuvenation of the informal sector

Master Plan

- Not robbing tomorrow of its past,
- Coping with modernity without surrendering its identity,
- Consolidating the town's rehabilitation.

Implementation strategies

- Preventive rather than curative maintenance
- Daily Routines as
 - Look out for failures
 - Safeguarding of fire places, leakages in pipes, roofs and drains

Weekly Routines as

- Repairing of small but important construction failures
- Maintaining of drainage and storm-water pipes

Appendix V a Grounded Theory

The theoretical concept of Grounded Theory is derived from interpretation of the relevant empirical material in question. The attributes of Grounded Theory that establish its conceptual framework are basic and fundamental (Alvesson and Skjöldberg, 1994).

Grounded Theory was developed among sociologists in the early 1960s searching for a theory that could meet the required demands of a method to be understandable to sociologists and clear enough to be easily operational in qualitative research, which in its nature is inclusive and holistic and therefore struggles with verification and validity. In this process of searching for methods of generating theory from data that could lead to new insight, reflections and perspectives Glaser and Strauss published their book: *The Discovery of Grounded Theory – Strategies for Qualitative Research*. Glaser and Strauss claim, “by comparing where the facts are similar or different, we can generate properties of categories that increase the categories’ generality” (page 24). In my research this aspect of generality is used through the models of visual abstraction and in the course of the development of the decoding Matrix of the documents. The method of open coding and its ability to clarify frameworks and categories at an early stage, followed by rewinding and development of new categories and properties, develops an open-ended and inclusive approach, which has in my thesis functioned as a mind map and visualisation of the research process.

Grounded Theory is a research method that since “*The Discovery of Grounded Theory*” by Glaser and Strauss in 1967 has been criticised and developed in many stages. Some of the contributors to this discussion have been Strauss and Corbin (1998) who worked through the concept of Grounded Theory to explore further theoretical development and to formalise the analytical process according to the tradition of qualitative research.

The question of whether Grounded Theory is to be regarded as a strategy or a style of doing qualitative research has continuously been raised.

The two factors in Grounded Theory that have passed the questions and discussions through the years are its assertion that the research is an open ended process dependent on the local setting in which it is performed, and that the approach is a constant comparative evaluation and a continual correction of the data which leads to the development of new concepts and new questions, each more specific than the former. Through this process Grounded Theory develops analytical interpretations of the empirical material that lead to a new perspective on the data.

Grounded Theory also claims that the generation of categories, properties and lower level categories, the openness of “inter changeability” of indicators and its sincerity in the fruitfulness of comparing any groups, irrespective of differences and similarities, to be crucial for the understanding of the data.

Through the process of open coding, “comparing where the facts are similar or different, we can generate properties of categories that increase the categories’ generality and explanatory power” (Glaser and Strauss, 1967:24). The scholarly criticisms of Grounded Theory, its approach and theory, have been many and diverse. Miles and Huberman raised the demand for an explicit statement of criteria and procedures in 1984. They maintained that researchers dedicated to a qualitative approach seldom reported on their methods because of the embedded uncertainty.

The approach of open coding, its design of categories and sub-categories developed from characteristics and features, and its individualistic and constructivist approach has closely been guided by dilemmas of evaluation (Østerud, 2002).

During the last ten years the reviewers and critics of Grounded Theory have demanded that it carry out an evaluation of the interpretation of the data and suggest emphasizing a constructivist approach, with a

large component of knowledge between the researcher and the object. The breaking down of data with the aim of analysing instead of gaining a deeper understanding and description of the objects would cause an inexpedient distance between the analyser and the object, was another claim.

The re-conceptualization arising from these criticisms of Grounded Theory has generated a process of implementation of a constructivist approach in its application (Bjørnstad and Rydland, 2002).

Appendix V b Geographic Information System – GIS

The technology of Geographical Information System was developed in the early 1970s with the aim of mapping and registration. The system of mapping data and information creates patterns of relationships and differences between the objects and allows an interaction in combination of several layers of data and an interdisciplinary approach. Through decoding and correlation of data according to GIS, new information and knowledge emerges.

