

# University of Zimbabwe, Harare, Zimbabwe

## Department of Rural and Urban Planning

Joel Chaeruka

### 1. The urban and regional context

The University of Zimbabwe is located in Zimbabwe's capital city of Harare. Harare City is part of the Harare Province/Region, which comprises Harare City, Epworth Local Board, Ruwa Local Board and Chitungwiza Municipality. Harare Province is one of the ten provinces of Zimbabwe.

#### 1.1 Defining 'urban' in Zimbabwe

An urban area is defined differently from country to country in both the developed and developing worlds. The definition takes into account certain parameters that include socio-economic conditions of the country; population size of the area; the area within the boundary of a declared municipality or council; a statute which proclaims the area as urban even if it is open land; and the population density of the area. The services that a settlement provides can qualify it to be defined as an urban centre, i.e. electricity, piped water supply and waste disposal, though they are provided for a fee. It is worth noting that the definition of an urban area may differ from government to government in the same country over time. Therefore, the definition is not standardised but rather contextual.

In Zimbabwe the definition of a town has changed over time. During the pre-independence era an urban area was defined as any centre with a population of more than 25 non-African people where industrial property holdings were less than 15 acres in extent (Wekwete 1994). This definition reveals the social segregation that existed between whites and blacks during that epoch. After independence, in 1980, the definition no longer incorporated elements of racial segregation. The 1982 Census Report (GoZ 1982) defines 'urban' as a town or place with 2 500 or more inhabitants, irrespective of amenities available within that delimited area, thereby recognising 'urban' settlements without proper urban infrastructure. The 2002 National Census Report of Zimbabwe (GoZ 2002) defined an urban area as an area that has 2 500 inhabitants or more. It further specified that the population should be living in a compact settlement pattern. Of this population, at least 50% should not engage in primary production activities such as agriculture and mining.

Currently in Zimbabwe, in addition to the 2002 parameters, an urban area is defined as an area that has been designated as such through a central government directive or the First Schedule of the Urban Councils Act of 1996 in particular. Benchmarks, incorporating aspects such as being a national centre for commercial, industrial, mining, agricultural, administrative and financial purposes, have been set to help define the concept 'urban'. The definition also considers the size and density of the population living in flats, private homes etc., and the provision of such services as fire-fighting, ambulances, public parking and other matters. From this perspective, the definition of 'urban' in Zimbabwe is expanded by ranking towns in four categories i.e. Town Boards, Local Boards or Town Councils, Municipalities and Cities. The responsibilities of the devolved leadership of these towns increase with their level, from Town Board to City.<sup>1</sup> In a broader context the hierarchy of settlement in Zimbabwe starts with a) business centres, then moves through b) rural service centres, c) district service centres, d) growth points, e) towns and ends with f) cities. In terms of these categories, Harare is a primate city.

---

<sup>1</sup> Urban Councils Act, First Schedule and Rural District Councils Act, Section 57

## 1.2 Rates of urban population growth, city size and rural-urban linkages

Table 1 presents the population growth trends in Zimbabwe's urban areas for the period 1936–2002.

**Table 1: General urban population trends for selected urban centres, 1936–2002**

Urban area	1936	1941	1946	1951	1969	1974	1982	1992	2002
Harare	20 177	32 008	45 993	75 000	280 000	420 000	656 000	1 211 000	1 896 134
Bulawayo	15 322	21 340	33 322	56 000	187 270	270 000	414 000	621 742	676 787
Gweru	2 165	5 100	7 237	9 800	36 840	51 000	79 000	128 137	141 260
Kwekwe	2 608	3 686	3 860	4 600	18 740	30 000	48 000	75 425	93 022
Kadoma	1 718	1 564	2 380	4 600	18 740	30 000	45 000	67 750	76 173
Mutare	3 566	4 812	6 549	10 900	36 300	48 000	70 000	131 367	170 106
<b>Total</b>	<b>45 550</b>	<b>68 510</b>	<b>99 341</b>	<b>161 200</b>	<b>589 480</b>	<b>859 000</b>	<b>1 312 000</b>	<b>2 235 421</b>	<b>3 053 482</b>

Sources: Adapted from Auret 1995: 20; GoZ 2002; Wekwete 1992: 54.

The trends that can be observed from Table 1 have been accompanied by a number of challenges such as housing shortages (Auret 1995; GoZ 1991), general space constraints (Zinyama et al. 1993), transport blues (GoZ 1991) and environmental problems, i.e. pollution and degradation (Moyo 1991), to name but a few.

Zimbabwe's total urban population increase is above 5% per annum. The growth of urban settlements is due to both natural increase and in-migration. According to Brea (2003, cited in Munzwa 2007) internal migration, rather than external migration is largely responsible for the rapid growth in urban population and city size. In Zimbabwe in-migration contributes roughly 70% and natural increase contributes roughly 30% to urban population growth. Research carried out in Epworth revealed that about 75% of the population was there as a result of in-migration; the remainder is due to natural increase (Matekaire 2008). On the other hand, natural population increase contributes very little in the early stages of sub-urban development. The population of Ruwa, which was established as a secondary/satellite town to Harare, increased steeply from around 1 000 in 1996 to over 20 000 by 2005, largely due to in-migration.

Zimbabwe's population is 52% female and 48% male; for the Harare Region the ratio is about 50 : 50.

The rural-urban linkages in Zimbabwe can be classified as political-administrative interactions, economic interactions and socio-cultural and family-based interactions. Economic interactions are strong in both directions between Harare and Chinamhora, Enterprise Valley, Seke and Zvimba rural areas. Market gardening, rural industry goods and the supply of labour from the surrounding areas provide evidence of this. The produce includes handicraft and agricultural produce. In return, the rural population buys goods such as bicycles, building materials, crop seeds and clothing from Harare. Some traders buy goods from the urban centres for resale in the rural areas surrounding Harare. In administrative terms, rural residents depend on urban centres such as Ruwa growth point and Harare City to obtain birth certificates, death certificates, passports and national identification cards.

Movements to the rural areas on administrative grounds are minimal. They usually come in the form of journeys by administrators to address the rural population on district development and administrative issues. Studies by Isaac (2006) show that there is a strong interaction between Juru and Harare. This ties in with Baker's observation (1997, cited in Munzwa 2007) that trade, migration and remittances, i.e. the exchange of goods, services, people and money, are the most obvious signs of the relationship between urban and rural areas. Increased access to education, the growing reach of the mass media and commercial advertising and campaigns, the influences of cultural and religious

networks and the spread of urban services to rural areas all increase the strength and depth of interactions between them.

