

CHAPTER
07

A City that Plans: Reinventing Urban Planning

QUICK FACTS

- 1 Today, many cities in the world still rely on outdated modes of planning notwithstanding that planning is central to achieving sustainable urban development.
- 2 Cities across the world are sprawling, and as such, densities are dramatically declining. In developing countries, a one per cent decline in densities per year between 2000 and 2050 would quadruple the urban land area.
- 3 Planning frameworks in most cities are not gender-sensitive; consequently, women are often left outside of the planning process and decisions.
- 4 Planning capacity is grossly inadequate in much of the developing world. In the UK, there are 38 planners per 100,000 population, while in Nigeria and India the figure is 1.44 and 0.23 respectively.

POLICY POINTS

- 1 Integrated, multi-sectoral planning approaches have a strong success record and should be used in many more cities and regions.
- 2 Local circumstances, needs and requirements must remain pre-eminent in urban planning, so are gender considerations and involvement of – and responsiveness to – the diverse populations.
- 3 Plans should be prepared at various geographic scales and integrated to support sustainable and coordinated road, transit, housing, economic development and land use across geographic and political boundaries.
- 4 In developing countries, education and training for professional planners should be increased and capacity for planning education be enhanced, concomitantly.

A City that Plans versus The Planned City

A City that Plans embraces views



Residents



Employers & employment



Elected leaders

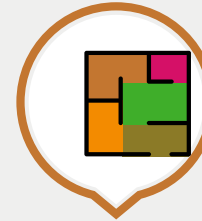


Investors

A City that Plans integrates



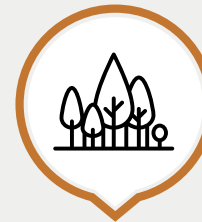
Infrastructure



Land use



Culture



Natural resources



Education

The Planned City

- > reflects only the views of national leadership
- > no local input
- > favouritism and nepotism
- > distorted priorities

Loss of agricultural land



Increase in greenhouse gas emissions



Urban Sprawl



Higher commuting time and costs



Socio-spatial segregation and segmentation

US\$400

BILLION PER YEAR

Estimated costs in the US alone from higher infrastructure, public service and transport costs

8,600

LATIN AMERICAN CITIES

Public service costs increase as density decreases in small and medium-sized cities

Planning capacity varies greatly across the world

UK

38

ACCREDITED PLANNERS
per 100,000 population

Nigeria

1.44

ACCREDITED PLANNERS
per 100,000 population

India

0.23

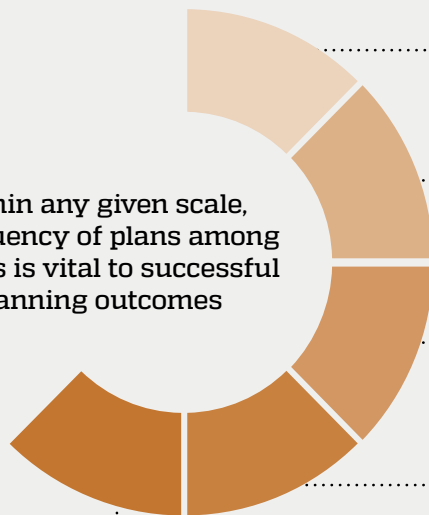
ACCREDITED PLANNERS
per 100,000 population

NEW COMPREHENSIVENESS

Newer planning approaches:

- > are more **multisectoral**
- > address **global concerns** e.g climate change & gender equality
- > **critically examine** new ideas before adoption

Within any given scale, congruency of plans among sectors is vital to successful planning outcomes



● Neighbourhood level

● City level

● Metropolitan level

● National level

● Supranational level

Cities drive economic productivity and prosperity. As urbanization has advanced, so have global economic output, poverty reduction and social well-being. Yet, unplanned urbanization has also often led to pollution, congestion, segregation, sprawl and other unintended consequences. In 1996, the Habitat Agenda recognized as much with a set of goals, principles, commitments and actions promoting the positive effects of urbanization while limiting those more negative impacts, emphasizing adequate shelter for all and sustainable human settlements.¹

Central to this reinvention is planning as an ongoing, inclusive process instead of as a one-off design of a master vision

A city that plans not only projects the future from past trends, it also brings the public, private and third sectors together with communities to build a collectively preferred future

Since Habitat II, unprecedented population growth in many cities keeps challenging governments, business and civil society for adequate responses. Other cities have declined in population, with attendant economic and environmental challenges. At the turn of the millennium, UN-Habitat understood that advancing the Habitat Agenda would require changes in the way urban planning is practised around the globe. Working together with professional planners' organizations worldwide, UN-Habitat has promoted a reinvented urban planning with aims of ensuring environmental sustainability, promoting equal access to the benefits cities offer, building safety, health and inclusiveness, engaging public, private and third sectors, as well as facilitating good governance. The reinvention of urban planning in the post-Habitat II era has embraced principles² endorsed in 2006 at the third session of the World Urban Forum in Vancouver (Box 7.1).

Central to this reinvention is planning as an ongoing, inclusive process instead of as a one-off design of a master vision, what has been described as “a city that plans” in contrast to “the planned city.”³ A city that plans embraces the views of residents, employers, investors, and elected leaders, in contrast to the ubiquitous,

Box 7.1: The 10 Principles of New Urban Planning

1. Promote sustainable development
2. Achieve integrated planning
3. Integrate plans with budgets
4. Plan with partners and stakeholders
5. Meet the subsidiarity principle
6. Promote market responsiveness
7. Ensure access to land
8. Develop appropriate planning tools
9. Be pro-poor and inclusive
10. Recognize cultural diversity.

Source: Farmer et al, 2006.



age-old pattern of planning that reflected only the views of national leadership. A city that plans looks to integrate land use, employment, education, infrastructure, culture, and natural resources. This contrasts with the older planning pattern of attending to the physical design of public buildings, streets, parks etc., while allowing other dimensions of urban development to be determined solely by market forces. A city that plans not only projects the future from past trends, it also brings the public, private and third sectors together with communities to build a collectively preferred future.

The city that plans is part of a transition over the latter half of the 20th century when planning evolved from a modernist process in which planning is viewed as a scientific, universally valid instrument of progress, toward a communicative process, in which planning is viewed as politically engaged, inclusive and empowering, strategic and integrated. In modernist planning, progress was often elusive and the benefits were often concentrated among small groups of elites. Modernism, moreover, expressed belief in a universal march toward development that overlooked regional differences. In communicative planning, objectives reflect the aspirations of the population as expressed through advocacy and grassroots participation; greater attention is given to the national and cultural context; and planning activities are better integrated across spatial and sector-based divisions. Planning has become more multi-faceted rather than focused exclusively on physical design of places, more bottom-up than top-down, and more responsive to equity and environ-



Community planning for reconstruction in Yogyakarta, Indonesia.

Source: Nugroho Nurdikiawan Sunjoyo / World Bank, CC BY 2.0, <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/2.0/legalcode>

mental quality than to business concerns.

Implementation of the Habitat Agenda has occurred in the context of the Millennium Development Goals, which prescribed a sector-based perspective that did not readily lend itself to geographically-delineated planning. As the world transitions to the Sustainable Development Goals, which directly address urban sustainability, it is important to ask what is needed from urban and regional planning to better ensure progress toward accomplishing these goals.

This chapter examines changes in urban and regional planning over the 20 years since Habitat II, aiming to understand how widespread planning's reinvention has been and whether urban and regional planning as practiced in communities, regions and nations globally has been effective in advancing the two goals of adequate shelter and sustainable urban settlements. Five lenses are used: (1) the transition from master planning to grassroots equity/advocacy community visioning; (2) rethinking land use and public space; (3) policy-sector integration and new tangible realities; (4) geographic (scalar) integration; and (5) planning capacity.

The world has not achieved adequate shelter for all and sustainable human settlements. While notable progress has been made on some dimensions in many places, including economic growth, and resilience, these overarching goals are further from realization today globally than they were in 1996 by many measures, including two to threefold higher rate of increase in urban land compared with urban population and increases in the numbers of those without access to improved sanitation. The immediate task is not to ask whether cities are more sus-

tainable today than they were, but instead to ask whether the results of urban and regional planning over the last two decades have made cities more sustainable today than they would have been had planning not advanced as it has.

Two cautions are needed. First, recognizing that urban planning responds to and affects the full range of dimensions of urban life, complete treatment of the subject would include discussion of housing and slums, inclusion, equity, basic services, environment, economy, and governance, the subjects of Chapters 3 through to Chapter 8 of this report. This is impractical, so instead readers are cautioned that much of what they have already

read in these chapters must be kept in mind for a full understanding of how urban and regional planning has changed in these years. Most notably, the Habitat Agenda goal of adequate shelter for all is the subject of Chapter 3.

