

## Factors Shaping the Adoption of Compressed Natural Gas in Vehicles in Tanzania.

Zamela Mussa Kinyami

Field Student, Tanzania Petroleum Development Corporation

P. O Box 1191, Dodoma, Tanzania.

Email: zamelakinyami@gmail.com

<i>Abstract</i>	<i>Journal of Policy and Development Studies (JPDS)</i>
<p><i>This study investigates the factors affecting the adoption and usage of compressed natural gas (CNG) in vehicles, emphasizing its potential as a cleaner energy source and the challenges vehicle owners face in its utilization. Using a double hurdle model and descriptive statistics, data were gathered from 100 randomly selected vehicle owners at three major petrol stations in Ilala district, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania. The results indicate that higher education levels and newer vehicles positively impact both the decision to adopt and the extent of CNG usage, while older vehicles and high conversion costs act as barriers. The study also highlights challenges such as inadequate CNG infrastructure, high upfront conversion expenses, and safety concerns. It calls for targeted interventions to improve public awareness, expand refueling networks, and offer financial incentives to encourage the transition to CNG. These efforts could play a crucial role in advancing cleaner and more sustainable energy use in Tanzania's automotive sector.</i></p>	<p><i>Vol. 16 Issue 2 (2024)</i> <i>ISSN(p) 1597-9385</i> <i>ISSN (e) 2814-1091</i> <i>Home page:</i> <a href="https://www.ajol.info/index.php/jsda">https://www.ajol.info/index.php/jsda</a></p> <p><b>ARTICLE INFO:</b> <b>Keyword</b> <i>Sustainable development, Clean Energy, Tanzania, Natural gas</i></p> <p><b>Article History</b> <b>Received:</b> <i>16<sup>th</sup> September 2024</i> <b>Accepted:</b> <i>19<sup>th</sup> November 2024</i> <b>DOI:</b> <a href="https://dx.doi.org/10.4314/jpds.v16i2.13">https://dx.doi.org/10.4314/jpds.v16i2.13</a></p>

## 1. Introduction

Natural gas (NG), a naturally occurring mixture of hydrocarbons, is recognized as the cleanest fossil fuel and an increasingly essential energy resource worldwide (Dimoso & Andrew, 2021). Methane, its primary component, can be processed to remove impurities, ensuring NG is a safe and efficient energy source when appropriately transported, stored, and utilized (Faramawy et al., 2016). Globally, NG accounts for 23% of primary energy consumption, with reserves estimated at 7,080.3 trillion cubic feet (TCF), sufficient to meet current demands for over 60 years (IEA, 2022; Kitole et al., 2023; BP, 2022). The growing production and consumption of NG are driven by increasing demand for cleaner energy and concerns about environmental sustainability (Najibi et al., 2015).

Natural gas is utilized in various forms, including compressed natural gas (CNG) and liquefied natural gas (LNG), across transportation modes such as road, rail, marine, and aviation (Nijboer, 2010). To address the challenge of its larger storage volume compared to liquid fuels, NG is compressed into high-pressure tanks, enabling its use as CNG in vehicles to replace traditional fuels like petrol and diesel (Faramawy et al., 2016; Khan et al., 2015; Kitole & Utouh, 2023). Governments worldwide are promoting CNG as a cleaner, cost-effective alternative to conventional fuels, contributing to its growing adoption in the transportation sector (Ogunlowo et al., 2015).

However, despite its environmental and economic benefits, the use of NG in vehicles remains limited in many countries, including Tanzania. The global shift toward NG as a transport fuel gained momentum during the 1970s energy crisis, with countries like Brazil implementing policies to make NG significantly cheaper than gasoline to encourage its use (Frick et al., 2007). In Tanzania, the government has introduced fixed CNG pricing through the Tanzania Petroleum Development Corporation (TPDC) and the Energy and Water Utilities Regulatory Authority (EWURA) to promote its adoption. Despite these efforts, the diffusion of CNG technology has been slow, with limited refueling infrastructure and relatively few vehicles converted to CNG since its introduction in 2007 (BP, 2022).

The discovery of 57.54 TCF of natural gas reserves in Tanzania—47.08 TCF offshore and 10.96 TCF onshore—presents a significant opportunity to expand its use in various sectors, including transportation (BP, 2022). Rising global petroleum prices and the growing shift toward cleaner energy sources make NG an attractive option for vehicle owners due to its environmental benefits and cost savings (Curran et al., 2014). However, despite these advantages, adoption remains limited, with 81% of Tanzania's natural gas production allocated to electricity generation and only 19% used for industries, households, and vehicles (Ishengoma & Gabriel, 2021).

