Makerere University, Uganda
Urban Planning Programme

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1. Introduction

This paper presents an overview of the urban and regional context of Uganda, looking at different sectors in Kampala city and broader regional issues, followed by a discussion of the planning system in Uganda. It then focuses on planning education at Makerere University, and identifies gaps in the planning education programme that need to be addressed.

2. The urban and regional context of Uganda

2.1 Historical background

During the pre-colonial period, Uganda comprised a number of prominent kingdoms and scattered communities administered by clan leaders. It was a highly diverse territory with a variety of social structures and practices showing distinct differences between the north and the south. The south was more developed and had fairly well established centralised authorities.

In 1862, the first Europeans arrived in Buganda, the then-largest and fairly fluid society, and paved the way for the introduction of Christianity. The first group to do so consisted of the Anglican missionaries who arrived in 1876, and Roman Catholic missionaries followed in 1879. The missionaries found existing groups of followers of Islam and traditional religions. The coming of Christian missionaries created religious tensions between Christianity, Islam and traditional Kiganda religions (Moncrieffe 2004).

Uganda became a protectorate in 1894 and the Uganda agreement was signed between the Buganda oligarchy and the representative of the British crown in 1900. This agreement legitimised social changes that were already under way in Buganda, and triggered new tensions and conflicts within Buganda and between the Baganda and other ethnic groups. The lack of a common language helped perpetuate inter-group and inter-regional conflicts; and the British policies of direct and indirect rule resulted in a racialised state and intense ethnic conflict (Moncrieffe 2004).

The British economic policy encouraged the under-development of local industry and the stifling of the private sector, leading to racial tensions between Indians and Africans. The protectorate's policies exacerbated regional inequalities; production and wealth were effectively concentrated in the south, while the north was used as a reservoir for labour and later for soldiers.

By independence in 1962, Uganda had favourable economic prospects but successive governments up to 1986 promoted ethnic conflicts and religious divisions. Reasons for these conflicts include the existence of sub-states, weak and poorly educated leaders, language problems, poor conflict resolution mechanisms, absence of an indigenous property-owning class and social inequality (ethnic, religious and gender disparities). The National Resistance Movement (NRM) assumed power in 1986 and helped to build legitimacy beyond the south and south-west, raising expectations of broad public participation, an inclusive system of governance, government accountability and improved welfare. The NRM was committed to poverty reduction, creation of democratic institutions, representation of

the previously marginalised groups (women, youth, persons with disabilities) and political stability. These policies were contained in a ten-point programme which attracted tremendous donor support. This enabled the economy to grow at an average annual rate of 6% in the 1990s (Moncrieffe 2004).

Currently, there are concerns about the longstanding north-south regional inequality, insecurity in northern Uganda and in the south-west, political party tensions, the downturn of the economy, legacies of ethnic and religious divisions, and corruption.

2.2 Institutional development

The Constitution of 1995 provides for a unicameral Parliament comprising members directly elected to represent constituencies, one woman representative for every district, and representatives of the army, youth, workers, persons with disabilities and other groups as Parliament may determine. It differentiates between the movement/political party system, the multi-party system and any other democratic and representative political system. The Constitution also provides for an independent judiciary and a civilian army. Various horizontal accountability mechanisms, including the Uganda human rights commission and the inspectorate of government, have been established.

The NRM, although it claims not to be a party, receives funding through parliamentary appropriation and is treated as part of government though it has its own distinct political interests. The president is dominant within the movement and has substantial support, particularly among the movement's caucus, within Parliament. Vertical accountability within the NRM appears to be tainted by patronage, intimidation and corruption while horizontal accountabilities are operational but have limited effect. Institutions are developing, but they cannot be described as regularised and predictable. Some of the core institutions are still relatively fragile and susceptible and even the more successful ones could profit from capacity-building and greater acknowledgement of their role and value (Moore 2001).

2.3 Population growth and city size

Uganda is a landlocked country with a total landmass area of 241 138 km², and is characterised by a number of major natural resources (lakes, rivers and mountains). From the 39 districts which were in existence in 1994, there are now 72 confirmed, with others proposed but not implemented as of 2005 (NEMA 2005).

Uganda has shown a steady increase in population in the past decade owing to both natural increase and in-migration. Table 1 shows that between 1991 and 2007 there was an increase in population of close to 59%, from 16.8 million to 28.4 million. This makes Uganda about the 38th most populated country in the world (World Bank 1996). The population comprises largely youth (those under 18 years of age) (see Figure 1) with more women than men (see Table 1).

Table 1:   Uganda population trends

Population	1991	1995	2002	2007
Total population (millions)	16.7	19.3	24.4	28.4
Male population (millions)	8.2	9.5	11.8	13.8
Female population (millions)	8.5	9.8	12.4	14.6
Population growth rate (%)	2.5	2.5	3.2	3.2
Urban population (millions)	1.7	2.1	3.0	3.7
Population aged under 18 (%)				56.0
Population aged over 65 (%)				4.6

Source: Government of Uganda 2007a

Source: The 2005/06 Uganda National Household Survey, UBOS
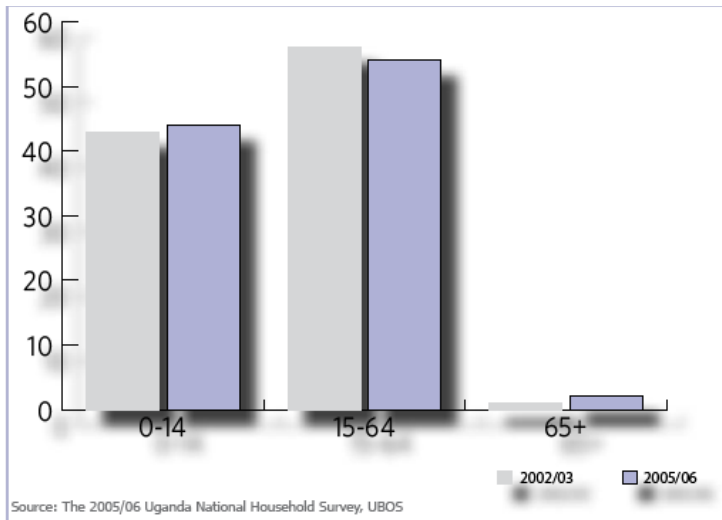
The population growth rate was stable between 1991 and 1995 at a rate of 2.5%, and increased between 1995 and 2002 from 2.5% to 3.2%. It was stable at 3.2% from 2002 up to 2007.