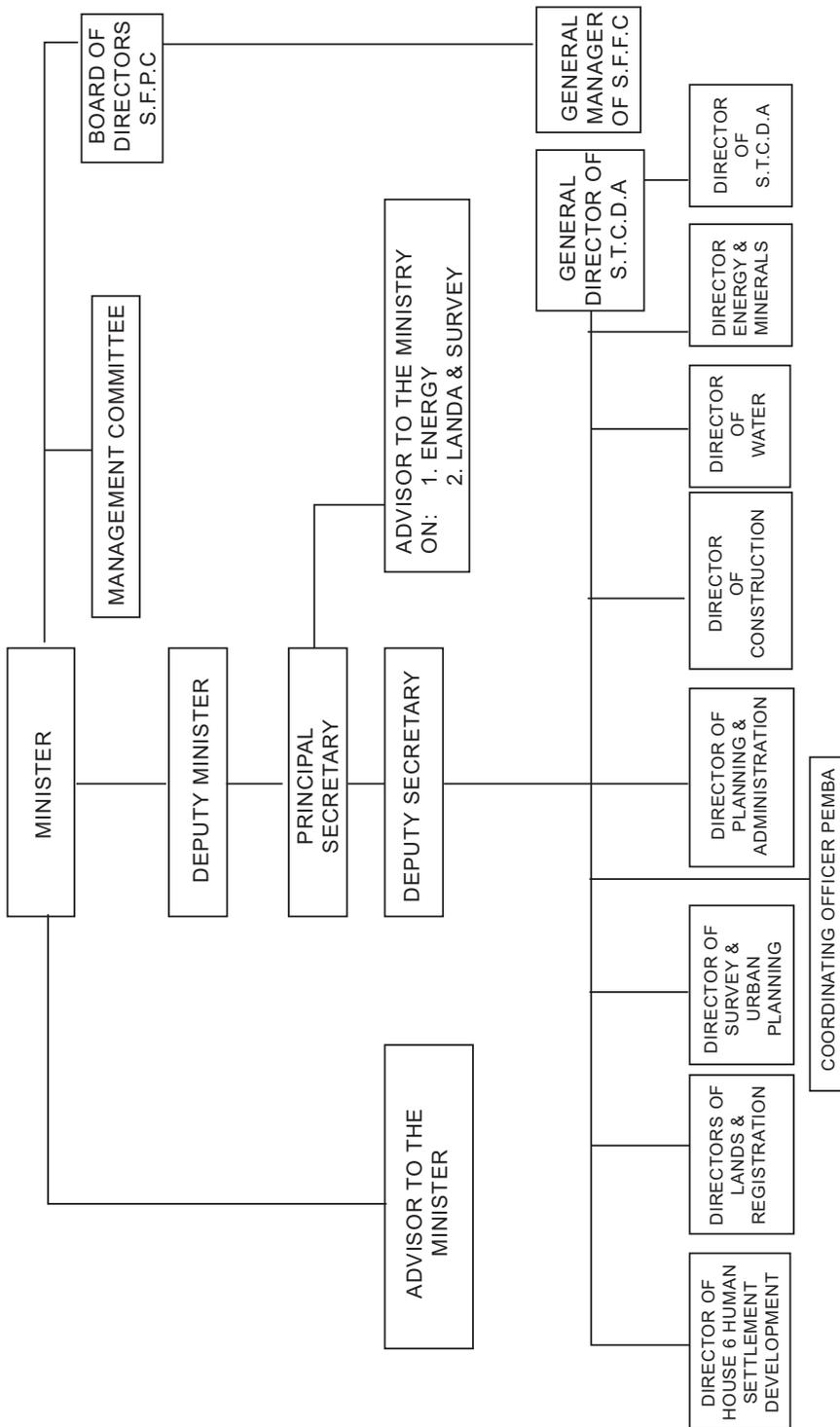
In the process of organising the registration GIS demands a categorisation of the attributes that are to be registered. It allows an open coding and asks for a set of parameters useful for the aim of the registrations and the users.

The decisive factor for obtaining a useful output of GIS is the demand of quality and accuracy in the data collection. The approach of the coding is based on a logical design of the database specifying the degree of tolerance, the system coordination and the consideration of objects, attributes and amount of data. The coding demands great skill and knowledge of the object in question and is based on catalogues that identify characteristics and structures and move from reality to abstract models, to data-models, databases and to files. In short one can say that the database models are complex and strongly connected to what they signify and that they are object-oriented.

The analytical approach deals with homogeneous samples that at the same time consist of a hierarchy of details and can be referred to as an object-oriented database model.