The slow adoption of CNG technology in Tanzania is largely attributed to challenges such as limited infrastructure, a lack of refueling stations, and low awareness among vehicle owners. By 2022, only two CNG filling stations had been established in Dar es Salaam, and approximately 1,400 vehicles had been converted to CNG (BP, 2022). This underutilization persists despite CNG's potential to reduce emissions, lower fuel costs, and decrease dependence on imported oil.

Given Tanzania's substantial natural gas reserves and the global drive for cleaner energy, the limited adoption of NG in transportation presents a critical challenge. This study seeks to explore the factors influencing NG usage in vehicles, identify barriers to

its adoption, and propose strategies to promote the wider use of CNG in Tanzania's transport sector, contributing to environmental sustainability and energy efficiency.

## **2. Theoretical foundation**

This study is grounded in the "energy ladder" theory, a widely recognized framework for explaining household energy use in developing countries (Janssen et al., 2006). Originating in the early 2000s through research by Daniel, Pattanayak, and the World Health Organization (WHO) in Sri Lanka, the theory describes a progression in energy choices as household income increases (Muller & Yan, 2016). The energy ladder posits that households transition from traditional fuels like biomass to intermediate fuels such as kerosene and coal, and finally to modern energy sources like natural gas and electricity. This evolution reflects economic theories of consumer behavior, wherein rising purchasing power enables the substitution of inferior goods with more advanced and convenient alternatives (Moshiri, 2015). Thus, the energy ladder model links technological advancement and wealth to shifts in fuel preference (Janssen et al., 2006).

Despite its influence, the energy ladder theory has faced criticism for oversimplifying energy-use patterns. Critics argue that it assumes a linear progression in fuel choices based solely on income, overlooking other determinants such as access, reliability, and cultural preferences. For instance, households may continue using traditional energy sources despite increased income due to availability or ingrained social and cultural practices (Janssen et al., 2006). Additionally, the model inadequately considers gender roles, social hierarchies, and the broader social dynamics that influence energy decisions. Its narrow focus on income-driven transitions also neglects the environmental implications of energy use, failing to emphasize the importance of sustainable and low-carbon energy systems in addressing climate change.

The energy ladder theory is relevant to this study as it provides a framework for understanding income-driven shifts toward adopting compressed natural gas (CNG) in vehicles. Higher-income vehicle owners are more likely to switch to CNG as it becomes more affordable and accessible, reflecting the core principles of the energy ladder (Muller & Yan, 2016). This study applies the theory to Tanzania's automotive sector, where the adoption of CNG aligns with the model's emphasis on economic growth facilitating the transition to cleaner, more sophisticated energy options. By examining the relationship between income and CNG adoption, this research highlights the theory's practical application while acknowledging the need to incorporate broader social and environmental factors.

## **3. Methodology**

This study adopted a cross-sectional research design, collecting data from respondents at a single point in time to facilitate efficient comparisons across variables while minimizing costs and time. This approach was well-suited to the study's objective of identifying factors influencing the adoption of Compressed Natural Gas (CNG) technology among vehicle owners in Ilala District, Dar es Salaam. By providing a snapshot of CNG usage, the design enabled the collection of relevant data for analysis and drew on established methodologies for cost-effective, time-sensitive research (Asenahabi, 2019). Ilala District, chosen as the study area, serves as a major transport hub in Dar es Salaam and hosts one of the region's few CNG filling stations operated by Anriq Gas Company. The district's population of 1,649,912, according to the 2022

census, spans diverse socio-economic groups, making it an ideal location to study the adoption of CNG technology (Ilala Municipal Council, 2022).

The study targeted vehicle owners in Ilala District, including those who had adopted CNG technology and those who had not. Due to budget and time constraints, the sample focused on vehicle owners frequenting three petrol stations: Big Bon in Kariakoo, Puma Energy in Ilala, and Camel Oil in Buguruni. A sample size of 100 vehicle owners was determined using Yamane’s formula, ensuring representativeness. Cluster sampling was employed to select three wards (Mnazi Mmoja, Ilala, and Kariakoo) from the district’s 26 wards, and systematic random sampling was applied to select vehicle owners visiting the petrol stations. This approach ensured a fair and unbiased selection process, capturing diverse perspectives on the adoption of CNG technology in the district.