### **1.3 Extent of informality**

The informal sector is healthy. It is estimated that 70–80% of economic activity is now in the hands of the informal sector. On the other hand, formal production is said to have shrunk to 40% of what it was about 10 years ago.<sup>2</sup> Most products are now found on the black market.

Informal settlements are not a big issue in Zimbabwe. Even the Tibaijuka Report (Tibaijuka 2005) acknowledged that there were few informal settlements in Zimbabwe, and pegged them at 3% of the built-up area's population. However, Harare has a significant number of squatters who are constantly a thorn in the flesh of central government, whose Operation Restore Order of 2005 cleared most of these informal settlements. To some extent this has led to significant overcrowding in homes, and housing is one major area where there is a problematic gap between theory and practice. It is hoped that the National Housing Programme initiated in 2004 will significantly increase housing stock.

### **1.4 Key issues and trends in the broader region**

With the continual 'discovery' of valuable minerals such as platinum, gold and diamonds in the country, for example in Murowa, Zvishavane and Marange, it is most likely that new towns are on the horizon. This is especially due to the multiplier effect that usually results from these ventures. Normally this comes with the establishment of the supporting infrastructure, including roads, educational, health and commercial facilities. Housing development is also among the necessary infrastructure elements shaping such spaces. There has also been a move to establish a state university in each provincial capital, which is something of a challenge to planning.

On the economic policy front, there is a New Economic Development Priority Programme. This is believed to be inclusive of the private sector, unlike in the past where national development policies were purely state-engineered and state-driven. The economic policy ties in with issues of mining, resettlement, rural housing, settlement hierarchy and integrated urban management. One way or the other, planners have to take these issues into consideration when producing plans.

Cities and towns have become a source of quandaries relating to environmental challenges like pollution (land, air, water), and degradation of the resources, as 'ruralisation' of certain cities has become a common development. The challenge of space contestation, siltation of water bodies like lakes and dams, and the clearing of forests and bushes, thus creating a disturbed urban ecosphere, accompanies initiatives like urban agriculture in major cities which arise in a bid by the increasing urban populations to free themselves from the shackles of urban poverty.

Urban centres in Zimbabwe can best be described now as marked by sickening misery due to increased urban poverty. These hardships explain the increased rate of crime, the resort by urbanites to the ventures of the informal sector, and, in the case of housing, manifestations of alternatives like multi-habitation, squatter camps and informal land subdivisions.

### **1.5 Levels of access to adequate housing and services**

The private sector's contribution to housing development is necessary and important. However, experiences with the privatisation of basic services serve as a learning experience for private-sector participation in developing housing for the poor. In trying to engage the private sector, the urban

---

<sup>2</sup> *The Financial Gazette* 2008

poor spend a great deal of time trying to meet the private sector's conditionalities, making adjustments to their original proposals/intentions, and invariably losing their most vulnerable members in the process. Support for community-led initiatives must of necessity move away from one-off goodwill gestures and towards serious public-community partnerships and community-private partnerships.

In the Harare Region 82% of households have dwelling units with electricity. In Harare Rural the figure is 50% and in Epworth, 2%. Thirty-five per cent of Harare residents have tap water inside their homes, and 57% outside. About 1% fetch water from unprotected wells. Over 80% have access to safe water. Ninety-one per cent of households in the region use flush toilets, 4% use pit latrines and 3% use Blair toilets. For cooking purposes, 73% use electricity and the remainder generally use paraffin and wood fuel (GoZ 2002).

Housing provision is a problem. One of the main issues is the low stock of rental housing. Another is the issue of urban sprawl and transport provision. The urban areas have a housing shortage of ±500 000 units. Housing finance is not readily available, and if available it is too expensive.

In the developing world urban expansion is taking place at a faster rate than the rate at which the responsible municipalities can provide basic services. They lack technical skills and financial resources. Cities are characterised by limited urban space and due to spiralling costs of building materials, the majority find housing beyond their means. Therefore they resort to squatting. This is characteristic of Harare. Some of the conditions in low-cost housing areas/estates are not conducive to human settlement. There is poor ventilation and daylight in the shacks. Generally, all towns and regions in Zimbabwe are failing to supply adequate sanitation and water supply to residents. Some communities use Blair toilets and unprotected wells.

## **1.6 Levels of unemployment, poverty and income inequality**

In terms of the definition of 'unemployed' (those who have done no work, are looking for work and are available for work) about 70% of Harare's economically active population is employed. Unofficially, however, 80% in Harare are unemployed. Poverty has driven about one-and-a-half per cent of children in Harare Region to go to work. Food has been very scarce for the past four or five years; when available it is beyond the reach of many (see Central Statistical Organisation data in GoZ et al. 2007).

## **1.7 The nature and organisation of civil society**

Civil society is defined as the area of uncoerced collective action around shared interests, purposes and values in a society.<sup>3</sup> In theory its institutional forms are distinct from those of the state, the family and the market, though in practice the boundaries between state, civil society and family and market are complex. Civil society commonly embraces a diversity of spaces, actors and institutional forms, varying in their degree of formality, autonomy and power. It is often populated by organisations such as registered charities, development non-governmental organisations (NGOs), community groups, women's organisations, faith-based organisations, professional groups, trade unions, self-help groups, social movements, business associations, coalitions and advocacy groups.

The civil society sphere ensures that citizens have the rights and ability to influence decisions about resources that sustain their communities. Civil society organisations (CSOs) assess government performance on transparency, inclusiveness and accountability. In Zimbabwe we have many civil society groups complementing government. Civic organisations have been pressurising government to improve service delivery for the benefit of the majority; they include donor organisations which

---

<sup>3</sup> See [www.ise.ac.uk](http://www.ise.ac.uk).

have tackled government on the land reform programme, especially on how best to make land available to the needy. Civil society has been providing humanitarian assistance and services, especially in fragile environments (mainly urban high-density suburbs), by delivering services to the poor and developing new innovative approaches to poverty alleviation. Generally, civil society groups in Zimbabwe have a strained relationship with government, especially considering that the government has promulgated a statute to counter the growing influence of these NGOs on the national landscape.

Another role played by civil society groups is promoting awareness and understanding of development. They have been helping residents in Harare Region, mostly through the Combined Harare Residents Association, to be involved in participatory budgeting and community-based planning. The aim has been to make Harare City Council more accountable to residents. Elements of community development have been introduced as well, where urban agriculture, composting and community groups have been initiated to tackle poverty. In some suburbs of Harare waste collection and management groups have been formed to reduce land contamination and general pollution. Some groups clean up drainage ditches in the heavily populated parts of the city. Some NGOs are promoting small and medium enterprises (SMEs), including developing value chains for SME produce. Other NGOs and bilateral organisations are involved in work related to water and sanitation in Greater Harare. There are many CSOs that are involved in education, advocacy, gender mainstreaming, HIV and AIDS mitigation, trade justice and local governance.

