

**THE ENVIRONMENT AND TOOLS OF URBAN
PLANNING IN SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA: A SEARCH FOR
IDENTITY AND IMPLICATIONS FOR SUSTAINABLE
DEVELOPMENT**

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Abstract

Despite the efforts of various stakeholders, the growth and development of cities of Sub-saharan Africa seems to be uncontrollable. This paper therefore examines the environment and tools of urban planning in Africa. This is with a view to identifying to what extent: (1) the tools are responsive to urban development challenges in the continent, and (2) urban planning environment (in Africa) can benefit from 'global and African paradigms'. The paper unveils the strengths and weaknesses in the types of plans, legislations, institutional frameworks and the associated processes of urban planning and management in selected countries across sub-regions of the continent.

Key Words: Afro-Urban Planning, African Paradigm, All-inclusive Plan, Realism and Identity, Local Plan

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1 Introduction

As the world enters the second decade of the millennium, the cries of the implications of the unsustainable way of development continue (UN-Habitat, 2011), even with louder 'voices' of different stakeholders across all walks of life. These continue and increase by the day to the extent that one wonders whether we (human kind) would ever get it right. It becomes of more concern to observe that most of these cries are centered on the developing world, particularly the sub-saharan Africa. The question that comes to the fore is: what is wrong with the planning and development machineries in sub-saharan African countries that make the problems in their built environment defy solutions? In an attempt to provide answers we try to identify causes, prominent among which, and constituting the 'mother' of all is uncontrolled modernization, as the existing literature makes us understand. In this paper, it is argued that in this computer age of the 21st century, and the considerably long period of embracing modern planning and technology, coupled with the growing importance of relevant institutions, it may not be appropriate to say that urban growth, urbanization or development of the built environment is not controlled. It is rather not guided by appropriate machineries, tools and processes, which may and may not conform to the general tools, as prescribed in the existing literature of urban growth, urbanization or sustainable development, which are mostly products of academic and/or industrial exercises, based on the situations in the developed world, particularly UK and the US., and which may run parallel and foul to the situations in African communities

It is against the above background that this paper examines the environment and tools of urban planning in Africa, with a view to identifying the African way of urban planning and urban growth control, as a sort of lateral (rather than vertical) paradigm shift, for effective and sustainable development of sub-saharan African communities. The paper, which derives more from the secondary data from relevant government departments of the affected African countries and the UN-habitat, attempts an analysis of the urban planning environment (situations) in Africa with specific reference to the situations in South Africa, Kenya and Nigeria, and make case for a new paradigm, which it calls "Afro-Urban Planning".

2 Urbanization and sustainable development: global and regional issues

The persistent urbanization of countries world over is an established phenomenon in the literature. The pace of urbanization, though less noticeable then, could be traced to the beginning of the human settlements in the time immemorial, and then to the beginning of the 19th century (1800) when it started to become a phenomenon, with a population of 1 billion. This grew slowly to 2.5 billion in 1950 and more rapidly to about 6.12 billion in 2000 (Bongarts, 2001; Jelili, 2012) and was estimated to have reached 6.91 billion in 2010. Further estimates and projections show that the growth would continue at a fairly rate, to reach about 7.68 billion and 8.31 billion in 2020 and 2030 respectively (UNDESA, 2009; UN-Habitat, 2011) This increase is however observed to be associated with a skewed distribution in 'favour' of developing countries including African, Asian and Latin American countries, whose capacities may be less adequate to cater for the associated urban development challenges, while the developed world, including Europe, North America, Australia and Japan tend to have their populations relatively stable (UNFPA, 2007 and Jelili, 2012). The population growth rate of the developed world, for example, has been estimated to drop from 0.35 percent between 2000 and 2030 to 0.25 and 0.10 percent between 2010 and 2020 and between 2020 and 2030 respectively, while that of Sub-saharan Africa (though also dropping) would be as comparatively high as 2.46 percent between 2000 and 2010, and 2.25 and 1.9 between 2010 and 2020, and between 2020 and 2030 respectively (UN-Habitat, 2011).