Figure 1: Percentage population distribution, by age

Source: UBOS 2005

The population is predominantly rural; over 88% of people live in rural areas. The urbanisation rates present regional variations, with the central region (the Buganda kingdom) having the highest population of 25% in urban areas (i.e. gazetted cities, municipalities and town councils as defined by the Local Government Act of 2000). The urbanisation rate in the other three regions varies between 7% and 10%. In Table 1 we see a considerable overall increase in settlement in urban areas, from 1.7 million in 1991 to 3.7 million people in 2007.

Figure 2: Urban growth corridor in Uganda

Source: Urban change in Uganda, a paper by Isolo Paul Mukwaya, 2004

Movements to urban areas, currently growing at a rate of 5.2% per annum, are due to rural push factors such as persistent poverty, political insecurity and economic transformation policies that discriminate against rural areas. This trend places serious demands on land, infrastructure, services, housing and food requirements in urban areas, increasing existing urban problems of overcrowding or congestion in slums and informal settlements, housing shortages, urban poverty, unemployment, inadequate urban infrastructural services like health facilities, schools, roads and amenities, and escalating environmental degradation and pollution. The existence of a visible urban corridor (see Figure 2) of vibrant activity following the infrastructure route (roads and rail) left behind by the colonial administration has also been an influential factor in shaping the urban settlement pattern.

2.4 Housing needs

At national level, there is a backlog of about 1.6 million housing units, of which 211 000 units are in the urban areas and 1.295 million are in the rural areas. Assuming that the urban population growth rate is maintained at 5.2% in urban areas and 3.2% for the national population, by the year 2035 Uganda will have a population of 73.5 million of whom 16.7 million will be in the urban and 56.8 million in rural areas (Government of Uganda 2007b: 25), increasing the backlog.

2.5 Informal settlements

More than 50% of Uganda's urban population lives in informal, unplanned settlements due to lack of access to cheap land, housing for the poor and a holistic human settlement policy; the settlements occur on land owned by registered proprietors or by the government. Poverty is at its highest in these areas, considering that the informal occupants lack basic means of production and they do not have security of tenure which would enable them to access credit from the formal financial institutions. The squalid conditions they live in are a source of health hazards which they face on a day-to-day basis. They lack proper sanitation, drainage, development control and adequate services. Slum areas in Kampala include Kisenyi, Kasubi, Katwe, Kalerwe, Katanga, Bwaise, Kivulu, Wandegeya, Nakulabye, Naguru II, Wabigalo and Kibuli.

Most of the residents are immigrants from countries neighbouring Uganda such as Somalia, Rwanda, Sudan, Ethiopia and Congo who, according to *Sunday Monitor* reporter John Abimanyi, are coming to Uganda as a result of political instability in their home countries.[1] Abimanyi adds that the numbers have become so overwhelming that some areas in Kisenyi have been named '*gadishu'* after Mogadishu, the capital of Somalia. The congested conditions deny privacy, exposing children to sexual activity at an early age and resulting in rampant teenage pregnancy, juvenile delinquency, domestic abuse, rape and defilement. It is not surprising that there is a high rate of HIV infection in these areas (see Figure 3).

Government attempts to improve the informal housing conditions through evictions and resettlement have not been successful. However, services such as better drainage systems, as well as health care provision, AIDS awareness and family planning programmes and treatment for malaria and cholera by civil society have improved the conditions in these areas.

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[1] Abimanyi JK, Kisenyi the Somali haven, *Sunday Monitor* 8 June 2008

Figure 3: HIV prevalence rate in informal settlements in urban and rural areas
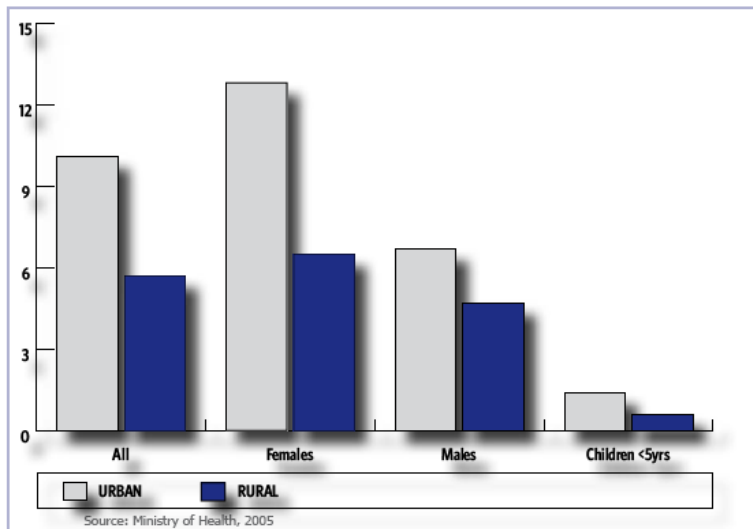
Source: Ministry of Health 2005

2.6 The informal economy

Uganda has a very dynamic and rapidly growing urban informal sector with an annual growth rate of 25% (Katatumba 1998). This sector contributes more than 20% to the GDP of the country (Odongo 2001). The informal economic base dates back to the economic crisis of the 1970s. It gained more visibility in the 1980s when there was expulsion of Indians, a collapse of the formal economy and political instability. The economy started to experience a positive shift towards economic boom conditions in the 1990s (Okumu 1994).

Dominant activities in the urban informal sector include food processing, e.g. maize milling and baking bread; clothes, manufacture of shoes, metal and wood products, and handicrafts; construction and service industries; and transport and other industries such as trade and commerce (Government of Uganda 1996).

Irrespective of challenges brought about by restrictive legislation, limited access to finance, competition from cheap imports, product discrimination and lack of reliable data, the informal sector has increased household incomes, increased tax collection by government, increased employment opportunities and production of cheap products, and enhanced the trade and commerce industry.

2.7 Roads and traffic

Uganda has a total road length of 10 500 km of national roads, 27 500 km of district roads, 3 500 km of urban roads and approximately 30 000 km of community access roads (Government of Uganda 2007b). The existing roads are under strain because of the increasing number of vehicles being imported and registered annually; for instance between 1999 and 2003, a total of 40 000 vehicles were added to the fleet in Uganda without a corresponding increased road network (NEMA 2001). Such vehicular increase impacts on the time spent moving from home to work due to traffic jams, and causes air pollution which destroys air quality.

Government has concentrated on road rehabilitation and maintenance programmes rather than on construction of new roads. The budget for the 2007/08 financial year gave transport infrastructure overall priority, with over 1 083.7 billion shillings (18.5% of the whole budget) allocated to the

northern transport corridor project (Malaba–Kituuma), the road maintenance backlog at national, district and urban levels, and trunk road maintenance.