## **1.8 The role of culture and ethnicity in civil society dynamics**

Elements of culture, such as norms, taboos and traditions, impact greatly on civil society dynamics, while general racial or ethnic divisions also impact on civil society organisations or dynamics. Public participation is also adversely affected if those who participate in actions deemed to be taboo are labelled as outcasts; for example, there have been skirmishes between government and people over the demand by Harare residents to be recognised as stakeholders in decision-making. Culture can also result in a failure by civil society to advance ideas that are in tandem with technological advancement while cultural traditions forbid consideration of the same ideas. The rural areas in Harare region are conservative, when compared to the long-established urban estates. Often promoters of new ideas are accused of being un-African. Modern society is dynamic and full of changes which have the potential to result in improvement in the standard of living or welfare of people. However, a society which is inflexible or conservative culturally can thwart development efforts meant to improve society. NGOs are working hard to break down cultural and ethnic barriers within Harare.

## **1.9 Urban land prices and speculation in land**

There was a vibrant urban land market before 1999. There were many subdivisions of land for the market, and many new estate agents came on to the scene between 1990 and 1999. The land reform programme of 2002 altered these market dynamics to a great extent.

Most vacant unserviced urban land is now in the hands of central government. Government land is restricted in terms of availability. Vacant serviced land is in the hands of the private sector. The money markets have been performing dismally, and equities show only average returns. Land/property is the remaining real investment, at a premium wherever it is made available. Worse still, the little land that is made available is being priced in foreign currency which is beyond the reach of many. Land is priced differently if one is buying as an individual, for a company or for CSOs.

Many subdivisions of land have taken place and estate agents hold back this land to wait for a better price. Estate agents have also developed a habit of selling unserviced land, promising the buyers

---

services once the agreed deposits have been paid. In Harare a number of estates have failed to take off because of abuse of funds or the impact of inflation on monies collected and banked. Even if deposits are invested in equities or money markets there are no real returns on capital invested. There are too many pockets of undeveloped land in Harare.

### **1.10 Land tenure systems in Harare**

There are basically three land tenure systems that pertain to Harare urban land: leasehold, freehold and state land. Freehold tenure has the highest level of user rights, where the owner has the right to decide how to use or even abuse the land. The owner is free to dispose of the land whenever he/she chooses to do so, and can freely transfer rights without the consent of a third party or restrictions, although he/she may have to consult relevant authorities before selling, in line with planning regulations in place. A freehold owner also pays rates, levies and any other taxes as imposed by the local authority. She/he also has to give way to easements, covenants and way-leaves.

Leasehold refers to a system whereby a person gives rights of occupation to another person (lessee). Council residential land is offered on a 'lease with option to purchase' basis. The lessee has the right to occupy and use the land but cannot dispose of the property. The lessor, who is the owner of the land, is the one who pays the rates and levies to the relevant authorities. The lessee pays rent to the landlord for the use of the land but cannot develop or refurbish the land/property without the consent of the lessor.

State land is owned by the state. The state controls the use and development of the land and the property on the land. The state can allocate the land to local authorities, organisations or individuals for development.

In the Harare Region about 40% of households in Epworth are owner/purchaser-occupied; for Chitungwiza and Harare the percentages are 31% and 19% respectively. Lodgers account for 63% in Chitungwiza, 53% in urban Harare and 56% in Epworth. Zimbabwe's housing policy, which promotes home ownership as opposed to rental housing, therefore favours freehold title. Since land is expensive this has slowed housing delivery. People end up in overcrowded conditions. Only industrialists and commercial entrepreneurs can find a way out of this situation.

### **1.11 Main health issues facing the city and region**

Good health is one of the most important factors contributing to individual welfare. In developing cities or regions like Harare and Zimbabwe, there is a need to focus attention on the health facilities which are provided. A lot of work has been invested in primary health care provision. Generally, Harare Region facilities (hospitals and clinics) are reasonable, although issues of concern are the affordability and availability of medication and availability of skilled staff.

Many people have been affected by the HIV/AIDS pandemic and the available health institutions cannot cope with the growing numbers of patients needing anti-retroviral drugs. The rate of infection is currently around 15%; at one point it was well above 20%. Crude assessment of the death rate puts it at 13 per 1 000. Life expectancy is around 40 years. The infant mortality rate is 56 per 1 000 live births.<sup>4</sup> This has a serious bearing on the provision of social infrastructure.

Bodies like the Zimbabwe National Water Authority (ZINWA) and Environmental Management Authority (EMA) should seriously consider pollution of the Mukuvisi River. Industrial effluent from the industrial area has been improperly disposed of into streams which flow into the Mukuvisi River, thereby causing negative effects for the residents who use the water from this river for watering

---

<sup>4</sup> Ministry of Health Statistics 2008

gardens, drinking and bathing. Sewer bursts are the order of the day, especially in the high-density residential areas west and south-west of Harare City and Chitungwiza Municipality. The organic (biodegradable) wastes from domestic sewage, food processing and animal wastes, plant nutrients like fertilisers, detergents, industrial waste, as well as toxic waste like heavy metals, chemicals from pesticides, tanneries, pharmaceuticals, wool scouring and refineries, cause serious pollution in the water bodies of Harare. In the region, air pollution comes mainly from the transport sector where motor vehicles produce particulates.

Refuse collection in Harare has been taking place sporadically or not at all for the past two years. This has led to multitudes of flies and rodents. Land has been degraded and air pollution through odours is common place. This has affected the health of the people, with recurrent cholera outbreaks and diarrhoeal diseases.

### **1.12 Main environmental issues facing planners, governments and citizens**

There are many environmental problems facing Harare City. Air pollution, especially from vehicles, has been a big problem. A large number of public vehicles are no longer in good shape. Because of this they spew a lot of smoke and have oil leaks. Industries such as the thermal generator using coal, a cement company and chemical industries also pollute the atmosphere. There is serious soil pollution where sewer bursts, disposal of chemicals from some industries and refuse dumps create eyesore sites and contaminate the soil. Wet industries, chemical industries and municipal sewers also pollute the freshwater sources.