It is important to note that just like their developed world counterparts, overall rate of population increase in sub-sahara Africa tends to decrease with time, while urbanization rate in the same tends to be higher, with an estimated 80 percent of the world urban population to be in cities of the developing world in 2030. And by that time, Asia and Africa alone would constitute 70 percent of the total world urban dwellers (UNFPA, 2007).

The implication of the scenario above is already manifesting in the disproportionate distribution of access to basic urban services and the resultant distribution of slums and prevailing squalid environmental conditions, which characterize most urban neighbourhoods of the developing world, particularly in the sub-saharan African countries. For example, while access to drinking water and sanitation in urban centres in 2008, in African countries like Nigeria, Kenya and Chad is estimated to be 75, 83, and 67 percent respectively, it is 100 percent in UK, the US and

Australia (UN-Habitat, 2011). However, this does not suggest a causal or even correlational relationship between urbanization and squalid condition in African communities, as it seems in most presentations, and as debunked in the latter analysis here. Other underlying factors which may necessitate new paradigm for managing urbanization and urban development in Africa are revealed later, and conceptualized here as ‘Afro-urban planning’

3 Afro-urban planning: what is it?

This is a new construct coined to capture the features and processes of managing urban development and urbanism in sub-saharan Africa. It is rooted in the Jelili, et al’s (2012) perspective of urban planning in which different types and forms of planning and of planners are recognized in attaining a sustainable urban growth and development that is driven by a coordinated, all-inclusive, and multi-faceted process of urban governance. Urban planning is defined in this view as:

“all the processes of pre-determining, shaping, and encouraging a well-coordinated urban socio-economic and physical growth in a sustainable manner. The process envisaged in this definition is that at each stage of which the affected stakeholders are recognized and utilized maximally effectively. The processes are those that operate within an all-inclusive regulatory framework, in which all facets of activities are coordinated” (Jelili, et al, 2012)

It is explained further that:

“Urban planning in this context, is that which has spatial, economic and other forms of planning operating not only within each sectoral regulatory framework (acts, laws, decrees, etc, addressing sectors or spheres of urban life), but also within an all-encompassing regulatory structure. It is therefore used interchangeably with urban development planning” (Jelili, et al, 2012)

Urban planners in that context, therefore refers to all categories of stakeholders in the management of urban growth and development, while the technocrat at each sectoral level of

(spatial, economic, transportation, industrial, agricultural, etc) planning is a facilitator or coordinator of their own sphere of planning. In this sense, the conventional urban planner has two kinds of role to play in achieving a sustainable city growth and development. They function as facilitator and chief consultant in spatial planning process, and as consultant in each and every other sectoral planning, while all stakeholders, facilitators and consultants in each of the sectoral forms of planning become stakeholders in a comprehensive, multi-sectoral form of planning, which may be long-term, medium-term or short-term or annually. (Jelili, et al, 2012).

Given the above picture of the supposed urban planning, it is observed that Afro-urban planning could be described as a variant of the general urban planning just elucidated. The distinguishing features of Afro-urban planning lie in the process of providing answers to such questions as:

- Who are the stakeholders?
- Who are ready to get involved?
- Who know themselves as stakeholders?
- Who identifies the stakeholders and how?
- How do you reach them?
- Who is representing what, and how appropriate are the representation?
- How are the people organized?
- What are the stakeholders' interests?
- What is their value system like?
- How are the issues prioritized?

The question above, among others are the issues that make urban governance and planning difficult in sub-Saharan African communities and different from what may be suggested in the general literature, which I chose to describe here as global paradigm.

Afro-urban planning, which is used here as an African-paradigm approach to urban planning, requires, in addition to the general urban planning process, a special pan-African skill of indigenous knowledge (IK). Indigenous knowledge generally, is the local knowledge that is unique to a given culture or society. It contrasts with the international knowledge system

generated by universities, research institutions and private firms (Warren, 1991). IK constitutes the information base for a society, which facilitates communication and decision-making (Flavier et al 1995:479).