2.8   Education

To increase on the literacy rate, the government has taken on funding for free education, universal primary school education (UPE) and universal secondary school education (USE) programmes through the Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP). There has been a positive response by the public in the form of increased enrolment for the programmes. It is estimated that with steady increased enrolment, there will be 100% net enrolment in school and a literacy rate of over 85% (Table.2). The response has been so overwhelming that there are huge class numbers, with a teacher-student ratio of 1 : 100+ and a lack of adequate library resources. In addition, the schools in rural areas are sparsely located such that students have to walk long distances, buildings are poorly constructed and absenteeism is high due to the poor teacher salary of 150 000 shs (equivalent to US$89 at a rate of 1 700 shs/$).

Table 2:   Progress of PEAP against the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)

Indicators	2001	2004	2006	2015 PEAP target	2015 MDG target
Net enrolment ratio in UPE (%)	84	86	90	100	100
Literacy rate (%)	65	70	69	85	68
Literacy rate male (%)			76		
Literacy rate female (%)			63		

Source: Government of Uganda 2007b

Continued support for this sector is seen in the 2007/08 budget, which has allocated 15.4% (899.3 billion shillings) to primary education, district secondary education, other education institutions and university-level education.

2.9   Safe water

Uganda is well endowed with freshwater resources owing to its forest resources, which receive seasonal rains ranging from 700 mm in the more semi-arid areas of northern Uganda to 2 000 mm on the islands of Kalangala in the Lake Victoria region. Another key source of water is groundwater (NEMA 2001). There are an estimated 9 000 natural springs, of which 2 300 are protected.

Table 3:   Population with access to safe water in urban and rural areas

Indicators	2001	2004	2006	2015 PEAP target	2015 MDG target
Urban population with access to improved safe water source (%)	87	93	95	100	80
Rural population with access to improved safe water (%)	44	56	54	90	80
Population with access to improved sanitation (%)	41	43	58	–	–
Population with access to toilet facilities (%)	83	84	86	–	–

Source: Government of Uganda 2008

In urban areas, the key sector institution is the National Water and Sewerage Corporation (NWSC); for rural areas it is the Ministry of Natural Resources. Other support organisations include ACAV, IICD, Worldvision, VEDCO, Water Aid, CARE, DWD, OXFAM and IFAD. Service coverage for safe water in urban areas increased from 87% in 2001 to 95% in 2006, and in rural areas from 44% in 2001 to 54% as of 2006 (see Table 3). The 2007/08 government budget allocated 2.6% to water and sanitation, specifically for an increased volume of water for production from 48% to 52% of national demand, and for completion of bulk water schemes in Karamoja, building new bulk water schemes in Mpigi and Sembabule, and building control structures to mitigate flooding in Karamoja.

2.10 Sanitation

Table 4 shows the total percentage of people with access to proper sanitation to be 75%. Local government by-laws on sanitation have led to increased use of pit latrines and the setting up of proper sewerage systems (Government of Uganda 2007b). Local government has also engaged in sensitisation programmes to increase awareness of the dangers of poor sanitation. In urban areas, the key sector institution for sanitation is the NWSC and in rural areas it is the responsibility of the Ministry of Natural Resources, Ministry of Local Government and UNICEF.

Table 4:   Population with access to proper sanitation, 2000

Sanitation	Population	Access to public sewer	Access to other system	Total served	Total unserved	% served
Urban sanitation	3 083 000	220 000	1 834 000	2 960 000	123 000	96
Rural sanitation	18 695 000	28 000	1 0274 000	13 460 000	5 235 000	72
Total sanitation	21 778 000	248 000	12 108 000	16 420 000	5 358 00	75

Source: WHO 2000

2.11 Solid waste management

In Kampala, poor methods of refuse disposal are popular both in town and in slum areas; over 16% of people dispose of waste in gardens, 38.1% in pits and 32% just heap the waste in public places. These are not hygienic practices in highly populated areas. Table 5 shows the various methods of solid waste disposal in the urban centres of Uganda.

Table 5:   Methods of solid waste disposal, 2005

Disposal method	Urban population (%)
Garden	16.0
Pit	38.1
Heap	32.0
Burning	9.9
Skip bin	32.8
Other	33.0

Source: UBOS 2005

2.12 Access to sources of energy

Uganda's population has access to electricity, solar, thermal, biogas, wind, paraffin and wood fuel as main forms of energy. In rural areas, 9 out of every 10 households use paraffin as their main lighting

source, as opposed to 1 out of every 2 households in urban areas (Government of Uganda 2005; UBOS 2006). Electricity in urban areas is used by 4 out of every 10 households and in rural areas, the rural electrification programme has resulted in an increase in electricity usage from 2.7% in 2002 to 4% in 2005/06. To further increase electricity supply, the national budget for 2007/08 allocated 317 billion shillings for construction of the Karuma Falls hydro power project facility and thermal provision to address energy shortfalls.[2] There are attempts to develop alternative sustainable energy sources such as wind, solar, biogas, expansive use of solid waste, thermal and micro hydroelectric plants, in order to reduce dependence on wood fuel and the national electricity grid.

2.13 Unemployment and poverty

The economy of Uganda has registered impressive growth since 1991 though it presents worries concerning inequitable sharing of the benefits. There are indications that the gap between the poor and the rich is now wider than before. The numbers of people earning below the poverty line are seen to be declining (for instance from 56% in 1991 to 31% in 2006), though the increasing population rates mask this achievement. Unemployment rates have increased from 3.2% in 2002 to 3.5% in 2006 (Table 6). Many university graduates still walk the streets in search of employment.

Table 6:   Economic indicators, 1991–2006

Economic indicators	1991	2002	2004	2006
Economic performance (US$ billions)	–	6.2	6.8	–
Population below poverty line (under US$1) (%)	56.0	35.0	38.0	31.0
Unemployment rate – national (%)	–	3.2	3.5	3.5
Unemployment rate – urban (%)	–	12.0	–	10.0

Source: Government of Uganda 2007b

2.14 The nature and organisation of civil society

The majority of civil society organisations are dependent on donor funding, and their objectives and causes are determined by the interest of donors. Their main roles are advocacy, service delivery, support for conflict resolution, and independent research on key policy issues (Government of Uganda 2004).

The key civil society actors in Uganda include trade unions, professional associations, development support and service delivery organisations, community-based organisations (CBOs), advocacy groups, cultural and religious organisations, media, industry- and business-related organisations, youth and student organisations, women's self-help groups (Tripp Aili 1998) and parent–teacher associations.

Over time, civil society organisations have faced challenges in the course of their work. These include lack of funds and sufficient expertise to engage the state on technical matters such as macro-economic policies. The space within which civil society organisations may advance democratisation and governance issues is sometimes limited (Nakirunda et al.) In addition, most of the civil society organisations are highly dependent on external funding sources for their programmes and activities, and are preoccupied with service delivery as opposed to advocacy work.