Second, many of those reading this chapter prize ideas that can be transferred across borders. There is a quest for promoting best practices and for “scaling up,” building successful local experiments into national and then global norms. Against this quest, there is need to recognize the built-in conflict between transferability and the ideals of participation, stakeholder engagement, and sensitivity to local culture and institutions that reinvented planning calls for. Indeed, it is good to learn from each other— from country to country, and town to town—but it is important to pick, adapt and amend foreign ideas so that they work in the local context. Planners and other public officials often want to know enough about what has happened in other places in order to have informed, intelligent debates about what to do in their jurisdictions, but approaches chosen must be achievable with the available resources. Planning is about making such choices, no guidebook can short circuit the need for planning.

Planning has become more multi-faceted rather than focused exclusively on physical design of places, more bottom-up than top-down, and more responsive to equity and environmental quality

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7.1

The Plan is Dead; Long Live the Planners! From Master Plan to Community Vision

Many planning regimes have been significantly altered in bids to open up to a much wider range of stakeholders, their needs and aspirations, and so have legal frameworks

While some historic master plans, also referred to as blueprint or layout plans, were influential in transforming cities in valuable directions and were wrapped in the mantle of the *public interest*, others reflected the needs and aspirations of the wealthy and powerful to the exclusion of the wider population.⁴ With too few exceptions, master planning has failed to integrate the interests of

the urban poor, women,⁵ youth, the aged, and indigenous peoples in the physical and socioeconomic spaces of the city; to prevent environmental degradation or the formation of slums, or deploy effective transportation systems.

In the post-Habitat II era, many planning regimes have been significantly altered in bids to open up to a much wider range of stakeholders, their needs and aspirations, and so have legal frameworks. Often, the direct role of government has decreased—in favour of the private sector and civil society—and “governance” has frequently replaced “government.”⁶

The shift from government to governance is reflected in changes in thinking in the planning profession. In the past, master planners saw the plan as their central accomplishment. Implementation was often given insufficient attention. Today, the planning process is viewed to be more important, with significant consideration given to data collection, monitoring and evaluation, policy networks, decision-making procedures, as well as other procedural and interim products. The plan in turn,

Table 7.1: The 12 key principles of urban and territorial planning

Source: UN-Habitat, 2015e.

PILLAR	PRINCIPLES
Urban Policy and Governance	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Urban and territorial planning is more than a technical tool, it is an integrative and participatory decision-making process that addresses competing interests and is linked to a shared vision, an overall development strategy and national, regional and local urban policies; 2. Urban and territorial planning represents a core component of the renewed urban governance paradigm, which promotes local democracy, participation and inclusion, transparency and accountability, with a view to ensuring sustainable urbanization and spatial quality.
Urban and Territorial Planning for Sustainable Development	<p><i>Urban and Territorial Planning and Social Development</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. Urban and territorial planning primarily aims to realize adequate standards of living and working conditions for all segments of current and future societies, ensure equitable distribution of the costs, opportunities and benefits of urban development and particularly promote social inclusion and cohesion; 4. Urban and territorial planning constitutes an essential investment in the future. It is a precondition for a better quality of life and successful globalization processes that respect cultural heritages and cultural diversity, and for the recognition of the distinct needs of various groups. <p><i>Urban and Territorial Planning and Sustained Economic Growth</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. Urban and territorial planning is a catalyst for sustained and inclusive economic growth, that provides an enabling framework for new economic opportunities, regulation of land and housing markets and the timely provision of adequate infrastructure and basic services; 6. Urban and territorial planning constitutes a powerful decision-making mechanism to ensure that sustained economic growth, social development and environmental sustainability go hand in hand to promote better connectivity at all territorial levels <p><i>Urban and Territorial Planning and the Environment</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 7. Urban and territorial planning provides a spatial framework to protect and manage the natural and built environment of cities and territories, including their biodiversity, land and natural resources, and to ensure integrated and sustainable development; 8. Urban and territorial planning contributes to increased human security by strengthening environmental and socioeconomic resilience, enhancing mitigation of, and adaptation to, climate change and improving the management of natural and environmental hazards and risks.
Urban and Territorial Planning Components	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 9. Urban and territorial planning combines several spatial, institutional and financial dimensions over a variety of time frames and geographical scales. It is a continuous and iterative process, grounded in enforceable regulations, that aims to promote more compact cities and synergies between territories; 10. Urban and territorial planning includes spatial planning, which aims to facilitate and articulate political decisions based on different scenarios. It translates those decisions into actions that will transform the physical and social space and will support the development of integrated cities and territories.
Implementation of Urban and Territorial Planning	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 11. Adequate implementation of urban and territorial plans in all their dimensions requires political leadership, appropriate legal and institutional frameworks, efficient urban management, improved coordination, consensus-building approaches and reduced duplication of efforts to respond coherently and effectively to current and future challenges; 12. Effective implementation and evaluation of urban and territorial planning requires, in particular, continuous monitoring, periodic adjustments and sufficient capacities at all levels, as well as sustainable financial mechanisms and technologies

Box 7.2: Brazil's "right to the city"

Brazil's 2001 Statute of the City established a "right to the city" as fundamental. Brazilian cities were required to guarantee land, housing, environmental sanitation, infrastructure, transportation and public services, work and leisure facilities. An important requirement is for municipalities with populations over 20,000 to develop urban plans.

In practice, this right to the city became closely tied to the right

to participate in local government decisions, democratic management or municipal affairs. Article 45 of the statute mandates "significant participation of the population and of associations that represent various segments of the community, in order to guarantee the direct control of their activities and the complete exercise of citizenship."

Since the statute was enacted, Brazil has experienced gradual and

continuous decline in inequality in urban areas and nationwide.⁸ In Niterói the planning process has since involved broad-based participation (Figure 7.1). Critics have objected that the outcomes of the statute have not been as profound as intended. Nevertheless, the widespread recognition of the right to the city has fundamentally changed the nature of policy discourse in Brazil.⁹

Source: UN-Habitat and CAF, 2014; World Bank, 2013d; Friendly, 2013.

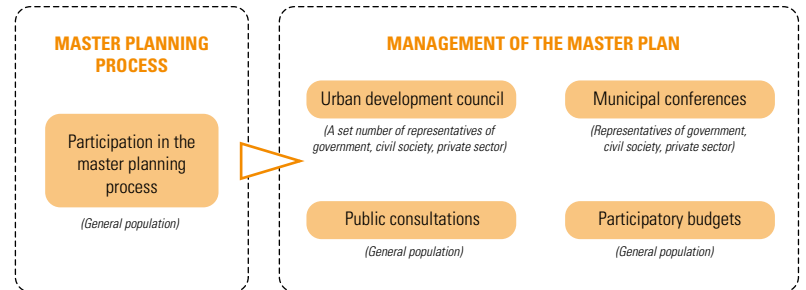
has become more strategic, integrated and varied, with plans developed across all scales, and plans focused on specific problems or functions, frequently taking the place of master or comprehensive plans. Planning organizations have also expanded their operations to include implementation, monitoring and enforcement.

Rights and responsibilities of citizens, to land, resources and otherwise, as well as systems for determining and acting on the public interest, are vital to such a conception of planning. UN-Habitat links planning directly to governance in the principles of *International Guidelines on Urban and Territorial Planning* which UN member states approved at the UN-Habitat Governing Council in 2015 (see Table 7.1).

Moving to inclusive governance is a challenge. Colonial-style, top-down decision-making alienates significant constituencies from formal decision structures. Pressures of structural adjustment have opened many governments to joint ventures with private firms which, like international aid, do not sit well with democracy. Moreover, in many countries internal political, economic, tribal and military forces concentrate power in ways that do not serve broad development goals or equitable outcomes. Additionally, governance involves significant overlap among political, economic and civic institutions, resulting in highly centralized power. The governance and participation problems characterizing many master plans are illustrated in the following observation of planning in African cities: "Plans are developed with little or no local input or consultation. Further, even if these models were in themselves adequate as planning exercises, their imple-

Figure 7.1: Participation in the master planning process and the management of the master plan in Niterói, Brazil.