The argument here is that Afro-urban planning, while upholding the multidisciplinary nature of urban planning, the various facets and inputs of other allied disciplines, also identifies ‘the local planner’ (LP). The LP, who may not necessarily be a conventional planner, but essentially a collection of locality-based professionals, technicians, and artisans all of whom are relatively informed, influential and of good charisma in the locality. The process of involving the LP constitutes an integral part of the Afro-urban planning process.

4 Urban Planning Environment and Tools in Sub-Saharan Africa

We have taken the sub-Saharan Africa to include West, East, Central and Southern Africa, and chosen Nigeria as a typical example of West African case, Kenya to exemplify the situation in the East/Central Africa, and South Africa to represent the Southern Africa situation.

4.1 Urban governance structure

The Republic of South Africa (RSA) and Kenya have a similar structure, with a unitary and parliamentary system of government (though with some elements of presidential system). The uniqueness of the structure of government in the RSA is also manifest in the three tiers of government (the national, provincial, and local levels) having legislative and executive authority in their own spheres, which is defined in the constitution of the republic as “distinctive, interdependent, and interrelated” (RSA, 1996). There are nine provinces and 284 municipalities (local governments). The municipalities are of three categories: (1) the metropolitan municipalities of Cape Town, Durban, East Rand, Johannesburg, Pretoria and Port Elizabeth (category A), Local Councils (category B), and Districts Council (category C). Category A municipalities have executive and legislative authorities in their areas. Category B shares municipal executive and legislative authority in its area with a category C, while the latter (category C) has municipal executive and legislative authority in an area that includes more than one municipality (a sort of overlap) (White Paper on Local Government in South Africa, 1998). In the same way, Kenya has three spheres of government, consisting of the national government,

8 provinces, and 175 council areas (including 3 city councils, 43 municipal councils, 62 town councils, and 67 rural county councils).

On the other hand, Nigeria has a presidential system of government, with the Executive President as the Head of State and Commander-in-Chief of Armed forces, and Head of government Business, who appoints his cabinet members from outside the legislature (though ratified and approved by the latter), which is a bicameral one – the Senate (Upper House) and the House of Representatives (the lower House), with a well-organized independent Judiciary, all constituting the Federal system of Government being practiced in the non-military, republican political eras of the country. The country has a constitutionally spelt out three tiers of government. The other two are the states (36 states and a Federal Capital Territory) and the local governments (774 local councils), while the area of jurisdiction of each state is defined by the state geographical boundary, that of the local government may be: (1) a part of a city or town, (2) partly rural and partly urban, and (3) comprised of a number of rural settlements.

4.2 Urban planning: background information

Urban planning in Sub-Saharan Africa can be summarized into pre- and post-political independence eras. While the focus and emphasis of this paper is on post-independence era, it is important to mention that the pre-independence era witnessed what was similar in most of the countries. The phenomenon in the pre-independence South Africa was the apartheid form of urban planning which segregated urban neighbourhoods based on race, and which restricted local authorities' relevance and functioning to a comparatively less economically buoyant towns and villages. This resulted into the non-white neighbourhoods less serviced by basic urban infrastructure and lopsided distribution of opportunities in favour of white neighbourhoods.

Also in Nigeria there was a lopsided pattern of urban development in the colonial days, which resulted into urban primacy in favour of port/coastal cities like Lagos and Port-Harcourt and settlements along the developed routes for the promotion of cash crops and other pro-colonial forms of businesses, like Kano, Zaria, Jos, Kaduna, Ibadan and Ogbomoso, among others. It also resulted into imbalances noticed in the intra-urban pattern of infrastructural concentration in selected parts of cities in favour of what later emerged as Government Reservation Areas (GRAs)

at the expense of most neighbourhoods of the majority of Nigerians, especially the common people.

In Kenya, a similar pattern of favoured colonial settlements could also be observed, however, urbanization was minimal before independence, with just about 8 percent of Kenyans living in cities and towns as at the time of independence in 1963 (Nabutela, 2012). In 1962 it was estimated that only one Kenyan out of every 12 lived in urban centres. By the year 1999, the proportion of the urban population had increased to 34.5 per cent which is close to 10 million people. This implies that one out of every three Kenyans lived in urban areas. By the year 2015, the level of urbanisation will have reached 44.5% with an estimated 16.5 million people living in urban areas and eventually the percentage is set to reach 54% by 2030 with about 23.6 million people living in urban areas (Department of Urban Development, DUD, 2008).

