

CHAPTER 4

THE CONTEXTUAL REALITIES THAT INFORMED, SHAPED AND FRAMED THE TRANSFORMATION OF URBAN PLANNING IN THE MUNICIPALITIES OF THE GREATER PRETORIA/TSHWANE REGION DURING THE PERIOD 1992 TO 2002

4.1 SETTING THE SCENE

Although the transformation of urban planning in the City of Pretoria/Tshwane during the period 1992 to 2002 was influenced by the departmental and organisational transformation of the planning department on the one hand and the City Council in its entirety on the other (as will be discussed in Chapter 5), it was largely informed, shaped and framed by a number of external influences or 'contextual realities'.

The most important and direct influence was the transformation of the urban planning and local authority systems in South Africa in the 1990s, specifically within the context of the socio-political changes in the country and the resultant new institutional, legislative and policy frameworks. Just as the socio-political changes in South Africa were inspired by the problems of the flawed apartheid system, so the need for a new urban planning system was bolstered by the critique of the so-called modernist/apartheid planning system. Apart from these national/local influences, the new urban planning system in South Africa (and the City of Pretoria/Tshwane) was also indirectly influenced and shaped by a number of international trends, specifically with regard to urban planning and urban management (Harrison 2002).

In order to provide a perspective on these inter-related influences, and a contextual framework within which the Pretoria/Tshwane story is narrated, a distinction was made between the following contextual components:

- The patriarchal planning system in South Africa¹. This section deals briefly with the overall critique of the old rigid, autocratic and scientific planning system (within the context of apartheid); the impact that this system had on the development of apartheid; and how it spurred a quest for a new planning system in South Africa.

¹ "Patriarchal" in this context refers to the "old" outdated modernist planning system; the autocratic, superior, ruler (control) nature of the planning system; and the fatherly, male dominance (patriarch) system which characterised the old planning system in South Africa.

- The democratisation of urban planning in South Africa. This section deals with the emergence and development of community participation (within the context of the unfolding democracy in South Africa), and the impact that this notion had on the development of the urban planning and local government system in South Africa.
- The unfolding social awareness in urban planning. This section provides a perspective on the extended focus on social issues such as community needs and priorities, poverty, equity, etc, as well as the impact that this new social focus had on developing a new social consciousness amongst South African planners (and urban managers).
- The consolidation of (urban) strategic planning. This section provides an overview on the emergence of urban strategic planning and the impact it had on the development of the new urban planning and local government system in South Africa.
- The 'sustainable' environmental agenda. This section provides an overview of the emerging environmental awareness in South Africa during the late 1980s; the unfolding notion of sustainability or sustainable development; and the relevance of this for the transforming urban planning system.
- The new relationship between urban planning and (municipal) urban management. During the 1990s, this new (integrated) relationship largely shaped the new urban planning system, as well as the new developmental local government system in South Africa.

4.2 THE PATRIARCHAL PLANNING SYSTEM IN SOUTH AFRICA

Prior to the 1990s, planning in South Africa was largely dominated by the typical modernist urban planning system² – a system that, in view of its rigid, non-integrated and non-democratic nature, did not support the developmental and democratic goals of the new South Africa³.

As has been noted by many observers, the remnants of the apartheid planning system are still visible in many South African cities. From 1940 onwards, the South African planning system developed in tandem with the apartheid ideology in South Africa. As a result of this, the development of this planning system was largely influenced and somewhat reshaped by the strong

² The so-called modernist planning is commonly associated with a style of urban planning that dominated the period between the late 1800s to approximately the 1960s in most parts of the western world (see Chapter 2).

³ See also ANC (1992); FEPD (1994); Harrison (2002); and Oranje *et al* (2000).

emerging apartheid and non-democratic ideologies that were largely associated with racism, discrimination, inequity, and the spatial segregation of different cultures and economic classes (developing and living separately or *apart*).

For many years, as South African planners fought for recognition of their profession, they had to rely on the support of the national government to draft and pass legislation on the planning profession⁴. The majority of South African planners were employed by the national, provincial or local governments. As a result of this, it was difficult for planners and the planning profession not to support the government's policies, or to create the impression that they did not support the government's policies. Planners who worked for the national government had to 'respect' and implement apartheid planning policies, and in some cases even had to draft these policies and such legislation. Many planning consultants also had to make a living and therefore would not reject a planning assignment (such as a new structure plan) from the government or a local authority, even if it promoted apartheid or spatial fragmentation⁵. Notwithstanding the above, many planners who practiced during the apartheid years largely supported (and willingly implemented) the government's apartheid policies⁶. Some planning schools and planners⁷, however, consistently resisted the apartheid movement and any form of planning that promoted discrimination and spatial segregation.

Although the national government's apartheid, non-democratic and top-down policies played a role in shaping the apartheid city and the apartheid urban planning system, this system was primarily shaped by the so-called modernist planning system - hence the need to provide an overview of this system, its influence, characteristics and shortcomings. This modernist planning system, which dominated the South Africa planning scene during the apartheid years (1940 to 1994), is largely associated with the concepts of land use control and zoning and structure planning that developed during the early 1900s in the USA, UK and Western Europe⁸.

⁴ For more information on the development of the planning system and the planning profession within the context of the apartheid system, see Oranje (1997).

⁵ This statement is largely supported by the many apartheid-related planning assignments and projects that were done by consulting planning firms throughout South Africa.

⁶ During the early apartheid years the majority of the white, Afrikaans-speaking planners (who incidentally formed the majority of planners in the country) were supportive of the former government's apartheid policy as is evident by the overwhelming majority support that this government had amongst the white Afrikaans-speaking people.