Source: Friendly, 2013.



mentation is generally beyond the resources and delivery capacity of the existing planning structures....Much of the problem lies in the undemocratic nature of the state itself. This leads to favouritism, nepotism, biased allocation of resources, distorted priorities, and sifting of local initiative and innovation."⁷

Democratic, participatory, inclusive, transparent, and accountable planning systems are the opposite of centralized planning (which is associated with centralized decision making as well as strong command and control). No one political framework is required to meet these conditions; instead the conditions can be developed and preserved under a wide variety of governance paradigms. The boundary between governance and planning can be imprecise; changes in governance directly alter planning relationships whilst changes to the plan-

The boundary between governance and planning can be imprecise; changes in governance directly alter planning relationships whilst changes to the planning system lead to new patterns of governance

ning system lead to new patterns of governance. It is also important to recognize that inclusion will not always lead to easy consensus; participation may highlight conflict, rather than resolve it.

Women have often been left out of planning processes, both literally and in substantive terms. They are under-represented among urban decision-makers and more often active in the informal economy. While planning methods seek to model formal sector work-related mobility, those travelling for purposes of child and elderly care or community activities are predominantly women. While measures of economic success are most often based on earned income, women disproportionately engage in non-income-earning family and community work. Similar barriers affect youth, the aged, and indigenous peoples — leaving them out of the scope of master planning.

Thanks to the Habitat Agenda, these shortcomings have been increasingly recognized as demonstrated by steady progress toward more formally established systems of rights and responsibilities with complimentary governmental authorities at varying geographic scales and with specific scopes of authority. Some examples briefly described below and in Box 7.2 reflect the diversity of these recent approaches.

Over the last 10 years, Sri Lanka has developed a cross-jurisdictional, cross-agency system for collective urban policy-making. The Sri Lankan Urbanization Framework (SISLUF) has built partnerships among local authorities, provincial courts, national institutions and private stakeholder groups at local level, and among urban development agencies at provincial level. These networks



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contributed immensely to responses to the 2004 tsunami and the aftermath of internal conflict.

At the beginning of the millennium, Kitale (Kenya) was struggling to cope with a population growing at 12 per cent annually—65 per cent of the total living in slums— when the NGO Intermediate Technology Development Group arranged a participatory process for planning and service delivery aimed at achieving more economically, socially and environmentally sustainable development.¹⁰ In a City Development Strategy (CDS) formulated by the Cities Alliance, the cities of Ouagadougou (Burkina Faso) and Douala (Cameroon) sought to reduce poverty and provide more equitable economic development. The strategy emphasized participation, involving workshops with representatives of marginalized and vulnerable populations. The strategy has had notable impact on institutional behaviour, on top of attracting significant funding for improved basic infrastructure in the two cities.¹¹

In Colombia, Medellín’s governance transformation has been widely referred to as the “Medellín miracle.” In the 1980s and early 1990s, the city suffered notoriously high levels of unemployment and crime (381 murders per 100,000 persons in 1991). In the mid-1990s, municipal officials reached out to corporate leadership and civil society, embarking on a landmark community conversation about problems, strategies and priorities. The resulting multi-sector approach targeted reforms in education, law enforcement, and infrastructure leading to significant investments, including a US\$57 million loan from the Inter-American Development Bank, construction of an internationally renowned cable car system for linking slum dwellers to jobs, and ultimately an 80 per cent reduction in murders. The multi-sector cooperation has led to great improvements and promises to continue to do so.¹²

The centrality of governance and participation to planning processes in these and other cities reinforces John Friedmann’s observation, “planning without plans may not be such a bad idea.”¹³ While significant progress has been made in the involvement of historically under-represented stakeholders in the preparation of plan documents and the making of city decisions, implementation and monitoring is still often lacking. Plan provisions that reflect the input of those without wealth and power may be the provisions least likely to be implemented.

7.2

Urban Land: Transformation of Planning's Core to Address New Views of the Better City

Master planning was typically focused on land use and urban design. The architects, landscape architects and engineers who prepared early master plans imagined city planning as a grander scale version of the site and utility design problems that were the stock and trade of their professions. Moreover, the patrons of planning understood separation of land uses, regulation of height and bulk of development, and coordination of land use with road and utility infrastructure as the key components of ensuring an agreeable and efficient city. The legacy of physical master planning remains influential today, more common in some regions than others. East Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean, Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union, and the Mediterranean continue to emphasize physical land planning and urban design more than other regions of the world.

Master plans are often intended to promote sanitation and circulation of people and goods, to raise the aesthetic quality of the urban landscape, to provide open space to counter congestion, and to promote social communities. These objectives are to be achieved through regulation of the private use of land and through the programming of public investments. Over time, the nature of the designs that have been favoured has changed, but there has been a consistency in the belief that physical design of cities is a tool to bring about social and economic results. There have also been changes in the geographic and political flow of ideas: colonial pressures gave way to various forms of market and political style or good currency, but the existence of widespread styles that are advocated for international transfer has never waned. Some master plans reflect ideas transferred from North to South, or from West to East, or within regions of the world, in harmony with concepts of the political revolutions, or of the neoliberal agenda. What has been con-

sistent is that ideas about the effects of environmental design on public objectives believed to be effective in some places have been imported to others. Along with the ideas have come designers and consultants familiar with the original settings who are asked to conduct or advise the replications.

Among the urban form and urban design fashions that were widespread 20 years ago were a belief in separation of land uses to promote harmonious living, requirements for minimum lot sizes, lot line setbacks and minimum parking, and maximum floor-area ratios. Often, culturally-determined principles were copied without appreciation of changes in context, as can be seen in the growth of gated communities in China, and standards for US or European street widths in countries with low levels of automobile ownership. Resulting costs can be unaffordable in the new context, driving development to informal alternatives, leading to high levels of social segregation in cities that previously were more integrated across both demographic and economic lines. Large amounts of land are often converted to urban use. Environmental sustainability, economic, health and social justice outcomes have not been well served by these transfers. Often urban land conversions do not devote adequate land to public purposes, with the result that circulation, recreation, and environmental sustainability are not adequately served. There has also been a trend toward more private and less public land ownership. The regulatory processes that enforce these plans are often cumbersome and costly for land developers, requiring expertise that may not be readily available to those doing the developing.

Despite these problems, master planning has persisted in many countries due to: lack of professional awareness of alternatives, top-down, command and control patterns among national or municipal leadership; ruling class domination over land use; and widespread perceptions that the Western urban form is associated with prosperity and modernity.

Reactions against the unsustainable urban form patterns advocated in traditional master planning include compact cities, new urbanism/smart growth, rural growth models, strategic spatial planning, and public-space led urban development.

Urban sprawl causes major losses of agricultural land and wildlife habitat, higher commuting time and costs, an increase in greenhouse gas emissions, as well exacerbating socio-spa-

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Plan provisions that reflect the input of those without wealth and power may be the provisions least likely to be implemented

The legacy of physical master planning remains influential today, more common in some regions than others.

tial segregation and segmentation. Sprawl is estimated to cost US\$400 billion per year in the US alone from higher infrastructure, public service and transport costs.¹⁴ A study of 8,600 Latin American cities found that, unsurprisingly, public service costs increase as density decreases in small and medium-sized cities.¹⁵

Sprawl is estimated to cost **US\$400 billion** per year in the US alone from higher infrastructure, public service and transport costs

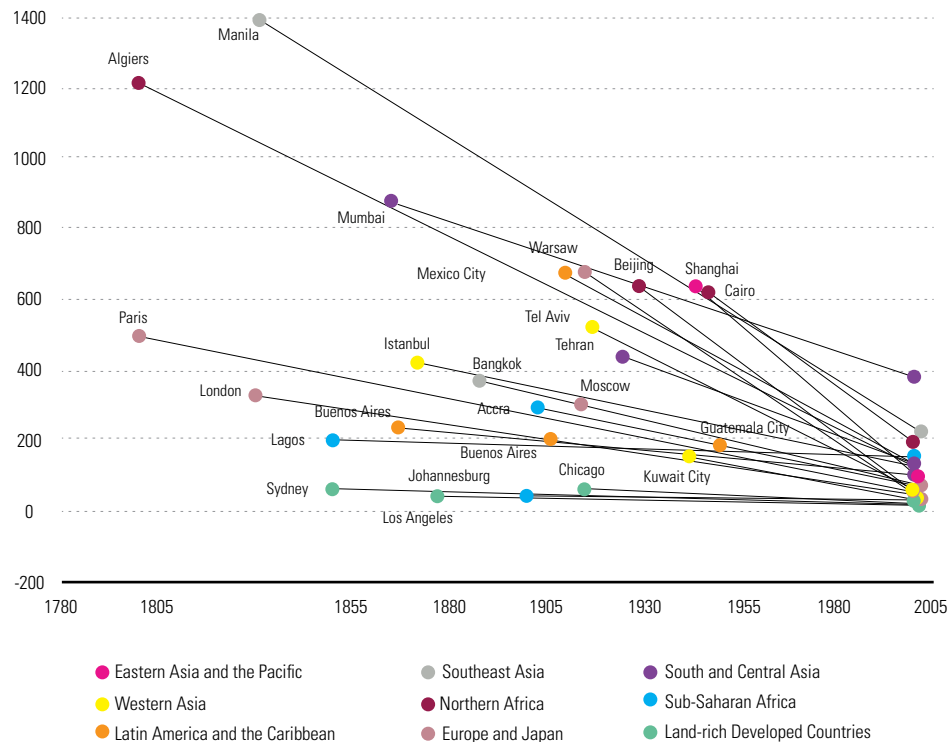
On the whole, built-up area densities have been on a decline around the world (Figure 7.2 and Figure 7.3), especially in developing countries: from an average 170 persons per hectare in 1990 to 135 a decade later. A one per cent annual decline in average densities in developing countries is projected to quadruple the urban land area by the year 2050 from 2000 levels. This means that in Sub-Saharan Africa, South and Central Asia, and Latin America and the Caribbean, the urban land cover is to increase 7.5, 5.4 and 2.9 times, respectively, over the period.¹⁶ The picture is, however, slightly different in East Asia where a recent study showed a slight increase in densities whilst urban land grew at a rate of 2.4 per cent per year between 2000 and 2010.¹⁷