4.3 Regulatory framework for planning in South Africa

Planning, in the context here, is a public activity that requires and depends on certain regulatory framework for it to work effectively. At the national level, the post-apartheid period has been witnessing a range of regulations. These include the first ever republican constitution put in place in 1996, but came into effect in 1997.

The constitution has the following role of urban governance and development planning for local government, the level at which urban development planning is most feasible in the republic:

The Local Government is to:

- Provide democratic and accountable government for local communities
- Ensure the provision of services to communities in a sustainable manner
- Promote social and economic development
- Promote a safe and healthy environment
- Encourage the involvement of communities and community organizations in the matters of local government

- Promote the Bill of Rights, which reflects the nation's values about human dignity, equality and freedom, and uphold the principles enshrined in the constitution.

(RSA 1998, 1996)

All these, as shall be revealed later, are being pursued through different forms of urban plans and planning. How and what are the hindrances?

Other relevant laws at the national level include: (1) Land Use Management Bill of 2006, (2) Housing Code (2004), (3) the Local Government: Municipal System Acts of 2000 (which is a land mark in the history of urban governance and development planning in South Africa, in that it specifies brand-establishing types of plan to be put in place for effective urban governance and planning in the RSA), Housing Act of 1997, and Development Facilitation Act of 1995, among several other shades of papers from green to white (for example White Paper on Spatial Planning and Land Use Management of 2001 (Overs et al, 2007). All the above are in addition to the various provincial and municipal regulations. Gauteng Planning and Development Bill of 2012 (for Gauteng province), and Johannesburg Town Planning Scheme (JTPS) 2011 (for Johannesburg city) are good examples of legislations at provincial and local (or municipal) levels respectively. Each of these regulations has one thing or the other to do with urban governance and planning in the country. For example, while the main purpose of the JTPS is “to enable the comprehensive management of all property and related public sector functions across the city” (The City of Johannesburg, 2011), the main objectives of the Gauteng Planning and Development Bill of 2012 are to:

- Provide for the planning and development of land in the province
- Provide for the coordination of land use and land development policies of national and provincial departments and of municipalities
- Provide for a system of land use management and the regulation of land use and development
- Facilitate and expedite the process of land development
- Provide for the determination by municipalities of development land use applications and the establishment of settlements and for appeal procedures

- Provide for planning and development functions of the Gauteng province and the establishment and functions of the Municipal Appeal Tribunal
- Provide for the provision of engineering services
- Provide for the control and enforcement of land use and development measures
- Provide for related matters.

(Gauteng, 2012)

4.4 Levels of planning and types of plans in South Africa

It is important to say that apart from putting in place relevant regulatory framework, policy formulations and strategic growth management by the national and provincial governments, urban planning in South Africa is mainly carried out at the municipal level. And the types of plan and the associated processes put in place are dependent on the relevant laws, policies and guidelines set by the higher tiers of government. Plan is used here to refer to all forms of development plans or blue-prints affecting physical and socio-economic growth and development of urban areas.

The types of plan obtainable in the RSA that have to do with urban development planning and management are of different categories. First, there are strategic plans (for example, Joburg 2030, the Human Development Strategy HDS, the Integrated Transport Plan ITP, the City Safety Strategy CSS and the most current Growth and Development Strategy 2040 for Johannesburg GDSJ, (2011)). These are long-term plans. The GDSJ 2040, for example, is a long-range multi-faceted plan that integrates all spheres of urban planning and development and their associated sectoral inputs from all affected professionals, experts and stakeholders.

The main objectives are to:

- Pragmatically confront complex challenges and define long-term strategic choices
- Frame medium-term operational plans
- Allow for the timeous conceptualization and initiation of projects requiring long time development
- Link long-time city-wide outcomes with operational output, and
- Stimulate public interest in and action towards agreed future outcomes

The strategic plan integrates the hitherto sectoral plans like HDS, ITP and CSS.