⁷ Planning schools from the University of the Witwatersrand and the University of Cape Town during the 1960s and 1970s actively protested against apartheid. Academics such as John Muller and Dave Dewar often criticised apartheid planning and emphasised the need for a new planning system for South Africa. See also Oranje (1997) and Harrison (2001).

⁸ See also Thomas *et al* (1983: 28); and Slater (1984: 14) on the origin of land use management and zoning. During the early 1990s, various pieces of legislation and ordinances were introduced such as the Housing Act of 1901 (Netherlands); the Housing and Town Planning Act of 1909 and the Housing and Town Planning Act of 1909 (England), which amongst others provided the option for towns to establish town planning schemes; and the 1916 Building Heights Ordinance in the USA.

The land use management system, with its supporting town planning schemes, aimed to regulate development in an attempt to ensure harmonious development. However, it often resulted in limited ad-hoc planning, the demarcation of different land uses and spatial fragmentation, specifically in urban areas where there was a weak overarching spatial planning system (Awerbuch and Wallace 1976: 27, 31-32). This rigid land use management/control system ultimately became an ideal tool to enforce and promote separate and fragmented development in urban areas - in line with the South African government's apartheid policies⁹.

During the mid-1990s, this land use management system was supplemented by the so-called structure plan system - a system that was primarily informed by comprehensive planning¹⁰ and the development plan concept that unfolded during the 1930s/1940s in the UK and USA¹¹.

In South Africa, as in other English-speaking countries¹², this broader perspective on planning shifted the emphasis from overly land use management and zoning (policing/control system), to a broader form of urban planning with an extended focus on the overall and future (forward) planning of a particular urban area or region. In South Africa, this structure plan, however, proved to be incapable of addressing the broader aspects of urban development and, more specifically, the growing needs in terms of social and economic development.

As was the case with town planning schemes, the structure plan, with its strong focus on spatial development, land uses and the demarcation of different types of land uses, presented another 'ideal mechanism' for the apartheid rulers to create separate, non-integrated spatial development, in both rural and urban areas. The structure planning approach in South Africa was widely criticised by planners in the country for being too complex, for its lack of focus on implementation, its rigid and autocratic nature and its physical, master plan and blueprint nature. This critique is reminiscent of the international critique that was expressed on comprehensive planning from the

⁹ See also Oranje (1997) on the impact of the town planning schemes.

¹⁰ Comprehensive planning, in this context, refers to a type of planning that emerged in the early 1900s and must not be confused with the so-called comprehensive view or holistic approach to planning as promoted by contemporary urban planning.

¹¹ For more information on the development of these concepts, see Thomas *et al* (1983: 100); Harrison (2001: 179 - 180); Alexander (1979:120-121); Schultz and Kasen (1984: 297); Linchfield (1990:190); Bruton and Nicholson (1987:17); Awerbuch and Wallace (1976:27 - 33); Slater (1984:14 - 15); Weisbord (1992: 8 - 9); Healey 1995: 253 and 1996 a: 263; Burgess *et al* 1997: 111; and Beauregard (1996: 215). See also the Town and Country Planning Act (1968) and the Town and Country Planning Act (1971) (England), on the principles of comprehensive planning, structure plans and development plans.

¹² See also Slater (1984: 57); So (1979: 513); Healey (1995: 253 and 1996 a: 263); Vigar *et al* (2000: 7 and 15 - 21); and Burgess *et al* (1997: 111) for a discussion on these trends.

1970s onwards¹³. However, in South Africa the already flawed planning system that developed during the apartheid years and within an undemocratic government system seemed to have favoured these “undemocratic” planning principles.

This South African planning system was further reinforced by the (scientific) rational planning notion that emerged in the UK and the USA during the mid-1990s (see Chapter 2). The overly scientific focus as discussed in this chapter also contributed to the neglect of social planning and development in South Africa and largely hampered integrated planning – an aspect that was widely debated in South Africa during the 1990s.

In South Africa this patriarchal planning system, with its strong master plan, physical and control-oriented nature, ultimately created a fragmented spatial pattern that was characterised by racial, socio-economic and land use segregation, unsustainable human settlements far from the workplace, and poor quality places and environments¹⁴.

During the late 1980s, progressive planners and NGOs¹⁵ in South Africa increasingly experienced the flaws and limitations of this planning system, specifically within the context of the apartheid system. This realisation resulted in a reaction to and protest against government policies - very similar to the reaction of the advocacy planners and proponents of the Civil Rights during the 1960s and early 1970s (see Chapter 2 on advocacy planning). This reaction largely inspired and triggered the transformation of urban planning in South Africa.

4.3 COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

The concept of community participation¹⁶ was largely neglected and in most cases absent during the days of the non-democratic South Africa (prior to 1994) - despite the perception that existed amongst some planners and politicians that political/public representation and the public notification of planning and development proposals represented proper participation. Although South Africa's isolation from the rest of the world made it difficult for planners to acquaint

¹³ For more information on the critique of comprehensive planning and development planning, see McClendon and Quay (1972: 52-7); and So (1979: 14 -15 and 513); Campbell and Fainstein (1996: 9); Lindblom (1996); Carmona and Burgess (unpublished); Burgess *et al* (1997: 111); Vigar *et al* (2000: 20 - 21); and Healey (1996 (a): 263).

¹⁴ For more information on the impact of the old planning system, see Oranje *et al* (2000); Mabin and Smit (1997); Republic of South Africa (1998 b); Younge (1998); Republic of South Africa (1999 b); and Republic of South Africa (2001 b 66 -67).

¹⁵ These NGOs included amongst others Planact, the Development Action Group, and the Built Environment Support Group. See Harrison (2001: 183).