#### 4. Analytical modeling

To analyze the determinants of natural gas usage in vehicles in Dar es Salaam, the double hurdle model was employed. This model is particularly suitable as it accounts for the two-stage decision-making process (Anasel *et al.*, 2024) as vehicle owners undergo: first, the decision to adopt natural gas technology, and second, the extent of its usage. The double hurdle model allows for the separate examination of factors influencing both the adoption and intensity of natural gas use, providing a more nuanced understanding of the variables that drive this behavioral shift.

##### First hurdle

The probability that vehicle owners in Ilala district to use NG in vehicles is assumed to be determined by an underlying response variable that explains the vehicle owner’s demographic, institutional and socio-economic characteristics, thus can be illustrated as:

$$D_i^* = x_i'\beta + \varepsilon_i \dots\dots\dots 1$$

Where  $D_i^*$  is a latent (dependent) variable that shows whether vehicle owner use or not use NG in vehicles,  $\beta$  denotes the vector of unobserved served parameters to be estimated,  $x_i'$  denote the vector of observed independent covariates explaining the event, lastly  $\varepsilon_i$  denotes unobserved error term capturing other factors and is assumed to be independent and normally distributed. That is  $\mu_i$

$$N \sim (0, 1), \text{ and } D_i = 1 \text{ if } D_i^* > 0$$

$$D_i = 0 \text{ if } D_i^* \leq 0$$

The variable  $D_i$  present the value of 1 if the vehicle owner users NG and the marginal utility over using NG is greater than not using and zero (0) otherwise. The binary variable  $D_i$  is assumed to be a probit model and is specified as:

$$Pr(D_i = 1/x_i) = \Phi(x_i\beta) + \varepsilon_i \dots\dots\dots 2$$

Where Pr presents the probability of NG usage among vehicle owners:  $D_i$  is the binary variable of NG usage:  $\Phi$  denotes the cumulative normal distribution:  $x$  is the vector of vehicle owner’s demographic, socio-economic and institutional characteristics denote the coefficient to be estimated and  $\varepsilon_i$  denote the random error term distributed normally with zero mean and constant variance.



Regarding the distance to gas stations, 56% of respondents indicated that they live far from a gas station, while 44% reside closer. This distribution highlights a potential challenge in accessing gas refueling stations for many vehicle owners. Moreover, a significant majority (70%) of respondents are aware of compressed natural gas (CNG) technology, while 30% reported not being aware, indicating that while awareness is relatively high, there is still a need for increased information dissemination about CNG.

In terms of education level, most respondents have achieved a high level of education, with 46% holding a degree and 37% having a college diploma. Only 4% of the respondents lack formal education. Regarding perceptions of CNG costs, 57% of respondents view the installation of CNG systems as expensive, and similarly, 57% do not consider environmental factors when deciding on fuel options.

**Table 2: Determinants of compressed natural gas (CNG)**

Variables	Hurdle I			Hurdle II		
	Coefficient	Std. Err.	P>z	Coefficient t	Std. Err.	P>z
Gender	0.6674	0.3244	0.040	0.2598	0.1324	0.053
Age	0.0216	0.0153	0.158	0.0074	0.0056	0.019
Education level	0.1136	0.0431	0.008	0.0577	0.0180	0.002
Distance from the Gas station	-0.0331	0.0376	0.379	-0.0118	0.0129	0.360
Used years of vehicle	-0.3146	0.0917	0.001	-0.1384	0.0363	0.000
Awareness	-0.4147	0.3363	0.218	-0.2155	0.1363	0.117
Cost of Installing CNG	0.1410	0.3262	0.666	0.0335	0.1319	0.800
Attitude of vehicle owner	0.2295	0.3318	0.489	0.0970	0.1314	0.462
Cost incurred when using petrol	0.0573	0.0000	0.569	0.0906	0.0022	0.768
Cost of using natural gas	-0.0347	0.0800	0.916	0.0382	0.0030	0.927
Observation	100					
Pseudo R <sup>2</sup>	0.3288					
P value	0.0000					
Log-likelihood	-44.5701					