Second is the Integrated Development Plan (IDP). This is a powerful and perhaps the most widely accepted and implanted urban planning tool in the planning history of South Africa. It is made mandatory, through Municipal Systems Act (2000), for the municipalities in South Africa to prepare IDP as a method to plan future development in their areas. The requirement for IDP preparation is stipulated in the Municipal Systems Act. The IDP allows for incremental five year planning geared toward achieving long-term goals of the strategic plan through medium term delivery of a series of IDP (the City of Johannesburg, 2011). It is a comprehensive, multifaceted, multi-sectoral, all-inclusive medium-term development plan that serves as the link between the long-range and short-term annual budget plans of municipalities.

The third category of plans in South Africa is Spatial Development Framework (SDF). This is the plan that can be described as the spatial expression of all other forms of plans, programmes and actions from any one of the plans above. This is the plan that seems to be the work of planning technocrats, but which differs from the traditional technocratic plan (master plans, structure plans, etc). It is essentially representing or presenting all the ideas, interests, concepts, processes of not only spatial planning technocrats, but those of what is described here as urban planners, including urban economists, urban geographers, sociologists, civil engineers, water engineers, architects, and of course conventional planners. In other words, an SDF may be long-range (made to match with a strategic plan) or medium-range (made to be a spatial expression of an IDP) or generally for a duration that is concurrent with another plan, that may constitute a parent plan to it. It is usually prepared on different scales in line with the spatial entity for which it is meant. Based on this, there is a hierarchy of six types of SDF for: (1) the metropolitan, (2) regional, (3) ward, (4) district, (5) precinct and (6) site levels in the RSA (City of Johannesburg, 2008).

4.5 Regulatory framework for urban planning in Nigeria

Quite a number of laws and regulations may be observed to be having some bearing with urban development planning in Nigeria. These may be listed according to Jelili (2010) and Jiriko (1999) to include but not restricted to the constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (1999,

1979), National Housing Policies (2002 and 1991), Urban and Regional Planning (URP) Law (Decree 88 of 1992). Town and Country Planning Ordinance (1946), the Environmental Impact Assessment, EIA, Decree (1992), National Policy on the Environment (1989), the Federal Environmental Protection Agency, FEPA, Decree (1988), and the Land Use Act of 1978, among others. All these, which are federal government laws and edicts, and/or policies, are in addition to various state government laws and edicts. For example, Lagos State Urban and Regional Planning Board Edict number 2 of 1998 and Oyo state Urban and Regional Planning Board Law (2001), and their respective guidelines for urban development control. Because of the scope of this presentation, this paper would deliberately single out the URP law of 1992 and highlights its section here, while, more emphasis is made in the next two sections on levels and types of plans respectively.

The 1992 URP law is aimed primarily at facilitating operation and implementation of development plans and planning schemes, as well as development control with a view to creating a better environment for living, working and recreation (Adeyeye, 2010). It is made up of six parts: (1) plan preparation and administration, (2) development control, (3) additional control in special cases, (4) acquisition of land and compensation, (5) improvement areas: rehabilitation, renewal, and upgrading, and (6) appeals (against the planning agency on development control decisions on development proposal. The law which is still the main regulatory framework for urban planning in the country distinguishes itself from other similar and related earlier urban planning laws that for the first time it states clearly:

- The types of plan to be prepared by each tier of government
- The responsibilities of each tier of government in plan preparation and administration
- Relevant bodies to be constituted for effective implementation of the plan
- The need for all categories of developers (private and public) to be subjected to development control 'screening'
- The process of approval (or otherwise) of development proposals
- The identification of areas that need improvement or upgrading
- The need for preservation of areas/buildings of historical/tourist interest.
- The right of the aggrieved prospective developer to appeal to a tribunal, etc

This represents a significant landmark in the history of urban development planning in Nigeria. The problem, however, lies in the fact that most of the provisions of the URP law, which are found to be its main areas of strengths, have been found inconsistent with the 1999 constitution of the federal republic of Nigeria. Yet it still appears to be the effective planning legislation in the country.