There is growing consensus that urban planning can reduce sprawl and promote compact, contiguous development; unplanned city extensions lead to sprawling city-regions. Containment tools have proved quite successful in a variety of settings. Urban growth boundaries, greenbelts, urban service boundaries, and nodal location of economic activity centres are each approaches to promoting compact city form.¹⁸ Compact city policies trace their origins to the UK in the early 20th century and have been used widely in recent years, in Ottawa (Canada), Tokyo (Japan), Bangkok (Thailand), Berlin (Germany), London (UK), Vienna (Austria), Barcelona (Spain), Budapest (Hungary), and Portland, Oregon (US).¹⁹

Seoul (Republic of Korea) adopted a greenbelt policy in 1971 after a protracted spell of significant population growth (more than seven per cent per year) in a bid to preserve agricultural land, control urban sprawl, promote food security and enhance national security. The 10km-wide greenbelt, shown in Figure 7.4, has stemmed development within its boundaries, and promoted sustainability, but has also led to increased housing prices and significantly affected the wealth of some landowners.²⁰ In

Figure 7.2: Built-up area densities in 25 representative cities, 1800-2000

Source: Angel et al., 2011.



2002, Melbourne (Australia) adopted the *Melbourne 2030* plan intended to contain low density urban expansion through an urban growth boundary, promotion of activity centres, and a series of land use regulatory changes. A 2007 evaluation of the plan suggests that it is leading to 300 million fewer vehicle trips per year.²¹

Curitiba, Brazil, began its integrated development planning in 1965, setting a path toward transit orientation and mixed-use development in a compact pattern. Today, the city's land use pattern is explicitly mixed, with nine secondary, bus-linked centres of high-density commercial development with extensive parks, open air markets, recycling and social programmes aimed at street children and other underprivileged groups. As a result, Curitiba as a whole burns 25 per cent less fuel than the average same-sized city.²² The connection of bus system to 3G mobile broadband makes for efficient operation, reducing fuel consumption and carbon emissions.²³

In recent years, UN-Habitat has brought into the forefront of attention the need for orderly expansion and densification so as to achieve more compact, integrated and connected cities. UN-Habitat's support for planned city extensions programmes as well as promotion of tools such as land readjustment aims to increase densities (both residential and economic) with compact communities in addition to guiding new redevelopment to areas better suited for urbanization. These interventions are suggested to be an integral part of the New Urban Agenda as elaborated in Chapter 10.

New urbanism and **Smart Growth** are efforts to reclaim the walkability and community benefits of urban life, reducing land consumption and traffic congestion and promoting more accessible job location. New urbanism calls for smaller lot sizes, shopping and community facilities within easy walking distance of homes, transit access, and street corridors that facilitate safe and enjoyable walking. Smart growth tools include promotion of higher-density and mixed-use development, transit use, pedestrian and bicycle-friendly design. Segregation by housing cost is discouraged. New urbanist development, however, has its critics particularly around its universal applicability, and has had to battle market forces and regulatory resistance that favour more conventional approaches to development.²⁴ These approaches, however, have received wide attention in North America and lip service elsewhere, but are not widespread yet around the world.

In the US, early new urbanist developments

Figure 7.3: Average Built-Up Area Densities, 1990-2000

Source: Angel et al., 2011.

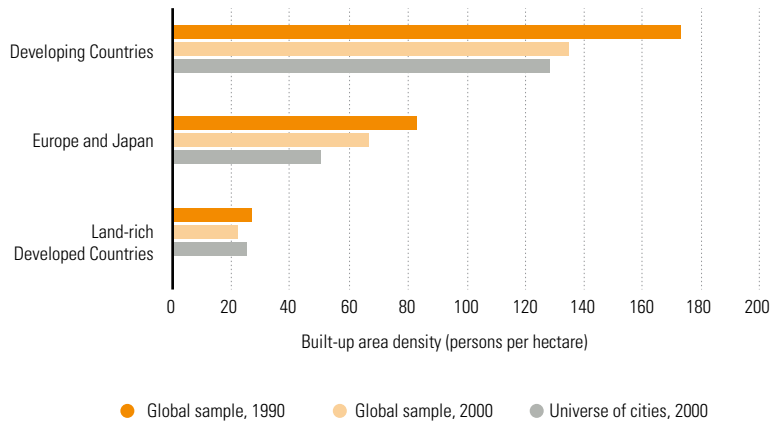


Figure 7.4: Seoul's greenbelt in the Korean Capital Region (Gyeonggi Province)

Source: Bergston and Youn, 2006.



(such as Seaside, Celebration and the Kentlands) have garnered considerable attention.²⁵ In Canada, government and planners promoted new urbanist development beginning in the mid-1990s.²⁶ In Montreal, the Ville Saint-Laurent air strip was redeveloped as a new urbanist themed town that is reminiscent of the city's older neighbourhoods. In Calgary, McKenzie Towne opened in the year 2000 on 2,400 acres with a town centre featuring a railway stop, a wide range of housing types, and neighbourhood stores.²⁷

Exurban growth has become the norm in many regions, leading to ruralopolitan or post-metropolitan development in large areas across Southern and Eastern Asia and Africa

Involvement of area residents is key, and plans have a distinct institutional component, as the intent is to foster a social process which will affect actions by private and civic institutions as well as governments.

In suburban Toronto, the Cornell new urbanist community design features densities twice those of conventional Canadian suburbs, with residents readily opting for smaller in exchange for improved lifestyles and job access.²⁸

Dubai (UAE) embraced the “smart” concept in 2002 with the Dubai International Financial Centre master plan which incorporates an integrated transport system. The *Dubai Plan 2021* promotes smart growth through a multi-stakeholder process and six themes: people, society, experience, place, economy and government,²⁹ but has run against criticism for employing inequitable and unsustainable practices.³⁰

While calls for compact, contiguous development dominate the theories of planning and aspirations of many government officials, realities on the ground often push in opposite directions. Exurban growth has become the norm in many regions, leading to *ruralopolitan* or post-metropolitan development in large areas across Southern and Eastern Asia and Africa. The peripheral locations seem attractive to poor households as they can avoid the costs associated with formal and regulated systems of urban land and service delivery.³¹ Also another cause of exurban growth leading to *ruralopolitan* development is the blurred rural-urban distinction, manifested in high population density and improved transport conditions, which makes it increasingly possible for urban elements to be accumulated *in situ* in rural areas. This is widespread in China.³²

Strategic Spatial Planning began in the 1980s as a European tool for long-range planning for territorial development. Influenced by corporate strategic

planning, the goals are focused, but drawn from wide-ranging possibilities so that a strategic spatial plan, while spatially organized and driven, may or may not include urban form prescriptions.³³ Economic, social and infrastructure components are usually included. Involvement of area residents is key, and plans have a distinct institutional component, as the intent is to foster a social process which will affect actions by private and civic institutions as well as governments. The broader range of issues represented in strategic and other more recent planning forms ranges across housing, economic development, jobs, education, infrastructure, environment and natural resources as reviewed in the next section.