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[2] *New Vision* 14 June 2008

2.15 Culture and ethnicity as factors in civil society dynamics

A number of cultural associations are engaged in the political sphere at national and local levels. For example, in Buganda the associations are primarily cultural and political groups, pressing for the full restoration of the kingdom as a semi-autonomous entity, perhaps within a revived federal framework. They are campaigning for the promotion and purification of Baganda culture. Their primary interests lie in the promotion of traditional leadership, language, music, dance and drama. The most influential and active cultural institutions/associations are the existing Kingdoms of Buganda, Bunyoro, Tooro and Busoga, which have currently established strong traditional administrations within the central government.

2.16 Land tenure systems

The 1995 Constitution of Uganda recommends four types of land tenure system. These include freehold, customary, Mailo and leasehold tenure systems.

Mailo tenure is peculiar to the Buganda kingdom. It was created by the 1900 Buganda Agreement between Her Majesty's Government of Great Britain and the Kingdom of Buganda. By this agreement, parcels of land were given to the royal family of Buganda, chiefs, and notable individuals to own in perpetuity. Local peasants previously on the land were not recognised and became tenants, having to pay rent (Busulu) to the landlords. The owner of Mailo land was and is entitled to a certificate of title (Busingye 2002).

Freehold land tenure was also created in Uganda, especially in the western part of the country. This is a system of owning land in perpetuity and was set up by agreement between the kingdoms and the British Government. Grants of land in freehold were made by the Crown and later by the Uganda Land Commission (ULC). The grantee of land in freehold was and is entitled to a certificate of title. Most of this land was issued to chiefs, notables, church missionaries and academic institutions (Busingye 2002).

The leasehold land tenure is a system of owning land on contract. A grant of land would be made by an owner of freehold or Mailo land, or by the Crown or the ULC, to another person for a specified period of time and on certain conditions, including payment of rent. The grantee of a lease for a period of 49 years or more is entitled to a certificate of title.

Customary land tenure is the first tenure category specified in the 1995 Constitution and the 1998 Land Act. Before 1995, customary tenure, though not legally recognised, continued to exist as a system of holding unregistered land according to customary rules. Some customary tenants (popularly referred to as lawful and bona fide occupants) live on plots of land located on Mailo, freehold and leasehold tenure systems, while the majority live on informal public land. Their security of tenure is derived from occupation and use of such land by growing various crops, looking after animals or burying their dead on that land (Busingye 2002).

Currently, Uganda is implementing a land reform process to rationalise distortions in land relations, particularly the historical distortions due to colonial rule, and to resolve internal conflicts arising from inefficiencies within the existing tenure relations.

2.17 Urban land prices and speculation

In the high prime (planned) areas of Kololo and Nakasero in Kampala, land uses are zoned under the Town and Country Planning Ordinance of 1951. In those areas half an acre of land sells for 2.5–3.5 billion shillings (US$1.0–1.8 million) (Batungi 2008). In the medium prime (planned) areas of Bugolobi in Kampala, half an acre of land sells for 400–500 million shillings (US$200 000–300 000), while in the

more densely populated and slum dwelling areas without development control, half an acre sells for 20–50 million shillings (US$10 000–30 000).

The 1995 Constitution entrusted the land to the people. A consequence of this is that urban councils have to involve landowners in the planning of such land for development. Urban authorities have tended to ignore them in the provision of the necessary services such as water, refuse collection, electricity and sewerage disposal. This tends to leave illegal developments to continue, so that areas remain poorly planned, fragmented, poorly managed and environmentally degraded, leading to food insecurity and exacerbating poverty (Batungi 2008).

The Land Act of 1998 is not conducive to economic growth and structural transformation because the customary land rights of lawful and bona fide occupants are protected under this Act. This enables the private land rights of the lawful and bona fide occupants to overlap with those of the registered landlords.

The lack of a comprehensive land policy framework leads to the likelihood of the customary tenure system, which represents 85% of the total land mass in Uganda, remaining outside the statutory framework. At the same time it results in uncoordinated sector policies meant to guide land management and administration in terms of biodiversity conservation, environmental sustainability, water, wildlife, reserve areas, urban planning, infrastructure planning, housing etc. The Land Act therefore seems to support property rights at the expense of enhancing environmental and economic benefits. This in turn prevents the land policy from fostering poverty eradication through linkage with other productive sectors, and tapping the essential resource value of the land.

2.18 Health issues

Uganda is threatened by malaria, the highest-ranking disease affecting people, endangering particularly the lives of the youth and the elderly population. The rate of infection has been reduced over the years, from 58.5% in 2002 to 49.6% in 2006 (Table 7). A new health project has been inaugurated to replace the USAID-funded AFFORD project that winds up in 2010, to combat malaria, distribute free nets to pregnant women and children, and support the new anti-malaria drug policy introduced by the Health Ministry.

HIV/AIDS has also been a significant threat to the lives of Ugandans. Today the prevalence rate has been significantly reduced; it dropped from 30% in 1991 to 6.4% in 2006, and stabilised between 2006 and 2007. The highest prevalence rates are present in married families and among the Catholics who object to the use of condoms as a means for preventing the spread of HIV. Youth sensitisation programmes have induced the high-risk group (aged 15–24) to gain more knowledge about the prevention of HIV/AIDS, including increased condom use.

Table 7: Disease prevalence rates, 2000–2006

Type of illness	2000	2002	2004	2006
		% of population		
Malaria	–	58.5	47.6	49.6
Acute respiratory infection		13.2	19.8	14.1
Diarrhoea	1.0	4.1	10.0	9.4
Injury	–	5.2	6.8	–
Skin infection	–	2.9	5.7	3.2
Other	–	20.3	11.7	16.9

Source: Government of Uganda 2007b

2.19 The emerging planning issues

Basing on the trends discussed above, the following emerge as pertinent planning issues to be addressed in Uganda:

- Providing services in rural areas is a complex process, owing to the movement patterns of the population. This is because it is difficult to provide services to a dispersed, ever-moving population.

- Planning decisions have not taken into consideration the provision of workable and sustainable local economic development-based activities in rural areas. No effort has been made to regulate the circulatory migration patterns of the people. As a result, increasing numbers of people move to urban areas in search of better opportunities.

- There is a continued debate on service delivery that does not foster livelihood or job opportunities. Most of the infrastructure services extended to impoverished rural areas are not necessarily aimed at triggering vibrant economic activity, only at enabling movement to such areas.

- The existing tenure systems are aimed at protecting the land for future generations and immediate livelihoods. The landowners do not usually see the need to use their land for commercial and modern agriculture which could increase production at household levels.

- In rural areas, growing poverty has increased demand for raw materials to make various end products that enable people to earn a living. For instance, making of local bricks for construction involves digging pits in wetlands for clay, and cutting trees for firewood for firing the bricks. The destruction of flora and specific tree species to make traditional medicine and also support medical research increases risks of climatic change.