4.6 Levels and types of planning

In consonance with the tiers of government, levels of urban planning in the country still remain three (without prejudice to interpretation of the constitution by the Supreme Court of Nigeria in 2003, which shall be unveiled later). Apart from the functioning of the federal government like a state government in the FCT, it is also in charge of urban development planning and management in most federal estates and acquired similar properties across the federation. This is in addition to the national development planning policy formulation and other related planning activities through its relevant agencies.

At the state level, most (if not all) of the types of planning activities carried out by the federal government are also carried out at the state level, with a scope restricted to the state area of jurisdiction. It also assists the local government in charting the course of urban development planning activities taken place at local level. Urban development at local level usually takes the form of annual budgeting, preparation and implementation of plans, particularly site-and-service schemes, as well as development control in their respective areas of jurisdiction. Recent development, however, has shifted most of development control responsibility on the board of URP of the state, through local planning authorities (which are responsible to the state agency, URP board) at each of the local governments in the state. A good example of this is in Oyo state.

In Nigeria, different types of plans can be identified over time, with their associated processes of planning. These, among others, include: (1) long-term perspective plans, mostly prepared by the federal government, for example 1991 Housing Policy; vision 20-20-20, which is aimed at making Nigeria one of the top twenty economies in the world by the year 2020; (2) medium-term (five-year) National Development Plans also prepared by the federal government in the 1960s

and 1970s aimed at improving the national economy; (3) annual budget plans prepared by each of the three tiers of government; (4) national physical development plans to be prepared by the federal government; (5) regional plan, (6) sub-regional plan and (7) urban plan (the latter three to be prepared by both the federal and the state); (8) subject plan to be prepared by each and every tier of government, (9) town plan; (10) rural plan (the latter two) to be prepared by the local government); and (11) other planning schemes that may emanate from any of the above or similar ones.

It is important to observe that why plan types 1-3 above were initiatives of the respective administrations over time, with the planning implementation processes based on the whims and caprices of the power that be, and the advice of technocrats at times, (which, though, may not be used), plan types 5 and 6 are mere regulatory provisions, which have not visibly materialized in any part of the country, except in the South-south in the name of Niger-Delta Master plan and FCT regional/master plan. Category 4 on the other hand, is completely non-existent since 1992 that it has been recommended by the law.

Plan type 8, which refers to all forms of action plans on a particular subject that needs attention (like housing scheme, industrial estate, etc), is observed to have been prepared in different names by different administrations of the three tiers of government, but with little or no involvement of the affected stakeholders in most cases.

Plan types 7 and 9 are conceived to be master plans for cities and towns, but rarely put in place for most Nigerian cities and towns; and where they exist the planning process is rarely made to have the inputs of the relevant stakeholders, particularly the civil society. Plan type 10 is not reported to have been meaningfully prepared in any part of the country.

4.7 Regulatory framework for urban planning in Kenya

Kenya witnessed the second constitution in 2010, replacing the old outdated 1963 constitution, which has been reviewed severally and lost its value long before the new one. In the new constitution, it is recommended that national legislation shall provide for the governance and management of urban areas and cities and shall establish criteria for classifying areas as urban

areas and cities, and establish the principles of governance and management of urban areas and cities. One of such legislation is the Local Government Act (Cap 265) Laws of Kenya in which four types of local authorities are recognized under the act: (1) the municipal councils, (2) town councils, (3) county councils, and (4) urban councils (Lumumba, 2004). In this Act, although wards elect their own representatives to sit in council, make policy decisions and review their implementations, they are under the mercy and microscope of the central government (Nabutola, 2011).

However, the Local Government Act (Section 166), every municipal council, town council, or urban council may prohibit and control development and use of land and buildings in the interest of the proper and orderly development of its area. Each may:

- Lay out building plots or otherwise subdivide any of its land for the purpose of housing schemes for the inhabitants of its area;
- Erect and maintain dwelling houses with their apartment outbuildings on such plots or subdivisions of land;
- Convert buildings into dwelling houses;
- Let any dwelling house erected or provided by it;
- Sell, let or otherwise dispose of any such dwelling house or any of its land to any person for the purpose and under the condition that that person will erect and maintain thereon such number of houses as may be determined by that local authority.