The widely influential Barcelona model of strategic spatial planning featured compact urban form and urban design set within an economic development context, while setting a framework for local projects driven by pragmatic and market needs.³⁴ Hong Kong’s strategic plan (Box 7.3) and Egypt’s *Strategic Urban Planning for Small Cities* also offer useful examples. Egypt, with the support of UN-Habitat, has been preparing strategic spatial plans for small cities whose population is less than 60,000. The project has two main components: first, a participatory process leading to a strategic vision and, second, the enhancement of land management through training local authorities in information management, strategic planning, land regularization, and urban administration. UN-Habitat has supported Egypt in defining new city limits as well as structuring expansion for these cities.³⁵

Public space-led urban development seeks to reverse the trends toward inadequate amounts of land devoted to transport, open space, markets, health and infrastructure that are common in lower-income regions. Public lands are often “greener” than surrounding developed properties and adequate amounts of public spaces can play a vital role in climate change adaptation and mitigation, not to mention that low ratios of public land can be detrimental to resilience and exacerbate climate change and urban heat.³⁸ In recent times, public spaces as an urban commons are increasingly being recognized as “the vibrant, beating hearts of the world’s towns and cities.”³⁹ Indeed, accessible, well-designed and managed public spaces are essential for a city’s liveability and economy. Its increasing importance is manifested in the adoption of a specific target in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development—*by 2030, provide universal access to safe, inclusive and accessible, green and public spaces, particularly for women and children, older persons and persons*

Box 7.3: The “Hong Kong 2030” strategic plan

Hong Kong’s strategic plan, *Hong Kong 2030: Planning and Vision Strategy*,³⁶ was undertaken in 1998, shortly following reunification with China with a view to providing a long-term framework for land-use, transportation and infrastructure across a relatively small territory. Considerable public consultation took place and the Hong Kong Planning Department conducted various scenario exercises and technical studies.

The plan was released in 2007. The nine-year lapse underscores the fact that this was not just a static analysis of initial conditions leading to stable favoured actions. Instead, the planning process should be seen as stimulating discussion and debate around alternative futures for the city, drawing new actors into the discussions and resulting in frameworks that are embodied in many decision documents and the behaviour protocols of many organizations.³⁷

Source: Hong Kong Special Administrative Region Government, 2007; Friedmann, 2004.

with disabilities (Target 11.7, SDGs).

A UN-Habitat survey of selected city centres across the world shows that in developing countries, the amounts of land allocated to streets are far too small: under 20 per cent in Africa, Asia, Latin America against over 25 per cent in Europe, North America and Oceania. Unsurprisingly, the pattern is the same for street connectivity.⁴⁰

Cities like Bogotá (Colombia), Hong Kong and Durban (South Africa) have prioritized public spaces in recent years. From 1998, the Colombian capital launched a conscious effort to increase public spaces, constructing 200 km of bicycle paths and 300 small parks in the first phase (with private sector participation). The San Victorino plaza retrofit is among the more notable conversions. Recent plan components include bus rapid transit system expansion and weekend conversions of streets to pedestrian malls. In Hong Kong, developers are permitted to increase floor area ratio as a *quid pro quo* for creating new pocket parks.

7.3 The New Comprehensiveness and the Challenges of 21st Century Urbanization

Master plans all too often overlooked important policy issues that were necessary to achieve successful outcomes. Newer planning approaches are more multi-sectoral, considering interrelationships among housing, transportation, economic development, education and other policy areas. Critical global concerns such as climate change and gender equality are increasingly among the issues considered in plan making. New ideas pioneered elsewhere are often considered, but these are more likely than in the past to be subject to critical examination before adoption. While these integrated plans are sometimes *comprehensive*—spanning land, transportation, housing, recreation, economic development, public facilities, and environmental considerations—planning

In recent times, public spaces as an urban commons are increasingly being recognized as “the vibrant, beating hearts of the world’s towns and cities

responses to these wider issues may be selective or *strategic*. Among the key issues often considered are informal housing, economic development, infrastructure, environmental sustainability and the changing population dynamics. These are discussed below.

Informal housing

Informal housing forms, as discussed in Chapter 3, lie outside legal and regulatory frameworks, but they are a major way that housing is provided for much of the world’s population. Beyond housing, the informal economy is an important source of employment, income, and business in many cities. The poor, the middle class and even some wealthy individuals benefit from construction and commerce that skirts formal legal requirements.⁴¹

Today, the wave of migrants from conflict-ridden countries highlighted in Chapter 1 poses challenges to receiving countries in terms of housing, even on a temporary basis. This has given rise to informal encampments like those outside Calais, France.

Urban planners’ typical approach to informal settlements include: eviction, abandonment, regulatory enforcement, resettlement, integration and improvement, and regularization. These often engage issues such as legal rights to property, in the process, challenging our definitions of appropriate boundaries of public versus private interest. More broadly, urban plans affect informal settlements, either deliberately or not. The Philippines Homeless People’s Federation, for instance, is keen to improve existing informal settlements through mapping and profiling informal settlements in Muninlupa (with World Bank funding) in an effort to establish a baseline that can inform the city’s planning process as well as Manila’s metropolitan Flood Management Master Plan. Of the estimated 400,000 residents involved, 10,000 need relocation. The Socialized Housing Finance Corporation has committed to loan financing of these relocations.⁴²

Economic development

Planning should be a major tool to promote full employment and equality, yet all too often, urban plans neglect economic considerations and the educational and social service foundations that make

Newer planning approaches are more multi-sectoral, considering interrelationships among housing, transportation, economic development, education and other policy areas

The amounts of land allocated to streets are far too small: under 20% in Africa, Asia, Latin America against over 25 per cent in Europe, North America and Oceania



Repair of waste water networks in Sarajevo, Bosnia and Herzegovina.

Source: Almin Zmo / World Bank, CC BY 2.0, <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/2.0/legalcode>

Some cities have attempted to expand their economies from within (endogenous development), rather than competing with others for external investors

economic advancement possible. Quality housing and infrastructure are important to employment and economic development, of course, but so is human capital fostered through education that builds skills and health care that keeps workers on the job. Recent urban plans that integrate such economic development considerations with more traditional planning objectives provide a range of promising models. Economic development planning considerations include: locational analyses that identify and seek to exploit economies of agglomeration and knowledge networks; land planning that identifies, lays infrastructure for, and reserves land suitable for certain industrial and commercial purposes; programs to build the educational readiness and job training of the work force; and *endogenous development* arrangements to support investment in and nurturing of locally-based firms.

Agglomeration economies, as discussed in Chapter 8, are of prime importance as labour pools, resource availability and training resources are matched with industrial recruitment and industrial development efforts. Examples include concentrations of surgical instrument firms in Sialkot (Pakistan), ceramic tiles in Santa Catarina (Brazil), metal working in Kumasi (Ghana), and wine in Cape Town (South Africa). In Mexico, Guadalajara is developing transport and communications infrastructure in an effort to attract more high-technology

firms. In Turkey, Gaziantep has undertaken heritage restoration and rehabilitation to revitalize the tourism industry.

Workforce development supports economic development planning. Dubai is investing in higher education in engineering and information technology. Chongqing (China) runs an ambitious programme to train rural migrants for skilled labour.⁴³ Along the *creative class* line of thinking, cities such as Toronto (Canada) and Austin, Texas (US) have sought to attract highly-skilled migrant workers through improvements in quality of life.⁴⁴ In other communities, brain drain has reduced economic potential, sometimes as an unintended consequence of international travel for education.⁴⁵

Some cities have attempted to expand their economies from within (endogenous development), rather than competing with others for external investors. In Tennessee, US, the city of Chattanooga incorporates endogenous development in its multi-faceted economic development-driven city plan prepared in response to loss of manufacturing jobs in the 1980s. The city's six-pronged strategy for revitalization included: integrating economic and community life, focusing on visible and doable projects, building institutional capacity, investing in human capital and employment opportunities, investing in social capital, and planning the infrastructure of the future.⁴⁶ In Catia, Venezuela, The Fabricio Ojeda Endogenous Development Nucleus is a government-backed incubator assisting families and small businesses to achieve self-sufficiency, located on a site formerly occupied by a state oil company. Facilities include a school and kindergarten, soup kitchen, cafeteria, cooperatives, drug stores, supermarket, and recreation and health facilities.⁴⁷

Infrastructure

Infrastructure, (including transport networks, water supply, sewerage, electricity and telecommunications) is essential to both economic development and environmental sustainability. Scarce capital and efficiency considerations suggest that infrastructure investments should be tied closely to land planning requirements, but private investors often find it profitable to build outside the planned urban service districts. Such conversions of “green field” land often lead to inefficient extensions of infrastructure as well as informal developments. Strong regulatory systems can prevent such conversions, but are either lacking or poorly enforced in many countries.⁴⁸