  Table 8 sets out the range of potential environmental impacts associated with increasing urbanisation in Uganda.

Table 8:   Possible impacts associated with urbanisation

Valued environmental components (VECs)	Examples of urban activities putting VECs at risk	Possible impacts associated with urbanisation
Land resources/terrain and soils	- Uncontrolled construction - Solid waste dumping - Inappropriate agriculture	- Land pollution from garbage disposal - Overcrowding - Lack of good road access between neighbourhoods and urban centres - Lack of urban planning
Water resources	- Solid waste disposal practice - Severe sanitation problems - Poor maintenance of drainage systems	- Possible pollution from variety of sources - Health problems; water-borne diseases - Malaria on the increase due to poor drainage, etc.
Wetlands/swamps	- Poor maintenance of drainage systems - Drainage for agriculture and other uses - Burning and harvesting of	- Perceived increase in air pollution but no hard data available - Dust from roads is a reported problem

	papyrus at unsustainable rates in some areas	
	• Brick-making	
Air quality	• Rapid increase in motor vehicles	• Perceived increase in air pollution but no hard data available
	• Indoor pollution from charcoal use	• Dust from roads is a reported problem
	• Garbage burning on the increase	
	• Uncontrolled industrial emission	

Source: Darkoh & Rwomire 2002

▪ Increased development of urban nodes to enable equitable service distribution has resulted in multiple urban nodes which have become hubs for high crime and insecurity, posing a threat to the urban population.

▪ Unpredictable migratory patterns have made it difficult for planners to intervene and make available the necessary resources and services. For instance, there are existing patterns of rural-to-rural movement and also rural-to-urban movements. Such unpredictable circular and rotational movements present problems of service provision that is either not utilised or under-utilised, leading to wastage of finances by relevant councils.

▪ The rate of urbanisation is making it difficult for urban councils to ensure provision of adequate housing, water and other amenities for many low-income urban dwellers in various areas in the country (Lwasa 2002). Plans and policies are often based on the assumption that the population that moves to urban areas settles there. However, people's movement habits have been seen to include maintaining their ties to a rural base. Urbanisation has also had environmental impacts on land resources, water resources, wetlands and air quality (see Table 8).

▪ The rate of informal settlement establishment increases the pressure on urban councils to protect residents' health and sanitation. The numerous attempts by government to resettle and improve informal settlements have not reduced the severity of the problem. It is estimated that up to 90% of the natural springs in Kampala alone are contaminated with pollutants, especially during the wet season, and yet the natural springs remain a major source of water for the urban slum-dwellers.

▪ The history of social inequality has continued, with a widening of the divide between rich and poor.

▪ There has been a continued lack of coordination and cooperation between town planners, policy makers, academicians and community leaders on planning in relation to issues that affect the management of resources and overall city development. As a result, it is common to have market forces influencing city development, which in turn overlooks environmental concerns.

3. The planning system in Uganda

3.1 The history of planning in Kampala

In Uganda the planning and development of major urban areas was introduced by the British colonial government. The British virtually ignored the well established, sophisticated urban administrative

systems like the 'Kibuga' in Kampala, which had been in existence before their arrival. Town planning started in 1913, when plans were prepared to protect reserve areas and zone distinct segregated residential areas along racial lines, i.e. for Europeans, Asians and Africans. It was not until 1930 that a town plan for Kampala was produced, separating land use categories by zoning residential, commercial and industrial areas and a civic centre. Later in 1951, an outline scheme was drawn to clearly regulate and distinguish land uses of residential, commercial, institutional, industrial, infrastructure, reserve and recreation areas. This structure plan was used until 1968, six years after independence. The then four municipalities, namely Mengo, Kawempe, Nakawa and Rubaga, were amalgamated into a single Greater Kampala metropolitan unit.

The first post-independence master plan of Kampala city, prepared in 1972, introduced district zones comprising a Central Business District (CBD), Western, Southern, Northern and Eastern zones. Each zone was meant to be a distinct entity and was served by a primary distributor road with a variety of land uses.

The second post-independence plan was the Kampala Structure Plan of 1994. This plan introduced land use zoning which reflects the present and anticipated physical and socio-economic situation in Kampala. It put an end to segregated zoning of residential areas by race, and encouraged mixed use. This is the current overall structure plan for Kampala city, adopted with the legal basis to control urban growth. Its aim is to provide a full range of mixed land use zones, promote live-work relationships and sustainable orderly land subdivision, and intensify occupancy of existing lower-density areas to accommodate future urban residents.

 The Kampala city council is the urban authority engaged in preparation of detailed planning schemes, piecemeal planning, action plans, research and sector analysis with reference to laws and regulations of the Town and Country Planning Act (TCPA) of 1951. The TCPA provides the legal framework for development control and sustainable resource management. The Act has failed to cater for the sprawling urban form and dynamic urban development process in Uganda today. For instance, it runs in conflict with the recent legislation on land, which leads to serious implications for city functioning and overlap in the provision of services. The Act lays more emphasis on urban planning than on rural planning, which has in turn led to a mass influx of people to urban areas. Although the structure and outline plans remain legally in place, they bear little reference to what is actually taking place on the ground because they are basically top-down plans.

Plans produced to guide development include: the drainage master plans; a greater Kampala road map; detailed schemes and spatial frameworks; five-year district-level development plans; three-year town council development plans; spatial plans produced by the Ministry of Lands, Housing and Urban Development; and local government development action plans. In 2006 the Ministry of Lands, Housing and Urban Development introduced an urban development unit to enhance urban and regional planning in Uganda.

The country is now in the process of developing a Metropolitan Planning Authority whose role is to address the planning issues within the expanded metropolitan area covering greater Kampala and the neighbouring districts of Mukono, Mpigi and Wakiso. The Metropolitan Planning Authority's responsibilities will include plans for major transportation services and utilities, recreational parks, green corridors, and also approving city and municipal structure plans to ensure that all land use follows the designed plan irrespective of the land tenure.[3]

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[3] Osike F, Cabinet lays new Master Plan for Kampala, *New Vision* 16 December 2007

3.2   Effectiveness of the plans produced

The plans produced are meant to guide urban development, with special consideration for vulnerable groups (the elderly, women, children, the poor, differently-abled people), to foster the human development and quality of life of the people, and manage urban growth in an equitable and sustainable way (Table 9). However, it has been observed that the process has manifested a number of shortfalls. Among these shortfalls are: political interference; lack of public participation on decisions made by urban councils; lack of sufficient funds for the projects; lack of a harmonised tenure system; a mismatch between physical plans and the socio-economic conditions on the ground; lack of transparency; lack of inter-departmental planning and budgets; minimal support of public-private partnerships; and lack of accountability concerning expenditures.