Of particular importance to urban planning is the Physical Planning Act of 1996 (Cap 286), which provides a structure for physical and urban planning and roles of relevant offices and officers. The Act essentially makes provision for: (1) the appointment of a career officer as Director of physical planning by Public Service Commission, (2) the National Physical Planning Liaison Committee, (3) the Nairobi Physical Planning Liaison Committee, (4) District Physical Planning Liaison Committee, and (5) Municipal Physical Planning Liaison Committee, to be charged with the physical planning responsibility in their respective areas of jurisdiction.

Other laws affecting urban planning in the country include the Government Lands Act, Cap 280; the Land Acquisition Act, Cap 295; the Registration of Titles Act, Cap 281; the Land Titles Act, Cap 282; the Rent Restriction Act, Cap 296; the Environmental Management and Coordination Act, 1999; and the Housing Act, Cap 117, among others.

4.8 Types of Plan in Kenya

The types of plans experienced in Kenya are similar, in some respect to those in Nigeria, and in some other respect to those in RSA. The country has experienced a series of short-term development plans just after independence in 1963. Its first, second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh development plans covered periods of 1964-70, 1970-74, 1974-78, 1979-83, 1984-88, 1989-93, and 1994-96 respectively. These were sectoral plans similar to the four development plans of Nigeria in the 1960s and '70s.

Also notable in Kenya's history of plan-making is the Economic Recovery Strategy for Wealth and Employment Creation (ERSWEC, 2003-2007), which was a promising and relatively well implemented plan for Kenyans. The implementation of the medium term plan led to the GDP growth from 0.6 to 6.1 percent in 2006, growth of per capita income from 0.5 percent in 2003 to 5 percent in 2007, and poverty decline from 56.8 percent in 2003 to 46 percent in 2006. Also of importance is the Vision 2030, which is a long term development plan launched in 2008 with the main objective of transforming Kenya into a "newly industrializing globally competitive, middle-income country providing a high quality life to all its citizens by the year 2030", and three pillars – economic, Social and political. This vision is intended to be implemented through a series of 5-year development plans, the first of which (First Medium Term Plan, 2008-2012) has just elapsed, while the second one (Second Medium Term Plan, 2013-2017), is to take effect from June 2013. The medium term plans are however designed to be implemented through the yearly financial plans or budgets. This approach to development planning is, in a way, similar to that of RSA's in its long-term strategic plans for cities, which implementation is tied to that of the medium term IDP.

Of physical planning interest are the physical development plans as prescribed by the Physical Planning Act of 1996. These include regional physical development plans, local physical

development plan, which may be long term or short-time plans for regional areas (cutting across local authorities' boundaries), and for localities within local authorities' boundaries.

Also of interest is the Strategic Plan (2008-2012) and National Disaster Response Plan (2009), with the latter rooted in the former, and both aimed at addressing the disaster and emergency related cases.

It should be noted that while the country has accumulated quite a number of plans, with exception of the ERSWEC (2003-2007), most of the plans could not yield reasonable results as expected, because of what is observed here as lack of proper horizontal linkage.

Discussions

An overview of the situations in the three countries suggests that certain issues affecting the three separately and when compared are of lessons to the countries and others in the continent. These are discussed here with reference to: (1) adequacy and regularity of the institutional framework, (2) consistency of the regulatory framework, (3) types of plans and the appropriateness of their processes, and (4) realism and identity.