¹⁶ Community participation in this context implies the involvement of communities, citizens and all stakeholders in all the phases of the urban planning and development process. See also GPMC (1997:42 and 46); Scheepers (2000: 178); Turner (1997:167); and McClendon and Quay (1972: 118) for a description of these 'communities'.

themselves with emerging international trends related to community participation, many planners were greatly ignorant and consciously apathetic towards these trends. Others were just silently unaware of them.

The majority of South African planners, in view of their rigid mind-sets, had difficulty accepting the emerging trends on community participation. It was almost impossible for planners to promote community participation or democratic planning, or to inspire communities to participate in urban planning processes such as the development of a new township, as this did not form part of the government's planning model, or the modernist planning approach as discussed earlier on.

Although the concept of community participation had already reached its heights in the UK, USA and Western Europe during the 1960s (see Chapter 2), it only emerged in South Africa in the late 1980s when civic movements and progressive NGOs began to challenge local government as they raised concerns around issues of housing, services and the spatial and institutional fragmentation of the city (Harrison 2001:183 and 2002; Gelderblom and Kok 1994: 37); and Brynard 1996:39).

As a result of the growing environmental awareness at the time, environmental planners, activists and pressure groups also raised concerns about environmental issues, the neglect of the urban environment and, more specifically, the impact this had on the community¹⁷. This lack of proper spatial planning and environmental management highlighted the need for communities to participate in planning and development processes - almost similar to the impact of the federal urban renewal efforts¹⁸ in the USA during the 1950s and 1960s.

As the international trends on community participation permeated the South African planning scene during the early 1990s, the African National Congress (ANC), through its public statements and policies, continually promoted the principles of community participation within the broader context of urban planning¹⁹. It was, however, only after the first democratic elections in 1994 that all communities and citizens were afforded, for the first time, the opportunity to meaningfully participate in democratic local government (and urban planning). Following the transformation, a

¹⁷ The principles of community participation (specifically within the context of Integrated Environmental Management) were included in the Environmental Conservation Act (1998) and the Integrated Environmental Management (IEM) approaches, which were promoted by the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (1998) (Republic of South Africa 1989; and Department of Environment Affairs and Tourism 1989).

¹⁸ The federal urban renewal efforts resulted in, amongst others, the replacement/renewal of older residential areas with new commercial development and super highways. In this process large numbers of low-income residents, including a disproportionate number of African Americans, were displaced from their homes without any offer of equivalent alternative housing (the so-called 'black removal'). Americans became increasingly troubled about the mistreatment of the country's African Americans. See also Thomas (1995); and Burke (1983: 106 - 109) on how the above had spurred community participation in the planning process.

¹⁹ See *ANC Policy Guidelines for a Democratic South Africa 1992*, and *Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) 1994* (African National Congress (ANC) 1992 and 1994).

number of new planning Acts entrenched the principles of community participation, the most important being the Development Facilitation Act (1995) and the Municipal Systems Act (2000)²⁰. This new democracy not only transformed the nature of urban planning and urban management in South Africa. It also formally established community participation as an integral and inseparable part of the local authority/urban planning system and laid the basis of the comprehensive IDP system.

Unlike other democratic countries where the notion of community participation was, in most cases, phased in over a period of time (approximately from 1950 to 1970), it developed very rapidly in South Africa within a relatively new democracy during the 1990s. This rapid introduction of community participation, with its extended focus and cross-sectoral and socio-political nature, had a profound impact on urban planning and local government in South Africa and power relations in local authorities, see Chapters 5 and 7. Local authority planners and managers had to expand their functions (and horizons) to focus on a wider array of aspects related to urban planning and management such as local economic development and social development²¹. The new participatory approach also required of planners to engage with communities at all levels and to enter the political arena²². These new roles demanded of planners to acquire a number of new skills to facilitate community participation and political processes²³.

It was not easy for South African local government councillors, managers, officials and planners, who were mainly accustomed to the non-democratic, rigid and top-down way of planning and management, to adapt to the new participatory and democratic way of urban planning. In practice, public officials increasingly saw community participation as an unnecessary intrusion in the planning and decision-making process and in many cases felt threatened by or insecure about community participation²⁴. Some 'old style' planners deliberately undermined the new principles and policies²⁵.

Although community participation was rejected or criticised by many planners, it created many new challenges and opportunities for planners to expand their horizons and to plan for the community. It

²⁰ See Republic of South Africa (1995; and 2000).

²¹ For similar viewpoints on the international arena, see Wissink (1996:151); Thomas (1995:1- 2, 14, 34,178 -180); Koster (1996:100); and Slater (1994).

²² See also McClendon and Quay (1994: 40); Davidoff (1965 and 1996: 305); Sandercock (1998:175); and Flyvbjerg (1996:383 - 384) on the new social and political roles of planners.

²³ For a discussion on the new skills required for planners, see Rondinelli (1983: 375); Slater (1984: 14-15); McClendon and Quay (1972: 42, 82 -86); Gelderblom and Kok (1994: 44); Minnerly (1985: 181); Davidoff (1965 and 1996:318 - 319); and Friedman (1998: 30).

²⁴ See similar viewpoints by Thomas (1995:5); Susskind and Elliot (1986:156); McClendon and Quay (1972:118); Bekker *et al* (1996: 85); and McAuslan (1992: 97).

²⁵ See also Green Paper on Development Planning (1999:12).

also enhanced the role of councillors by giving them better opportunities to interact with the public they represented²⁶. As in many other democratic countries, community participation spurred a new social awareness amongst urban planners and managers in South Africa as it made them more aware of community needs and priorities.

