

The State of Planning in Africa

AN OVERVIEW

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Foreword

What had become known as the Durban Declaration was adopted in that South African coastal city in 2002 by planners across Africa. The adoption led to the formation of African Planning Association (APA). By 2012, 26 planning institutions had signed up to APA. The member institutions spanned across all the regions of Africa. In 2010, APA set for itself four activities that needed to be undertaken; the State of Planning in Africa Report, the launch of a website, creation of a logo and convening of regional meetings. Of all these, State of Planning in Africa Report was the most tasking. It had been aimed at achieving, amongst others, the following objectives of APA:

- i. Contribution to growth and development of Africa through better spatial/physical planning.
- ii. Creation of continent-wide linkages between African Planners.

However, this report which is the result of research is also aimed at providing “a perspective of the roles of city and regional planners within the process of settlement formation, urbanization and rural development”.

The report provides background to the development challenges, planning laws and frameworks and planning resources that exist in countries that responded to questionnaires sent to the member countries.

Though the report intended to focus on 26 countries that are APA affiliates, only 15 of them responded and are part of this report. They include **Burkina Faso, Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, Mali, Mauritius, Namibia, Nigeria, Senegal, South Africa, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe**. Countries that do not feature here are hampered in their participation by constraints beyond us. The Arab uprising is one of them. Other constraints include language barriers, bearing in mind that there are several official languages - Arabic, English, French, Portuguese, Spanish and Swahili. It is hoped that in future, when efforts are made to improve this report, every country on the continent will feature prominently.

There cannot be a better time than now to have this kind of report, more so when consideration is given to the myriads of challenges facing Africa. I believe appreciating where we are coming from, and where we are, will serve as a good platform for projecting into the future. For each of the 15 countries featuring in the report, information was gathered with regards to key development challenges; legal and policy frameworks for planning and development; planning and participation of community, civil society and government departments; the link between planning, budgeting and implementation, and assessment of planning resources capacity. The overview presented here is a summary of the country by country report which is available from the Association of African Planners.

For this report to achieve its objectives, the findings documented should chart a new course for planning activities on the continent. It is high time we swing into action and begin to tackle identified challenges. Whatever we have done right should be enhanced. Collaboration with key stakeholders such as governments, non-governmental organizations, community-based organizations, and bilateral and multilateral agencies, cannot be overemphasized, as this is essential for achieving our objectives.

26

*Number of countries that are APA affiliates.
15 of them responded and are part of this report*

The report, while recognizing good practice and innovation in various dimensions taking place within the continent, also identified great challenges ahead. Rising urbanization and changing demographic dynamics without adequate infrastructure are the greatest of these. To surmount these challenges the report concludes that “planning capacity in terms of planning education, number of professional and technical planners and continuing professional development has to receive top priority”.

This report is to be regarded as ongoing because it needs to include all 54 independent African countries. Hopefully, the report will encourage others to join APA and subsequent editions will include all countries.

APA is grateful to UN-Habitat and GIZ (Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit) for providing the funding that supported this report. We owe a lot of gratitude to Cecil Madell who took up the onerous tasks of research and report writing. For her comments and advise, APA is grateful to Laura Petrella, Leader, City Planning, Extension and Design Unit, Urban Planning and Design Branch of UN-Habitat. The report would not have been produced if not for the commitment of the Country Report contributors from the 15 countries earlier identified.

Contributions from Kabir Yari (Nigeria), Ashraf Adam (South Africa), Yusuf Patel (SAPI chairperson), Nthato Gobodo (SAPI vice president and secretary APA), Musa Jack (GIZ), and Michael Kihato (SACN) are highly appreciated.

It is hoped that that the report will contribute to the knowledge of planning in Africa – from an African perspective.

Waheed Kadiri
Chairperson
APA

1

Introduction



2002

The year African delegates from a number of planning organizations decided to establish the African Planning Association

Africa is experiencing significant economic growth¹ and associated demographic changes, including rising urbanization² without the requisite infrastructure, spatial and settlement planning. The proportion of urban residents living in informal settlements is higher in Africa, as a region, than any other part of the world (UNDP, 2012). Inhabitants of informal settlements often have inadequate access to basic utility services, lack security of tenure, and experience precarious environmental, health and slum conditions.

The current economic growth and urbanization in Africa should be guided by appropriate planning³ and land use management at continental, regional, national, sub-national, and local scales. This is to ensure that Africa's new towns, cities and rural areas are effective in terms of meeting the basic needs of all their inhabitants; and to ensure that economic and social growth are inclusive. Key questions considered by this *State of Planning in Africa Report* include the following: what role is planning playing at this juncture; what is the capacity across Africa for forward development, spatial planning and land use management; and how effective is planning?

Urbanization in Africa is stimulated by increasing investment in natural resource extraction (minerals and oil in particular), growth in commercial agriculture and other sectors, coupled with rural-urban migration and natural population growth. This growth is evident by the rapid expansion of existing settlements, as well as the construction of new towns and the inevitably changing character of rural areas, secondary towns and existing cities. This economic and physical growth brings opportunities for stimulating and increasing access to employment, health, education, and other social facilities and services. However, many recent arrivals in urban settlements are poor and have to negotiate with

public authorities and local communities to access land, housing and other urban resources within growing settlements. The provision of these urban services requires research, planning, implementation and monitoring of policies, frameworks, strategies, programmes and projects by a wide range of political, social, built environment, civil society, and community organizations and institutions through varied partnership arrangements.

This research aims to provide a perspective of the roles of urban and regional planners⁴ within the process of settlement formation, urbanization and rural development. Mostly, the intention of this research is to consider the spatial manifestation of the problems Africa faces and assess the legislative, policy, human, institutional and educational capacity that exist within the planning profession. It aims to evaluate the status of urban and regional planning and how the profession is being called upon, and is responding to the challenges of rapidly growing cities and changing rural areas in Africa.

BACKGROUND AND RESEARCH OBJECTIVE

African delegates from a number of planning organizations decided at the Planning Africa 2002 Conference to establish the African Planning Association. Delegates identified the following key objectives for the association:

- Ascertain the status of urban and regional planning on the continent
- Contribute to the growth and development of Africa through responsive planning
- Determine how planners are responding to ongoing development challenges
- Review and improve systems of planning on a regional basis
- Create continent-wide linkages among African planners
- Develop and expand the planning profession capacity in Africa
- Facilitate capacity building amongst planners
- Facilitate better understanding, cooperation and improved networking amongst planners

1 The economic outlook for sub-Saharan Africa is positive, with growth rising to 5.3 per cent in 2012, and 5.6 per cent in 2013, over the pre-crisis average level of 5 per cent (World Bank, 2013)