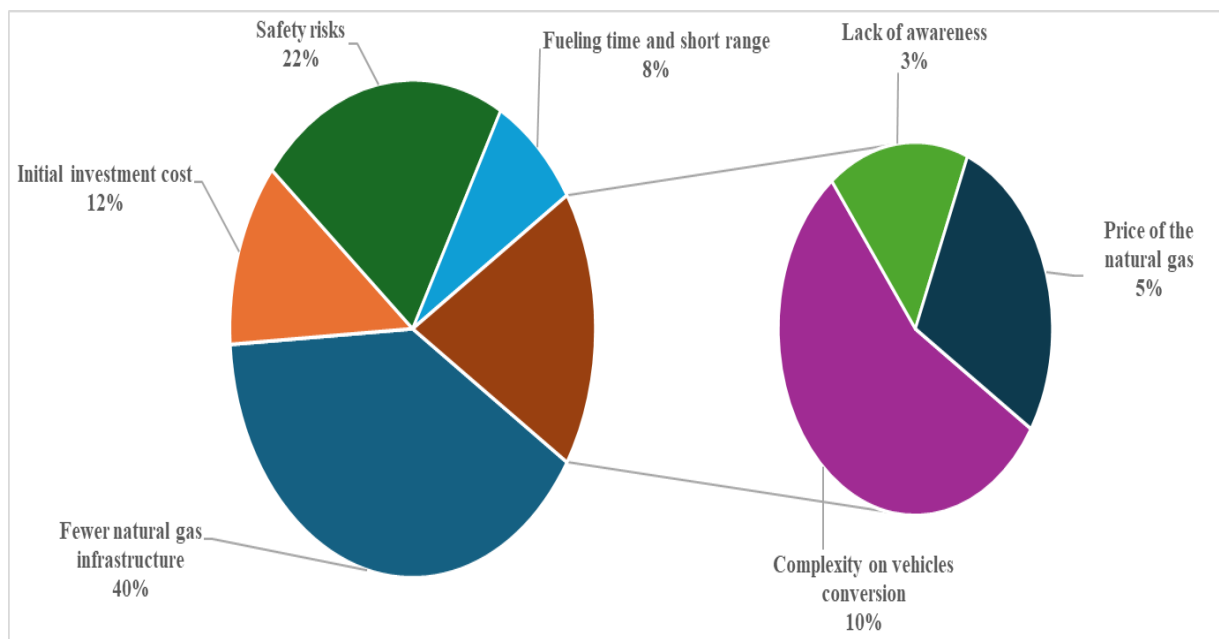
Source: Research Data (2023)

The results from the double hurdle model in Table 2 reveal several key factors that influence both the adoption and the intensity of compressed natural gas (CNG) usage among vehicle owners. In the first stage of the model (Hurdle I), which examines the decision to adopt CNG, three variables are statistically significant. Gender plays a positive role, with a coefficient of 0.6674 ( $p = 0.040$ ), indicating that males are more likely to adopt CNG compared to females. Additionally, education level has a positive and significant effect, with a coefficient of 0.1136 ( $p = 0.008$ ), suggesting that individuals with higher education levels are more inclined to adopt CNG technology. On the other hand, the used years of the vehicle negatively impact the likelihood of CNG adoption, with a coefficient of -0.3146 ( $p = 0.001$ ), meaning that older vehicles are less likely to be converted to CNG.

In the second stage of the model (Hurdle II), which examines the intensity of CNG usage, several factors remain significant. Age has a positive effect, with a coefficient of 0.0074 ( $p = 0.019$ ), indicating that older individuals tend to use CNG more

intensively. Education level continues to be an important factor, with a coefficient of 0.0577 ( $p = 0.002$ ), meaning that individuals with higher education are more likely to use CNG more frequently. Similar to Hurdle I, the used years of the vehicle negatively influence the intensity of CNG usage, with a coefficient of  $-0.1384$  ( $p = 0.000$ ), showing that older vehicles are less likely to be used intensively with CNG.

Other variables, such as distance from the gas station, awareness of CNG, and the cost of installing CNG, are not statistically significant in either hurdle. For example, the coefficient for distance is  $-0.0331$  in Hurdle I and  $-0.0118$  in Hurdle II, but both have  $p$ -values greater than 0.3, indicating no significant impact on CNG adoption or usage. Similarly, awareness and installation cost do not significantly affect the decision to adopt or the intensity of CNG usage. Overall, the model has a pseudo- $R^2$  of 0.3288 and is highly significant with a  $p$ -value of 0.0000, meaning it effectively explains a substantial portion of the variation in CNG adoption and usage decisions among vehicle owners.