4.4 THE UNFOLDING SOCIAL AWARENESS IN URBAN PLANNING

Closely related to the concept of community participation is the new social awareness that developed in the USA, UK and parts of Europe during the 1960s and 1970s (see Chapter 2). This new social awareness, not only inspired a new social awareness amongst planners in South Africa, but also highlighted the problems of the rigid, autocratic, and scientific, apartheid (patriarchal) urban planning system and the discriminatory practices of the former government. This critique of the former urban planning and government system and the increasing concern with human and social issues resulted in a major reaction amongst (South African) progressive planners²⁷, civic movements, and NGOs such as Planact²⁸. In an effort to address social issues and social development amongst the poor, South African “advocacy planners” embarked on efforts to assist communities and poverty groups with planning efforts outside the government arena²⁹ - very similar to the advocacy planning movement in the USA during the 1960s (see Chapter 2).

The social movement in South Africa, however, gained further momentum during the government transformation process (early to mid-1990s) as the new government policies and Acts began to emphasise the need for government (and planning) to focus on social issues, social restructuring and social development³⁰. As was the case with community participation, the new democratic government, with its strong interest in ‘the majority of the people’ of the country, was highly receptive to the international social trends that had been almost inaccessible for many years (as a result of the country’s isolation from the rest of the world during the apartheid era). Some of these social trends, such as Marxist planning, were considered necessary to restructure the socially fragmented society, specifically in urban areas. As the transformation processes unfolded during the mid- to late 1990s, South African planners and planning agencies increasingly focused on social issues such as poverty, basic needs, integration, equity, local economic development and

²⁶ For more information on these new opportunities for local authority councillors, see Blakely (1994: 72); and Selman (1996:157).

²⁷ During the late 1980s planners such as Dan Smit, Michael Sutcliff, John Muller and Dave Dewar increasingly highlighted the problems of the ‘physical’ planning system as they promoted a new social consciousness amongst planners.

²⁸ See Harrison (2001:183; and 2002).

²⁹ See Mabin and Smit (1997); and Harrison (2001 and 2002).

³⁰ During the transformation period, many of the social principles were embedded in policy statements such as the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP 1994) and a number of new Acts such as the Development Facilitation Act (DFA 1995) and the Constitution. See also ANC (1994) and Republic of South Africa (1995 and 1996).

community development. This emerging social awareness played a major role in shaping the new urban planning system in South Africa. Ultimately (during the 1990s) it shifted the emphasis from the patriarchal urban planning system (which was so widely criticised by 'social planners' in South Africa) to a more social and people-oriented planning system.

The new social awareness not only had a major impact on the South African urban planning system, but also radically transformed the local government system in South Africa. Amongst others, it played a role in structuring the unicity³¹ model in South Africa - a model that was specifically developed to create a more balanced and equitable spread of the overall tax base of metropolitan areas³². This unicity concept, with its consolidated tax base, for the first time really set the stage for integrated development and the equitable provision of services, specifically in the poorer areas.

The emerging focus on social issues (and people in general) had led to a new social responsibility in South African local authorities, specifically within the context of urban planning. By the turn of the century this social responsibility was firmly established by the Municipal Systems Act (MSA 2000), which amongst other things, outlined the local authority's role and responsibility with regard to social and economic upliftment of local communities; the provision of essential services; the empowerment of the poor; and addressing the basic needs of communities³³.

4.5 THE CONSOLIDATION OF (URBAN) STRATEGIC PLANNING

The concept of urban strategic planning, which was incidentally largely informed by corporate strategic planning,³⁴ played a major role in shaping and transforming the contemporary urban planning system - not only in other countries but also in South Africa. Today, the principles of (urban) strategic planning³⁵ have become an integral part of the South African urban planning and management system, as is evident by the integrated and developmental focus of the South African

³¹ In this context reference is made to the concept of the unicity, which implies a focus on the unity of different local authorities, the unity of communities and the integration of services and resources *vis a vis* the mega-city concept, which implies a focus on one big/mega local authority.

³² See The White Paper on Local Government (1998) and The Local Government Municipal Structures Act, Act 117 of 1998 (Republic of South Africa 1998 (a and b)).

³³ See Republic of South Africa (2000).

³⁴ The corporate strategic planning process is synonymous with a number of interrelated, interacting steps in a logical sequence, such as the formulation of a vision, situational analysis or environmental scan; the setting of goals and objectives, developing strategies and actions; and strategy implementation and monitoring. See Nebraska Department of Economic Development (undated); Strategic Planning Advisory Committee (1998: 1); Kaufman and Jacobs (1996:325 - 326); and Tueke (1992: 303 - 309).

³⁵ For the purpose of this study a distinction was made between the classical 'corporate strategic planning', which focuses on the future direction of an organisation; and '(urban) strategic planning', which mainly focuses on the future of a city environment and its people (hereafter referred to as 'urban strategic planning').

urban planning system, as well as the new strategic and developmental focus of the local authorities.

Although strategic planning (as an urban planning and management tool) was popular in countries such as the UK, USA, and Western Europe as early as the 1970s and 1980s, South African planners and local authorities only started applying the principles of strategic planning³⁶ during the late 1980s/early 1990s. These strategic planning principles also started shaping the new *development planning* system in South Africa that was (for the first time in 1994)³⁷ promoted by the Forum for Effective Planning and Development (FEPD)³⁸ and the former Gauteng Department of Development Planning, Environment and Works³⁹.

The concept of strategic/development planning gained further momentum after the promulgation of the Development Facilitation Act 1995 (DFA), which amongst other things, promoted the concept of Land Development Objectives (LDOs)⁴⁰. Although the DFA was not directly associated with the concept of strategic planning, South African urban planners and local authorities, possibly in view of the emerging influences on urban strategic planning at the time, interpreted the DFA and the LDOs in the wider context of strategic planning⁴¹.