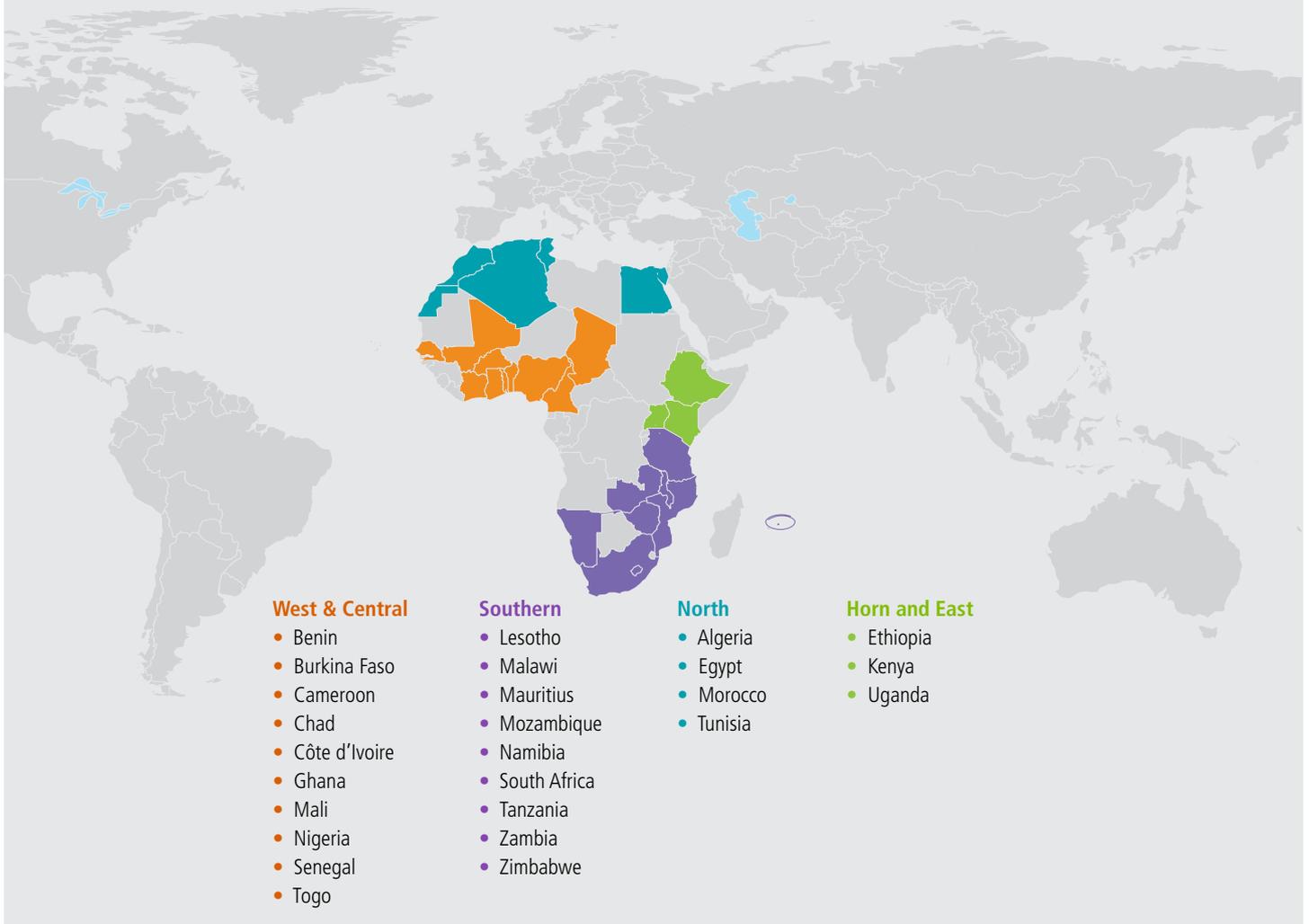
2 The urban population of East Africa is estimated at 21.7 per cent; West Africa, 44.95 per cent; Southern Africa, 48.0 per cent; North Africa, 51.5 per cent; and Central Africa, 58.4 per cent. UNDESA (2012)

3 The term 'planning' refers to all its dimensions, including spatial planning, forward planning, land use management, tenure reform, land ownership, housing/habitat development, slum upgrading, management of urbanization, etc. and across all scales: local, district, regional and national.

4 Also referred to as city or town and regional planners.

APA AFFILIATE MEMBER COUNTRIES

Planning institutions from the following 26 countries are affiliates of the African Planning Association:



APA initiated the *State of Planning Report in Africa* with the aim of producing a document that would provide an understanding of the status of urban and regional planning on the continent. The South African Planning Institute (SAPI) functions as the APA secretariat and assisted with the preparation of the Report, while the United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-Habitat) and Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) GmbH provided technical and financial support for this initiative. It is anticipated that the outcomes of this research will facilitate better understanding,

cooperation and improved networking amongst APA affiliates and its membership and amongst role players and decision-makers across the continent in general. This research will also engage with the initiative from the African Centre for Cities (ACC) based at the University of Cape Town, to build a platform for urban land reform in Africa south of the Sahara, as well as the efforts of the Association for African Planning Schools (AAPS), aimed at reforming planning education so that future urban practitioners could respond to city challenges meaningfully.

The report aims to determine how countries are equipped to respond to development challenges and the existing roles of planning in Africa

SCOPE OF WORK

The focus of the research is on APA affiliate countries and the findings have been captured per country. Countries were grouped in terms of broad geographic locations, recognizing that many countries belong to more than one political or economic development community. The main purpose with this approach is to facilitate subregional discussions amongst APA members.

The research has been captured in the following two reports:

- i. *The State of Planning in Africa (Full Report)* (This report is available from the APA on request)
- ii. *The State of Planning in Africa: An Overview*

The *State of Planning in Africa: Full Report* (approximately 160 pages) deals with the following aspects of the research, while this report serves as an overview and summarizes the main findings.

A. Background

This sketches the context of the relevant country, focussing on the demographic and economic indicators; the planning situation in the context of the precolonial, colonial and postcolonial periods; political and administrative systems; the key drivers of the economy; as well as urban and rural settings. The intention was not to be comprehensive, but rather to set the context for the planning legislation, policy and practice of these countries. The World Bank, UN-Habitat, as well as formal State websites, were also visited to access country specific information.

B. Key Country Development Challenges

An attempt was made to identify the key development challenges each country is facing. The intention was not to be comprehensive, but to focus on the development challenges to which the urban and regional planning profession could respond. These challenges cannot be delinked from the country-specific historical, political, cultural and institutional contexts and have implications that could vary significantly within various regions of the same country and within settlements. These challenges require evaluation in terms of how sustainable

growth is defined, given that the current settlement development models are based on low densities, high mobility demand, reduced public facilities and amenities that are producing towns and cities that exclude the majority of their residents.

C. Planning Status Quo

This is the main focus of the report. It aims to determine how countries are equipped to respond to development challenges and the existing roles of planning in Africa. The report deals with the following research areas:

- An appraisal of the legal and policy frameworks that exist for planning
- An assessment of forward planning instruments and land use management systems, including development plans and how this impacts on economic development and environmental considerations
- The role and participation of community, civil society and government departments in planning processes
- An assessment of the link between planning, budgeting and implementation; within the context of efforts at decentralization of powers and functions from central to local authorities
- Examples of innovation in planning that have been successfully undertaken; that may constitute best practice and lessons that could be explored elsewhere
- An assessment of the planning resource capacity per country, including the quantity and quality of the human and institutional resources in terms of students, technicians, professionals, professional bodies, statutory and regulatory bodies

The assessment aims to understand the impact of planning, particularly given challenging circumstances, such as limited resource capacity and ineffective legal frameworks

D. Conclusion

This summarizes the country economic and social context; key development challenges; the status quo of planning assessment; and the potential role of urban and regional planning in this process.

RESEARCH METHOD

The following methods were used in this research:

- **Questionnaire:** The Planning Status Quo was assessed through a questionnaire that was circulated to all APA affiliate-members and non-members. A number of countries subsequently joined the APA during the research process. The questions dealt with the issues discussed above and aimed to understand the legal, policy, and institutional contexts within which planning occurs in specific countries. Responses to the questions raised were captured verbatim as far as possible in the *APA State of Planning in Africa: Full Report*.
- **Conference Engagements:** Use was made of the opportunity to engage with planners from member countries attending planning conferences during 2012. The preliminary findings of the research were presented at the SAPI 2012 (17-19 September) Conference. African delegates from Malawi, Mauritius and Namibia were interviewed at the conference. Representatives from the APA also attended the Nigerian Institute AGM held from 7 to 9 November 2012 in Abuja, the Kenya Institute of Planners Conference on 24 November 2012 in Nairobi, as well as the AfriCités Conference held from 2 to 5 December 2012 in Dakar, Senegal.
- **Country Visits:** Meetings were held with representatives from the relevant national planning institutes, UN-Habitat and senior city officials in Zambia and Zimbabwe during 2012.
- **Literature Review:** Limited literature dealing with case studies was sourced and reviewed, guided by the research questions. This was aimed at a preliminary assessment of the historical context and its relevance, as well as an assessment of the changes and impact of planning on development. The available information was captured, evaluated and assessed per country. Use was made of papers delivered at conferences in order to best capture an understanding of the praxis of planning and its impact on development outcomes.

The overall purpose of the research was, therefore, to assist with the development of an understanding of the role of urban and regional planning, given the development challenges APA member countries are facing. It is recognized that the research questions are exceptionally substantive, given the historical,

cultural, political, economic, environmental and social differentiation between the 26 APA affiliated member countries. The process of preparing the report was informed by evidence-based research that moves beyond normative generalities of Africa and enables better understanding of continent-wide praxis. It is anticipated that the outcomes of the research will guide ongoing legislation reform, planning education, and improve planning competencies and practice. This research should be regarded as “*work in progress*” and it is anticipated that subsequent research will focus on and will build on what has been achieved.

GAPS, ANOMALIES AND STUDY LIMITATIONS

The research encountered the following gaps and limitations:

- Although the initial stage of the research was aimed at including all of the APA members, the following countries, affected by the “Arab Spring”, did not respond during the process:
 - › Algeria
 - › Egypt
 - › Morocco
 - › Tunisia
- Communication with French-speaking countries was difficult as well as accessing relevant literature. However, responses were received from Burkina Faso, Mali and Senegal. It is possible that the interpretations of responses could be slightly different with the translation from French to English
- In a number of cases the relevant country institute has become non-operative. This could be attributed to a change of a chairperson of institutes without the APA being informed
- The field covered by this research topic is immense, therefore the findings should be regarded as only a first step in documenting the country specific circumstances and challenges

It is strongly recommended that this research be extended to other African countries, and that countries which are not members of the APA be encouraged to join. The remainder of this report aims to synthesize the main findings this research.