In Nigeria’s rapidly growing mega city, Lagos, an inadequate and poorly maintained road network causes excessive commute times and severe congestion. Built under the government’s 2006 *Strategic Transport Master Plan* with broad stakeholder engagement, a bus rapid transit “BRT-lite” system has cut waiting times from 45 to 10 minutes, reducing exposure to pollutants and improving quality of life. The system carries 10 per cent of all trips to Lagos Island.⁴⁹

Singapore has no groundwater and limited potential for surface water retention, and is largely supplied by Malaysia at prices that are expected to escalate over time. The *Sustainable Singapore Blueprint* set the goal of reducing domestic water use from 154 litres per person in 2009 to 140 in 2030, while also developing increased domestic supplies through desalination and rainwater collection. Conservation efforts are encouraged from citizens, schools and businesses, with an annual award for best contribution to the cause.⁵⁰

Environmental sustainability

A sustainable environment must provide necessary resources and a healthy basis for life to its inhabitants in perpetuity. These broad goals have been divided into green and brown agendas, and linking the two often presents a challenge for cities. Ensuring sufficient supplies of clean natural resources as well as managing the disposal of the various waste products of urban life has been an urban challenge throughout time. In the past two decades, for instance, urban residents without adequate sanitation rose from 215 million in 1990 to 756 million in 2012.⁵¹

Conversions of “green field” land often lead to inefficient extensions of infrastructure as well as informal developments. Strong regulatory systems can prevent such conversions, but are either lacking or poorly enforced in many countries

Most studies point to an unsustainable environmental trends in recent decades— the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, for instance, highlights an increase in species extinction rate, a dramatic upturn in atmospheric carbon dioxide since 1950, among other trends.⁵² Environmental sustainability is further challenged by vulnerability to disasters, incidence of which has been increasing. Estimates show that the global material cost of disasters between 1996 and 2005 amounted to US\$667 billion.⁵³ Coastal regions below 10m elevation— which are highly vulnerable to cyclones, floods, and tsunamis— are home to 10 per cent of the world’s population.⁵⁴

Urban planning is a powerful tool for improved environmental sustainability and disaster resilience (see Chapter 5). Preventing development of disaster-vulnerable and environmentally-sensitive lands reduces both risks and resource depletion. Urban form that facilitates shorter commutes significantly reduces carbon footprint. Programming of water and waste infrastructure increases access to potable water and reduces environmental as well as health impacts of human waste. Appropriate building codes and protection of critical infrastructure reduces morbidity, mortality and property damage in disasters.

In Norway, 13 cities are reducing emissions under the Cities of the Future Programme, enacted in 2008. Plans now favour compact urban forms, walking, and cycling. Vulnerability assessments have identified areas at risk of sea level rise. Additionally, action plans tie the cities’ goals to sector-based projects as well as future land patterns.⁵⁵ In the Philippines, Sorsogon’s Strategy for Climate Change Resilience informed key development plans and has spawned demonstration projects for community resilience to climate change, the projects include: improvement of housing and basic infrastructure; livelihoods; efficient energy use and reduction of emissions; and disaster risk reduction.

Changing population dynamics

As the product of participatory processes intended to build and reflect popular consensus, urban plans should reflect the populations they serve. This is more challenging when those populations are themselves changing or fragmented. Demographic shifts, including

Urban planning is a powerful tool for improved environmental sustainability and disaster resilience

migration and changes to fertility and mortality rates (as discussed in Chapter 1) alter the planning landscape, as do political changes, including shifts in borders or legal systems of rights and responsibilities. Many such changes are underway around the world and more can be expected.

Rising migration has led to increased multi-cultural sharing of cities, a changing sense of place, and changing roles and expectations of women in societies represent another dimension of differing perspective. When different groups have different expectations for their shared communities, dissent and conflict can emerge. Conflicts concerning building types, religious buildings, burials, and ritual animal slaughter are examples of concerns that urban planners may confront. Where divisions reflect past open conflict, tensions may be greater still. In such situations, urban planners can be vital to healing through the joint problem-solving that is necessary to rebuild destroyed

Urban planners can be vital to healing through the joint problem-solving that is necessary to rebuild destroyed urban districts and infrastructure, but also to redefine patterns of peaceful co-existence

urban districts and infrastructure, but also to redefine patterns of peaceful co-existence.⁵⁶ Soweto Township in South Africa was repeatedly the scene of violence between police and civilians during the apartheid era and was characterized by relatively high levels of deprivation in the past decades. In 2001, the municipality of Johannesburg launched an Integrated Development Planning (IDP) process which included plans to improve infrastructure, access and safety in Soweto. Three plans focused on public spaces, streets, and transport, stimulate economic revitalization and reducing crime. US\$108 million was spent on the water supply system. A new public transport facility now serves higher density residences, a theatre was built as well.⁵⁷

As mentioned earlier, urban planning has often given insufficient attention to the needs of women, and the specific relationship to space deriving from family care and community roles.⁵⁸ Today, references to women's (and youth's) needs pervade most SDGs. In Germany, the cities of Berlin, Ulm and Hanover address the specific needs of women and girls in the planning guidelines—referring, among other issues, to different outdoor playground design and public transport policies.⁵⁹

Consistency among the different plans affecting the same territory is important

7.4

Jurisdictional Integration: Planning Across Geographic Scales, and Political Boundaries

Planning systems reflect and respond to the governance contexts within which they operate, whether highly centralized or broadly decentralized. The roles of specific plans at different geographic levels will therefore vary across nations, but consistency among the different plans affecting the same territory is important. Integration between sectoral plans is also important, so that highway, transit and land use plans, for example, reinforce rather than conflict with each other.

Within a city, neighbourhood, district or corridor, plans can address resident-driven concerns in ways not possible at higher planning tiers. Community engagement can occur at a high level, building democratic transparency and legitimacy, with better awareness amongst all, landowners included—enhancing readiness for change. At city and municipal levels, plans can be mainstreamed into the administrative, fiscal and operational functions of the local government. Land use plans can direct the land market. Sectoral plans in transport, housing, utilities, and other sectors can be tied to the goals and milestones of comprehensive or strategic spatial plans.

At the city-region and metropolitan level, sub-national plans can coordinate economic development efforts and large infrastructure in order to encourage regional cooperation and complementarities. Metropolitan planning is vital to coordinated natural resource and infrastructure decision-making, but often run into power games; political resistance is strong in many countries municipal officials resist ceding authority to regional counterparts whilst national officials resist creating strong contenders so as to maintain political bases.

At the national level, plans can set regional guidelines as well as direct national expenditures with

respect to infrastructure, influencing urban corridors and river basins. At the supranational and transboundary level, plans can promote cooperation among neighbouring countries, manage large-scale environmental resources, and ensure sensible alignment of roads, rail lines and other shared facilities, such as in the Greater Mekong Subregion (GMS).⁶⁰ The subregion identified transport and economic corridors that are expected to improve trade connectivity within the Greater Mekong Area as well as with the rest of the world.⁶¹

Within any given scale, congruency of plans among sectors is vital to successful planning outcomes. Line service delivery agencies are not likely to follow national or urban plans that conflict with their own agency plans, or that are the product of decision processes with which they had no involvement.

7.5 Regional Variations

Demographic, economic, social and environmental circumstances vary widely from nation to nation, in part reflecting the development status of the economy. Plans will necessarily reflect these variations. In the past, there has been a tendency to transfer planning ideas from industrial countries to other countries without full consideration of context, resources and culture. The principle is now broadly understood that local circumstances do matter and that planning interventions should be critically assessed in light of national considerations.

Developed countries are becoming more multi-cultural as reduced fertility in their native populations is supplemented by international migration from other world regions. Although these countries comprise the most egalitarian in the world, socio-spatial inequality is on the rise in many countries, and labour-market changes are causing significant dislocation. High levels of resource consumption are unsustainable in the global context, with uneven responses across countries.⁶² Planning systems in developed countries are generally mature and to some extent there is reluctance to

The principle is now broadly understood that local circumstances do matter and that planning interventions should be critically assessed in light of national considerations

look abroad for new ideas. At the same time, new international alignments and pressures to find solutions are leading to importation of new approaches on many pressing issues such as climate change, sustainability, and sprawl. Often, these importations are driven by stakeholder groups who learn from their counterparts in other countries.