**Figure 1: Challenges facing vehicle owners in Natural Gas usage**

Source: Source: Research Data (2023)

The challenges faced by vehicle owners in adopting natural gas (CNG) as fuel, as indicated in Figure 1, highlight several significant barriers that hinder widespread usage. The most prominent challenge is the lack of natural gas infrastructure, which affects 40% of vehicle owners. This suggests that the limited availability of refueling stations is a major deterrent, making it difficult for owners to conveniently access CNG. The scarcity of these stations likely adds logistical challenges, such as the need to travel long distances to refuel, which makes natural gas less attractive compared to traditional fuels like gasoline and diesel, which have a well-established refueling infrastructure.

The second major issue is related to safety risks, which concern 22% of vehicle owners. This reflects apprehension about the perceived dangers associated with using CNG, such as the risk of gas leaks or explosions. While CNG is generally considered safe, the lack of widespread use and misinformation may contribute to these concerns. The fear of safety risks could prevent more vehicle owners from converting to or adopting natural gas, especially if these perceptions are not adequately addressed through public awareness campaigns or improved safety measures.

Other notable barriers include the initial investment cost (12%) and the complexity of vehicle conversion (10%). The cost of converting vehicles to use CNG, including the installation of CNG systems, may be prohibitively high for some vehicle owners. Additionally, the technical complexities involved in converting a vehicle's fuel system to accommodate CNG can be a deterrent, particularly for those who lack access to conversion services or expertise. Furthermore, fueling time and the short driving range of CNG vehicles, which affect 8% of owners, add to the inconvenience factor. Vehicles running on natural gas may require more frequent refueling due to their shorter range, making them less practical for longer journeys or in areas with fewer refueling stations.

Lack of awareness (3%) and the price of natural gas (5%) are less commonly cited concerns, but they still play a role. The low percentage of respondents concerned about awareness suggests that many vehicle owners are already familiar with CNG as a fuel option, though further education on its benefits may still be needed. Meanwhile, the relatively small concern over the price of natural gas could indicate that CNG is seen as an affordable alternative to conventional fuels, but pricing still matters for some consumers, especially if the cost of installing CNG systems is not offset by fuel savings

## **5. Discussion**

The adoption of compressed natural gas (CNG) in the transport sector is closely tied to the interplay of various socioeconomic and infrastructural factors. One key element in driving the transition to CNG is education, as individuals with higher education are generally more knowledgeable about the environmental and economic benefits of using cleaner fuels. Educated individuals are better positioned to appreciate the long-term cost savings and environmental advantages associated with CNG, even when faced with higher initial investment costs (Ogunlowo *et al.*, 2015). As seen in other studies, awareness and understanding of new technologies are crucial in fostering acceptance and eventual adoption, especially in the context of promoting sustainable energy alternatives (IEA, 2022; Kitole *et al.*, 2024). Therefore, enhancing public knowledge and providing educational campaigns can significantly influence the rate of adoption, particularly in emerging markets where environmental concerns are becoming increasingly pressing.

In contrast, the age and condition of vehicles present a significant challenge to CNG adoption. Older vehicles may not be technically or economically viable for conversion to CNG, as retrofitting can be both complex and costly (Khan, 2017). This issue reflects a broader trend observed in markets where used cars dominate, such as Tanzania. Given the prevalence of second-hand vehicles in developing nations, the feasibility of transitioning to CNG is hindered unless supportive policies or financial incentives are introduced (Liu *et al.*, 2012; Utouh & Kitole, 2024). Policymakers must consider creating subsidies or offering financial assistance to help offset conversion costs for vehicle owners. These efforts can help to encourage broader adoption, as the financial burden of vehicle conversion is a major deterrent for many owners (Bishoge *et al.*, 2018).

Infrastructure limitations represent another critical obstacle to CNG adoption. A well-developed refueling infrastructure is essential for ensuring the convenience and reliability of using CNG. Without sufficient CNG refueling stations, vehicle owners may be reluctant to switch to natural gas due to concerns about accessibility (Ishengoma & Gabriel, 2021). This issue is not unique to Tanzania but is a common challenge in many countries transitioning to alternative fuels. A lack of infrastructure can severely undermine efforts to promote cleaner energy in transportation. Consequently,



investment in CNG infrastructure must be prioritized to foster widespread adoption. The government and private sector must collaborate to expand refueling networks, which would reduce logistical challenges for vehicle owners and encourage the use of CNG as a viable alternative to traditional fuels (Gerutu & Greyson, 2023).