2

Background

Patterns of urbanization and the associated planning response can be traced back to the precolonial, colonial, post-colonial and modern periods.

PRECOLONIAL PERIOD

Most parts of northern and central Africa were occupied by various ethnic groups and kingdoms during the precolonial period; characterized by ongoing regional and continental migrations, occupations and the establishment of a wide range of small and large settlements. In West Africa, this included the Mossie Kingdom which founded settlements such as Ouagadougou, Yatenga, Tengkodogo and Gourma (present-day Burkina Faso) and the Akan kingdoms, which included the inland Ashanti Empire (present-day Ghana). Precolonial settlements in present-day Nigeria include Kano, Zaria, Koton-Karfi, Toro, Abeokuta and Ondo; Djenne and Timbuktu in Mali; Kilwa, Zanzibar and Dar-es-Salaam in Tanzania; amongst numerous others. In Southern Africa, numerous settlements (notably Great Zimbabwe, the capital of the Kingdom of Zimbabwe, and Bulawayo, Shaka's capital) were established by Bantu and Nguni peoples, settling in present-day Kenya, Zambia, Zimbabwe and South Africa, and joining the San who were the first reported inhabitants of the southern region. Many of these settlements accommodated large populations and were administered through traditional kingdoms.

Land was vested within traditional leaders, families and communities, and controlled and managed through customary practices. Access to land was linked to usage and centred on agrarian practices, tribal villages and expansive settlements. In Nigeria, indigenous authorities administered settlements through spatial land allocation and management. For example, the Sokoto Caliphate and large parts of the Oyo Kingdom - seats of government - had a form of deliberate spatial arrangement of land uses around the palaces. By the middle of the 1800s many indigenous settlements, some with populations of up to 20,000, existed throughout the area, informed by the need for defence and religious practices (NITP, 2012). Settlement patterns and locations throughout Africa were also informed by the location of natural resources, land for grazing and other farming practices, watercourses and religious practices. These

customary practices, overseen by kings, chiefs and other traditional leaders, were effective in ensuring that their subjects were educated in traditional practices, fed and sheltered within the communal milieu. Private and individual ownership of land was only introduced with the arrival of the colonial powers - and for many traditional societies this was an inconceivable concept.

COLONIAL POLITICAL SYSTEMS AND PLANNING

Modernist planning in Africa can be traced to its colonial roots and the interests of colonialists in the continent's natural resources, including agricultural produce, fresh water, minerals and, in particular, humans as slaves. The colonialists were from countries that had relatively high levels of urbanization, and occupation was initiated through the establishment of new settlements along the African coastline from the 16th century onwards. It was common for settlers to establish new settlements away from existing traditional settlements, thereby limiting the growth of these settlements and ignoring the traditional land management systems that existed.

Towards the end of the 19th century, the Europeans scrambled to acquire African territory; France enforced their governance on West Africa; Britain on West, Southern and East Africa; and Portugal and Germany colonized Southern Africa. With large scale colonial occupation, planning systems that existed in Britain, Belgium, France, Portugal and elsewhere in Europe were applied within the colonies. British Town and Country Planning dominated Southern Africa (e.g. Kenya, South Africa, Zambia and Zimbabwe) and parts of West Africa (e.g. Ghana and Nigeria). French planning was enforced in West and Central Africa (e.g. Benin, Burkina Faso, Chad, Côte d'Ivoire, Mali and Senegal), while the Portuguese installed their planning practices in Angola, Cape Verde, Guinea-Bissau, Mozambique, and São Tomé e Príncipe. These planning systems were largely aimed at controlling the development of settlements, land use management and the construction of buildings in the colonies. A key objective of these planning systems was to accommodate the settlement of indigenous people in colonial towns to meet the demand for cheap labour in the mining and

manufacturing sectors, but in a highly regulated manner by controlling the size and location of black townships under the guise of health and sanitation concerns. Land uses were restricted to housing and local stores to protect the interests of colonial and white businesses in the historic core areas.

“Country” planning was of limited relevance in rural areas, and land outside settlements was left to traditional authorities to manage, under the supervision of a colonial administrator and, in some cases, internal white authorities (e.g. South Africa, Zimbabwe). Colonial administrations lasted for more than a century in many countries. In comparison, the post-independence period spanned a few decades, clouded by dictatorships and military rule.

POSTCOLONIAL POLITICAL SYSTEMS AND PLANNING

Ghana was the first African country to receive its independence from the colonial powers (1957), while most of the other nations followed during the 1960s⁵. Political instability was common for most countries throughout the initial independence period, characterized by coup d'états, political dictatorships, presidents who occupied office for life, the banning and imprisonment of political opposition, and the induction of military governments. South Africa is notorious for institutionalized Apartheid for close to half a century and deliberate efforts at stifling the development of the majority of its population. This pattern of political instability had a direct

⁵ Burkina Faso, 1960; Nigeria, 1960; Mali, 1960; Senegal, 1960; Kenya, 1963; Uganda, 1962; South Africa, 1961; Malawi, 1964; Mauritius, 1968; Tanzania, 1964; Zambia, 1964; Namibia, 1990.

Informal settlements,
Ibadan, Nigeria
© UN-Habitat





**Housing in Johannesburg,
South Africa.**

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impact on the establishment of post-independence administrations and governance. In terms of development models, countries such as Tanzania (Ujuma villages under President Julius Nyerere, 1967) attempted to formulate indigenous practices, while others followed rural modernization practices as advocated by the colonial powers and aid agencies. With the majority of the population rooted in rural areas, the emphasis was on rural planning as the spatial manifestation of development. In urban settlements, Town and Country Planning⁶ frameworks were retained. The planning systems and laws introduced in the colonial era therefore remained entrenched for the post-independence and for the current periods.

MODERNIST PLANNING

The growth of urban settlements in the post-independence period (1970 onwards) was influenced to varying degrees (South Africa in particular, warped by apartheid ideology) by planning ideas from the United Kingdom (Garden Cities, Milton Keynes)

and the United States (neighbourhood concept; suburban settlements; freeway development). As the administrations within the independent countries were based largely on an “imported planning system”, planning administration remained largely unchanged. Till recently, most African planners were educated at European and American universities and had no other knowledge base. Consequently, amendments to the British Town and Country Planning system did not challenge its content of blue print planning, development control, permits and licences. Development control, especially in English-speaking African countries, was continued under Town and Country Ordinances, while forward planning remained influenced by tools such as master planning, structure planning and spatial development frameworks. These planning approaches were based on the assumption that future land uses could be accurately predicted and planned for, and that all developments would be mainly formal and modern. This belief-system contrasts significantly with realities of the slow or no growth of manufacturing and formal commercial activities, and the rapid expansion of informal settlements and slums in most African urban settlements. Rural development has remained the domain of central government ministries and aid agencies, focusing on development strategies with strong state intervention, such as Meeting Basic Needs, Betterment Schemes and Integrated Rural Development Programmes.

PLANNING REFORMS AND INNOVATION

Planners in countries such as Nigeria have recognized that old planning paradigms, theories and even practices are inadequate to meet current development challenges such as rapid urbanization, slum proliferation, other informal and illegal settlements, climate change, urban crime and violence as well as post-conflict and post-disaster situations. Numerous attempts have been made to rejuvenate urban planning processes to make them more effective in dealing with current development challenges. Common elements in the new planning processes in Nigeria include the following:

⁶ See Addendum 1: Summary of Policies, Frameworks, Legislation and Plans per Country

- Strategic spatial planning and its variants
- New ways of using spatial planning to integrate government interventions
- Land regularization and management approaches
- Participatory and partnership processes
- Approaches promoted by international agencies and dealing with sectoral urban concerns
- New forms of master planning
- Planning aimed at producing new spatial forms

Master planning is still very much in vogue in Nigeria and widely used, particularly in cities within the northern part of the country (NITP, 2012).

In South Africa, post-apartheid spatial planning was significantly influenced by planning theories (by Christopher Alexander, Lewis Mumford, Jane Jacobs and others) advocated through the University of Cape Town planning school (e.g. Dewar et al, 1990; Dewar and Uytendogaardt, 1991). This took the form of liberal, normative spatial performance principles such as access, equity, justice; and spatial tools such as activity and transport corridors, nodes, open space systems and densification.