Harare sits on the uplands of the Hunyani River Catchment Basin. All the pollutants from land and water are washed into Lake Chivero and Lake Manyame, which are the sources of water for Harare. Environmentally, the high-nutrient water supports water hyacinth which then complicates the water supply problems of the Harare Region. It also means that residents consume water that is heavily laden with water treatment chemicals, if not inadequately treated.

The economic meltdown has had a huge effect on livelihoods. Urban agriculture has become an important activity in the city. With it come soil degradation, storm drain blockages, stream bank cultivation and siltation. Poor livelihoods have led to pit sand, river sand and quarry extraction without permission. During the rainy season, these turn into dirty water pools and mosquito breeding grounds. The pits increase the cost of superstructure development. Vendors sell their wares at every possible corner, regardless of available amenities. On street ranks for commuters omnibuses have reduced certain streets to chaotic vehicle assemblage sites. Infrastructure maintenance is very poor, leading to potholes, sites of gushing water or sewage and uncovered ditches. Land quality has been compromised.

## **2. The planning system in Zimbabwe**

### **2.1 Main pieces of legislation in Zimbabwe**

The centrepiece of regional, town and country planning is the Regional Town and Country Planning (RTCP) Act of 1996 as amended in 1998. The RTCP Act is a revised version of the 1976 RTCP Act. The first planning Act, the Town and Country Planning Act, was promulgated in 1933 and operationalised in 1935. It was amended in 1945 to accommodate modified development control aspects, especially subdivisions and forward planning aspects related to scheme plans. It was re-issued in 1976 after incorporating sections on regional planning, which had become an issue especially with the Club of Rome reports of 1974–1976.

Planning is also guided by the Urban Councils Act Chapter 29:15 and the Rural District Councils Act Chapter 29:13 of 1996. The Rural District Councils Act was assented to in 1988 and came into operation in 1993, in line with the amalgamation of Rural Councils and District Councils. This was done to bring planning into line with the decentralisation programme initiated in 1985 by the Prime Minister's Directive (1984) and the Provincial Councils and Administration Act of 1985.

The substantive policy on housing (covering a significant portion of real estate) is catered for by the Housing and Building Act of 1996 and the Housing Standards Control Act of 1996. Planning and housing Acts are supported by the Model Building By-Laws which set general development standards/guidelines. The Ministry of Economic Planning has put in place District Development Guidelines which attempt to tie spatial planning to economic planning and local authority budgeting.



## **2.2 Urban plans in Zimbabwe**

Urban plans have evolved over time. Early forward planning in 1933 was based on schemes and outline plans. There weren't many processes related to the preparation of these plans and that is why in 1945 changes were made to the Town and Country Planning Act. The outline plans and schemes prepared in the late 1950s and early 1960s necessitated a discussion on whether they were workable or not. The debate on introducing regional plans as an additional component of forward planning led to changes. Further changes were made to the Planning Act in 1976 when regional planning was incorporated into the Act. Scheme plans and outline plans were replaced by Master and Local Development Plans which were deemed to be more flexible than the earlier forms. At present Zimbabwe still uses master plans and local development plans (LDPs). LDPs are of three types: a) local development plans; b) priority plans; and c) subject plans. The standing outline plans and scheme plans have not been replaced by new forms of plans in a number of areas.

Parallel to master plans and local plans has been the process of preparing integrated strategic plans for urban areas. The unfortunate aspect of this is that it was promoted as a panacea for failure to implement master and local plans. The finance side of the planning process was kept out of sight. To this day integrated strategic plans have not functioned better than master plans or LDPs at the implementation stage. This also raises the question of whether non-statutory planning documents are any better than statutory planning documents, and a subsequent fundamental question about how best to plan and manage urban development. Put differently, how best can we finance urban development?

Detailed control of development is done through layout plans in terms of section 205 of the Urban Councils Act or section 43 of the RTCP Act. Development frameworks have been a topical issue recently, but they have remained at that level. In other words, will development frameworks release urban development finance?

## **2.3 Urban plans for Harare**

Harare's urban planning is governed by the Harare Combination Master Plan of 1992. The Combination Master Plan did not cancel the schemes which were prepared between 1972 and 1976. Some of those 30-year-old schemes are still in place. Areas which have had LDPs prepared are now being guided by the Combination Master Plan and the approved LDPs. Forward planning document preparation has been slow, mainly because of resource shortages, both human and financial. Approved layout plans at a particular period in time are guided by the forward plans in place.

## **2.4 Urban form resulting from the urban plans**

Generally, the urban form is characterised by clear-cut zones, i.e. commercial, industrial and residential, and in some cases institutional, zones. The residential area is further divided into areas of high, medium and low density. The layout designs for most towns, including Harare, yield a radial transport network with the CBD being the focal point. The urban design parameters produce 3-D building structures that are comparable to any in the world. All buildings are of a high quality. Problems are faced with regard to maintenance and overcrowding. In addition, the way that Harare Region has been developed has resulted in an urban area that is not compact. It is difficult to maintain the water and sewer infrastructure of the area.

## **2.5 Institutional arrangements and administration of plans**

The planning system in Zimbabwe is centralised to a great extent. The Ministry of Local Government, Public Works and Urban Development is the planning authority. Central government, through the Department of Physical Planning, formulates planning policy and monitors its implementation. Urban local authorities have varying degrees of autonomy in the implementation of plan legislation. The levels of government involved, therefore, are central government, provincial and local authorities. There are four categories of urban local authorities, as outlined at the beginning of this paper, i.e. Town Board, Local Board/Town Council, Municipality and City. In these terms Harare is a city. The provincial level coordinates the planning activities of districts or local authorities. All local authorities can prepare master plans, local development plans and layout plans. Where necessary they seek help from government or hire consultants.

## **2.6 Effectiveness of plans**

The master plans, local development plans and subdivision and consolidation permits effectively control development in Zimbabwe. There has been little change for the past 30 years. After the deregulation report of 1993 and the introduction of the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme,<sup>5</sup> informal settlements and buildings were constructed during the period 1993–2005. But since Operation Restore Order in 2005 the country has gone back to following plans at the implementation stage, and these have succeeded in guiding development.

## **2.7 Participation and the process through which plans are produced**

Plans are in the main produced by planners in local authorities, central government and the private sector. The planner is the key person and is expected to know what the people want. As such there is limited participation by other stakeholders, including the people themselves. In terms of approval, a local authority planner produces a layout plan, checked by the supervisor and by the city planner; this is then tabled before the council and sent for approval by the Minister in terms of the Urban Councils Act or for approval by the Director of Physical Planning in terms of section 43 of the RTCP Act. The same process is followed with master and local plans, the exception being that local authorities approve local development plans.