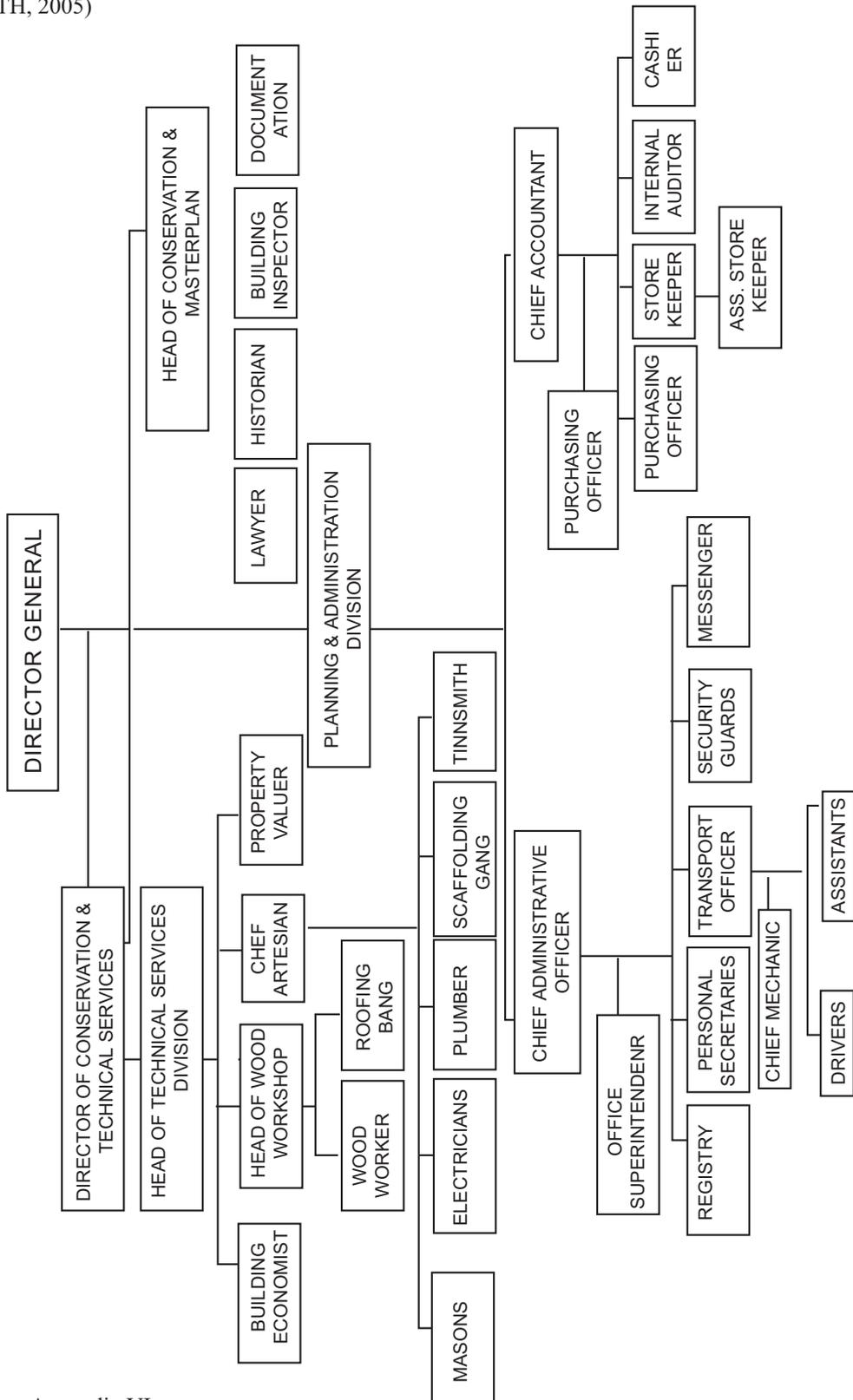
Appendix VI a. Organigram of MWCEL

Zanzibar, ("Land Tenure in Zanzibar", rap. Björken and Blixt, LTH, 2005).



Appendix VI b. Organigram of STCDA

Stone Town Conservation and Development Authority, (“Land Tenure in Zanzibar”, rap. Björken and Blixt, LTH, 2005)



Appendix VII Figures

If no sources are given the figures are the work of the author.

Introduction

Figure 1 *The Seafront of Zanzibar Stone Town is a representation of the trading influences on Zanzibar (author, 2001).*

Figure 2 *The triangle of objects illustrating I Zanzibar Stone Town II International Documents, III Local Documents.*

Figure 3 *The figure is an abstraction of the overlapping attributes in the international and local documents.*

Figure 4 *illustrates the correlation of attributes in the international and local documents.*

Figure 5 *This conceptualisation of the analytical process that is elaborated in Chapter 2.2 illustrates the approach of searching for the influential attributes of policy documents in the local architectural heritage management of Zanzibar Stone Town.*

Chapter 1

Figure 6 *Map of Africa with focus on Zanzibar -6 degree south of Equator. (Eliasson, Anna Sophia et. al., 1995)*