It was, however, only after the promulgation of the Local Government Transition Act late in 1996 that the principles of strategic planning crystallised within the context of the Integrated Development Plan (IDP)⁴². Although the IDP concept is not commonly used outside South Africa, its strategic planning component (and structure) is very similar to the city strategic plans and processes in countries such as the USA, Canada, South America, Australia, New Zealand, UK and

³⁶ The City of Pietermaritzburg applied the principles of strategic planning as early as 1985 in the process of involving communities in the planning process (Radford 1988: 20 - 21; Harrison 2001: 183). The City of Cape Town (Peter De Tolly) started its first strategic planning process, *The strategic metropolitan planning process* in June 1989 (Watson 2001). During the late 1980s/early 1990s, various consulting town planning firms such as Plan Practice and PLAN Associates also started applying the principles of strategic planning in the drafting of metropolitan/city plans, large-scale planning projects and environmental planning processes.

³⁷ Amond Beneke, former Chief Planner of the GPMC, argued that the principles of development planning/strategic planning, specifically within the context of the LDO and the IDP, were established and promoted by the former Department of Land Affairs in 1991. This department also referred to the so-called *ontwikkelingsbeplanningsproses* (development planning process). This process, which was, according to Beneke, then steered by Wollie Wolfaardt and Dries Potgieter, was specifically developed as a planning process for local authorities in the country. Beneke also argued that this process in many ways informed the Pretoria LDO (SMDF) process in 1996/1997 (Interview: Beneke, 2002).

³⁸ See also Harrison (2002: 3); DDPE (1994); Forum for Effective Planning and Development (1995); and Oranje *et al* (2000). Harrison (2001: 183) states that Dr Crispian Olver and Dr Laurine Platzky, who both previously worked for the progressive NGOs, were extensively involved with the conception of integrated development planning at national level.

³⁹ This Department was known in 2003 as the Gauteng Department of Development Planning and Local Government. Gauteng is the province within which this case study, the City of Tshwane, is situated.

⁴⁰ See also Republic of South Africa (1995); Government Gazette 5759 (30 August 1996); and Watson (2001: 71).

⁴¹ See also Eastern Gauteng Services Council (1997); KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Government (1997); and GPMC (1997).

⁴² Although the LGTA 1996 did not fully describe the strategic planning components of the IDP, the IDP concept mainly developed around the principles of urban strategic planning as is evident by the national guidelines that were developed by the Department of Provincial and Local Government in 2000. See Republic of South Africa (1996).

Europe⁴³. The role of the IDP as a strategic urban planning and management tool was, however, finally “capped” at the turn of the century with the promulgation of the Municipal Systems Act, 2000⁴⁴. However, as the IDP concept developed and matured during the late 1990s/early 2000s, mainly through the support and influence of the German Technical Cooperation (GTZ)⁴⁵, the IDP developed into a much broader local authority/urban management tool focusing on a wide array of local authority (operational) issues, and on urban and community issues. The national government, local authorities and research and academic institutions made various efforts to refine, develop and promote the principles of strategic planning (within the context of the IDP)⁴⁶. Various IDPs or City Development Strategies, based on the principles (and process) of strategic planning, were compiled throughout the country. Although many of these IDPs were criticised for, amongst others, their lack of strategic focus⁴⁷, they largely contributed to shaping the South African urban planning system, and to a great extent the new developmental local government system.

Unlike the old rigid South African planning system with its emphasis on land use management and structure planning, strategic planning provided a broader strategic and developmental focus on the planning and management of the city as a whole. It highlighted the importance of action and implementation, and the need to focus on (selected) strategic issues. In the South African context, strategic planning specifically provided a framework that focuses on the (change) management of a complex urban environment. In view of its future-oriented nature, its overarching scope and its focus on development and performance, it became an appropriate and suitable model for the emerging new South Africa with its particular needs and challenges⁴⁸. The structured strategic planning process with its distinct phases was seen as an ideal framework within which the challenging community participation processes could be addressed (integrated), specifically within the context of the social, economic, physical and institutional environments. It also provided a

⁴³ Although urban strategic planning processes in the world differ in nature and composition, a number of common denominators or phases were identified: situational analysis or environmental scan; visioning; the formulation of goals and objectives; the determination of strategic issues; strategy formulation, and implementation and monitoring (McClendon and Quay 1972: 51-52; North Shore City Council 1996; Brisbane City Council 1996: 21; Auckland City Council 1996; Strategic Planning Advisory Committee 1998; World Bank 1999; Crouch 1999; Civic Strategies 2000).

⁴⁴ The Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (MSA), amongst others, states that each municipal council had to adopt a *single, inclusive and strategic plan for the development of the municipality*. It further stipulated that the IDP had to be the *principle strategic planning instrument* in a municipality and that it had to guide and inform all planning and development and all decisions with regard to the planning, management and development in the municipality (Republic of South Africa 2000).

⁴⁵ GTZ is a German-based organisation, which amongst others, funded a number of IDP research projects, IDP training projects and the development and refinement of the IDP in South Africa. This organisation, which worked closely with the Department of Provincial and Local Government (DPLG), the Council for Scientific Industrial Research (CSIR) and the University of Pretoria, played a major role in developing the IDP concept, IDP policies, and the so-called IDP guide packs.

⁴⁶ For more information on these efforts, see CSIR (1998 and 2002); Department of Provincial and Local Government (DPLG) (2001); Rauch (2002).

⁴⁷ For a detailed discussion of the critique of IDPs, see Harrison (2001 and 2002) and Oranje *et al* (2000).

⁴⁸ Strategic planning provided an appealing alternative to the well-established, yet highly problematic rational-comprehensive planning process. See also McClendon and Quay (1972:56-57).

structure and process that could bridge the gap between urban planning and urban/municipal management - i.e. the link between vision, goals, strategies and human and financial resources and institutional structures and processes⁴⁹.