The global environmental movement also had significant impact on spatial planning, in particular as a subset of Environmental Impact Assessments and introduced sustainable settlement such as reducing carbon footprints and greening measures. Many of these ideas, as far as city form and structure are concerned, were part of the City Beautiful Movement during the late 1890s and 1900s, and were reintroduced into planning during the 1990s and 2000s. Some countries (for example, South Africa) have introduced national heritage and national environmental management legislation, which require impact assessments for most developments.

In spite of the dismal patterns of post-independence administration, the list of countries that have achieved high-levels of political and administrative stability and significant levels of community participation over the last few decades has grown. This includes nations such as Botswana, Ghana, Kenya, Namibia, Nigeria, South Africa and Zambia. These countries have made some strides in developing their administration and associated planning systems, although many substantial political, institutional, financial and administrative challenges remain.

In spite of the dismal patterns of post-independence administration, the list of countries that have achieved high-levels of political and administrative stability and significant levels of community participation over the last few decades has grown.

3

Key Development Challenges

The following provides a brief profile of African cities, the form and structure of urban settlements, features of rural areas and the critical challenges to which planning needs to respond.

GROWTH OF AFRICAN CITIES

It is anticipated that by 2015, approximately 41.1 per cent of Africa's population will be urban dwellers (United Nations, 2011), while the estimate for 2020 is 50 per cent (Kihato and Kururi-Sebina, n.d). All regions of the continent (except those in Eastern Africa) have urban populations greater than 40 per cent. Africa has the highest urban growth rate in the world. Most of this growth takes place in cities with populations of fewer than 750,000 people. An estimated 21.6 million Africans lived in cities in 2000; in 2010 there were 30.7 million. It is estimated that the population of Africans in intermediate cities will increase to 47.2 million by 2025. Urban planning, development and redevelopment efforts must, therefore, be concentrated in these cities which have evolved from villages and small towns, particularly in peri-urban areas. Many rural settlements have, through direct political intervention, been upgraded into administrative and local government centres and annexed into existing urban areas. Current trends show a disproportionate focus on primate cities; usually capitals and those geographically strategically

located, attracting significant infrastructure and resource investment. In contrast, most secondary cities, smaller towns and rural areas lack basic services and social amenities (Kadiri, 2012). The growing urban population is characterized by a disproportionately larger share of youth, high rate of unemployment and underemployment, and high dependence on the informal economy. The percentage of urban residents living in informal settlements is higher in Africa, as a region, than any other part of the world (UNDP, 2012). Informal settlements (often lacking secure tenure, and environmentally precarious) are home to a majority of the inhabitants in most African cities.

FORM AND STRUCTURE OF AFRICAN CITIES

Most African cities have taken at least two or more of the following spatial development forms:

- **A Central Core:** Incorporating the original settlements and, largely, the residential areas of the colonial descendants. In larger cities, commercial centres were impacted upon by the withdrawal of the colonial power and decentralization towards new suburbs (following US trends in the 1970s onwards). Population densities in core centres have remained low. Planning authorities have sought to enforce development control with varying success. The exception is South Africa, where the Caucasian (relatively wealthier) population has retained land ownership of the historic core areas.
- **Locations, Townships and Suburbs:** The locations were established by the colonial authorities for urban native Africans and informed by a distorted interpretation of planning models such as the garden city (UK) and neighbourhood (USA) movements. These resulted in racially separated settlements, both through legislative (South Africa) and non-legislative (Zimbabwe) enforcement. Middle-income suburbs were planned in terms of the Town and Country Act (e.g. in former English colonies), through formal establishment subdivision processes, while efforts at enforcing development control in townships were less vigorously pursued.

Nairobi, Kenya.

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- **Informal Areas and Peri-Urban Areas.** These are largely located between the historic core areas and traditional rural areas. In some cases these spill over into the traditional areas (South Africa), while in other cases these are located close to the Central Business District (peri-urban areas), where informality was tolerated to varying degrees by city authorities (for example, forced removals in South Africa and Zimbabwe; and some level of acceptance in Zambia and Nigeria), but continue to grow nevertheless. Informal settlements also take the form of low-density urban sprawl, generally in the industrial side of towns.
- **Traditional Areas:** These “out of town” areas have remained under traditional tribal control and customs. It was recognized, even by the colonial powers, that the Town and Country Act has limited relevance here. The last few decades have seen decentralized manufacturing and middle-income residential areas locating in these areas, through legislation (apartheid South Africa, to keep Africans out of the central core); or market forces (as is currently the case in Lusaka), and presented as new growth points.
- **Rural Towns:** Informal acquisition, subdivision and disposal of land, as well as informal building construction in rural towns are common. An example can be found in Eldoret, Kenya, where sale agreements are prepared by the *Wazee wa Mtaa* (village elders) and thereafter formally recognized by the authorities. Informal procedures are preferred as these are shorter and cheaper and enjoy the confidence of locals. In Tanzania, village councils collaborate with district councils to prepare village land use plans.

RURAL AREAS

The majority of the continent’s population still resides in rural areas, characterized by high levels of poverty and subsistence farming. Rural areas, including land ownership, remain largely under the control of traditional authorities, with the exception of countries such as Zimbabwe, where central government has taken control of all traditional land. Rural areas are also characterized by the growth of smaller settlements, the establishment of mining towns and investment in manufacturing plants.



Dakar, Senegal.

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CRITICAL CHALLENGES FACING SPATIAL PLANNING PRACTICE

Cities are generally viewed as generating opportunities for employment, income, education, wealth and an improved quality of life. Most rural dwellers do not move to cities for shelter, although this is considered as a high priority need. Increased urbanization, in particular of poorer residents, is associated with poverty, poor health and crime. The colonial, post-independence and recent development patterns have resulted in a number of critical challenges for urban and regional planning:

- **Rapid Urbanization:** The rapid pace of urbanization is characterized by significant socioeconomic, environmental and institutional challenges for urban residents and local government authorities. This, consequently, leads to accelerated demands for housing and other municipal services, and an increase in political and social instability. Civil conflicts across many cities have resulted in uneven urban development. The growth of primate cities has been further enhanced by the high rates of migration to capitals by refugees and internally displaced persons. Capitals such as Monrovia,

in Liberia, and Kigali, in Rwanda, are examples of the disproportionate urban hierarchies as a consequence of political unrest (Kadiri, 2012).

- **Informalization:** Urban growth is dominated by informality in most African cities. Millions of urban residents are living in overcrowded settlements and slums, lacking access to basic services such as water, sanitation and health care⁷. UN-Habitat estimates that over 70 per cent of Africa's urban population does not have adequate shelter, water supply and sanitation. Informalization of economic activities has also increased with the pace of urbanization. The urbanization of poverty can be ascribed to a combination of three factors: the rapid urbanization of the developing countries, the lack of decent jobs, and the lack of adequate planning with efficient city management (Association of Urban Planners of Mali, 2012). This has been accompanied by increasing international pressures to secure "the right to the city" for the poor. Urban land use patterns in African cities have, up to recently, developed slowly over decades and even then, the authorities had limited control over the formal areas. Town and Country Ordinances have become irrelevant in informal areas.
 - **Inadequate Infrastructure Provision:** Urban settlements are not equipped to deal with the rapid growth of cities and towns. With the increasing pace of urbanization, African city officials have been unable to fund critical infrastructure such as road and rail networks, water and sanitation, telecommunications, energy, health and education facilities. In addition to the need to provide additional infrastructure to the growing urban population, in many cases existing infrastructure has depreciated and has become obsolete and inadequate (e.g. Ghana). Traffic congestion is impeding the function of some cities (e.g. Dakar, Senegal; Lagos, Nigeria). The growing demand for electricity is a major challenge for countries that experience regular power outages (e.g. Nigeria, South Africa).
 - **Polarized Development:** Recent private developments have taken a *laissez-faire* form with regard to market-led urban developments, supported by tacit political support in an effort to "make cities safe for capital" (Mabin, 1998). Enclaves of high-value residential development are being developed by mainly foreign private investors, while affordable and lower middle-income housing is being shunned. Urban
- inequities are increasingly apparent across cities in Africa. A more recent phenomenon across the continent is the visualization of high-technology satellite towns⁸ and the futuristic redevelopment of capital cities. Examples of these include satellite towns such as Tatu City and Konza Technology City (Greater Nairobi); Kalungulu City (Kampala); Eko Atlantic City and Lekki-Epe corridor (Lagos); Raphta City (Dar es Salaam) and Luanda Sul (Luanda), as well as the redevelopment of capital cities such as Kigali, Nairobi, Lagos, Kinshasa, Dar es Salaam and Maputo. Development of these cities is intended to be mainly driven by the private sector, and also developed with foreign investments and catering exclusively for higher income earners. These projects have been criticized, especially with regard to their elitist undercurrents and the fact that, in some instances, low-income communities have to be evacuated to make way for them (Kadiri, 2012). However, it is recognized that while these developments are indeed quite elitist and inward-looking, they are a result of the failure of urban planning to provide adequate responses to local development challenges. Similarly, mass housing for the poor has been developed by state agencies in far and disconnected locations. (Kihato and Kururi-Sebina, n.d).
- **Inadequate Public Transport:** The emergence of cities distorted historically through colonial planning, and more recently by market forces with parochial interests; the continued likelihood of the poorest residents pushed towards the urban periphery (in South Africa in particular); and the existence of a fragmented privately based taxi service in many cities, highlight the critical need to establish integrated, affordable, efficient and appropriate public transport systems in growing cities. This is of importance to generate potential opportunities for economic development, and increase mobility and access to job opportunities and scarcely distributed public health and education facilities.
 - **Ad Hoc Developments in Rural Areas:** In many cities and towns (e.g. Lusaka), rural areas are attracting private investment in the form of manufacturing and gated residential developments. Manufacturing processing of raw materials must

⁷ For example, estimates in Ghana: 5 million; Mali: 2.9 million; South Africa: 5 million; Namibia, 0.5.