Figure 7 *Map of Tanzania illustrating the country's coastline bordering the Indian Ocean (Horton, 1996:2).*

Figure 8 *The figure showing the three main objects of study: Zanzibar Stone Town, International and Local policy papers regarding architectural heritage. The signature of the figure and the interrelations of its objects is the visual guideline used throughout the thesis.*

Chapter 2

Figure 9 *The diagram illustrates the analytical process of the two kinds of policy documents and their influence on the built environment Zanzibar Stone Town.*

Figure 10 *The title of the thesis reflects the questions raised by the case study.*

Figure 11 *The diagram illustrates the two main factors; Reality represented by the built environment (I) and Intentions represented by International and Local Policy Documents (II and III). It also illustrates the two analytical actions: IV – the correlation of the international and the local documents and V – the testing of the findings onto Zanzibar Stone Town.*

Figure 12 *The illustration shows the influence from international documents on local policy documents. Some of the attributes according to the Matrix (Appendix I) seen in the local documents are found in the international documents and some not found.*

Figure 13 *The illustration is an abstraction of the research design, the approach and used objects, matrix, literature and maps.*

Figure 14 *The diagram illustrates the selection of attributes on the vertical axis and the selection of documents on the horizontal axis.*

Figure 15 *The illustration shows the search for influence of policy documents in the built environment.*

Figure 16 *The figure is an abstraction of the correlation of attributes in the two kinds of documents.*

Figure 17 *(Appendix II v) Geographic registrations of Land Use and Zoning illustrates areas of residential, commercial, mixed residential and retail, cultural and public institutions, and recreational areas.*

Figure 18 *a and b Correlating the information of Ownership and Land Use versus the registration of Classification, gives an understanding of the political importance of the built environment.*

Figure 19 *Attributes as Threats, illustrating the span of threats to heritage management.*

Figure 20 *Graphic illustration of the conceptualisation of the analytical process of the documents, the correlation of the International and Local Policy Documents where the denominating influential factors are seen in the overlapping area.*

Figure 21 *The Black Box diagram mapping the factors influencing the heritage management on Zanzibar.*

Figure 22 *a, b, c and d illustrates the analytical approach of the research, and e illustrates step II in d.*

Chapter 3

Figure 23 *The triangle of objects is supplemented by the two main weighting factors: reality and intentions.*

Figure 24 *Diagram symbolising the correlating process.*

Figure 25 *The diagram shows relations and influences between the international and local policy documents and the relation to the built environment.*

Figure 26 *Attributes as Conservation Activity in the figure indicate, in the policy papers on international and local level, recommended actions to be taken.*

Figure 27 *Attributes as Objects. The diagram illustrates which objects are to be concerned in the policy documents, both on a timeline and on international and local level.*

Figure 28 *Attributes as Intentions. The diagram illustrates the attributes as Intentions in the Policy Documents and indicates a span of attributes varying from enforcing local management and control to increase quality of life and identity.*

Figure 29 *The illustration exemplifies the diversity of influences caused by the travelling merchants and the sailing routes between India, Arabia and East Africa (author, 2001).*

Figure 30 *The traditional Arab-influenced sailing boat is called a dhow (author, 2002).*

Figure 31 *East African seaports and settlements.*

Figure 32 *A galawa with its outriggers influenced by the Indonesians. Early in the morning the fishermen pole their boats into the bay (author, 2003).*

Figure 33 *Arabic-influenced house in Zanzibar (author, 2002).*

Figure 34 *A Swahili house either under construction or near collapse (author, 2001).*

Figure 35 *Mud is plastered between the vertical poles and the thinner, horizontal branches (author, 2001).*

Figure 36 *Swahili building construction (author, 2002).*

Figure 37 *Swahili corridor house with its characteristic baraza flanking the doorway (Helsing, C. et. al., 2003)*

Figure 38 *A typical Swahili house before the outside of the walls are plastered (author, 1995).*