4.6 THE “SUSTAINABLE” ENVIRONMENTAL AGENDA

Although environmental planning and management have always been part (in some or other form) of the South African urban planning system, it was only during the late 1980s that planners, activists and environmentalists re-emphasised environmental issues, mainly in reaction to the ad hoc and fragmented approach to planning and the neglect of the urban environment. This heightened concern for the environment in South Africa had led to the concept of Integrated Environmental Management (IEM), which was introduced in 1998 in an attempt to address environmental issues holistically within the context of urban planning and development. The IEM concept, which had also been endorsed by the Environment Conservation Act in 1989, has since been increasingly applied by planners, environmentalists and specialists in related fields⁵⁰. This integrated, holistic focus on the urban environment not only spurred a new environmental awareness, but also harnessed the related fields of environmental planning (and conservation) and urban planning and management⁵¹. As the principles of environmental management matured in South Africa during the early 1990s, it acquired a new look and definition, encapsulated in the form of sustainable development⁵². South Africa, like many other countries in the world, was also influenced and inspired by the famed 1992 Rio (UNCED) Earth Summit⁵³ with its focus on (urban) environmental priorities and sustainable development.

Following on the Rio Summit, a number of environmental management models, procedures, and policies were developed by, amongst others, the World Bank⁵⁴ and the International Council for

⁴⁹ For more information on the characteristics of strategic planning, see Healey (1997: 13); So in McClendon and Quay (1972: 50 - 51); Campbell and Fainstein (1996 : 9 and 263); Kaufman and Jacobs (1996: 327 - 329); Melville Branch in Awerbuch and Wallace (1976: 42-44); Blakely (1994: 78); Civic Strategies (2000); Strategic Planning Advisory Committee (1998: 4-5); Claassen and Milton (1992: 722); Thomas (1995:166); Nadin, Barton *et al* (1996:3); Daniel (1995:10); and McClendon and Quay (1972: 51).

⁵⁰ See Republic of South Africa (1989). See National Department of Environmental Affairs (Council for the Environment) (1998).

⁵¹ For more information on the development of these concepts in the UK and USA, see Schultz and Kasen (1984: 416); Friedman (1987:21); Nadin, Barton *et al* (1996:3); Healey (1996 b: 246 and 1997: 8); Claassen and Milton (1992: 716); and Burgess *et al* (1997: 70 - 73).

⁵² Although definitions in many cases differed in emphasis and content, the basic principles of sustainability relate to aspects such as the maintenance of the health of the biosphere, and maintaining and enhancing the quality of human life while respecting the carrying capacity of supporting ecosystems. See also Nadin, Barton *et al* (1996: 13); the World Commission on Environment and Development (also known as the Brundtland Commission); and the Development and Planning Commission (1999: 41).

⁵³ This summit, which was held in Rio De Janeiro in 1992, was hosted by the United Nations Conference on the Environment and Development (UNCED), and was attended by representatives of 140 countries over the world.

⁵⁴ A direct follow-up to the Rio Summit, was a Strategy Framework Paper "*Toward Environmental Strategies for Cities*". See World Bank (1993).

Local Environmental Initiatives (ICLEI)⁵⁵. As a result of the summit and the World Bank's request that all cities develop a Local Agenda 21⁵⁶, the primary local authorities in South Africa (the former Pretoria, Cape Town, Johannesburg and Durban local authorities) embarked on initiatives to develop local agendas or environmental plans for their cities. The Rio Summit not only heightened the concern for the urban environment, but also over time shifted the emphasis from planning policy, market facilitation and environmental protection, to a broader notion of sustainable development (Nadin, Barton *et al* 1996:8).

This emerging notion of sustainable development, with its strong focus on democratic planning processes and environmental management, and with its strong international status and support, seemed like an appropriate (and almost fashionable) concept to introduce into the new planning legislation and policies that were being developed in South Africa during the early to mid-1990s. This concept of sustainable development became an important topic on the agenda of the African National Congress during 1992⁵⁷. In 1994 it took on a concrete form in the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP)⁵⁸ and was promoted by planning Acts and policies that were published in the late 1990s and in early 2000⁵⁹.

As the integrated and holistic focus on urban planning developed in South Africa during the 1990s, planners and environmentalists increasingly realised the important link between planning and environmental management, as is evident in the new generation urban planning efforts in the country: the Land Development Objective Processes (LDOs) (1996/1997); and the more recent Integrated Development Planning (IDP) processes (from 1997 onwards)⁶⁰.

In spite of efforts made to promote the principles of sustainable development and to integrate them into the broader urban planning and urban management system, the sustainable development initiatives focused primarily on the "green" natural environment, neglecting the focus on the built

⁵⁵ Of particular importance to urban planning is the Sustainable Development Planning (SDP) process that was developed by ICLEI from 1994 to 1996. Sustainable Development Planning (SDP) "combines the principles and methods of corporate, environmental and community-based planning to create a public sector, strategic planning approach that reflects the imperatives of sustainable development" (ICLEI (1996: 6). For more information on these models, see World Bank (1993); ICLEI (1994; 1996); and Quinlan and McCarthy (1994:73).

⁵⁶ One of the most important documents adopted at the Rio Conference was the Agenda 21 document (Agenda for the 21st century), which provided a blueprint on how to make development socially, economically and environmentally sustainable.

⁵⁷ See "ANC Policy Guidelines for a Democratic South Africa" (ANC 1992).

⁵⁸ See ANC (1994); DDPE (1994); FEPA (1995); and Oranje *et al* (2000).