With respect to adequacy and regularity of the institutional framework, it is observed that while the structure of national, provincial and municipal governments with the respective urban planning function increasing with the decreasing level of governance and establishment of metropolitan councils for the big cities in South Africa and Kenya is okay, it is frowned at however that the idea of overlapping function between certain municipalities (local and district councils as observed in RSA) would grossly affect effective execution of urban governance and development planning in the affected localities. In Nigeria the situation, in this regard is equally (if not more) deficient. As observed by Jelili, (2010), the idea of having cities with a number of local councils without a municipal government having the whole city as its area of jurisdiction would make it difficult, if not impossible, to have an effective control and management of the city as an urban economy. This is because different local councils (except being controlled by legislation from a higher tier of government) tend to have different thinking, orientation and approaches to development, which is not likely to be in the interest of the city as a whole. More so, the idea of having local government areas, which are partly rural and partly urban, should not be encouraged, as the rural component tends to suffer neglect. This has been proven by

experience. Besides, the present system of government in Nigeria does not encourage a coordinating metropolitan government that oversees the affairs of the city as a whole economy, except in rare cases like Lagos. The truth is that the city should be managed as a whole urban economy (with recourse to its regional setting) with reference to its interdependent spatial parts and sectoral components.

Reference to the regulatory framework of urban governance and development planning in Kenya and Nigeria reveals that the two countries have quite a number of laws, edicts, and bye-laws, some of which are conceived well. However, the problem of disharmony between or among laws is a very important issue affecting urban development in the country. A good example is the problem of the inconsistency of many provisions of the 1992 planning law with the 1999 constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. This, which was established by the Supreme Court of Nigeria in 2003, has a serious implication for urban development planning in the country. While the call here is on the various stakeholders in the country to form pressure groups and press for how the contemplated/on-going constitutional review in the country would be made to accommodate the law, which has been adjudged good for effective planning administration and development control in the country. Other African countries can learn from the comprehensiveness of this law, but should try as much as possible not only to make their law consistent with other enabling laws, but also attach more importance to the implementation process.

It should be mentioned, however, that while it is interesting to observe in the Nigerian planning law, quite a number of plans that seem to be capable of addressing urban and regional problems at local, state, regional, sub-regional and national levels, the issue of comprehensiveness, multi-facetedness, all-inclusiveness, multi-sectoral approaches to urban planning (made manifest in the IDP) is a great plus for urban development planning in South Africa. This multi-sectoral/multi-dimensional urban planning is also lacking in Kenya. While the concern here is not to uphold the approach in one of the three countries against the other, it is observed, however that if each of the types of plans recognized in Nigerian planning law and Kenyan physical planning act could also be made an integrated one to cover all the facets or spheres of urban development, it is going to be okay. On the other hand, if IDP can be made for different spatial dimensions or scales,

particularly for inter-provincial spatial entity (in form of regional plan) it is going to be very effective. A note of warning here, however, is that the process of planning at each stage of whatever plan is arrived at, should be well spelt out and involve all affected stakeholders, right from the time the idea is being conceived to the review stage.

An important aspect of this evaluation is realism and identity. Even when it appears that an existing concept is being represented in different language, urban planning in South Africa seems to have assumed an identity, a brand, in the conceptualization of IDP and SDF, which are important instruments in the contemporary urban development planning in South Africa. With a regulatory backing, the rebranding and identity attracts much importance as people tend to see the planning tools as 'ours' as against 'theirs', especially with the implied processes of preparing them. The realism aspect, which is also in favour of South Africa is the fact that the brand of planning tool in South Africa is not only being implemented by municipal councils, but has also gained recognition and prominence among planning tools used by the Republic's sphere of the academia, who have incorporated it into the curricular of disciplines such as Urban and Regional Planning and Economics, among others, in the country. This exemplifies, in a way, or to some extent, the Afro-urban planning being orchestrated here.

Conclusion

The existing issue of increasing urbanization levels of African countries at least in the foreseeable future is not contested in this paper. The presentation, however, believes that a guided urbanization process through effective urban development planning in African countries may lead to the maximization of urbanization benefits and minimization of its demerits. It is the opinion here that, as African countries are looking forward to seeing how they would be part of role players and benefit from the global economy, they should also look inwardly and borrow from one another on the best way to manage urbanization of African countries. This can be attained not only by ensuring effective conception and implementation of all-inclusive urban development plans, in which every stakeholder is involved in decision-making process. They should also ensure adequate and consistent institutional, administrative and regulatory frameworks are put in place.

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