- Figure 39** Outside Pangani on the North East coast of Tanzania this two-storey wattle and daub house was registered (author, 2002).
- Figure 40** Shirazi influenced balcony in Zanzibar, preventing people from the outside looking in but open for cross-ventilation and a pleasant indoor climate (author, 2002).
- Figure 41** The Shirazi style ornamented balconies and colored glass (author, 2001).
- Figure 42** A balcony overlooking the Indian Ocean with its richly decorated designs makes the view look like a framed picture. A wood carved banister and coloured window glass tell the story of Shirazi influence (author, 1995).
- Figure 43** Mangrove poles of hardwood are used as the main ceiling construction. Due to the maximum length of the mangroves being 3,60 m. the rooms are shaped in accordance with this span (author, 2003).
- Figure 44** Wood carvings on an Arabic-influenced door (author, 2001).
- Figure 45** A richly carved and ornamented Arabic-influenced door (author, 2001).
- Figure 46** An example of castellation in Hurumzi area. Different types of castellation found in Zanzibar (Eliasson, S. E. et al., 1992).
- Figure 47** Examples of daylight filtering through open shafts in courtyard rooms in Hurumzi and Sokomhogo 48 (author). Arabic-influenced house plan in Sokomhogo Block I showing the open courtyard enabling the evening sea breeze to penetrate from the open roof balcony through the flats and rooms (author, 2001).
- Figure 48** Arabic-influenced house plan in Sokomhogo Block I showing the open courtyard enabling the evening sea breeze to penetrate from the open roof balcony through the flats and rooms (author, 2001).
- Figure 49** The Arabic-influenced door is decorated with brass knobs originally to keep elephants out. Since elephants have never lived on Zanzibar this is purely for decoration. The centre-posts of an Arabic-influenced doorway is normally richly decorated as here exemplified by the centre-post of one of the doors in the Sultan's Palace that is richly decorated with gold painted carvings (author, 2002).
- Figure 50** Openness. Light filtering through an open courtyard in Hurumzi area (author, 2002).
- Figure 51** Darkness. Narrow streets give protection towards the sun (author, 2003).
- Figure 52** Indian shop-front row houses in Kajifijeni area in Zanzibar (author, 2002).
- Figure 53** Indian-inspired Zanzibar door (author, 2003).
- Figure 54** A typical three-storey high Indian shop front row house designed for workshops and shops on the ground floor and privacy on the first and second floor. The layout of Indian shop front row houses shows the workshop.(ill.: Berglind, C. and Lundquist, P. , 1998)
- Figure 55** The sketch illustrates a part of the Seafront of Zanzibar The Arabian-inspired sailing boats – dhows – occupy the harbours on Zanzibar (author, 1995).
- Figure 56** The Arabian-inspired sailing boats – dhows – occupy the harbours on Zanzibar
- Figure 58** Indian-influenced balcony in Hurumzi area in the Stone Town of Zanzibar (author, 1995).
- Figure 57** 98% of the inhabitants of Zanzibar are Muslims. Most grown-up women use their chador when moving outside their homes (author, 1991)
- Figure 58** Indian-influenced balcony in Hurumzi area in the Stone Town of Zanzibar (author, 1991).
- Figure 59** Zanzibar children outside a caravan serai, an old Arabic-influenced type of guesthouse and lodging (author, 2001).
- Figure 60** Inside the Old Fort – Boma – Built mainly by the Arabs about 1780 (author, 2002).
- Figure 61** Arabic-influenced house in Zanzibar Stone Town (author, 2003).
- Figure 62** Post Office in Zanzibar Stone Town. European influence seen in the use of concrete pillars and open portico (author, 2001).
- Figure 63** Archetypes and grammar of Zanzibar Stone Town of (Eliasson, A. S. et al., 1992.)
- Figure 64** The map showing the Zanzibar channel dividing Zanzibar Island from mainland Tanzania, with Bagamoyo strategically situated on the coast (Google, map, 2002)
- Figure 65** Map of Bagamoyo showing the area with a typical East African urban structure based on influence from Arabic, Indian and Colonial planning systems and architectural building types (Ark3, 2001).
- Figure 66** The centre of Bagamoyo still shows a strong Arabic, Indian and Colonial influence. (Ark3, 2001)
- Figure 67** Street life in Tanga town (author, 2001)
- Figure 68** Tanga town, shown in 2003 is situated at the mouth of Pangani River on the North East coast of Tanzania (Ark3, Tanga, Haifa Market, 2003).
- Figure 69** Still you find makuti roofs in the urban centre of Lamu giving shadow to the rooftop terraces. (Östlund, C. 2005) A narrow street in Lamu represents the traditional Arabic influence on public space. (Östlund, C. 2005)
- Figure 70** A narrow street in Lamu represents the traditional Arabic influence on public space (Östlund, C. 2005).
- Figure 71** Lamu has a typical Arabic-influenced planning structure created on the basis of the Arabic family structure and according to Islamic values, together making for a conglomeration of building structures and small interrelated streets in a morphological patt (Lamu Society, 1989).
- Figure 72** Pangani site plan, 2003 to the left. Right: The site plan enlarged to show the Arabic- and Indian-influenced city plan (Ark3, Pangani report, 2003).
- Figure 73** Slave Depot in Pangani, once an important and, despite its content, beautiful Arabic-influenced building on the sea shore at the mouth of Pangani river (author, 2003).
- Figure 74** India street in Pangani illustrates a typical Indian- influenced streetscpe with its shop-front-row houses (Ark3, Pangani Report, ill.: H. Jonsson, 2003).
- Figure 75** The red lines on the map of Tanzania illustrate the Slave routes from the Indian Ocean into mainland Tanzania (Odhiambo, Atieno et al., 1977 -elaborated).
- Figure 76** Map of the slave route from Ujiji to Bagamoyo. (Helsing, C. et. al., 2003)