## **2.8 The relationship between 'forward' planning and the regulatory system**

There is a strong relationship between the combination master plan and the detailed layouts that are prepared for development. The zones indicated by the master plan or LDPs are followed more or less to the letter. Development control is heavily guided by the master plan and local development plans.

## **2.9 Equity and sustainability**

The form of urban planning that is practised is good for environmental planning. However, it is not fair in its release of plots to those who need them. The system favours those who have the means to acquire plots. There is also an element of patronage which works against those who are independent-minded. Standards for residential development are very high, in terms of both stand/plot sizes and quality of buildings. Layout plans have produced space settlements which are expensive to service, thereby leading to the exclusion of the poor with regard to access to plots. Such a form of settlement development is not sustainable because it is exclusive and expensive.

---

<sup>5</sup> This programme was introduced in the early 1990s as Zimbabwe moved from the policy of scientific socialism adopted at independence in 1980 to some form of capitalism. The objective was to boost production.

## **2.10 The Harare Combination Master Plan and the surrounding area**

Harare City is bounded by Goromonzi District, Seke District, Zvimba District, Mazowe District, Ruwa Local Board, Epworth Local Board and Chitungwiza Municipality. Goromonzi, Ruwa and Zvimba have operating master plans. The Harare Combination Master Plan is interwoven into the master plans of surrounding areas. This gives consistency and continuity where the forward planning documents overlap.

## **3. The planning education system in the Department of Rural and Urban Planning, University of Zimbabwe**

### **3.1 Overall objectives of the curriculum**

The Department of Rural and Urban Planning (DRUP) mission statement states that the mission of the DRUP is '[to] provide appropriate participatory needs-based rural, urban and project planning skills and advice to our clients through partnerships and sound resource management and continuous research on a sustainable basis'.

The department was set up to implement some of the objectives of the Faculty of Social Studies and therefore those of the University of Zimbabwe (UZ), that is, to provide manpower/service to government and the private sector and advisory services to government. Our business is to produce multi-skilled personnel through teaching, research and community service. The DRUP engages in research, teaching and community service. It also monitors world events/academic trends and incorporates new ideas into policy and course content development.

### **3.2 Producing critical thinkers and professionals**

The UZ degree programmes are geared to producing thinkers. The biggest headache experienced recently has been the shortage of reference materials. On the other hand, UZ teaching also produces graduates who are good at application of professional skills and knowledge. The Bachelor of Science (BSc) degree is generally geared towards the production of such application-oriented graduates. The main reason is that the degree programme was originally designed to cater for the needs of government, NGOs and the private sector. Even the revised course outlines of the early 1990s and 2001 maintained that market orientation.

### **3.3 Extent of conceptual or technical bias in the curriculum**

At the moment the courses for the BSc degree are half-theoretical and half-practical. The first two years tend to focus on conceptualisation of rural and urban planning. The last two years have a bias towards application of rural and urban planning concepts. The fourth and final year is heavily biased towards practice. The master's degree focuses on advanced understanding of a specific area of planning. It involves more detailed studies of areas touched on in the BSc degree programme. The postgraduate diploma is a practical degree, focusing on how to carry out project planning, implementation and management. Even our recruitment favours those with experience in the field.

### **3.4 Programmes offered**

The DRUP offers three programmes: the Master of Science (MSc) in Rural and Urban Planning, the Diploma in Project Planning and Management, and the BSc in Rural and Urban Planning. We also offer short courses along the lines of workshops.

### *Courses, levels (years) and time allocations*

The duration of courses is indicated by (1) denoting one semester and (2) denoting two semesters.

#### **BSc RUP Level 1:**

Introduction to Planning (1); Quantitative Techniques (2); The City in History and Settlement Analysis (1); Environmental Systems (1); Design Studio I (2); Academic Communication Skills for Social Studies (1); Environmental Planning (1); Professional Communication Skills for Social Studies (1); and Principles of Economics (2).

#### **BSc RUP Level II:**

Planning Theory (2); Planning Techniques and Methods (1); Introduction to Water Supply and Sewerage (1); Environmental Design I (2); Design Studio II (2); Geographic Information Systems and Planning (1); Introduction to Road and Building Infrastructure (1); Rural Planning, Society and Ecology (1); and Rural Planning, the Economy and The State (1).

#### **BSc RUP Level III:**

Principles and Practice of Planning Law (2); Environmental Design II (2); Regional Economic Theory (1); Valuation and Property Development (2); Design Studio III (2); and Regional Planning Techniques and Methods (1).

*Optional Courses* one per student: Transport I (2); Rural Planning I (2); Building Economics I (2); and Project Planning and Management I (2).

#### **BSc RUP Level IV:**

Planning Thought and Practice (1); Urban Development and Management (1); Regional Planning (2); Design Studio IV (2); Professional Planning Practice (1); Urban Policy and Planning (1); Dissertation/Design Project (2).

*Optional Courses* one per student: Transport II (2); Rural Planning II (2); Building Economics II (2); and Project Planning and Management II (2).

#### **Postgraduate Diploma in Project Planning and Management (DPPM):**

Development Planning (2); Project Planning and Design (2); Project Appraisal (2); Project Management (2); and Rural and Urban Environments (2) plus Project Paper (2).

#### **MSc RUP:**

Advanced Planning Theory (2); Planning Techniques and Research Methods (2); Policy Analysis and Planning (2).

*Optional Courses:* Housing Theory and Policy (2) and Housing Practice and Management (2) OR Rural Institutions and Production Systems (2) and Rural Development Planning and Management (2) OR Urban Design (2) and Urban Economy and Management (2).

*Dissertation:* written from the 13th to the 18th month of the one-and-a-half year master's degree programme.

### **3.5 Teaching methods used**

Teaching methods are varied. We have lectures, where the theoretical issues and ideas are introduced. Teaching aids like overhead projectors, LCDs, boards and flip charts are used. We also have studio work once a week to introduce and sharpen the student's ability to design and draw maps, layouts and 3-D diagrams. Furthermore, we carry out fieldwork to put into practice what has been learnt in class or to

clarify issues by using design examples. There is also an attachment programme; a student should have a minimum attachment period of three months over the four years of courses for the BSc programme.

### **3.6 Admission requirements at undergraduate and postgraduate level**

For the BSc programme an applicant should have at least 11 points at A Level, a pass in Geography at A Level, Geography and Mathematics with at least a B for O Level.

For the MSc RUP programme an applicant should have a BSc RUP with a 2.1 or a Postgraduate Diploma in Project Planning and Management with a merit.