Transitional countries are experiencing slow or reduced population growth; many with shrinking cities and aging populations. Urban development is often due to international investment and is either suburban or upmarket. The environmental legacy of communism in these countries is compounded by expanding private car ownership. Recently decentralized governments often struggle to find resources necessary to fulfil their responsibilities.⁶³ Planning in transitional countries is diverse, reflecting the divergent paths of economy and politics chosen. In most cases, economic and physical planning are separated institutionally, making the kinds of integrated planning discussed in this chapter difficult to achieve.

Developing countries are experiencing problems of differing scales and nature.⁶⁴ Urbanization is advancing at very high levels, predominantly on the urban fringe. Levels of income inequality are staggering. Youth populations are greater than elsewhere in the world. Large portions of the populations live in informal settlements. Most economies are heavily resource dependent. Government structures often are poorly clarified, poorly resourced, often highly hierarchical and centralized, but with low ability to enforce directives and may be highly dependent on individual personalities. Civil society can be fractious; tribal, ethnic or harbour other forms of divisions which may overshadow substantive policy debates.

Within the developing countries, there are substantial differences in planning legislation, planning capacity and planning use. Latin America is much further along the demographic transition with resultant much lower current rates of urbanization and has many world-leading planning innovations. East Asia has the fastest rates of urbanization, with wide variation in planning success. Much of Sub-Saharan Africa, with quite rapid urbanization, has relied heavily on outside planners and has a very poor history of plan implementation.

Often, there are instances of international cooperation amongst countries in the developing region. Similarities in contexts make the so-called “South-South” cooperation more valuable than “North-South” collaboration.

Many developing countries suffer from a conflict of rationalities between the techno-managerial and market orientations of national leadership and international aid agencies on one side and the informal and tribal cultures of much of the population on the other

More than half the world's planning schools did not exist 25 years ago. National and international networks of planning professionals and planning educators are in their formative stages and growing rapidly

Many developing countries suffer from a *conflict of rationalities* between the techno-managerial and market orientations of national leadership and international aid agencies on one side and the informal and tribal cultures of much of the population on the other.⁶⁵ In the Pacific countries, for instance, reforms on urban planning and management are defined by a recurring element of balancing between traditional and modern governance systems, and often there is a challenge of policing tensions emanating from implementing the components of formal urban planning and management systems versus indigenous traditions.⁶⁶ Also, a recent phenomenon in Sub-Saharan Africa is the numerous fanciful city plans that propose fiscally unaffordable and environmentally unsustainable futures, modelled after cities in richer parts of the world.⁶⁷

Is the developing world experiencing the tail end of the era of master planning, reflecting ideologies and fashions imposed from abroad, or do the many participatory, inclusive, sustainability-oriented plans described in this chapter and other similar works reflect a sea change in the practice of planning? Has the reinvention of urban planning envisioned in Vancouver in 1996 come about? It appears that the answers to these questions are highly

contextual. Some places and some planning exercises remain mired in the logic and the global power pressures of modernist planning. Other places and other plans have moved on and are now in the midst of the hard work of defining what the right planning is for specific contexts in specific nations. The discussions of the Habitat III conference ought to move urban planning many steps forward in that hard work.

7.6 Planning Capacity

Today, a number of challenges lie in the path of successful urban planning. The resources (human, institutional, data and financial) required for planning are substantial. Elected officials and administrative leaders responsible for planning need to be familiar with planning ideas and objectives in order to appropriately direct planning professionals. Administrative traditions may not support evidence-based or citizenry-engaged decision making. Information resources may not be available to provide the evidence necessary. Time pressures may demand answers more quickly than participatory, inclusive, fact-based planning can produce. Formal planning education is expensive. Some educational institutions may not be familiar with current best practices or may be ill-equipped to educate students who will work in world regions other than their own. Yet, there are many excellent examples of agencies, cities and institutions that overcome these challenges through intentional self-reflection, development as well as partnerships.

Planning capacity varies greatly across the world. While the UK is estimated to have 38 accredited planners per 100,000 population and the US, 13, the number in the developing countries is low; India, for instance, had 0.23 planners per 100,000 in 2011 whilst Burkina Faso had 0.08 (see Table 7.2). In some regions, professionalization of planning is making strides forward, including Africa where the continental African Planning Association was officially founded in 2006 and the Caribbean, where a regional professional planning association was formed in 2011.

Planning education is in the midst of transition itself.⁶⁸ More than half the world's planning schools

Table 7.2: Ratio of registered planners to population

Source: African Planning Association and UN-Habitat, 2013.

	Population (million) 2011	No of accredited planners	No of planners per 100,000	Year of Estimate
African Countries				
Burkina Faso*	16.97	14	0.08	2011
Ghana	24.97	150	0.6	2011
Nigeria*	162.50	2,333	1.44	2011
Mali*	15.84	50	0.32	2011
Kenya*	41.61	194	0.47	2011
Uganda	34.51	90	0.26	2011
South Africa*	50.80	1,690	3.33	2011
Malawi	15.30	30	0.2	2011
Mauritius	1.28	27	2.1	2011
Tanzania*	46.20	158	0.34	2011
Zambia	13.40	60	0.45	2011
Zimbabwe	12.70	262	2.06	2011
Other countries				
United Kingdom	61.13	23,000	37.63	
United States	304.06	38,830	12.77	2010
Australia	18.97	4,452	23.47	2009/10
Pakistan	173.59	755	0.43	2010
India	1,210.19	2,800	0.23	2011

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

did not exist 25 years ago. National and international networks of planning professionals and planning educators are in their formative stages and growing rapidly. Still, many planning schools remain focused on land use and urban design, overlooking social equity, citizen engagement tools, and the specific interests of women, youth, and indigenous peoples. The open access movement and publisher supported programs now disseminate academic research to previously unreached areas. UN and other international agencies' training programmes are acquainting municipal and national officials with planning principles and methods in numbers never before achieved. UN-Habitat, for instance, has in recent years been conducting a series of workshops —Rapid Integrated Urban Planning Studios (RIUPS) and Urban Planning for City Leaders (UPCL). The former provides planning officials in cities with innovative tools and approaches for planning, whilst the latter trains city leaders to support urban planning good practice. In 2014, UN-Habitat also launched the Global Urban Lectures—a free resource of video lectures that are accessible online.

In many countries, information to support evidence-based decision making is in short supply. It may never have been collected, databases being maintained in ways that do not facilitate effective use, or access (and transparency) may be denied. For instance, of an estimated six billion land parcels in the world, perhaps only 1.5 billion are formally registered.⁶⁹ Moreover, data may not be coded to facilitate analysis by sex, age, race, and other demographic categories.

Too often, regulatory systems necessary to smooth, functioning plan implementation are not in place. The Habitat Agenda urged countries to “re-evaluate and, if necessary, periodically adjust planning and budgeting regulatory frameworks.” While there has been considerable regulatory change in some regions, notably Latin America, the pace of change has been slow in Africa and South Asia. Land tenure policies, in particular, are often obstacles to achieving equitable, efficient and environmentally sustainable urban choices.

Just as reinvented urban planning is partially and unevenly developed, so is planning capacity far from optimal. To meet Target 11.3 of the SDGs,⁷⁰ the overall situation calls for professional planners, government administrators and planning academics to work more closely together — for cross-learning, better data and more research to identify the most effective planning strategies and the most effective urban solutions.

7.7 Urban Planning and the New Urban Agenda

The ability of urban planning as a tool to promote adequate shelter for all and sustainable human settlements that was envisioned 20 years ago in Istanbul has unfortunately worked in few places. It is true that some cities and countries are practising participatory, inclusive, sustainability-oriented urban planning. In these places, planning has become an on-going process that brings stakeholders together from government, industry and civil society to investigate, to debate and imagine futures that will advance the needs of the full range of residents in their communities. In these places, *the city that plans* has become a reality.

Elsewhere, modernist master planning refuses to die. There is no shortage of places where planning is practiced as a vanity for national or municipal leadership; where imported ideas of “what will lead to a good city” are recited by planners from their textbooks or in response to the directives of their political leaders; where visions of urban form and urban design are thought to be sufficient to charting the future; where implementation is an afterthought; and where the objective is *the planned city*.