Figure 77 Map of Ujiji on the shore of Lake Tanganyika. The town was founded in 1831 being the main inland settlement for the slave traders up to 1890. (Helsing, C. et al., 2003).

Figure 78 A Swahili-inspired street in Tabora. (Helsing, C. et al., 2003).

Figure 79 Swahili-influenced house in Militano village, Zanzibar (author, 1998).

Figure 80 An Arabic-influenced house in Zanzibar showing the compactness and scarcity of windows (author, 1998).

Figure 81 Zanzibar site plan 1987. Zanzibar is unreservedly the largest of the Stone Towns along the East coast of Africa counting some 2400 building units (STCDA, 1987).

Figure 82 Slave depot in Pangani, with Indian- and Arabic-influence (Ark3, The Pangani Report, 2003).

Figure 83 Arab influenced house in Ujiji (Helsing, C. et al., 2003).

Figure 84 Analysis of the streetscape in Zanzibar showing the narrow and shady streets flanked with three- and four-storey high buildings. (Helsing, C. et al., 1992).

Figure 85 An illustration of the streetscape analyses in Bagamoyo showing a more broad and wide space between the buildings than in Zanzibar Stone Town (Reuterswård, L. et al., 2002).

Figure 86 The diagram of Attributes as Producers illustrates the selected international documents spanning from UNESCO and Council of Europe being multinational organisations to ICOMOS and Aga Khan Foundation representing a mix of NGO and private organisations.

Figure 87 Selection of international policy documents in annually falling succession.

Chapter 4

Figure 88 “Lurra G258 ”and “Homenaje a la arquitectura II” sculptures of Chillida in the Guggenheim Museum in Bilbao, 1999 (author, 1999).

Figure 89 An open public area in Shangani where the Europeans settled and the narrow space between the houses in the neighbouring area where Indians and Arabs settled (author, 2001).

Figure 90 Unguja Island – The biggest island in the Zanzibar Archipelago covering 1,660 square kilometres and housing some 435,000 people (Zanzibar – a Plan for the Historic Town, 1994). (Ill. Lofchie, 1965:map 1).

Figure 91 The figure illustrates the density of the built environment and the conglomerate of streets. The Zanzibar Stone Town contains 2,400 buildings out of which 1,200 are stipulated as family houses. According to estimates in the early 80s the number of inhabitants in the Stone Town in 2002 was 148,000 (processed by the author).

Figure 92 The characteristic St. Joseph’s Cathedral (1896-1899) in Zanzibar rises above the skyline of Zanzibar together with 48 minarets and four Hindu temples (author, 2001).

Figure 93 Shangani Seafront bordering the Western tip of Zanzibar Stone Town (author, 1991).

Figure 94 A part of the sea front of Zanzibar, 2004 (author, 2002).

Figure 95 Customs house and Slave depot, Pangani, Tanzania 2002 (author, 2002).

Figure 96 An Arabic-influenced carved doorway in Sokomhogo area of the Stone Town (author, 2002).

Figure 97 This photo documents the unhappy influence on the building structure of bringing the habit of making fire and food down on the ground up the second floor. (Birkeland, G. 1992).

Figure 98 A kitchen installed on the rooftop covered with corrugated iron sheets prevents the intended cross ventilation of the evening sea breeze penetrating down the open courtyard into the inner rooms (author, 2003).

Figure 99 A typical street in 1982 showing fungi, potholes and lack of maintenance. (Birkeland, G. 1992) Picture to the right shows how the heavy rain and the humid climate of Zanzibar are two of the climatic factors which add a large number of dilapidated buildings to the table of ruins (author, 2001).

Figure 100 Ruin in Hurumzi area showing the patterns of the construction systems and the use of materials (author, 2002).

Figure 101 (Appendix II vi).
The map shows the Attributes by Classification of Buildings and gives a clear indication how the Arabs preferred to settle along the sea-side, the Indians in the inner part of the town and the Europeans on the outskirts searching for openness and sea breeze.