For the DPPM programme candidates should have a background in Sociology, Political Science and Administrative Studies, Engineering, Agriculture and Biological Sciences. Candidates outside these disciplines have to prove that they deserve consideration. In addition they should have at least a 2.2; depending on numbers this entry level may be raised.

### **3.7 Forms of assessment**

Student assessment takes various forms. The written examination is employed for most of the courses. For studio work there is continuous assessment in the form of group work, individual exercises, tests and practical design discussions. Dissertations are accompanied by oral examinations. BSc Year IV and master's students write dissertations. The diploma students produce project papers (business projects).

### **3.8 Class numbers and staff/student ratios**

In general the BSc class averages 40 students before dropouts. The number for the MSc averages 12 before dropouts, and for the DPPM it averages 40 before dropouts. The lecturer-student ratio is about 1 : 15. However, the teaching load is heavy because of the numerous courses that are offered.

### **3.9 Student throughput rates**

We have three groups of students and throughput rates are about 10 MSc RUP students, 35 BSc RUP and 30 Postgraduate DPPM students per year. The DPPM course has been popular to the extent that the recently introduced parallel programme will raise the student numbers to about 55 students per year.

### **3.10 Exposure to current literature and ideas in planning**

The UZ used to be in touch with current trends in education. Unfortunately, the economic hardships that the country has been experiencing for the past 8–10 years have put the UZ in a situation where it is difficult to buy the latest literature for reference by the students and lecturers. Most of the planning literature available was written in the 1990s and earlier. Current literature which explores innovative ways of doing things and modifications in the application of theories is not readily available. It is difficult to teach critical thinking because there is very little material for the students to choose from or to nourish their interest. They tend to depend on the lecturer a great deal in this regard.

### **3.11 Library and IT resources**

Library and IT resources at UZ are very inadequate. The Map Library, which houses most of the planning reference material together with that of the Department of Geography, seats only about 40 students at a time. The two departments have over 500 students, before factoring in other university students who use the library. In terms of numbers, there are rarely more than two copies of each item

of reference material. Competition for the material is stiff, and becomes worse during the period just before examinations. There is also a Faculty of Agriculture library, a Department of Politics and Administrative Studies Library, a Law Library and the Main Library from which to get reference material.

IT resources are adequate for students to learn how to use them at elementary level. For RUP we have about 20 computers for over 200 students. Half the lecturers do not have computers and compete for a single one in the computer room. The newest computers are four years old; in this hi-tech era we lag behind in upgrading our computers and therefore our IT resources. Poor IT has contributed to the disappearance of several valuable books from the Map Library. Student data cards help a lot in managing and monitoring the borrowing of reference material. It is mainly the main administration block and the libraries that have reasonable IT networks for security and ease of administration.

There are several microfilm readers for use by any library user. There are also CD-Rom databases for computer searches.

### **3.12 Revisions in the curriculum**

At the outset the DRUP was a unit under the Department of Geography. It became a stand-alone department in the mid-1980s. As such an MSc degree in rural and urban planning was offered as a two-year programme to students from relevant BSc or BA programmes. In response to demand, a BSc RUP programme was introduced. The BSc degree was established in 1986 and the MSc RUP by conversion was phased out two years later. Most of the course outlines for that time were developed in the mid-1980s in preparation for the launch of the BSc degree. Further changes were made in the 1990s in response to reaction to the usefulness of the degree. Most of the course outlines of that time are still being used. An MSc RUP (18 months) through specialisation was introduced (see Section 3.4 above). The BSc RUP course outlines were revised around 2001, when the university moved from the three-term to the two-semester system and courses were semesterised. It is these course outlines that are in use to this day.

## **4. School links to the planning profession and professional accreditation**

The DRUP has various links to the planning profession which includes town planning, environmental design, land use management, rural development planning, and development control as well as draughting techniques. Through the use of environmental design principles, the school has managed to equip students with a knowledge of good practices relating to land use development and management. This involves the allocation of different land uses to different use zones; for example in Harare, the western side comprises high-density residential areas, the south-east belt comprises the industrial zone (both the heavy and light industries) and the eastern side is characterised by low-density residential housing. An appreciation of the above zoning criteria is undertaken so as to make students aware of how they minimise the rate of pollution from the industrial zones to the residential areas. Landscaping is also part of environmental design in that it encompasses aspects like beautifying the environment and adding recreational parks to residential, industrial and commercial zones.

The DRUP offers courses in rural development. Issues like poverty, its causes and how it can be tackled in a holistic manner are addressed. Planners are expected to promote rural industries as a form of livelihood strategy and economic base diversification to improve living standards. Furthermore, planning also creates space for rural industries and these are evident in layout plans for

different Growth Points. Aspects of culture, ethnicity, norms, values and social ties in civil societies within the rural context are also studied.

The department also offers course that work in tandem with property valuation as a profession. Aspects of property management, determining values of different properties depending on their location, bills of quantities and the issue of rights (as in who owns a given property) are incorporated into the planning profession. In this profession, planners are concerned with lease regulations and rental agreements that are attached to property; these rental agreements are reviewed on either a quarterly or a monthly basis.

Generally urban areas should not be allowed to sprawl. Planners are expected to understand the city region, so as planners we play a crucial role in ensuring that any form of development in both urban and rural areas should be legal. Planners are schooled in understanding the objectives of planning i.e. order, amenity, convenience, safety, health, efficiency and effectiveness, to mention but a few.

The DRUP has also offered much to the development of professional draughting techniques, i.e. the drawing of layouts manually and through AutoCAD and GIS; draughting principles are also taught.

The Zimbabwe Institute of Regional and Urban Planners (ZIRUP) accredits planners from the DRUP programme. Those who have completed their courses are offered certificates and membership cards so that they are easily recognised within the planning profession. For transport planners there is the Chartered Institute of Transport Planning and Logistics, which is a regulatory board for the transport profession; like ZIRUP, it also offers membership cards and certificates. Because of the Building Economics courses it offers, the DRUP is also linked to the construction industry. Furthermore, a good number of students take the Real Estate Institute examinations before they graduate at UZ such that by the time they finish undergraduate studies they will be members of the Real Estate Institute of Zimbabwe.

## **5. Preparing students to operate in 21st-century urban and regional environments**

The 21st-century regional and urban environments have been faced with a plethora of issues. Among others, these include sustainable development, urbanisation, urban sprawl, a dual space economy, the informal sector, technology, rural development, poverty, gender and HIV and AIDS, politics, globalisation, housing, regional trade and integration.

