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## **ACRONYMS**

<b>ACTRP</b>	Association for Consulting Town and Regional Planners
<b>ASGISA</b>	Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa
<b>CEDE</b>	Centre for Economic Development and Enterprise
<b>CETA</b>	Construction Education Training Authority
<b>CHE</b>	Council for Higher Education
<b>CUBES</b>	Centre for Urban and Built Environment Studies
<b>DLA</b>	Department of Land Affairs
<b>DOE</b>	Department of Education
<b>DPLG</b>	Department of Provincial and Local Government
<b>DTI</b>	Department of Trade and Industry
<b>EPU</b>	Education Policy Unit
<b>HOD</b>	Head of Department
<b>IDP</b>	Integrated Development Plan
<b>JIPSA</b>	Joint Initiative for Priority Skills Acquisition
<b>MDB</b>	Municipal Demarcation Board
<b>RTPI</b>	Royal Town Planning Institute
<b>SACPLAN</b>	South African Council of Planners
<b>SACPP</b>	South African Consulting Professional Planners
<b>SAPI</b>	South African Planning Institute
<b>SGB</b>	Standards Generating Body

# **CHAPTER 1**

## ***ORIENTATION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY***

### ***1.1. Introduction***

South Africa is currently experiencing a surge in demand as far as service delivery is concerned. The rise in demand can be assumed to be stemming directly from the decentralization of government departments. As a result of the afore-mentioned move towards decentralization much responsibility for service delivery has fallen on the shoulders of Local Government. Apart from the call for service delivery, the new dispensation has also seen a rise in the demand for quality of service as well as accountability.

Post-apartheid municipalities are faced with a major task of addressing social as well as economic inequities. Legislation created to guide municipal functions like the Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 stipulates that all municipalities should 'provide democratic and accountable government', ensuring that services are provided in a sustainable and equitable manner. It is local government's mandate not only to promote a safe and healthy environment, but also to encourage the involvement of communities in the developmental issues that concern them (Naude 2003: 50). All municipalities in South Africa are expected to play a 'developmental' role. The Integrated Development Plan (IDP) acts as a developmental tool for municipalities in realizing this task. As Naude (2003) posits, the IDP entails a shift from the local government's role as service provider to active involvement in development tasks, including strategic planning for its area of jurisdiction.

Municipalities in post-1994 South Africa find themselves in the forefront of service delivery and strategic development planning. Development planning tools such as Integrated Development Plan (IDP) and the Spatial Development Framework position local and district municipalities as critical players in the realization of both national and provincial development goals. Notwithstanding the legislative and policy framework, most municipalities in South Africa are struggling to realize their mandate. Within all three spheres of government, critical vacancies take a long time to be filled. In

some instances, the snail-pace of service delivery has been blamed on the inefficiency and/or lack of capacity among public officials.

Given the competitive nature of the global community, it becomes critical for the bureaucratic machinery to be operated or capacitated by people who can interpret government policy, also being able to be more innovative. The lack of skills within South Africa's public sector, especially within the local sphere of government has resulted in increasing frustration among civil servants. Budgets are made available each year for the purposes of service delivery however the lack of expertise in interpreting government policy and facilitating delivery has resulted in increasing stagnation in delivery. This trend fuels the discontent of many highly expectant constituencies.

Given the challenges faced by the government in realizing its development mandate, this research strives to identify the role of government and universities in promoting sustainable economic growth. In this knowledge-based society, it is imperative for universities to produce graduates that can have a sound and critical understanding of developmental issues. Furthermore, the core functions of universities such as research and teaching must be structured in a manner that is beneficial to the socio-economic well-being of a given country (Pascal: 1996).

Recently, there has been a debate over the relevance of the planning profession in the 21st century (Harrison 2006; Berrisford: 2006). For some critics, the planning profession has been struggling to adapt and respond meaningfully to the challenges that characterize the postmodernist society. Such a debate begs a thorough investigation particularly in the South Africa where strategic planning is viewed as a vehicle that would necessitate social and spatial integration (Harrison, 2002). The questioning of the role of planning profession in tackling these above mentioned issues has compelled the researcher to interrogate the institutions that impart knowledge and expertise to planners – universities.