The approach attempts to be participatory, with communication from the lowest level through to district and then to national level. However, not all issues presented at the village level are taken on as priority issues when it comes to the action plan. There is a gap in the participation process, making it tedious, expensive and non-results-oriented; it has to deal with vast divergences in individual perceptions and ideologies; and there is a high reliance on consultants without utilising the existing skilled planners.

Donors or international agencies have played a leading role in the establishment of planning institutional structures. For example, the World Bank funded the structure plan of 1994 and its review; Habitat International funded the city development strategy, with special emphasis on environment and poverty issues; USAID funded planning related to health issues including malaria and HIV; the Focus Cities research programme developed empirical data for turning environment into livelihood benefits; ECOSUN focused on toilet programmes in poor communities; the French Development Agency developed the Kampala Integrated Environment programme, focusing on sanitation; and GTZ funded the Kampala Integrated Infrastructure Development programme that addresses and reviews the structure plan for drainage and institutional structures, and improves capacity-building.

Table 9:   The planning process

Steps	Actors	Actual activity	Remarks
Declaration of planning areas	Local authority	Identify land to be planned to meet current and future pressing needs.	
Reconnaissance survey	Planning technical team (planners, environmentalists, economists, building inspector, health officers, land officers and engineers) and community officials	Site survey and analysis	Consultants are usually hired.
Community profile and capacity assessment	Planning technical team (PTT), local council and communities	Identify existing strengths and weaknesses.	The consultants meet the local councils and communities.
Conceptualisation	PTT, community representatives, consultants	Obtain design proposals.	PTT, consultants and a few community representatives are involved.
Detailed draft plan	PTT	Design the draft plan, identify the actors and propose budget.	Consultants draw the plans.

Presentation to the town and country planning board	PTT	Recommendation for approval	PTT and consultants present the plans.
Approval	The Town and Country Planning Board	If not approved, it is taken back to the PTT.	

3.3 Legislation governing planning

The main pieces of legislation governing planning are:

- the Town and Country Planning Act of 1951(currently under review)
- the Constitution of Uganda (1995), the supreme law of the country
- the Decentralisation Policy (1997)
- the Lake Victoria Region Local Authorities Cooperation (LVRLAC) Action Plan 2006–2008
- the National Environment and Management Policy (1994), an output of the National Environment Action Plan process
- the Poverty Eradication Action Plan (1997) now in its 2004/05– 2007/08 phase
- the Local Government Act Cap. 243–1997, 2000, 2002
- the Public Health Act of 2000
- Vision 2025 (1999)
- the Land Sector Strategic Plan 2001–2011 (2000)
- the Draft National Land Use Policy (2004)
- the National Policy for Conservation and Management of Wetland Resources (1995)
- the Community Protected Areas Institution Policy (2000)
- the Water Policy (1995)
- the Mineral Policy (2005)
- the Draft Rangelands Policy (2005)
- the Land Act of 1998
- the Wildlife Policy Act of 1996
- the Forestry and Tree Planting Act of 2003
- the Draft Housing Policy (pending approval)
- the Draft Urbanisation Policy (pending approval)
- the Draft Sanitation Policy (pending approval)

3.4 Institutional arrangements for planning in Uganda

National level

There is currently no spatial guiding framework at national level. Government is responsible for functions related to security, communication, education, transport, heritage, trade and commerce, migration, finance and industry, disaster management, service provision and environment. The Town and Country Planning Board (TCPB) approves and recommends plans for implementation.

District level

At district level, the planning units produce development plans/structure plans, and spatial planning frameworks showing action areas, actors, timeframes and sources of funds. These plans are meant to fit into the overall national budget for the year. Ministries involved include Lands, Housing and Urban Development, Local Government, Finance and Economic Development. The District Council is the planning authority of a district.

The District Planning Authority prepares its own procedures and also implements guidelines established by the TCPB. The District Council prepares a comprehensive integrated development plan incorporating plans of lower-level local governments for submission to the TCPB. The District Technical Planning Committees are chaired by the chief administrative officer and consist of heads of department of the district and any technical persons coopted by the chief administrative officer. The committees coordinate and integrate all the sectoral plans of lower-level local governments for presentation to the district.

The local governments establish planning units which work with the technical planning committees. These technical planning committees, chaired by the sub-county chief or the town clerk, consist of all heads of departments at the lower-level local government. These committees are responsible for coordinating all plans of lower councils and submit the integrated plans to the district councils for consideration.

The responsibilities of the District Council include: aiding and supporting the establishment and maintenance of public utilities; sensitisation; preserving the environment; identifying and reserving sites including recreation and heritage sites; and any other services or functions which deal with urban development.

Local level (villages and parishes)

There is a sub-county/division council in charge of each administrative unit in the rural areas (sub-county, parish and village) and in the urban areas (divisions, ward and zones).

The functions of the parish or village executive committee include: overseeing the implementation of policies and decisions made by the council; assisting in maintenance of law, order and security; monitoring projects; serving as a communication channel between government, the district or higher local council and the people in the area; initiating, encouraging, supporting and participating in self-help projects; provision of nursery and primary education; agricultural ancillary field services; measures for prohibition, restriction, prevention of misuse of natural resources and game reserves; provision and management of ferries and markets; making alterations and undertaking maintenance works; control of trading centres and landing sites; publication of newspapers; and maintenance of community infrastructure.

4. The planning education system in Uganda

4.1 Overview of the planning profession

The town and country planning profession has been the subject of significant debates on the role of planners and what skills they should possess as practitioners. In the 1960s there was a shift in view, from seeing planners as urban designers to seeing them as scientific analysts and rational scientific decision-makers. There was another shift in 1970s and 1980s, when the view of planners as managers and communicators was augmented with a realisation that planners need input from other professions and stakeholders, in order to arrive at planning decisions that reflect a comprehensive understanding of these different interests. This view has been supplemented by the most recent shift,

which arises from planners having taken on a postmodernist view of the planning process in which they seek to move from planning for self-contained neighbourhoods to planning successful cities that are contained within complex and subtle semi-lattice patterns of inter-relationships (Taylor 1999).

These shifts have led to a need for planners to possess special skills, including problem identification skills, research and data-gathering skills, analytical skills, written and graphic communication skills, professional ethics, collaborative problem-solving skills, skill at synthesis and application of knowledge to practice, capacity for persuasion, listening, facilitation, negotiation and mediation, and policy and physical design skills (Perloff 1980).

Before looking at planning education, one needs to understand the role of a planner. Planners are responsible for developing long- and short-term plans for the use and growth of urban and rural areas; they help local officials alleviate social, economic and environmental problems through land use planning; they forecast future needs of the population, direct public expenditure and take decisions about developing resources and protecting ecologically sensitive regions; they help to draft legislation, address development control and formulate measures to contain sprawl; they plan for natural resource management and local economic development; and they help mediate and facilitate in areas of social conflict such as land use and natural resource management (Mumford 1961).