⁸ "Neo-city" is a term used by Pauline Sabatini (2011). It is a convenient but non-scientific catch-all, referring to the emerging trend of "new cities" that come to exist through various means and approaches, mainly as non-state sector led housing subdivisions. These tend to be peri-urban development enclaves, sometimes becoming new satellite towns or charter cities (Kihato and Kururi-Sebina, n.d).

be lauded and further encouraged. However, developments in rural areas are occurring without any involvement of nearby city authorities and without significant reliance on city utility infrastructure. In some cases, market forces have a direct impact on the growth and pattern of settlements: for example in Mauritius, the downward review of the price of sugar sold to the European Union by 36 per cent has caused cane fields to be developed into resorts and real estate schemes, large out-of-town shopping malls in rural areas, and office parks. In many cases where powerful market forces are at play, authorities do not have appropriate planning policies and frameworks in place to ensure inclusive and sustainable growth.

- **Poor City Management:** Settlement planning and development have, to a large extent, remained under the control of ministries in central government and in collaboration with local authorities. Many African cities are unable to manage rapid urbanization using static blueprint master plans, insufficient and inadequately trained planning staff and other resource limitations. Consequently, towns and cities cannot cope and this can be attributed to the limitations of master planning with its assumption that cities will be dominated by formal developments, as has been in the case of cities in western countries. Furthermore, in cases where city management and duties (for example in terms of planning) have been decentralized, this has not been accompanied by power and resources to drive these processes.

The Urban inequities are increasingly apparent across cities in Africa. A more recent phenomenon across the continent is the visualization of high-technology satellite towns and the futuristic redevelopment of capital cities

- **Corruption and Political Expediency:** Corruption within the public and private sector is a serious hurdle in meeting the development challenges of most countries, and the management of urban areas in particular. This practice poses a challenge to efforts to decentralize authority to regional and local levels where there is insufficient capacity. Parochial political agendas undermine urban growth management initiatives and this is exacerbated by poor political leadership and administration.

These and other examples demonstrate that urbanization in African cities is taking a completely different form in comparison with that of Western and Asian countries. In this context, rethinking the planning agenda and approach is of critical importance and should be a preoccupation of planners and policy makers.

4

Status Quo of Planning in Africa

The following chapter provides an overview of the status quo of planning for a number of countries in Africa. The research method included a questionnaire dealing with urban and regional planning laws, policies and practices, as well as the availability of planning resources. Chairpersons of national planning councils and institutes and other knowledgeable practitioners involved with planning in African cities, rural areas and villages were also interviewed. See *Addendum 1: Summary of Policies, Frameworks, Legislation and Plans per Country*.

THE LEGAL AND POLICY FRAMEWORKS FOR PLANNING

- Although a number of countries have adopted a national development plan⁹ and some have a spatial reference, most do not include a spatial planning component. In contrast, a number of countries have in place a national urban development policy or strategy aimed at guiding the development of urban settlements.¹⁰
- Most of the former British colonies have retained the Town and Country Planning Ordinance (with amendments) such as the primary land use control framework (e.g. Ghana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Namibia, Tanzania and Zambia).
- Some countries have laws to regulate agricultural re-organization and land development (e.g. Burkina Faso, Zimbabwe and South Africa).
- A number of countries have formulated a Land Use and Spatial Planning Bill, but in most cases this has not yet been approved by the legislature (e.g. Ghana, South Africa and Namibia). There are exceptions such as Nigeria which, in recent years, adopted an Urban and Regional Planning Law; Mali which has various decrees, and Senegal which has a Town Planning Code (2009). These are aimed at regulating spatial planning and land use management.

⁹ e.g. Ghana, Lesotho, Mauritius, Namibia, Nigeria, South Africa, Uganda, Zambia.

¹⁰ Burkina Faso has a National Policy of Habitat and Urban Development (2008); a National Physical Plan is being prepared for Nigeria; Malawi has a Physical Planning Act (1987); as well as Kenya (1996) and Uganda (2010); South Africa has a Development Facilitation Act and the National Spatial Development Perspective; Lesotho has a National Settlement Policy. Tanzania has a National Human Settlements Development Policy.

FORWARD PLANNING INSTRUMENTS AND LAND USE MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS

- Countries where local municipalities have the powers and functions to undertake planning for its jurisdiction include Burkina Faso, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Namibia, Nigeria, Senegal, Tanzania, South Africa and Uganda. However in some cases, such as Ghana, the planning being undertaken by the local authorities does not have a spatial component, while some local authorities in Nigeria are not exercising their allocated powers. In other countries, the process of decentralization has been started but local authorities have not been given full powers and functions due to funding and capacity constraints (e.g. Mali). In Namibia, planning is highly centralized and all land use changes and subdivisions must be approved by central government. Interestingly, Uganda's Physical Planning Act allows for the preparation of physical plans at national, regional, district and local levels, removing the responsibility of preparing local plans from local urban councils. The Department of Land Use Regulation and Compliance was established to ensure implementation of these plans. South Africa's Municipal Systems Act requires municipalities to develop Integrated Development Plans.
- Although a significant number of countries have formulated national plans to influence and guide spatial and built environmental outcomes, actual implementation remains low (e.g. Burkina Faso, Senegal, and South Africa).
- A number of countries have laws in place aimed at aligning lower levels of planning with those at higher levels, although the actual realization of this objective is not always achieved. In Ghana and Nigeria, national planning commissions have been established that determine planning and development guidelines to achieve this objective. In contrast, Kenya has no explicit mechanisms, while Zambia has weak alignment of planning across the different levels of government.
- Countries where the management of urbanization is a high priority include Burkina Faso, Namibia, Nigeria, Senegal, South Africa and Zimbabwe. This is demonstrated in countries such as Burkina Faso with its "Plan for the Acquisition of Land", and Nigeria with its "Land Use Decree"



aimed at curbing land speculation and easing the process of land acquisition by the state. However, there are negative effects of this Act on urban and regional planning that have been reported. Another mechanism used in Nigeria is guided land development through the provision of infrastructure in partnership with private landowners (NITP, 2012). Countries where the management of urbanization is not prominent on the national agenda include Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, Tanzania and Zambia. Urban management was not a high priority in Uganda till recently. However, the government is in the process of preparing a national urban policy to deal with urbanization. Namibia has a “Flexible Land Tenure Act” to create ownership of land for the poor in urban areas.

- Most countries do not have special fiscal resources specific for housing/habitat development, and regard this as the primary domain of the private sector. Nigeria has the Federal Mortgage Bank and the Infrastructure Bank; Mali has its “shelter tax” loan guarantees for the middle-income at the Housing Bank of Mali. Some countries have adopted a national housing strategy and have dedicated funding for affordable housing

programmes. The Malawian Housing Corporation and government firms deliver on affordable housing; South Africa has a dedicated funding allocated for subsidy housing; while Mauritius has established a National Housing Development Company to deliver affordable housing. Namibia has initiated a “Build Together Project” where funding has been transferred to municipalities to assist low-income earners with housing construction.

- Most countries have local development plans in the form of structure plans, master plans, spatial development frameworks or urban sector plans, or a combination (e.g. Burkina Faso, Ghana, Nigeria, Mali, Senegal, and South Africa). Although many countries claim that these plans influence the built environment, it is readily acknowledged that enforcement and the capacity for monitoring are poor and, therefore, conformity is weak. There are cases in Nigeria where the residential estates are privately owned and layouts exist without approval or conformity with planning standards. In countries such as Kenya and Tanzania, only a few local area development and spatial plans are in place. Malawi has local development strategic plans, but not spatial ones.