⁵⁹ See also DFA (1996), the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996); the White Paper on Local Government (1998); National Environmental Management Act (1998) (NEMA); Green Paper on Development and Planning (1999); the White Paper on Spatial Planning and Land Use Management (2001); and the Draft Land Use Management Bill (2001).

⁶⁰ See also UGU District Municipality (2002); DEAT and CSIR (2002); Kotzee *et al* (1998: 2-8); and Roberts (1996: 272).

environment⁶¹ - a trend that was typical in countries such as the USA, the UK and Western Europe⁶². In South Africa this restricted focus on sustainable development, and an overly green/environmental focus, opened up another debate on the relationship between sustainable development (planning), urban planning and urban management⁶³.

4.7 URBAN PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT

As discussed in the foregoing sections, community participation, social consciousness, strategic planning and sustainable development, all in their own right, promoted and required a closer (more integrated) relationship between urban planning and municipal (urban) management. It was, however, the composite effect of these planning trends (the integrated, people-oriented, developmental planning system) that eventually highlighted the need for an integrated urban planning and management system.

Apart from the above, the merger of urban planning and management during the past decade in South Africa was also influenced by the new entrepreneurial, democratic, developmental and strategic focus of local authorities⁶⁴ and the neo-liberal notion of New Public Management (NPM)⁶⁵.

Urban planners and managers in South Africa increasingly realised that they had to introduce new forms of urban management if they had any hope of addressing the enormous challenges of spatial and social reconstruction in urban areas; the enhancement of service delivery; spatial integration; and the development of previously disadvantaged areas in South Africa⁶⁶. From 1992 onwards, South African local authorities were severely challenged to develop a new developmental role in achieving local socio-economic objectives, sustainable development, representative local

⁶¹ For more information on this phenomenon, see UN, Department for Policy Co-ordination and Sustainable Development (1997); Gilbert et al (1996); Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (1997 and 1998); Kellenberg, Seragelding and Steer (1994); ICLEI (1996 and 1997); and World Bank (1994).

⁶² See Gardiner (2002); Environmental Affairs and Tourism (2001); Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism and CSIR (2001); Roberts 1996: (273-274); Harrison et al (1998: 8); and Rauch (2002:1). For more information on the integration of these concepts, see World Bank (1994: 16); Healey (1994: 7); Selman (1996:126); Redcliff (1987:145); Nadin, Barton et al (1996:4); Claassen and Milton (1992:715); and Gilbert et al (1996: 29).

⁶³ For more information on the impact of the new planning system on the urban planning and management system in the UK and USA, see Claassen and Milton (1992:715 - 717); Selman (1996: 109,126); Friedman (1987:21- 25); Witzling (1979:184); Nadin, Barton et al (1996:4); Friedman (1987: 21); Rondinelli (1983: 376 -383); and Slater (1984: 51).

⁶⁴ For more information on the entrepreneurial, democratic, developmental and strategic role of local authorities, see Scheepers (2000); Hill in Geldenhuys (1996); Heymans and Töttemeyer in Hilliard (1996); Koster (1996); Selman (1996); Green Paper on Development Planning (1999); CSIR (1998); World Bank (1999); Slater (1984: 24 -25, 37 and 64); Rondinelli (1983: 376 -383) and Pieterse (2002).

⁶⁵ The notion of New Public Management (NPM) developed during the 1980s in the UK, mainly as a result of the neoliberal reform agenda that was introduced by Margaret Thatcher. NPM is associated with an emphasis on private sector management; performance management; service delivery partnerships; and goal-directed budgeting. For more information on NPM and its influence on South Africa, see Harrison (2002: 178).

⁶⁶ See also ANC (1992 and 1994); FEPA (1994); Green Paper on Planning and Development (1999); CSIR (1998: B7); Development and Planning Commission (1998: 5); Oranje *et al* (2000); Beall, Crankshaw and Parnell (2002:85-86); and Parnell and Pieterse 2002).

democracy and equitable urban management. In short, they had to restructure and reshape their organisations in order to align their actions with the new planning environment⁶⁷. National and provincial governments made various efforts to promote a closer relationship between urban planning and urban management and a strategic (planning) and developmental role for local government, as is evident by various planning Acts that were published, such as the DFA 1995, the Constitution, the Local Government Transition Act, 1996 (LGTA 1996), the White Paper on Local Government 1998 and the Municipal Systems Act 2000.

Of particular importance in South Africa is the Integrated Development Plan (the IDP), which emphasised the need for local authorities to prepare a financial plan in accordance with the integrated development plan, and to structure and manage its administration and budgeting and planning processes to give priority to the basic needs of its community⁶⁸. Under the new Constitution, local government had to develop a new expanded planning and developmental role within the context of the IDP, which implies, amongst other things, a shift in emphasis from the traditional view of municipal service delivery⁶⁹.

This growing relationship between urban planning and management in South Africa gained a new momentum with the introduction of the concept of *developmental local government*, which began to unfold after the promulgation of the White Paper on Local Government (1998)⁷⁰. This White Paper clearly describes the new developmental role and responsibility of local authorities as well as the challenges facing local government⁷¹. The White Paper specifically recognises the IDP as one of the most important co-ordinating and integrating methods and tools within the local authority to address these challenges⁷². Local authorities in South Africa have increasingly become more prominent in the post-transformation era and were seen as one of National Government's primary mechanisms in the process of urban development and restructuring.

The integrated relationship between urban planning, urban management and municipal affairs not only affected the nature of urban planning, but also had a major impact on the local authority, the municipal planning system and urban planners, managers and officials. As in many other cities in the world, this increasing complexity (and integration) of urban planning and management

⁶⁷ See Koster (1996: 99-102); Gelderblom and Kok (1994: 37); Brynard (1996:39); Scheepers (2000:180); Selman (1996: 85); The Green Paper on Development Planning (1999); and Parnell and Pieterse (2002).