By understanding the education system as well as the nature of skills that graduate planners wield, one might be able to determine these planners' ability to deal or engage with the socio-economic and spatial challenges faced by the post-apartheid South Africa. The aim of this study is therefore

to explore how the collaboration between government and higher education institutions can ensure the bridging of gaps in the curriculum and its delivery.

## ***1.2. Background to the Problem Statement***

In the post-Fordist era, where much emphasis is put on 'flexible production' instead of the 'mass production that characterized the Fordist epoch; it comes as no surprise that local authorities have ceased to be mere service providers (Stoker 1989 quoted in Rogerson 1997). In the words of Wolman (1995) post-Fordist local governments are compelled by global trends to become more 'entrepreneurial'. In other words, local governments world-over have a major role to play in the development of local economy as well as local democracy (Wolman 1995). Against that backdrop, it is less surprising that local governments in South Africa find themselves in the forefront, ensuring that the economy at local level is not only competitive, but it can also sustain the livelihood of the local residents (Nell and Binn 2001; Naude 2003).

In a bid to reduce the socio-economic disparities entrenched by the pre-1994 regime, the ANC government embarked in the process of transforming local authorities. By ensuring that municipalities are more 'developmental', the government is able to facilitate a culture of being more responsive to the needs of local people. In one of his articles, Naude (2003) outlines the transformation process of the South African Local Government. The transformed local authorities are 'developmental' in the sense that they have 'a special constitutional mandate to foster development' (Naude 2003). According to Chapter 7, (Section 153a) of the Constitution of South Africa (1996) - A municipality must structure and manage its administration and budgeting and planning processes to give priority to the basic needs of the community and to promote the social and economic development of the community.

In other words, the decentralization process in South Africa was structured in such a way that local authorities enjoy a degree of 'autonomy', thus being expected to manage their financial, planning as well as economic matters (Rogerson 2002, Nell and Binn 2001). Furthermore, the White paper on Local Government emphasizes the Local Government's mandate to working with citizens and groups within the community to find sustainable ways to meet the social, economic and material



needs of the locals, ensuring that their lives are improved. To use Naude's (2003) summary the White paper stipulates that a developmental Local government should:

- Exercise municipal power and functions in a manner that maximizes their impact on social development and economic growth;
- Playing an integrating and coordinating role to ensure alignment between public and private investment within the municipal area;
- Promoting local democracy in such a way that citizens and community groups, apart from being represented by the councilors, are involved in the design and delivery of municipal programmes;
- Building social capital by providing community leadership and vision;
- Seeking to empower marginalized and excluded groups within the community;

Local government in South Africa has a major role to play in improving the economic well-being of their area of jurisdiction. Instead of being the lowest tier within the government structure, local government is supposed to be a distinctive sphere of government in its own right, 'it is an integral component of the democratic state' (Nell and Binn 2001). What one wonders, however, is whether all local governments in South Africa have the capacity and the resources to 'shoulder' the responsibilities that have been thrust on them.

The developmental mandate of Local Government has thus given rise to increasing demand for specialized skills in the public sector. The skills possessed by much of the public sector/local government fall short of the quality needed. The skills of the technocrats in most localities are no longer sufficient to meet the standards needed for the fulfillment of government's new and increasingly diversified roles. The shift in local governments' function from that of being merely a vehicle for service delivery to that of being a driver of development has called for improved skills training in institutions of higher learning. The call for intervention in education and skills training seems to resonate throughout government's spheres. "With the envisaged heavy government investment spending in infrastructure, the skills shortage is to become very glaring" (Mantashe 2007:1).

### **1.3. Problem Statement**

The purpose of post graduate planning programmes was to equip people to become development planners and town and regional planners in the context of a developmental government. The UCT programme has been running since 1973 and the Wits programme was established in the late 1980s' years before South Africa's liberation. These programmes were initiated for the purpose of equipping planners for their tasks in all spheres of government before 1994. These programmes have been adapted to facilitate the training of planners for their new roles within a transforming state. This state which was soon to become a developing and developmental state with projects and programmes aimed at initiating change and facilitating development.

The problem however is that; these post-graduate planning programmes may be so deeply embedded in the teaching of policy that they may be lacking in the technical aspect of the planning discipline. Although the programmes are broad enough to cover all policy and theoretical aspects of the planning discipline and in the case of UCT also include practical exercises in the form of studio work, the skills taught in these programmes may not be sufficient to produce the quality of planners needed by the transforming state.