Cape Town, South Africa.

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- Land use management systems are absent in most countries at a local level, as land is controlled by the State at a central government level (e.g. Burkina Faso, Namibia and Tanzania). In some cases these are under the control of local municipalities (e.g. Mali - Code of Estate and Public Property of Mali; South Africa - Zoning Schemes and LUMS). In Malawi, only a few municipalities have this authority.
- Varied responses to informal settlements exist and these include significant restrictions on the emergence of new settlements (e.g. Zimbabwe and Malawi); from UN-Habitat studies aimed at restructuring informal settlements (e.g. Burkina Faso), slum upgrading (e.g. Kenya Slum Upgrading Programme -KENSUP), as well as initiatives aimed at settlement regularization (Lesotho); to cases where no policies or plans exist (e.g. Ghana). The Government of Mali has just launched (with the support of UN-Habitat), an extensive programme of "Fight Against Urban Sprawl". The project "Cities of Mali without Slums" and "Save Our Neighbourhood" are aimed at providing minimal servicing to the squatter settlements (Association of Urban Planners of Mali). Senegal has adopted a policy of "combating spontaneous and illegal developments in cities". Uganda is in the process of preparing a slum upgrading strategy. The Slum

Dwellers Association is active in countries such as Uganda. In South Africa, the subsidy-housing programme is aimed at formalizing informal settlements, while a shift appears to be underway to revert back to site and service schemes. A Mortgage Finance Facility has been established in Tanzania, which in addition to providing a liquidity facility for mortgage lenders, will also encourage lending for housing microfinance, which targets lower-income earners.

PLANNING AND PARTICIPATION OF COMMUNITY, CIVIL SOCIETY AND GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENTS

- Civil society is generally invited and encouraged to participate in planning decisions through mechanisms such as workshops, forums, town hall meetings and public enquiries. However, it is acknowledged that actual participation is insufficient (e.g. Burkina Faso, Ghana, Kenya, and South Africa). In Mali, *communes* have been established at a grassroots level as the sole competent implementing local development authority. To this end, the community, to some extent, plays the role of delegated contracting authority for infrastructure and equipment, as well as the user.
- The responsible ministry for planning and development generally requests other ministries to participate in the implementation of plans (e.g. Burkina Faso and Ghana). Generally agencies dealing with the provision of services participate in the implementation of plans, while others are requested to merely supply data. Some countries have inter-ministerial committees (e.g. Mali and South Africa).

Low cost housing, Bamako, Mali. © UN-Habitat



LINK BETWEEN PLANNING, BUDGETING AND IMPLEMENTATION

- The link between planning and monitoring of implementation of town planning projects does not always exist; there is no control over timeframes and there is often a lack of, or delays in, funding (e.g. Burkina Faso, Ghana, Nigeria and Senegal). Distortions occur through the forceful implementation of projects outside the plan.

South Africa has achieved some success with its Integrated Development Plans.

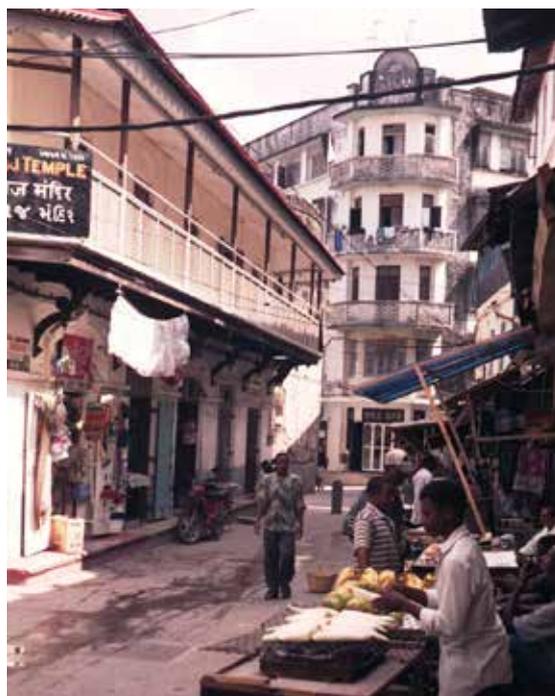
- Funding for identified projects is mainly through central state budgets. Income from property rates for most local authorities is generally inadequate in relation to their expenditure. Aid agencies fund their own projects (e.g. Burkina Faso and Ghana).
- In most cases, planning policies and frameworks formulated have no significant relevance to actual development problems. This can be ascribed to rapid changing circumstances on the ground, slow pace of land acquisition, long timeframes to update plans, lack of coordination, and competition among planning entities (e.g. Burkina Faso and Kenya).

EXAMPLES OF INNOVATION IN PLANNING

The following examples of best practice and innovation in planning were identified:

- **Ghana:** The use of community labour and local materials as counterpart contributions to project implementation. The use of peer review and learning sessions among and between communities.
- **Nigeria:** Sustainable Cities Projects, as well as urban renewal and upgrading projects.
- **Mali:** Support Project for Rural Communes of Timbuktu; Review of the Financing and Physical Planning Systems.
- **Kenya:** Preparation of interim integrated regional development plans where the lead planner is an “embedded lead expert”.
- **Uganda:** The declaration of special planning areas, for example, the Albertine Graben Physical Development Plan in a new oil-drilling region. Specific plans for disaster prone areas, such as the mountainous areas of Elgon.
- **South Africa:** Urban Renewal Programmes, Township Regeneration Programmes, GAP¹¹ housing projects and Integrated Development Plans.
- **Lesotho:** The Mabote Project: Coping with Rapid Urbanization in Maseru.
- **Malawi:** Community-student planning studio project approach of Association of African Planning Schools/Shack/Slum Dwellers International. The Embedding Employability Project in planning education implemented at Mzuzu University in collaboration with Ulster University. Vulnerability Assessment approach to mainstream Climate Change. Vulnerability and Disaster Resilience in urban planning under UN-Habitat/Mzuzu University-case study of Karonga Town. The planning guide for disaster prone areas by UN-Habitat.
- **Mauritius:** Review of the Development Strategy to further integrate infrastructure (road, water, electricity, sewerage) with planning. The establishment of a state-of-the-art digital cadastre for the island, which would assist in the efficient management of land resources. The cadastre links attributes of plots of land, values of the plots and their title deeds in an aerial-photo map base.
- **Namibia:** Windhoek encourages an increase in densities in informal areas because of a lack of space. A 300m² erf can now accommodate three families and not one family as in the previous years. Ownership is now guaranteed by registering sectional titles.
- **Tanzania:** The implementation of community-based infrastructure upgrading programmes in Dar es Salaam, Mwanza and Tanga. Community-based property formalization projects in Dar es Salaam, Dodoma, Mwanza, Arusha, Moshi, Mbeya, Iringa and Tanga; and Hanna Nassif in Dar es Salaam.
- **Zambia:** Enactment of the Housing (Statutory and Improvement Areas) Act, intended to attend to the housing problem by lifting restrictions within the Town & Country Planning Act, the Deeds & Registry Act and other such restrictive legislation where the Housing Act applied; and allowing for progressive land tenure acquisition, which facilitates incremental and flexible housing development.

11 The term “GAP Housing” is a policy that addresses the housing aspirations of people. The policy is meant to bridge the gap in the market that divides rich from poor and poor from middle class. The number of residents who earn too much to qualify for government subsidized housing, but too little to purchase houses privately, is growing.



Zanzibar Tanzania.
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ASSESSMENT OF PLANNING RESOURCES CAPACITY

- Nine of the 15 countries have laws that regulate the registration of planning at a national level (Burkina Faso, Kenya, Mali, Namibia, Nigeria, Senegal, South Africa, Tanzania and Zambia). Countries that do not have such regulation in place include Ghana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Uganda and Zimbabwe.
- Countries where legislation to regulate the planning profession is being contemplated include Ghana; while in Uganda, a bill is before Parliament.
- In some of the countries planning is not offered at higher education institutions (e.g. Burkina Faso); while in Mauritius planning courses are only offered on a demand basis.