⁶⁸ See Republic of South Africa (1996).

⁶⁹ See Republic of South Africa (1996:63); Department of Constitutional Development (1997:3); and Beall, Crankshaw and Parnell (2002).

⁷⁰ See also Beall, Crankshaw and Parnell (2002: 75 -76) on Developmental Local Government.

⁷¹ See also Department of Constitutional Development (1998); Pycroft (1998); Oranje *et al* (2000); and Beall, Crankshaw and Parnell (2002: 9).

⁷² See also Department of Constitutional Development (1998:47-48); and Oranje *et al* (2000).

demanding of urban planners (and managers) to play a more strategic role, and to become more involved with policy formulation and implementation⁷³. As a result of the above, planners also became more involved in the political arena. The 'political' nature of urban planning not only created a number of dilemmas and new challenges for planners, officials, managers and councillors, as discussed in other sections, but also resulted in a 'power-planning dilemma', see Chapter 7⁷⁴.

The integration and consolidation of urban planning and urban management in South Africa became the basis of the IDP process, cities' strategic planning processes and the new unfolding notion of developmental local government. It also became an integral and inseparable part of the South African local authority system and a strategic/core function of most local authorities.

4.8 CONCLUDING REMARKS

During the 1990s, the South African planning system was transformed from a rigid, scientific and autocratic system into a new integrated, developmental, democratic and people-oriented urban system⁷⁵ - a transformation that evolved in the UK, USA and Western Europe⁷⁶ mostly during the latter half of the 1900s. This new urban planning system, with its focus on sustainable development, people and social issues, strategic management and the integration of the apartheid city, largely replaced the inappropriate and discriminatory urban planning and urban management systems that existed prior to the 1990s. This planning system, which is largely supported by national legislation and policy frameworks, provided a new opportunity and context for the further transformation, reconstruction and sustainable development of the fragmented South African urban areas. Apart from this new focus on urban planning, the post-apartheid planning system⁷⁷ also became concerned with the South African urban condition with its unique, fragmented and neglected urban environment as is evident by its focus on integrated and sustainable spatial, social

⁷³ For more information on the new strategic role for planners, see Rondinelli (1983: 375); Sandercock (1998:171); Friedman (1998: 30); Davidoff (1965 and 1996:318 - 319); Slater (1984: 24 - 25); Bair (1970: 18); Blakely (1994: 68 - 71); North Shore City Council (1996); Civic Strategies (1999); Koster (1996:115); Wissink (1996:151); and Stoker (2002: 31 and 38).

⁷⁴ See also Flyvbjerg (1996 and 1998 a and b; and 2001); Lapintie (2002); Brooks (1996:118 - 131); Marris (1998:16); Minnery (1985:39 and 182); and Harrison (1997: 40).

⁷⁵ For more information on the new forms of urban planning, see also Claassen and Milton 1992:715 - 717; Selman 1996: 109,126; Friedman 1987: 21- 25; Nadin, Barton *et al* 1996:4; Friedman 1987: 21).

⁷⁶ During the 1900s, urban planning evolved through various development stages and had changed significantly in substance and in professional outlook (Slater 1984: 24; Friedman 1987: 21 - 31; Hall 1989:228; Carmona and Burgess, unpublished; Beauregard 1996: 214; and Harrison 2001: 179).

⁷⁷ For more information on the post - apartheid planning system, see ANC (1992 and 1994); FEPA (1994); Castleden (1994: 14-16); DFA (1996), the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996); the White Paper on Local Government (1998); Planact (1997:18); CSIR (1998: B9 and B15); Pycroft (1998); Oranje, Oosthuizen and Van Huyssteen (1999:12 and 15); Oranje *et al* (2000); Rauch (2002); Republic of South Africa (1995,1996 a and b,1997,1998,1999, 2000, 2001a and b); and Department of Constitutional Development (1997:8).

and economic development, urban (re)structuring and spatial integration⁷⁸. While this new (transforming) urban planning system is closely related to (and associated with) the concept of Integrated Development Planning (IDP) as described and promoted by South African legislation and policies during the mid-1990s/early 2000s, it should not be constrained by the limited definition of *the IDP*⁷⁹ as is currently experienced in many parts of South Africa⁸⁰.

In summary, this chapter provided an overview of the broader international and national context within which the South African urban planning systems (nationally and locally) have developed. The following chapter (which, amongst other things, is woven around the contextual components as discussed in the foregoing paragraphs) presents a narrative on how these contextual realities have informed, shaped and framed the transformation of urban planning in the municipalities of the Greater Pretoria/Tshwane Region during the period 1992 to 2000. The narrative specifically focuses on the impact that these transformations (both the national transformation and transformation within the City of Pretoria/Tshwane) had on urban planning policy and practice, urban management policy and practice and organisational structures and processes. Throughout the narrative, reference is made to how this transformation of the urban planning (and local government system) affected power structures and power relations and how this transformation in turn was affected by such powers.

⁷⁸ For more information on the concept of integration (within the context of the South African urban planning system), see Harrison *et al* (1998: 10 and 12); CSIR (1998); Development and Planning Commission (1999:14); Pycroft (2000:92 - 101); and Oranje *et al* (2000).

⁷⁹ The IDP is primarily associated with *the IDP plan* (a strategic plan) or the structured *IDP process*, with a number of distinct phases (similar to strategic planning processes), as clearly described by the Local Government Transition Act (1996) and the Municipal Systems Act (2000). See Republic of South Africa (1996 and 2000).

⁸⁰ See also later critique on the IDP.