### **1.4. Rationale**

According to Wange and Rweyemamu (2001) quoted in Malada 2007 "Africa's future economic growth will depend less on its natural resources and more on its labour's skills to accelerate economic growth". The ever expanding knowledge economy has placed institutions of higher learning at the center of South Africa's economic development and the development of the required skills will depend largely on the capacity of the universities to perform this task (Malada 2007:2)

Although institutions of higher education are independent from the state, there exists among the two a vertical relationship which needs to be explored. According to Shireen Motala of the Wits Education Policy Unit, the state acts as both the facilitator and in some areas the restrainer of delivery in higher education. What one ought to explore then is; how the state can act as a restrainer on the delivery of higher education? What could be the solution towards that? This would involve looking at the underlying political conceptions that inform education policy which in some

cases can be a hindrance to delivery (Motala S: 2007). In the development of solutions one would have to explore inclusive means of solution brokering e.g. Habermus' notion of opening up of spaces for communicative action (Motala E: 2007).

### **1.5. Hypothesis**

This study is premised on the assumption that the level, nature and degree of interaction and/or engagement between the universities (i.e. the knowledge-producers) and the government (which more often than not acts as the applicators or 'consumers' of knowledge) – plays a critical role in determining the development approach employed by a transitional state such as South Africa. This assumption is born-out of a realisation that there is a continued concern over the lack of people with relevant development planning skills in both the public and private sector. Given the pressing developmental challenges faced by South Africa, the skills wielded by development planners as well as town and regional planners have never been more critical.

Indeed, the unique development challenges induced by apartheid social and spatial planning processes are at the heart of the development planning profession. It would be imperative therefore, for universities, particularly planning schools, to be cognizant of the specific development hurdles experienced by the government. Similarly, the government must make its needs known to the producers of knowledge, i.e. universities, who will then be in a position to gear their research agenda and teaching in a manner that would benefit all development actors and the community at large.

Following this assumption, one is obliged to suppose that the slow pace of service delivery, particularly in the public sector, is partly a result of the limited dialogue and/or interaction between what might be called the development actors (i.e. the government and universities). Of course, civil society has a significant role to play in setting the development agenda, however, for the purpose of this research; more attention will be given to the aforementioned development actors. Influenced by the collaborative planning discourse as expressed by Patsy Healey, Leonie Sandercock and others; this research attempts to elevate the significance of collaborative thinking and planning between all key development-actors in a given society.

The lack of skills in South African government spheres is assumed to be a result of a disjuncture and / lack of constant engagement and communication between government and universities. This view has been fostered by the researcher's lack of opportunities or exposure to work related to the planning discipline outside of the university environment. Aside from this, the researcher's views may also stem from constant media reporting on skills shortages in the country and the lack of alignment between skills needed in the market and education afforded by academic institutions.

This assumption stems from the researcher's observations of graduates and their struggles in identifying avenues or niches in the planning discipline in which to enter the professional environment. This then leads one to believe that; the lack of cooperation and collaboration between universities and employers creates problems in terms of level of preparation by way of having requisite skills and meeting employer's expectations. This assumption stems from the researcher's view that some courses are too broad and the time allocated to them is limited and thus students aren't able to have enough time to master the skills taught while in some cases technical skills are not taught at all.

The study proposes that by adhering to the communicative action principle underlying the theory of communicative rationality, academic institutions and government can design and be responsible for a comprehensive approach to dealing with skills shortages and tackling the development planning challenges that face post Apartheid South Africa. The continued engagement and the development of a curriculum which seeks to develop multiple planning related literacies among students would not only serve to create avenues of opportunity for all sectors involved and also to forge a balance between the expectations of employers and the skills possessed by planning graduates.

### ***1.6. Research Question***

The research question has been phrased as follows; how can academic institutions produce the quality planning graduates with the necessary skills needed to drive government's developmental projects and programmes?

To answer the above question in a comprehensive manner, there are sub-questions that the research will strive to answer and these include:

- What constitutes the disjuncture between government expectations of planning education and output of institutions of higher education?