The ratio of planners in relation to the population per country is captured in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Ratio of Registered Planners to Population

	Population (million) 2011	No of accredited planners	No of planners per 100,000	Year of Estimate
APA Countries				
Burkina Faso*	16,970,000	14	0.08	2011
Ghana	24,970,000	150	0.60	2011
Nigeria*	162,500,000	2,333	1.44	2011
Mali*	15,840,000	50	0.32	2011
Kenya*	41,610,000	194	0.47	2011
Uganda	34,510,000	90	0.26	2011
South Africa*	50,800,000	1,690	3.33	2011
Malawi	15,300,000	30	0.20	2011
Mauritius	1,286,000	27	2.10	2011
Tanzania*	46,200,000	158	0.34	2011
Zambia	13,400,000	60	0.45	2011
Zimbabwe	12,700,000	262	2.06	2011
Other countries				
United Kingdom	61,126,832	23,000	37.63	
United States	304,059,724	38,830	12.77	2010
Australia	18,972,350	4,452	23.47	2009/10
Pakistan	173,593,383	755	0.43	2010
India	1,210,193,422	2,800	0.23	2011

*Countries that regulate the registration of planning at a national level

Source: APA 2011 Survey, Newman, 2012

Countries such as Mauritius, Nigeria, South Africa and Zimbabwe have relatively higher levels of registered planners per 100,000 than, for example, Burkina Faso, Malawi and Uganda. However, in comparison with developed countries such as Australia, the United Kingdom and the United States, the ratios of registered planners per 100,000 are very low. Figures for African countries are comparative with other Asian countries such as India and Pakistan.

Nevertheless, the estimated number of practicing planners is considerably higher than the number of registered planners in countries in Africa. For example, in South Africa the number of practicing planners was estimated at 3,769, increasing the ratio to 7.19 per 100,000. Of concern are countries that do not have a national Act in place to regulate at a national level, as cases have been reported of other professionals (for example geographers, teachers and land surveyors) operating as urban and regional planners.

CONCLUSIONS

Further details regarding the status and effectiveness of planning instruments such as laws, acts, decrees, codes, policy, frameworks, plans and guidelines in the African Planning Association countries are captured in the **African Planning Report (Background)**. Further analysis and assessment is required. However, key challenges that can be identified include the following:

- Town and Country Planning Ordinances inherited from Britain are in still in place in a significant number of countries. A few other countries have either recently introduced land use management

legislation or have been contemplating this for a considerable period. This demonstrates the significant shortcomings of Ordinances to deal with the new realities and complexities facing rapidly growing African cities.

- A number of countries have introduced forward planning instruments and have prepared master plans and development framework to guide new growth. These are generally insufficient or inflexible enough to respond to changing private sector investment patterns that may not necessarily be in accordance with the spatial and infrastructure priorities identified by public officials.
- The legal, institutional and human capacity of planning is precarious; therefore, drastic changes in any of these areas should be considered with caution. Rather, substantive incremental capacity-building programmes should be pursued that are embedded within the particular and contextually specific planning requirements of each country. Generalities and sweeping assumptions should be avoided.

5

Opportunities for Making Planning a More Effective Tool for Development

For urban and regional planning to become more effective and remain relevant within the domain of government, it is critical that the discipline engage with political, market, institutional, fiscal and other key forces impacting on development. The following considers some of the existing and emerging development trends within urban and rural areas in Africa. Planners need to understand the underlying forces and acquire the necessary skills to identify the levers for appropriate interventions:

- **Private Sector Investment:** The scramble for mining, oil and farming rights, for virtually all highly tradable commodities, creates the opportunity to engage private investors more constructively; in particular through partnerships as far as contributions towards infrastructure development in existing cities are concerned. It can be argued that well-capacitated and managed

urban centres in regions significantly increase the productivity of the rural hinterland in terms of providing input materials, support services and human resource development. This approach contrasts with misplaced efforts to establish new towns in remote locations, disjointed from existing urban centres.

- **Decentralization and Local Government Powers:** Centralized systems of governance have remained largely unchanged. Although decentralization rhetoric is advocated (this could be due to pressures from donors), there has been reluctance to devolve power to local municipalities. Resistance comes from central governments and traditional authorities that refuse to relinquish land to municipalities (e.g. Lusaka). In other cases central governments have taken control of all land, including traditional land (e.g. Zimbabwe). However, the push for decentralization is gaining momentum and legislative and other measures are being considered by some countries to enable greater fiscal transfers to municipal councils. It appears, in some cases, that powers to acquire land have been ceded to local authorities (e.g. Benin). This would provide the opportunity for local municipalities to dedicate resources to forward planning, including spatial planning. Some countries have introduced legal frameworks for decentralization (e.g. Burkina Faso has semi-autonomous provincial administrations to improve local political representation and empower communities). However, implementation challenges remain with regard to the roles and responsibilities, management capacity and resources, and financial autonomy.
- **City Growth Management:** New forms of growth management are required, which are inclusive of measures introduced through Town and Country planning, informality, traditional authority land use management and private sector investment patterns. Of critical importance is for urban growth to be inclusive of the poor and marginalized. Exploration of new land use management systems is under way, for example the UN-Habitat regularization programme (Kenya) and Zambian “spot rights” system (Lusaka). Traditional city management tools such as urban growth boundaries, densification, multi-nodal city development, public transport and green



open space systems have relevance for many African cities. However, these should be derived from substantive understandings of contextual specific challenges, localized resource constraints and working with public, private and community investments patterns and trends.

- **Rural Growth Management:** Planning needs to have a creative response to harness the economic initiatives aimed at optimizing opportunities for agricultural processing and value addition. Associated manufacturing and processing investments should be encouraged but directed at established towns and cities and not within remotely located rural areas. The opportunities of private foreign investment within traditional authority-controlled rural areas should, therefore, be better managed.
- **Democratic Participation:** Events such as the Arab Spring have energized the need for inclusive community and civil society participative processes. City management, and in particular city and regional planning, creates platforms for intergovernmental consultation, in particular between the various ministries, councils and external development agencies. This provides an opportunity to increase our knowledge base (including spatial understanding) of communities and regions, substantially.
- **Sustainable Development and Climate Change:** City and regional planning provide local rallying platforms for international agendas dealing with sustainable development and climate change. Many challenges derived from these agendas can be mitigated through appropriate spatial planning and policies.
- **Planning, Budgeting and Implementation:** This is a common shortcoming within most countries as planning is typically disjointed from implementation. Planners need to accept that the planning process will remain highly politicized along party, or constituency lines, or both and that it cannot be a purely technocratic endeavour. This calls for the need to understand the values and needs of constituencies being planned, and devise tools to mobilize support for worthwhile city and regional planning interventions.
- **Use of Technology:** The increasing availability and decreasing costs of technology of relevance to planning (e.g. GIS, GPS, cell phones), enables the cost-effective analysis of urban and rural settlements, tracking population and labour movements and change. This allows planners to undertake ethnographic and more reliable research that would increase the relevance of interventions.

6

Conclusion

The economic growth of countries globally, and Africa in particular, is inextricably linked to the growth of cities and towns. Urbanization and the accompanying forces of transformation are a reality, with the population of cities and towns projected to increase rapidly over the next few decades. Urbanization provides the opportunity to increase the quality of life of all citizens, significantly. However, past and existing patterns of private sector investments tend to reinforce development trends that are historically distorted in that they exclude the majority of the population, who are generally poor, unemployed and have limited skills, from benefiting from economic, housing and other opportunities created. A paradox therefore exists between the current significant economic growth in Africa and increasing levels of urbanization on the one hand, and the scale and extent of poverty and marginalization in the African context, on the other hand. This is unsustainable economically, socially and politically.

Inclusive growth is therefore required, based on increasing access for the majority of the population to public goods such as basic services, community education, health, and social, administrative, recreational amenities; public transport; space to erect shelter, and the opportunity and infrastructure for economic activity. Critical needs in this regard include the right to the city and to live in a healthy and safe environment. Spatial patterns of growth should be encouraged that include private sector investments and facilitate the inclusion of the majority of residents in development. These remain the most critical challenges facing the growth and planning of urban and rural areas in Africa.

Urban and regional planners, together with other built environment professions, economists, environmentalists and social developers are called upon to respond appropriately to the emerging critical development challenges. Urban and regional planners need to develop a wide range of approaches, methods and analytical tools to remain relevant and at the forefront of development processes, and should include the following:

- The historical and context-related challenges facing specific urban and rural areas need to be understood. This should include a deeper understanding of market, political, administrative, social and cultural forces as well as unfolding events.
- Norms and values to guide planning and development should be ethnographically identified and not merely imported from elsewhere.
- Existing planning laws remain embedded within their historic and colonial contexts and have become irrelevant and unresponsive to current development challenges. More appropriate planning laws and practices are required that harness the opportunities accompanying patterns of economic growth and are responsive to the realities of modernization, but also take into consideration widespread informality, entrenched traditional and customary practices and highly politicized planning and development processes.
- Planning approaches, methods and tools should be developed that will enable the leveraging of critical resources required for urbanization, such as finance, land, utility services and transport infrastructure and systems.