Figure 102 Beit el Ajib – Sultans Palace – borders the Indian Ocean and serves as a beacon to the town (author, 1998).

Figure 103 Swahili house in Malindi district flanked by an Arabic- and an India- influenced house (author, 2004).

Figure 104 The map shows the registration of Significant Buildings in the conservation area of the historic Stone Town with focus on; Sokomhogo Block I (processed by the author, 2001).

Figure 105 (Appendix II v)
Mapping Land Use and Zoning in the Stone Town illustrates that most of the building areas have a clear division showing that the inner part of the blocks are dedicated for dwellings and the outer parts are used for rental and commercial purposes (processed by the author, 2001).

Figure 106 Mapping Existing Land Use in the Stone Town illustrates that most of the building areas have a clear division showing that the inner part of the blocks are dedicated for dwellings and the outer parts are used for rental and commercial purposes (processed by the author, 2001).

Figure 107 Mapping the ownership of the buildings in Zanzibar Stone Town illustrates a massive public ownership, a rather fragmented pattern of houses in private ownership, a few mixed and a large amount of buildings being owned by the religious organisation Wakf, mapping the Ownership is also important for the understanding of the structure of conservation management (Figure 109). (processed by the author, 2001).

Figure 108 The map shows New Buildings and Alterations and illustrates an overwhelming number of new buildings being erected in private ownership. Few in public ownership are new except for the market (processed by the author, 2001).

Figure 109 (Appendix II iii)
Attributes as Conditions of Buildings. The map shows a scattered number of buildings being in good condition and that the majority of the buildings are in a relatively bad condition and illustrates a rather large effort of renovation is demanded.

Figure 110 *Mapping Conservation and Development* illustrates buildings classified as monuments being settled along the utter part of the Stone Town at the same time as buildings being classified as significant, are to be found also in the inner part of the city (processed by the author, 2002).

Figure 111 *High Court and Tasisi (The Language Institute)* represent the Colonial period and the influence of European architecture (author, 2003).

Figure 112 *The map* illustrates the layout scheme of the building blocks produced by the East Germans in the late 70s and their planning contradiction in relation to the Stone Town and Ng'ambo (the other side) (map processed by the author) (photo: author, 1982).

Figure 113 *Lanchester Plan* showing the racial distribution areas in the Stone Town (Lanchester, 1923)

Figure 114 *A typical attempt at repairing a leakage* (author, 2004).

Figure 115 *Repair mixing coral stones, lime, concrete and cement, the worst mixture of materials in a building structure founded on coral and lime* (author, 2001).

Figure 116 *When the floor- and ceiling-bearing mangrove poles rot, the walls lose their foothold and tear apart* (author, 2002).

Figure 117 *Gisenga street – a typical tourist shopping street* (author, 2003).

Figure 118 *Shop keeper in Hurumzi serving the local inhabitants* (author, 2004).

Figure 119 *Map of the five Building Inspectors' areas that are inspected twice a week and their activities reported back to STCDA* (STCDA, 2002).

Figure 120 *Attributes as tools showing different recommended tools for management of architectural and cultural heritage*.

Figure 121 *"Renovation"*. Well intended but with an unacceptable external appearance according to conservation principles (author, 2001).

Figure 122 *"Reparation"* made with concrete instead of lime, which will cause blisters and cracks inviting fungi and insects to inhabit the structure (author, 2003).

Figure 123 *The picture shows Hurumzi house no. 234 a deteriorating behing a heap of stones and garbage, 1992* (author, 1992).

Figure 124 *The picture illustrates the same house renovated and the place in front cleaned* (author, 2002).

Chapter 5

Figure 125 *The diagram gives an overview of the two objects to be analysed: The policy documents: II and III and the built environment: I. The diagram also illustrates the process of correlation: IV and the testing: V.*

Figure 126 *Abstraction of the analytical process searching for correlating attributes in international and local policy documents and influences observed in the built environment. The column of similar is representing similar attributes found both in the international and in the local documents.*

Figure 127 *The illustration demonstrates the research approach that starts with decoding of the two objects; the documents and the built environment, continue with the correlation of their attributes and the impact of the analysis and ends with the discussion of the findings and testing of the assumptions.*

Figure 128 *The illustration shows the principle of the correlation of the two factors of research: intentions and reality and their mediating attributes.*

Figure 129 *An overview of the selection of International Documents illustrating a part of the plethora of international documents in the field of heritage.*

Figure 130 *An overview of the selected documents on local level illustrating that conservation was not mentioned explicitly in the headline of the legal documents on local level before 1994.*