Furthermore, safety concerns continue to play a significant role in deterring the adoption of CNG. Although CNG is recognized as a safe fuel source, public perception often lags behind technological advancements. Concerns about the potential dangers associated with CNG usage, such as fears of gas leaks or explosions, can hinder its acceptance. Overcoming these concerns requires concerted efforts to improve public awareness and promote safety education regarding the use of CNG. Similar challenges have been observed in other energy transitions, where the public's initial hesitation is gradually overcome through increased visibility of the technology and consistent communication about its safety (BP, 2022). Strengthening public confidence in CNG's safety will be crucial to achieving broader adoption.

Lastly, financial considerations are always at the forefront of decisions regarding fuel adoption. While CNG is generally more cost-effective than gasoline or diesel in the long run, the initial investment required for vehicle conversion remains a barrier for many owners. As seen in other markets, the high upfront costs can outweigh the perceived long-term savings, particularly in low- and middle-income contexts (Igbojionu *et al.*, 2019). To address this, it is essential to develop supportive financial policies, such as tax incentives, subsidies, or low-interest loans, to help reduce the initial burden of CNG conversion (Guma, 2016). These measures could create a more financially accessible pathway for vehicle owners to make the switch, further bolstering the economic viability of CNG as a transportation fuel (Curran *et al.*, 2014). Promoting CNG as a cost-effective and environmentally friendly alternative requires a combination of education, infrastructure investment, and financial support to ensure its success in the broader energy transition (Kitole & Sesabo, 2024; Khan *et al.*, 2015)

## **6. Conclusion**

The adoption of compressed natural gas (CNG) as an alternative fuel in the transport sector presents significant opportunities for reducing both environmental impact and fuel costs. However, the successful transition to CNG depends on overcoming several key challenges, including infrastructure limitations, financial barriers, and public perceptions about safety. Education plays a critical role in influencing the willingness of vehicle owners to adopt CNG, as greater awareness and understanding of its benefits can drive acceptance. Moreover, targeted policies that address the financial burden of vehicle conversion and expand the availability of refueling infrastructure are essential for supporting this transition.

The complexities associated with older vehicles and the initial costs of conversion continue to be significant barriers, particularly in markets dominated by used cars. Addressing these challenges will require concerted efforts from both policymakers and the private sector to develop financial incentives and support systems that make CNG adoption more accessible. Furthermore, public confidence in the safety and reliability of CNG must be strengthened through educational campaigns and transparent communication about the benefits and risks of the technology.

Ultimately, a multi-faceted approach that combines education, infrastructure development, and financial support is necessary to promote the widespread adoption of CNG. By addressing these challenges holistically, CNG can emerge as a viable and

sustainable fuel alternative that contributes to cleaner energy use in the transportation sector, supporting broader efforts to mitigate environmental impacts and enhance energy security.

## References

- Asenahabi, B. M. (2019). Basics of research design: A guide to selecting appropriate research design. *International Journal of Science and Research (IJSR)*, 6(5).
- Bensch, G., Jeuland, M., & Peters, J. (2021). Efficient biomass cooking in Africa for climate change mitigation and development. *One Earth*, 4(6), 879–890. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.oneear.2021.05.015>
- Berkouwer, S. B., & Joshua, T. D. (2022). Credit, attention, and externalities in the adoption of energy-efficient technologies by low-income households. *American Economic Review*, 112(10), 3291–3330. <https://doi.org/10.1257/aer.20210766>
- Bishoge, O. K., Zhang, L., Mushi, W. G., Suntu, S. L., & Mihuba, G. G. (2018). An overview of the natural gas sector in Tanzania: Achievements and challenges. *Journal of Applied and Advanced Research*, 3(4), 108–118. <https://doi.org/10.21839/jaar.2018.v3i4.218>
- BP. (2022). BP statistical review of world energy 2022 (71st ed.). BP Statistical Review of World Energy. <https://www.bp.com/content/dam/bp/business-sites/en/global/corporate/pdfs/energy-economics/statistical-review/bp-stats-review-2022-full-report.pdf>
- Brown, H., & Vera-Toscano, E. (2021). Energy poverty and its relationship with health: Empirical evidence on the dynamics of energy poverty and poor health in Australia. *SN Business & Economics*, 1, 139. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s43546-021-00149-3>
- Bruce, N., Perez-Padilla, R., & Albalak, R. (2000). Indoor air pollution in developing countries: A major environmental and public health challenge. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, 78, 1078–1092. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2560841/>
- Citizen. (2021). Special report: Crisis as most households use firewood in Tanzania. Retrieved January 13, 2023, from <https://www.thecitizen.co.tz/tanzania/news/national/special-report-crisis-as-71pc-of-households-use-firewood-in-tanzania-2587450>
- Curran, S. J., Wagner, R. M., Graves, R. L., Keller, M., & Green, J. B. (2014). Well-to-wheel analysis of direct and indirect use of natural gas in passenger vehicles. *Energy*, 75, 194–203. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.energy.2014.07.035>
- Dagnachew, A. G., Hof, A. F., Lucas, P. L., & van Vuuren, D. P. (2020). Scenario analysis for promoting clean cooking in Sub-Saharan Africa: Costs and benefits. *Energy*, 192. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.energy.2019.116641>
- Dagnachew, A. G., Hof, A. F., Lucas, P., & van Vuuren, D. P. (2019). Scenario analysis for promoting clean cooking in Sub-Saharan Africa: Costs and benefits. *Energy*, 192, 116641. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.energy.2019.116641>
- Dendup, N., & Arimura, T. H. (2018). Information leverage: The adoption of clean cooking fuel in Bhutan. *Energy Policy*, 125, 181–195. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enpol.2018.10.054>