Urban and regional planning can provide frameworks and approaches to guide and direct growth and development in rural and urban areas in Africa. This report aimed to highlight the importance of proactive and effective planning to ensure that development in cities, towns and villages is sustainable and inclusive. Of considerable concern is the existing capacity of the planning profession. The planning profession is severely under-resourced, in comparison to developed countries that are not facing the scale and complexity of development challenges of African cities. A concerted effort is required to increase, dramatically, the number of planners and their skills and expertise at local, regional, national and continental levels. This can be done through capacity-building, appropriate planning education and training, coupled with appropriate planning law reform. This planning capacity should be non-sectoral and find ways to accommodate public, private and community

interests in a manner that improves the lives of all citizens and responds to the needs of those who find themselves economically, social and politically marginalized.

This research by the African Planning Association was aimed at developing an understanding of the status quo of the profession and building a platform for intervention. This was quite a challenging task, given the diversity of issues with which the report attempts to deal. More so, most literature on Africa is couched within a broad "sub-Saharan" context, while writing on country-level challenges remains scant.

It is hoped that with further participation of other countries, this research will be extended, deepened and provide the bases for an ongoing and cumulative process of knowledge building. Hopefully, it will also lead to engagement and learning amongst built environmental practitioners, politicians, community agents, developers and other decision-makers on the continent. It is hoped that the issues and concerns raised in this report provide a foundation for this critical debate and make connections between planning and various other urban-related issues as this process is advanced.

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ADDENDUM 1: SUMMARY OF POLICIES, FRAMEWORKS, LEGISLATION AND PLANS PER COUNTRY

Country	National/Provincial Development Plans	National Legislation and Policies Guiding Development Planning	Planning Powers and Functions of Local Government	Legislation Regulating Spatial Planning and Land Use Management	Local Development Plans
• Burkina Faso	• National Policy of Habitat & Urban Dev. (2008)	• National Spatial Planning Scheme (about to be adopted)	• Local municipalities have the powers and functions to undertake planning	• Laws exist to regulate agricultural re-organization and land development. • Town & Urban Planning Schemes	• E.g. Ouagadougou City Development Strategy • E.g. Plans for the Acquisition of Land
• Ghana	• National Development Planning Strategy	• The National Development Planning (Systems) Act, 1994, (Act 480)	• The Local Government Act, 1993 (Act 462)	• The Town and Country Planning Ordinance, 1945 (CAP 84) • The Local Government Act, 1993 (Act 462) • The Land Use and Spatial Planning Bill (yet to be passed)	• Local socioeconomic development plans
• Nigeria	• The National Urban Development Policy (2009)	• National Physical Development Plan (being prepared)	• Nigerian Urban and Regional Planning Law (Decree 88 of 1992).	• Guided Land Development • Land use management schemes and systems	• Local development plans
• Mali	• Strategic Framework for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (2006) • National Urban and Regional Master Plan (1997) • National Strategy for Housing (2000); • National Policy for Land Management (2006)	• Urban Development (Strategy No. 4 of 10) • Strategy for the Development of the Cities of Mali (2009)	• Various Acts dealing with: • Est. the National Directorate of Local Authorities • Est. the National Agency for Municipal Investment • Est. the National Directorate of Urban Planning and Housing and the Regulations for Operations • Est. of National Directorate of Lands and Surveys • Est. of Communes • Fiscal Resources of Communes;	• Ordinance No. 00- 027/P-RM, 2000, Land and Estate Matters; • Numerous Decrees relating to real estate development, National Commission; costs for plots and housing production; Urban Planning; physical planning; Urban Infrastructure; Urban Public Utilities; Construction Permit; Town Planning Operations; Physical Planning Sectoral Plan	• Urban Sector Plan • Urban Plan Reference • Master Plan for Major Cities • Regional Master Plan (Secondary Cities)
• Senegal	• National Development Plan	• National Regional wDevelopment Plan	• Laws No. 96-06 and 96-07 of March 22, 1996	• Town Planning Code (2009)	• Local plans (provide for spatial planning)
• Kenya	• Economic Recovery Strategy for Wealth and Employment Creation (2003)	• The Physical Planning Act (1996) • General Development Guidelines	• Local Government Act of 1965	• Towns and Urban Areas Act (13 of 2011)	• Few local area development and spatial plans • Part Development Plan
• Uganda	• National Development Plan (2010)	• National Physical Planning Act (2010) • Uganda National Land Policy (draft 2011)	• Local Government Act, 1997	• Department of Land Use Regulation and Compliance	• Regional Physical Development Plans • District Physical Development Plans • Urban Physical Development plans • Local Physical Development plans
• South Africa	• Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (AsgiSA) (2006) • New Growth Path (2010) • National Development Plan (2011) • Integrated Human Settlement Policy • National Environmental Management Act (2010) • National Heritage Act (1999)	• Development Facilitation Act (1995) • Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Bill	• The Constitution (1997) • Municipal Systems Act (2000) • Municipal Structures Act (1998) • Integrated Development Plans	• Integrated Zoning Schemes • Provincial Ordinances and Laws	• Plans for metro areas, district and local municipalities • Spatial Development Frameworks • Local Economic Development Strategies • Human Settlement (Housing) Plans • Environmental Management Plans • Engineering Plans • Urban renewal strategies, etc.

Country	National/Provincial Development Plans	National Legislation and Policies Guiding Development Planning	Planning Powers and Functions of Local Government	Legislation Regulating Spatial Planning and Land Use Management	Local Development Plans
• Lesotho	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National Strategic Development Plan (2012/13-2016/17) • National Settlement Policy • National Strategic Development Plan 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Constitution of Lesotho (1993) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Local Government Act 1997 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Town & Country Planning Act 1980 • Town and Country Planning (Development) (Amendment) Regulations 1993 • Town and Country Planning Order 1991 • Regulations 1991 • The Building Control Act 1995 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Maseru Development Plan • Maseru Urban Planning and Transport Study
• Malawi	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Malawi Growth and Development Strategy 2006- 2011 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The National Physical Development (1987) outdated 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local Government Act, 1998 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Town and Country Planning Act, 1988 effective from 1991 • Land use management schemes and systems 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local development (strategic/ implementation) plans • However, not spatial plans except in local areas targeted by special projects
• Mauritius	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National Development Strategy, • National Physical Plan 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Town & Country Planning Act (1954) • Planning & Development Act (2004) • Planning Policy Guidelines 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local Government Act 1989 (amended 2006) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Town & Country Planning Act (1954) • Planning & Development Act (2004) • Planning Policy Guidelines 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local plan for a local authority/ municipality
• Namibia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National Development Plan 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Town Planning Ordinance (1954) as amended • Townships and Division of Land Ordinance (1963) as amended • Urban and Regional Planning Bill 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local Authorities Act (1992) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Urban and Regional Planning Bill (current) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Windhoek Structure Plan • Other structural plans
• Tanzania	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tanzania Five-Year Development Plan 2011/2012 – 2015/2016 • Tanzania Long-Term Perspective Plan 2011/12 – 2025/26 • Human Settlements Development Policy 2000 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National Land Use Plan, 2008 • Land Use Planning Act 7, 2007 • Urban Planning Act, 8, 2007 • Mortgage Act 2008 • Unit Title Act 2008 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Urban Planning Act. 8, 2007 • Land Use Planning Act 7, 2007 • Village Councils collaboration with District Councils to prepare village land use plans 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Urban Planning Act, No. 8, 2007 • Land Use Planning Act, 7, 2007 • Planning Regulations are currently in draft form 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • District Strategic Development Plans (not for all districts) • Master Plans or Strategic Urban Development Plans for cities and municipalities
• Zambia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sixth National Development Plan-2011/2015 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Town and Country Planning Act, Cap283 of the Laws of Zambia 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Town and Country Planning Act 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Town and Country Planning Act, Cap283 of the Laws of Zambia 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • District spatial plans • City of Lusaka Master Plan
• Zimbabwe	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Third National Development Plan (3) 2007/2008-2011/12 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regional Town and Country Planning Act, 1976 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regional Town and Country Planning Act 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regional Town and Country Planning Act 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Most urban settlements have local development plans in place

This report presents an overview of the state of planning in Africa. It is the result of research carried out by the African Planners Association among 15 of its affiliate member countries - Burkina Faso, Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Namibia, Nigeria, Senegal, South Africa, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe. The research, carried out in 2012, provides a perspective of the roles of urban and regional planners within the process of settlement formation, urbanization and rural development. It focuses on the spatial manifestation of the problems Africa faces and assesses the legislative, policy, human, institutional and educational capacity that exist within the planning profession.

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