For planners to effectively do their work, they need basic knowledge in many different fields: the structure and function of human settlements; the history and principles of community planning processes and practice; legislative, legal, political and administrative aspects of planning and policy implementation; methods of policy implementation and planning; environmental and ecological aspects of planning; and roles and responsibilities of planners within the broader society (Mumford 1961). In addition, they need knowledge of urbanisation processes, regional and inter-regional economic growth and change processes, city-building processes, cultural differentiation and change, the transformation of nature, empowerment and urban politics; socio-spatial processes; and human–natural environmental relations. Professional qualities, especially critical and ethical thinking and cultural understanding (Sandercock 1998), are also important.

4.2   Makerere University Planning School

Makerere University is the oldest institution in Uganda, located on 300 acres of land, 5 km to the north of Kampala city centre. The university has 17 faculties/institutes/schools offering day and evening study programmes to a student body of up to 35 000, including undergraduate and postgraduate students. It runs a 17-week semester system which includes 2 weeks for exams and a recess of 10 weeks at the end each academic year.

The Urban Planning Programme started in 1998 in the Department of Geography. The Department of Geography started in 1940 with a mission to train multi-skilled, flexible and enterprising professionals in various academic programmes for national and regional development. The department runs four programmes, namely Environmental Management, Tourism, Urban and Regional Planning, and traditional Geographical Studies, and short specialisation courses.

The professional planning courses offered are:

- Bachelor of Arts (BA) in Urban and Regional Planning – 3 years (see section 4.3 below);

- Master of Arts (MA) in Geography – 2 years;

- Postgraduate Diploma in Land Use and Regional Development – 2 years;

- PhD by thesis;

- GIS short courses – ranging from 3 to 12 months.

Urban and Regional Planning curriculum objectives

The objectives of the programme are to produce effective, ethically rigorous practitioners with adequate knowledge and skills in planning; to enable students to deal with current planning issues; to provide students with knowledge of the existing planning laws and standards; to give students relevant practical and management skills; and to train students to be able to think critically, identify and analyse issues, and become reflective decision-makers.

Admission requirements

The minimum requirements for admission to the undergraduate planning programme are two principal passes at A Level, or a diploma and working experience in a planning firm for mature entry. For the postgraduate programme, students must have a bachelor's degree in the relevant fields of Environment, Land Surveying, Planning, Tourism, Geography and Forestry.

Teaching methods

The curriculum attempts to balance teaching of the conceptual and technical themes it covers through lectures, planning studios, fieldwork, industrial training, a final-year research project, and seminars and planning debates which expose students to the most recent literature and ideas in planning. Each course has 60 contact hours, apart from the planning studio and basic surveying course which have 75 contact hours each.

Assessment

Assessment is based on examinations at the end of each semester and course work in the form of tests, group work, projects, individual assignments and presentations during the semester. The examinations, thesis and internships are marked out of 70% and the course work is marked out of 30%. The overall course pass mark has been increased to 60% as of the 2008/09 academic year.

4.3 Structure of the BA in Urban and Regional Planning

(L= Lectures; P = Practical; CH = Contact hours; CU = Credit unit. Newly introduced courses are shown in italics.)

FIRST YEAR

First-year students offer six core courses in each of the first and second semesters.

		L	P	CH	CU
Semester 1					
URP.1101	Introduction to Physical Planning	60	0	60	4
URP.1102	History of Urban and Regional Planning	60	0	60	4
URP.1103	Analysis of Topographic Maps	60	0	60	4
URP.1104	*Introduction to Regional Planning*	*60*	*0*	*60*	*4*
GEO.1103	*Communication Skills*	*50*	*20*	*60*	*4*
GEO.1104	Introductory Economics	60	0	60	4
Semester 2					
URP.1201	Planning Philosophy and Theory	60	0	60	4
URP.1202	Urban Analysis Techniques	45	30	60	4
URP.1203	Urbanization and the Environment	60	0	60	4
URP.1204	Sociology of Physical Planning	60	0	60	4
ENV.1203	Environment and Community Health	60	0	60	4
GE0.2107	*Introduction to Computer Applications*	*30*	*60*	*60*	*4*

Total Year One CU = 48

SECOND YEAR

Semester 1

Core courses:

RMH.2101	Research Methods	60	0	60	4
URP.2101	Planning Law	60	0	60	4
URP.2102	*Principles of Land use Planning & Management*	*60*	*0*	*60*	*4*
URP.2103	Quantitative Techniques in Physical Planning	60	0	60	4
URP.2104	Traffic and Transportation Planning	45	30	60	4

Elective courses:

URP.2105	Human Settlements Analysis	60	0	60	4
URP.2106	Building Science	60	0	60	4
GEO.2108	Project Planning and Management	60	0	60	4

Semester 2

Core courses:

URP.2201	Urban Design Theory	60	0	60	4
URP.2202	Interpretation of Image Data	30	90	75	5
URP.2203	Gender & Vulnerable Groups issues in Physical Planning	45	30	60	4
URP.2204	*Physical Planning Studio*	*30*	*90*	*75*	*5*
GE0.2205	Principles of Geographical Information Systems	45	30	60	4

Elective courses:

URP.2205	Inner City Development	60	0	60	4
URP.2206	Planning for Industrial Development	60	0	60	4
URP.2207	*Economics of Physical Planning*	*60*	*0*	*60*	*4*

Total Year Two CU = 50

THIRD YEAR

General core courses:
Semester 1

URP.3101	Planning Practice and Professional Ethics	60	0	60	4
URP.3102	*Conflict Resolution in Physical Planning*	*60*	*0*	*60*	*4*
GEO.3107	*Geographical Information Systems (GIS) Applications*	*30*	*60*	*60*	*4*

Semester 2

URP.3201	Politics of Planning	60	0	60	4
URP.3202	Computer Aided Planning and Design	30	60	60	4
GEO.3208	*Field Course, Research Project and Internship*	*0*	*120*	*60*	*4*

AREAS OF SPECIALISATION AND COURSES TO BE OFFERED

Urban Planning Option

Semester One
Core courses:

URP.3103	Urban Design Applications	30	60	60	4
URP.3104	Urban Land Use Planning and Management	60	0	60	4

Elective courses:

URP.3105	Urban Governance and Management	60	0	60	4
URP.3106	*Urban Land Economics*	*60*	*0*	*60*	*4*
URP.3107	*Environment Planning and Management*	*45*	*30*	*60*	*4*

Semester Two
Core courses:

URP.3203	Basic Surveying	30	90	75	5
URP.3204	Urban Planning Studio	30	90	75	5

Elective courses:

URP.3205	Planning of Urban Utilities and Public Services	45	30	60	4
URP.3206	*Real Estate Development and Management*	*60*	*0*	*60*	*4*
URP.3207	*Landscape Design and Management*	*30*	*60*	*60*	*4*

Regional Planning Option

Semester 1
Core courses:

URP.3108	*Integrated and Strategic Regional Planning*	*60*	*0*	*60*	*4*
URP.3109	Rural Land Use Planning and Management	60	0	60	4

Elective courses:

URP.3107	*Environment Planning and Management*	*45*	*30*	*60*	*4*
URP.3110	*Sociology of Rural Development*	*60*	*0*	*60*	*4*
URP.3111	*Rural Infrastructure Planning*	*60*	*0*	*60*	*4*

Semester 2
Core courses:

URP.3208	*Local Government and Development Planning*	*30*	*60*	*60*	*4*
URP.3209	*Regional Planning Studio*	*30*	*90*	*75*	*5*

Elective courses:

URP.3210	*Rural Development Economics*	*60*	*0*	*60*	*4*
URP.3211	*Resource Mobilization & Rural Development Strategy*	*60*	*0*	*60*	*4*

URP.3212 Local Government Administration and Management	60	0	60	4

Total Year Three CU = 47

4.4   Class numbers and staff/student ratios

The Urban Planning Unit has a total of 25 lecturers. Classes are divided into day and evening programmes and on average a lecturer teaches 40–60 students in a single class during the day and the same number of students in the evening. For the 2007/08 academic year, the following have been the class numbers: 120 first-year, 100 second-year and 68 third-year students. The lecturers are overloaded to the extent that one lecturer covers more than one course per semester. For studio projects and computer-aided design work, 2–3 lecturers cover one project. At the level of thesis supervision, the present scenario is one of minimal supervision due to the fact that one lecturer ends up supervising 15 students or more.

The student numbers are reduced almost by half by the date of graduation, due to poor performance, lack of tuition fees, death (as a result of HIV/AIDS and accidents), pregnancy and loss of interest in the course.

4.5   Curriculum revision

In 2004, having realised that the course had gained in popularity, the planning programme staff together with practising, teaching and experienced professionals in planning, saw the need to review the programme, with the following objectives:

- to look into the content and relevance of the course with respect to the existing curricula in international planning schools, and to current planning issues;

- to examine the course duration.

The revisions made included the following:

- A two-week recess term was introduced for second- and third-year students.

- New courses were introduced (these are shown in italics in the BA programme structure set out in section 4.3).

- Aspects of regional planning were incorporated into the BA in Urban Planning, thereby converting it to a BA in Urban and Regional Planning.

- There was an introduction of distinct specialisation options in the third year, where students now opt to specialise in either urban or regional planning.

- The studio project was extended to run through the second and third years, with inbuilt recess terms at the end of each academic year.

The programme is currently under review with the aim of converting it from a planning programme into an institute. It is hoped that the institute will run PhD programmes in Urban Planning and Management and Regional and Rural Development Planning, a master's degree in Urban Planning and Management, and a bachelor's degree in Real Estate Planning and Management.

4.6   Library and IT resources

The planning unit runs its own small library, which is under-stocked to the extent that a single major book is shared amongst students and lecturers; and it lacks many materials on contemporary ideas in planning. Some of the available resources are outdated. Efforts are made by lecturers to make such literature and new ideas available to students, at times through seminars and debates with the

Uganda Institute of Physical Planners. The lack of electronic devices in the library makes it difficult to track the timing of the borrowing and return of particular books. As a result many of the lost books are reported late, and may or may not be replaced.

There is a small computer laboratory at the planning unit (for CAD courses), and students also have access to the computer science laboratory's resources.

4.7   Planning school links to the planning profession

Links to the planning profession are established through industrial training programmes arranged with relevant government ministries, planning practice firms, Urban Council offices, environmental and tourism firms; scholarships for diplomas, master's and PhD planning programmes at universities in Nigeria, Norway, Sweden and Ireland; exchange programmes with Dar es Salaam University in Tanzania and Norwegian universities; and the Uganda Institute of Physical Planners.

5. Conclusion: Gaps in the planning education curriculum

The planning curriculum is intended to prepare students to operate in the contemporary urban and regional environment. However it has its shortfalls, which present barriers to the ability to address planning issues. These include the following concerns.

Contemporary planning issues require facilitating change in a flexible way, as opposed to religiously following a set of steps and procedures as set down in the curriculum to intervene in the planning process in the form of 'transferring knowledge directly to action'. The ability of students to make use of alternative methods for resolving problems is limited, and can present challenges in practice.

The first output of graduate planners were not adequately equipped for planning for future change and taking a behaviourist approach to human settlements. The curriculum and training tended to focus on blueprint/static planning without doing a community needs assessment and including community involvement in the process.

The role of the planner is at times not specific, and involves overlaps and uncoordinated discourses with other social science disciplines. The boundary between planners and related professionals such as architects, urban designers, land economists, geographers, land surveyors, real estate developers, engineers and landscape architects is not clear and stable. Continued failure to adequately distinguish the planners' role in an environment subject to strong urbanisation forces makes it difficult to specify what can be done by planners.

The curriculum is strongly focused on techniques for identifying land use patterns in the natural and built environment, with less emphasis placed on the decision-making process. In the curriculum these two elements are kept separate, yet in practice they supplement each other.

The students are often energetic and enthusiastic by the time they graduate; however, when they go to work in planning practices they are expected to accept existing land use practice without question. This has tended to make them demoralised and frustrated.

The main guiding framework for planning (the Town and Country Planning Act of 1951) does not concern itself with regional planning issues, yet it is intended to provide an overall enduring guideline for development control. In addition, it is outdated and does not feed into the other pieces of legislation used for planning.

The curriculum focuses on physical development, emphasising planning for space, and tends to pay

less attention to social aspects that also require planning decisions.

The teaching staff are overloaded, with more than one course unit per semester and huge classes. Imparting knowledge to large numbers of students hinders effective communication of planning skills.

In conclusion, it can be argued that, given that planners need to deal with contemporary planning issues of dynamic behaviourism, climatic change, economic change, rapid urbanisation, poverty and environmental sustainability, their planning education should be directed at developing a capacity for flexibility in reflective decision-making processes, involving other disciplines. This implies that planning education should encourage the development of more skills in the areas of problem identification and analysis, communication, negotiation and design, through core courses, to enable the training to have relevance to planning practice. In addition, a holistic, all-inclusive mode of coordination and cooperation among academics, government, civil society and practitioners is needed to enable the continued development of the profession and to promote joint approaches to problem-solving.

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