- Dimoso, R.L., & Andrew, F. (2021). Rural Electrification and Small and Medium Enterprises' (SMEs) performances in Mvomero District, Morogoro, Tanzania, *J. Bus. Sch.* 4 (1), 48–69, <https://doi.org/10.26677/TR1010.2021.717>
- Dioha, M. O., & Kumar, A. (2020). Sustainable energy pathways for land transport in Nigeria. *Utilities Policy*, 64, 101034. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jup.2020.101034>
- Faramawy, S., Zaki, T., & Sakr, A. A. E. (2016). Natural gas origin, composition, and processing: A review. *Journal of Natural Gas Science and Engineering*, 34, 34–54. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jngse.2016.06.030>
- Frick, M., Axhausen, K. W., Carle, G., & Wokaun, A. (2007). Optimization of the distribution of compressed natural gas (CNG) refueling stations: Swiss case studies. *Transportation Research Part D: Transport and Environment*, 12(1), 10–22. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trd.2006.10.002>
- Gerutu, G. B., & Greyson, K. A. (2023). Compressed natural gas as an alternative vehicular fuel in Tanzania: Implementation, barriers, and prospects. *Journal of Energy Management*, 66–85.
- Guma, P. K. (2016). Business in the urban informal economy: Barriers to women's entrepreneurship in Uganda. *Journal of African Development*, 8916(February). <https://doi.org/10.1080/15228916.2015.1081025>
- Helveston, J. P., Seki, S. M., Min, J., Fairman, E., Boni, A. A., Michalek, J. J., & Azevedo, I. M. L. (2019). Choice at the pump: Measuring preferences for lower-carbon combustion fuels. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 117, 643–654.
- Igbojonu, A., Anyadiegwu, C., Anyanwu, E., Obah, B., & Muonagor, C. (2019). Technical and economic evaluation of the use of CNG as potential public transport fuel in Nigeria. *Scientific African*, 6, e00212. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sciaf.2019.e00212>
- International Energy Agency (IEA). (2022). Global energy review: CO2 emissions in 2021. <https://www.iea.org/reports/global-energy-review-co2-emissions-in-2021-2>
- Ishengoma, E. K., & Gabriel, G. (2021). Factors influencing the payment of costs of converting oil-to-CNG-fuelled cars in a market dominated by used-cars. *Energy Policy*, 156, 112368. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enpol.2021.112368>
- Janssen, A., Lienin, S. F., Gassmann, F., & Wokaun, A. (2006). Model-aided policy development for the market penetration of natural gas vehicles in Switzerland. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice*, 40(4), 316–333. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tra.2005.06.006>
- Khan, M. I. (2017). Identifying and addressing barriers for the sustainable development of natural gas as automotive fuel. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*, 42(40), 25453–25473. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhydene.2017.08.053>
- Kitole, F. A., & Genda, E.L. (2024). Empowering her drive: Unveiling the resilience and triumphs of women entrepreneurs in rural landscapes, *Women's Studies International Forum*, Volume 104, 2024, 102912, ISSN 0277-5395, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wsif.2024.102912>
- Khan, M. I., Yasmin, T., & Shakoor, A. (2015). Technical overview of compressed natural gas (CNG) as a transportation fuel. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 51, 785–797. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rser.2015.06.053>
- Kitole, F. A., & Utouh, H. M. L. (2023). Foreign direct investment and industrialization in Tanzania admixture time series forecast analysis 1960 - 2020. *Applied Economics Letters*, 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13504851.2023.2211324>
- Kitole, F. A., Msoma, L. J., & Sesabo, J. K. (2024). Navigating the economic landscape: a comprehensive analysis of government spending, economic