In terms of planning curricula, the issue of sustainable development is crucial as environments and resources should be used in ways that consider future availability. Sustainable development has been a fashionable planning issue worldwide. There is great concern about how development and growth have been taking place in most parts of the world. As such, there are negative consequences of development that affect environmental health. For instance, the 21st century is faced with forms of development that emit chlorofluorocarbons which cause global warming and change in climates. Planners therefore need to be well-versed in layout design, regional planning and planning law, environmental systems and environmental planning. The design concepts that underpin the curricula are effective in addressing questions of sustainable development. Emphasis on layout design should be on encouraging sustainable development. Additionally, student planners need a strong relationship with sustainable development agencies, which at present do not appreciate the role of planners in environmental planning in Zimbabwe.

Today, individual countries are living in what is called a 'global village'. Globalisation has seen countries from all parts of the world interacting. Therefore there has been a need for effective communication to foster interaction among countries. Trade amongst different countries is one area

where such interactions are most common. The curriculum of the BSc RUP has been well informed by an awareness of globalisation, such that courses in regional studies are included which help and encourage planners to decide what to produce from a region, in effective and efficient terms. These studies include economic base studies in regional economics. Student planners are made aware of the practical realities so that when they go into the field they have some knowledge of specialisation issues for the economic growth and development of their respective regions.

The concepts of rural development and poverty alleviation have also been fashionable issues in the 21st century, as most rural people in the Third World continue to be victims of the vicious circle of poverty. The BSc RUP curriculum has been very quick to realise this, and the programme courses in Rural Planning, the Economy and the State, as well as Rural Planning, Society and Ecology aim to equip the student planner with the skills required in the fight against poverty in the field. The student planner becomes competent enough to execute poverty alleviation strategies in various work environments such as local government, the private sector and the NGO world. For instance, students are taught the current concept of 'capacity building' which entails providing the local people with the skills to shape their lives so that development becomes self-propelling, even after the withdrawal of aid.

The concept of urbanisation is a topical issue, especially in developing countries. Problems of rapid rural-to-urban migration, urban policy and planning, urban development and management, and natural population increase predominate in most cities. This creates problems of housing, hence urban sprawl, shanty settlements, and urban poverty and poor sanitation. The BSc RUP programme offers courses such as urban development and management, and an introduction to water and infrastructure development, to highlight issues of urban sprawl, poverty, infrastructure provision and maintenance. In environmental design issues of development control, zoning and urban design are articulated. Therefore, the graduate planner is generally well equipped with the vital and necessary skills which tackle urbanisation.

The emergence and proliferation of the informal sector in urban areas, as a substitute for or complement to the formal sector, has seen the planning curriculum incorporating the informal sector in the design of layouts and formulation of policies, e.g. urban agriculture. For this reason it can be argued that the contribution of the planning curriculum can never be over-emphasised in the current urban and regional environments. Planning law as a course provides a body of knowledge concerning subdivisions and consolidation matters in the development control process. The urban development and management course helps students to appreciate matters touching primarily on service delivery and associated problems.

The current environment is shifting towards the emancipation of women so as to bring them on par with their male counterparts in the spheres of investment, education, employment and training. The BSc RUP encourages capacity-building for marginalised women and those suffering from various illnesses, for example HIV and AIDS. This is achieved through the Planning Practice course.

The DRUP has noted the need for specialisation within the rural and urban planning curricula.

The curricula also offer a course on project planning and management to equip students with skills in managing various projects. They also offers transport courses and building economics courses to cater for those special requirements.

## **5.1 Main issues that need to be addressed**

1. Looking at economic, political and social developments in Zimbabwe, planning education has been slow to adapt to new dispensations.



2. Housing provision and the housing industry are not being given proper attention.
3. The relevant integration of spatial and economic planning is needed, in the classroom and in practice. Local and regional economic development is one such area.
4. Proper and sustainable environmental planning and urban design are not being accorded their place when it comes to resource allocation, at school and in practice.
5. Human settlement development and management, and unsatisfactory service delivery, need emphasis.
6. Real estate and retail planning: urbanisation is reaching 40% and is projected to rise above 50% by 2025 in Zimbabwe. This has a bearing on urban superstructure provision.
7. There is a need to address the problem of limited resources and the need for serious use of appropriate but up-to-date technology in schools and at the workplace.
8. 'Increasing' poverty in both rural and urban areas, and local economic development together with poverty, income inequality and unemployment in cities in general need to be addressed.
9. Lack of urban (human settlement) infrastructure provision and the problem of urban development finance is a concern. Can planning education address this?
10. We must consider what forms of forward plan are needed to address issues of zoning of land uses, economic viability and economies of scale.
11. Limited resources in schools, and the flight of planning professionals to greener pastures must be considered.
12. We must deal with problems relating to the offering of courses which overlap or leave huge gaps between them.

## 5.2 Areas that need improvement

Technological advancement is the driving force behind economic growth in the 21st century. In planning, there are better techniques that are now used in the production of layout designs, maps, global positioning systems, data-capturing for master plan preparation and other plans. These new technologies in planning include Geographic Information Systems (GIS) and AutoCAD. However, the BSc RUP programme has not been able to offer the practical side of GIS. Only the theoretical framework has been tackled, such that the students are 'half-baked'. The availability of computers connected to the internet has not been fully utilised since there has not been adequate training and practice in computer utilisation.

Theory and practice have not been effectively implemented in the BSc RUP programme. The curricula equip students with theory in planning and little is done on the practical side. Students are not given equal opportunities to have hands-on experience in dealing with planning issues. This is because the industrial attachment is for 12 weeks only. Moreover, it is not seriously considered in the grading of students. In the 21st century the planning profession has adopted the notion of 'planning with the people' but the curricula do not fully expose the students to the public. Field trips have not been undertaken because of a lack of resources.

Other areas that need improvement are:

1. The need to emphasise matters concerning work-related learning in order to gain practical exposure. As such there is a need to create a favourable attachment period specifically in the third year of the full-time programme.
2. New courses need to be introduced that accommodate changes in these new urban and regional

environment settings.

3. The existing departmental equipment (for instance studio design equipment and laboratory computers) needs to be upgraded, to enhancing planning skills and make them competitive and up-to-date.
4. GIS and AutoCAD studies need to be upgraded to a full course.