There are no simple universal answers to *cities that plan*, as urbanization trajectories and urban challenges are not uniform across the world. Therefore, as the United Nations embarks on charting the New Urban Agenda, it is important that the discussions recognize the diverse contexts as well as issues and lessons emerging from them. Often, governance systems have not built the widespread understanding of how to analyse, debate and build consensus that will endure through uncertain futures. Often, the data to support good decisions has never been collected or assembled. Often, the stakeholders have not matured to the point where they can work with adversaries through to solutions. Often, rights and responsibilities under national law do not treat all residents fairly. Often, women, youth, the aged, and indig-

Too often, regulatory systems necessary to smooth, functioning plan implementation are not in place

Just as reinvented urban planning is partially and unevenly developed, so is planning capacity far from optimal

There are no simple universal answers to *cities that plan*, as urbanization trajectories and urban challenges are not uniform across the world

enous peoples are not given access to planning resources and do not fare well in the outcomes of planning decisions. Often, market pressures overwhelm public interest sentiment and lead to negative externalities such as sprawl, high levels of inequality, and traffic congestion. Often, ideas about physical design that worked in one culture are adopted in another without careful consideration of implications. Often, sectoral plans that make little sense when adopted in the absence of broader comprehensive vision are put in place anyway.

Still, in many communities—including examples cited in this chapter and in other UN-Habitat planning guidance documents—planning decisions are being made and plans implemented that direct the world effectively toward the New Urban Agenda. Urban plans are promoting compact cities, promoting smart growth, addressing resilience and fighting sprawl. Strategic spatial plans are drawing together functional agencies across the spectrum of government. Plans are charting ways to regularize and improve services in slums, create jobs and prepare workers to work in them, build affordable infrastructure to provide essential services to more of the population, ensure adequate and good quality public spaces, ensure resource sustainability, limit pollution, reduce carbon footprint, and build resilience against disasters. Planning processes are engaging with ethnic minorities, indigenous peoples, women and men, at neighbourhood, city, regional, national and international levels.

To advance the New Urban Agenda, cities and countries have to make progress a must in the following areas: planning capacity, resilience, regulatory regimes, social exclusion, informality as well as integration of economic development in planning

At the same time, to advance the New Urban Agenda, cities and countries have to make progress a must in the following areas: planning capacity, resilience, regulatory regimes, social exclusion, informality as well as integration of economic development in planning. *The city that plans* needs to design clear, strategic and operational interventions and define mechanisms of implementation, as indicated in Chapter 10.

The successful implementation of the New Urban Agenda requires adequate numbers of trained planners. As highlighted in the previous section, the current numbers are low and many planning educational institutions lack the resources to prepare the next generation of practitioners effectively. Schools that meaningfully draw together the broad interdisciplinary knowledge needed are rare. Professional networks lack sufficient resources to adequately network and share across borders. In instances where there is sharing, there is no clear understanding

of which concepts and practices cross borders effectively and which should be left where they originate.

Regulatory regimes often constrain what is possible from planning besides posing obstacles to builders, developers and others. In the same vein, separation of planning from budgeting frequently stands in the way of effective plan implementation. The vagaries of politics (including political violence and resultant refugee migration) too may render planning forecasts irrelevant.

Disruptions in urban systems resulting from disasters, environmental hazards, epidemics, war, civic strife, and climate change are widespread causes of planning failure and are predicted to become more prevalent. To protect against such natural and human-caused stresses, plans will need to anticipate uncertainty and risk, test alternatives against variations, and seek to adopt strategies that respond well to departures from forecasts.

Forces of social exclusion and growing inequalities (see Chapter 4) undermine the adoption of current inclusionary planning processes in many nations. Political commitment to inclusion is vital for planning success, as is better understanding of the tools in participatory planning. The cultural diversity often found in cities is itself a tool toward building awareness of the need for inclusion, yet some of the starkest instances of exclusion are found in cities. Participatory governance is the starting point for inclusion, but open acknowledgement of inequities, reconsideration of legal and governance barriers to inclusion, and access to information and accountability of planning systems are all important.

Informality presents a challenge to planning the New Urban Agenda because of its inherently non-planned nature. Informal economic activity can constitute as much as more than half of the economy in some countries, sometimes as much as four-fifths of employment. Responses may involve strengthening the voices of informal workers, formalization of the informal sector, and a variety of as yet experimental practices to expand access to basic services.

Integration of economic development, especially job growth into urban plans is vital if urbanization is to be sustainable. Fundamentally, population growth, land use and job growth must be in harmony if future cities are to be viable. Realistic programs of economic development must consider the natural advantages and disadvantages of given urban locations, capital formation, public-private cooperation, as well as work-force readiness through education and job training, and availability of infrastructure

for business and of basic services for workers.

In conclusion, it has been suggested that planning ideas that ought to be aimed for are those that survive deliberation among those in the planning community and become *contingent universals*.⁷¹ Alternatively, there is the call for a transnational framework in which ideas are the product of international discourse, but do not naturally fit in any one place.⁷² Others are deeply distrustful of any

kind of universals, preferring to place their faith in the crucible of informed debate among stakeholders in a given place, aided perhaps by examples that have worked elsewhere.⁷³ Whichever approach is preferred, the growing catalogue of examples of successful reinvented urban planning provides much ammunition for the way forward, determining some of the constitutive elements of what can be the New Urban Agenda.

Notes

1. United Nations, 1996.
2. Farmer et al, 2006.
3. Irazabal, 2004.
4. Taylor, 1998.
5. Raibaud, 2015; UN-Habitat, 2012g ; Spain, 2001; UN-Habitat, 2012h ; Falú, 2014.
6. UN-Habitat defines urban governance as follows: *'The sum of the many ways individuals and institutions, public and private, plan and manage the common affairs of the city. It is a continuing process through which conflicting or diverse interests may be accommodated and cooperative action can be taken. It includes formal institutions as well as informal arrangements and the social capital of citizens.'* (UN-Habitat, 2002b)
7. El-Shaks, 1997.
8. UN-Habitat and CAF, 2014; World Bank, 2013d.
9. Friendly, 2013.
10. Majale, 2009.
11. Allou, 2015.
12. Brodzinsky, 2014; Velasquez and Aldon, 2015.
13. Friedmann, 2004.
14. Litman, 2015.
15. Libertun De Duren, and Compeán, 2015.
16. Angel et al., 2011.
17. World Bank, 2015c.
18. Pendall, et al., 2002.
19. Kuhn, 2003.
20. Bengston, and Youn, 2006.
21. McDougall, 2007; Gleeson and Spiller, 2012.
22. Santos, 2011.
23. Ericsson, 2012.
24. Brewer and Grant, 2015.
25. Grant, 2006.
26. The Ontario provincial government held a design contest to show its potential in 1995. The Federation of Canadian Municipalities and the Canadian Institute of Planners both argued for new urbanist ideas.
27. Grant, 2002.
28. Skaburskis, 2006.
29. Government of Dubai, (undated).
30. Bani-Hashim et al, 2010.
31. Watson, 2009.
32. Zhu, 2014.
33. Albrechts, 2001; Salet and Faludi, 2000; Albrechts et al, 2003.
34. Marshall, 2000.
35. UN-Habitat, 2010e.
36. Hong Kong Special Administrative Region Government, 2007.
37. Friedmann, 2004.
38. Project for Public Spaces Inc. and UN-Habitat, 2012f.
39. United Nations, 2015e; United Nations, 2015k; United Nations, 2015i.
40. UN-Habitat, 2013d.
41. Roy, 2005.
42. Shack/Slum Dwellers International, 2014.
43. Liu and Wang, 2011.
44. Florida, 2002.
45. Widmer et al, 2015.
46. Elliott, 2015.
47. Sánchez and Núñez (trans.), 2005.
48. UN-Habitat, 2013b.
49. UN-Habitat, 2012f.
50. UN-Habitat, 2012f.
51. WHO and UNICEF, 2014.
52. Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, 2005.
53. IGE, 2007.
54. McGranahan et al, 2007.
55. Moe, 2015.
56. Augustinus and Barry, 2004.; Bollens, 2011.
57. UN-Habitat, 2013c.
58. UN-Habitat, 2012g ; Spain, 2001; UN-Habitat, 2012h ; Falú, 2014.
59. UN-Habitat, 2009
60. The Greater Mekong Subregion (GMS) is an economic area bound together by the Mekong River covers Cambodia, People's Republic of China, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Myanmar, Thailand, and Viet Nam.
61. ADB, 2015.
62. UN-Habitat, 2009.
63. UN-Habitat, 2009.
64. UN-Habitat, 2009.
65. Watson, 2009.
66. ADB, 2012.
67. Watson, 2013.
68. UN-Habitat, 2009.
69. McLaren, 2011.
70. *"By 2030 enhance inclusive and sustainable urbanization and capacities for participatory, integrated and sustainable human settlement planning and management in all countries."* (Target 11.3, SDGs).
71. Healey, 2011.
72. MirafTAB, 2011.
73. Roy, 2011.