- growth, and poverty reduction nexus in Tanzania. *Applied Economics Letters*, 1–5. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13504851.2024.2302902>
- Kitole, F. A., Tibamanya, F. Y., & Sesabo, J. K. (2023). Cooking energy choices in urban areas and its implications on poverty reduction. *International Journal of Sustainable Energy*, 42(1), 474–489. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14786451.2023.2208680>
- Liu, B., Chen, C., Zhang, B., Bu, M., Bi, J., & Yu, Y. (2012). Fuel use pattern and determinants of taxi drivers' fuel choice in Nanjing, China. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 33, 60–66. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2012.05.016>
- Moshiri, S. (2015). The effects of the energy price reform on households consumption in Iran. *Energy Policy*, 79(November), 177–188. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enpol.2015.01.012>
- Muller, C., & Yan, H. (2016). Household Fuel Use in Developing Countries : Review of Theory and Evidence Working Papers / Documents de travail Household Fuel Use in Developing Countries : Review of Theory and Evidence. *Hal*, 13, 51.
- Kitole, F.A., & Sesabo, J.K. (2024). Tourism-driven livelihood dynamics: A comprehensive empirical study of Mount Kilimanjaro National Park communities in Tanzania, *International Journal of Geoheritage and Parks*, ISSN 2577-4441, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijgeop.2024.07.001>
- Najibi, H., Rezaei, R., Javanmardi, J., Nasrifar, K., & Moshfeghian, M. (2015). Economic evaluation of natural gas transportation from Iran's South-Pars gas field to market. *Applied Thermal Engineering*, 29(10), 2009–2015. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.applthermaleng.2008.10.008>
- Nijboer, M. (2010). The Contribution of Natural Gas Vehicles to Sustainable Transport. *International Energy Agency*, 74.
- Ogunlowo, O. O., Bristow, A. L., & Sohail, M. (2015). Developing compressed natural gas as an automotive fuel in Nigeria: Lessons from international markets. *Energy Policy*, 76, 7–17. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enpol.2014.10.025>
- Sedai, A. K., Nepal, R., & Jamasb, T. (2021). Flickering lifelines: Electrification and household welfare in India. *Energy Economics*, 94, 104975. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eneco.2020.104975>
- Shrestha, B., Tiwari, R. S., Bajracharya, B. S., Keitsch, M. M., & Rijal, B. H. (2021). Review on the importance of gender perspective in household energy-saving behavior and energy transition for sustainability. *Energies*, 14(22), 7571. <https://doi.org/10.3390/en14227571>
- Sun, X., Dong, Y., Wang, Y., & Ren, J. (2022). Sources of greenhouse gas emission reductions in OECD countries: Composition or technique effects. *Ecological Economics*, 193, 107288. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2021.107288>
- Tonini, F., Sanvito, F. D., Colombelli, F., & Colombo, E. (2022). Improving sustainable access to electricity in rural Tanzania: A system dynamics approach to the Matembwe village. *Energies*, 15(5), 1902. <https://doi.org/10.3390/en15051902>
- Twumasi, A. M., Jiang, Y., Addai, B., Asante, D., Liu, D., & Ding, Z. (2021). Determinants of household choice of cooking energy and the effect of clean cooking energy consumption on household members' health status: The case of rural Ghana. *Sustainable Production and Consumption*, 28, 484–495. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.spc.2021.06.005>
- Utouh, H. M. L., & Kitole, F. A. (2024). Forecasting effects of foreign direct investment on industrialization towards realization of the Tanzania development vision 2025.

- Cogent Economics & Finance, 12(1).  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/23322039.2024.2376947>
- Wassie, T. Y., Rannestad, M. M., & Adaramola, S. M. (2021). Determinants of household energy choices in rural sub-Saharan Africa: An example from southern Ethiopia. *Energy*, 221, 119785. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.energy.2021.119785>
- World Bioenergy Association (WBA). (2020). *Global energy statistics 2020*. Retrieved November 19, 2021, from <https://www.worldbioenergy.org/>
- World Health Organization (WHO). (2018). Household air pollution and health. Retrieved March 24, 2023, from <https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/household-air-pollution-and-health>
- Zhu, I., Zhu, Z., Zhu, B., & Wang, P. (2022). The determinants of energy choice for household cooking in China. *Energy*, 260, 124987. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.energy.2022.124987>