The political environment in any country has a strong bearing on planning. The politics of resource allocation, such as land in Zimbabwe, shapes the behaviour of planners and their planning practice. Governance structures at local levels, where planners are common creatures, make up the greater proportion of a difficult political fraternity. Developing countries at times want to follow to the letter ideas espoused by developed countries, and yet circumstances are different. Democracy and decentralisation is one area where interpretation and misinterpretation are rife. The planner has to master this area. The Professional Planning and Practice and Planning Law courses are designed to prepare a student planner to function in the complex political environments which exist. However, more has to be done to develop students' understanding of social dynamics and politics and the politics of administration, as well as the role of politicians in planning.

At master's level there is a need to introduce a course in project planning and management. There is also a need to revamp the current master's degree programme so that it relates to market demand. Another area where there is demand is housing, and yet another is planning and urban management. The areas that are to be changed are generally acknowledged, but there has been no time and resources available to come up with course content and objectives for the proposed new or revised courses.

Furthermore, in discussions between stakeholders, it has been realised that now is the time to introduce a degree in Real Estate and Management or Land Economics. The course outlines have been worked out and a degree proposal has been drafted. Resources are the major stumbling block to implementation.

### **5.3 Changes in the social and political system and planning in Zimbabwe**

The political system in Zimbabwe has changed greatly over time. In 1965 there was Unilateral Declaration of Independence, followed by the adoption of a Republican Constitution in 1969. Zimbabwe was isolated from the rest of the world, resulting in inward-looking approaches to development. The aim was to create human settlements that would provide for the country to be self-sustaining on the economic front. Programmes for housing development, infrastructure development and regional development were to be funded locally. Government understood the importance of investing in electricity, tarred roads, dams, opening industrial and commercial zones in urban areas and setting up reasonable and sustainable health and educational infrastructures and networks. The main problem then was that of the practice of racial segregation.

At independence in 1980 the new government extended the development facilities that were being made available to a few to the majority of the people. In 1982 environmental design services, which had been restricted to urban areas only, were extended to the rural areas. Planning standards were introduced in the rural areas. There was a massive siting of social facilities such as schools, clinics, animal health centres, community halls and business centres. On the regional planning front commercial farming areas were reconfigured, with the introduction of Models A to D resettlement schemes which made limited agricultural land available to the 'underprivileged'. This was accompanied, in 1982, by the 'growth point' concept of development so as to urbanise and industrialise the rural or remote areas. The planning profession had to adapt to this new situation.

These changes in planning brought about administrative challenges. In 1984 district development

---

planning was introduced, followed by provincial development planning in 1985, so as to provide an institutional framework that could cater for the rapid changes in planning. Spatial planning and economic planning had to be synchronised. The 1993 deregulation exercise and the indigenisation of the economy through affirmative action in the mid-1990s were meant to counter the accusations levelled against spatial/physical planning that it was too rigid, to the extent of stifling development.

Planning had to be put in context through reflecting on its practice and prohibitive attributes. The debate went as far as posing the choice of 'the European City versus the African City'. At the end of the day planning standards were put in the spotlight. It was concluded that they were too high. This was partly addressed in 1994 by allowing development to take place on merit and not necessarily according to the master plan or local development plan. Also in 2004, Circular No. 70 reduced housing standards to make housing more affordable.

The question one may ask is to what extent planning education has adapted to changes in government policy and practice. The expansion of spatial planning to cover the whole country in 1982; the introduction of growth points in 1982; district development planning in 1984; provincial development planning in 1985; and the initiation of decentralisation in the mid-1980s created a huge demand for personnel. In 1986 a four-year BSc RUP programme was introduced. Before that planners came through a two-year MSc RUP-by-conversion course. The RUP master's and BSc degree content were further changed in the early 1990s. Economic liberalisation, which moved the country practices shaped by scientific socialism to capitalism accompanied by deregulation, meant introducing courses that related spatial planning to economic planning in a free economy. A diploma programme in rural development was introduced to cater for personnel for the resettlement schemes and for NGOs that had pushed into the rural areas dealing with regional and rural development issues.

As urban development and rural development took root, new challenges arose in terms of manpower to handle the congested urban areas, the prospering rural areas, and demands for more services. On the other hand BSc RUP planners were being found to be short of the necessary skills and not readily employable because of their training, which was steeped in traditional physical planning theory and practice. The DRUP went through a process of introspection and introduced the BSc RUP, with specialisations in either transport planning, rural planning, building economics or project planning, but retained the core of spatial planning including land management and real estate development. The diploma in rural development became irrelevant. Demand from industry, NGOs and donor organisations and government indicated the need for project planners and managers. The DPPM was introduced. Currently the DRUP is in agreement that the BSc RUP and MSc RUP need an overhaul. The problem we face is the high turnover of academic staff, which makes it difficult to seriously discuss the changes needed.

## References

- Auret D (1995) *A Decade of Development. Zimbabwe 1980–1990*. Gweru: Mambo Press
- GoZ (Government of Zimbabwe) (1982) *National Census Report*. Harare: Central Statistical Office
- GoZ (1991) *Report on Development of Human Settlements in Zimbabwe*. Harare: GoZ
- GoZ (1992) *National Census Report*. Harare: Central Statistical Office
- GoZ (2002) *National Census Report*. Harare: Central Statistical Office
- GoZ, UN HABITAT & UN Development Programme (UNDP) (2007) *Workshop Report on Country Programme Document*, November
- Isaac I (2006) *Redirecting development interventions towards promoting positive rural-urban*

- linkages for sustainable development: Harare and its rural regions. Master's dissertation submitted as part of the MSc RUP requirements at the University of Zimbabwe
- Matekaire R (2008) An investigation into the challenges, constraints and opportunities in housing as a community building agenda in Epworth, Zimbabwe. BSc HRUP (honours degree, rural and urban planning) dissertation, submitted as part of the BSc requirements at the University of Zimbabwe
- Moyo S (ed.) (1991) *Zimbabwe's Environmental Dilemma: Balancing Resource Inequalities*. Harare: ZERO
- Munzwa K M (2007) Urbanisation in Zimbabwe. Unpublished document
- Tibaijuka AK (2005) Report of the UN Special Envoy on Human Settlements Issues in Zimbabwe, 18 July
- Wekwete (1992) New directions for urban development and management in rapidly urbanising countries. The case of Zimbabwe. *Habitat International* 16(2): 53–63
- Wekwete KH (1994) Urbanisation, urban development and management in Zimbabwe. In KH Wekwete & CO Rambanepasi (eds) *Planning Urban Economies in Southern and Eastern Africa*. Belmont: Avebury
- Zinyama L, Tevera D & Cumming S (eds) (1993) *Harare: The Growth and Problems of the City*. Harare: University of Zimbabwe