Figure 131 *The two diagrams a and b, are abstracts of the models of correlation of attributes found in the international and local documents.*

Figure 132 *Attributes as Producers of the international and local documents illustrates a selection of international milieus engaged in cultural heritage and local organisations in charge of heritage management.*

Figure 133 *Attributes as Types of documents reveal a plethora of documents in the field of heritage.*

Figure 134 *Attributes as Conservation activities gives an overview of what kind of conservation activities are highlighted and recommended in the policy papers on international and local level. It is interesting that integration and revitalization, the most frequent actions of conservation in Zanzibar Stone Town are focused on in the international documents but not in the local documents.*

Figure 135 *Attribute as Objects. This section of the Matrix shows the objects emphasized in the international and local documents and illustrates over the years an introduction of a wide range of objects seen in the international documents although not mirrored in the local documents which mainly focus on attributes more directly connected to Zanzibar Stone Town as a unique historical townscape.*

Figure 136 *The figure illustrates the process of identifying the attributes as objects in the international documents that are mirrored in the local documents.*

Figure 137 *The figure illustrates the correlating attributes of management tools in the international and policy document*

Figure 138 *Attributes as Management tools illustrates that out of 22 recommended management tools, 9 are similar both in the international and in the local policy documents.*

Figure 139 *The illustration gives an overview of the intentions indicated in the local and international documents.*

Figure 140 *Attributes as Intentions. The abstraction illustrates the process of decoding the documents on international and local level.*

Figure 141 *Six selected documents reflecting each other on international and local level.*

Figure 142 *In the statement of Inclusion on the World heritage List the Committee pointed at three decisive criteria (UNESCO World Heritage).*

Figure 143 *The abstraction illustrates the process of analysing the two types of documents in relation to the selected attributes and their correlations with the built environment.*

Figure 144 *The map illustrates the Streetscape and the Spatial Organization of Zanzibar Stone Town.*

Figure 145 *Representation of building types in Zanzibar Stone Town (Helsing, C. et al., 1992).*

Figure 146 *The figure illustrates the correlation of attributes as objects found in the Policy Documents and registered in the built environment of Zanzibar Stone Town.*

Figure 147 *Abstraction of the testing of influence of attributes as Tools of management found in the policy documents on to the built environment of Zanzibar Stone Town.*

Figure 148 *Intentions and reality. The figure illustrates an abstraction of testing the intentions onto the reality of Zanzibar Stone Town.*

Figure 149 *None of the three buildings are renovated by governmental means or support. All three houses are restored and renovated by private and international organisations (author, 2002).*

Figure 150 *The three selected areas for testing of attributes; I Hurumzi, II Sokomhogo Block II and III Sokomhogo Block I.*

Figure 151 *a) Hurumzi area (AHO, 1982), b) Building no. 234a. Ground floor and 1st floor (AHO, 1982).*

Figure 152 *The facade of building 234a (AHO, 1982).*

Figure 153 *House no. 234a – with an Indian influenced entrance door and an Arabic influenced façade of simplicity (author, 2004).*

Figure 154 *The drawings document house no. 234a being in rather bad condition in 1982 (AHO, 1982).*

Figure 155 *The photo taken in 2004 shows major ongoing repairs (author, 2004)*

Figure 156 *Sokomhogo Block I illustrates a mix of architectural characteristics and building types (author, 2002).*

Figure 157 *The pictures illustrate a typical characteristic of Zanzibar Stone Town: outdoor public life and the indoor intimacy (author, 2001).*

Figure 158 *Extensions in Sokomhogo Block I towards the back side facing into the garden (author, 2003).*

Figure 159 *The figure illustrates the dense streetscape of Sokomhogo (author, 2004)*

Figure 160 *The illustrations show the shift of closed and opened shops in Sokomhogo Block II during the years 1958 to 2002 (author, 2002).*

Chapter 6

Figure 161 *The Figure illustrates the selective process of attributes as intentions.*

Figure 162 *The diagram illustrates the assumed influence and link between international policy documents and organisations and local policy documents .*

Figure 163 *The Figure illustrates the findings of this research showing that there is little or no influence from international policy documents to be found in the local legal instruments and policy documents. By contrast, a direct influence from international policy documents is to be seen in architectural objects that are conserved and restored by international and external organisations.*

Figure 164 *The diagram illustrates the demand for a “bottom up” approach of architectural heritage policy that meets the needs of the local communities.*

Figure 165 *The study circles are based on the routes of the Building Brigade (STCDA, 1994)*

Figure 166 *An abstraction of the conclusion illustrating the proposed “bottom up” and local anchored model of influence.*