The increasing commoditization of rights has seen a rise in neo-liberal tendencies to 'commodify' knowledge and knowledge production with the intention to increase national competencies in the international arena (Nkoli 2003:12). Most students from impoverished backgrounds bear high hopes on the possible financial returns of their education. The answer that planning education is a gateway to more learning may not be the answer they want to hear. Education has in many of our communities been redefined as a significant activity for profit accumulation. Poverty and government tendencies towards the popularization of vocational training have robbed education of its value. Education is increasingly being seen as a means to an end rather than an end in itself.

- How can these institutions collaborate with government to ensure that planners are adequately trained?

In addressing this question, the study will look at the relationship which currently exists between the government and institutions of higher learning. The study will look at various documents like the government's Plan for Higher Education as well as other related materials. Also to be looked at are government's programmes aimed at empowering the population i.e. Identify links between these programmes and the plans pertaining to planning outlined in various policy documents. This will be done as a means of ascertaining whether there is consistency between government policy and programmes. It will also establish whether the programmes run by government are supporting the skills acquisition processes outlined in its policy documents or are directly competing with programmes offered by higher education institutions.

After establishing the answers to the aforementioned questions, the study can then use the principles outlined by the Communicative rationality theory to either draft a plan for communication between these major stakeholders or provide suggestions on improving future collaborations

between them. The answers obtained however gave rise to changes in the study. While communication remained the key to unlocking the potential for relations between academic institutions and government, a third stakeholder was to be introduced i.e. the private sector. The introduction of the private sector to the collaborative solution brokering process led to the adoption of a development model called the triple helix. This was used to come up with recommendations for beneficial collaboration between the three which could result in the creation of better equipped planning graduates.

### ***1.7. Aims of the Study***

Given the challenges faced by all spheres of government in realizing their development mandate, this research strives to identify the role of government and universities in promoting sustainable development. In this increasingly knowledge-based society, it is imperative for universities to produce graduates that can have a sound and critical understanding of the country's developmental issues. Furthermore, the core functions of universities such as research and teaching must be structured in a manner that is beneficial to the socio-economic well-being of a given country (Pascal: 1996).

Recently, there has been a debate over the relevance of the planning profession in the 21st century (Harrison 2006; Berrisford: 2006). For some critics, the planning profession has been struggling to adapt and respond meaningfully to the challenges that characterize the post-modern-society. Such a debate begs a thorough investigation particularly in the South African context where strategic planning is viewed as one of the vehicles for promoting social and spatial integration (Harrison: 2002). Furthermore, the questioning of the planning profession compels one to interrogate the institutions that impart knowledge and expertise to planners – i.e. universities. By understanding the education system as well as the nature of skills that graduate planners wield, one might possibly be able to determine these planners' ability to deal or engage with the socio-economic and spatial challenges faced by the post-apartheid South Africa. The aim of this study is therefore to explore how the collaboration between government and universities can be further harnessed to promote sustainable development planning in South Africa.

The study is a means of addressing a deep-seated question which lies in the heart of the researcher, i.e.; Will I find a job on completion of my studies. Will the qualification I obtain gain me employment and will it prepare me for the demanding role of being a planner in the context of developing and developmental government. The research question seeks to investigate planning education with particular focus on post graduate planning qualifications. Specific attention will be paid to post graduate programmes which recruit graduate students from other faculties outside of the Engineering and Built Environment Faculty.

The reason for the selection of this particular type of programme is to establish the responsiveness of post graduate development planning programmes to skills needs of both the developmental mandate of local government and other spheres of government in need of this form of skill. In order to verify the results obtained in the study, various probing questions were be used in the second phase of the study i.e.; the qualitative interview element. Questions examining the previous qualifications and work experience of each interviewee will be used to establish the extent to which their previous experience is applied in their current work. This measure will be applied as a means of ensuring that the findings of the study are directly linked to the factors outlined or addressed in the research question and not any others which may have been overlooked.

### ***1.8. Scope of the Study***

The study will focus on the experiences of the graduates from the Wits and UCT post graduate planning programmes in their first few years of work experience, working within a context of a developmental local government. Using research instruments to be developed for this purpose, the researcher will seek to ascertain the level of preparedness of graduates at the point of entry into the labour market.

Using the set of criteria developed for this purpose as well as other probing questions which serve to establish the previous work or study experience of the graduates, the study will attempt to link the findings to the premise of this study and the arguments developed from the literature review. Given the limitations characterizing most qualitative studies, the researcher will formulate the research instruments in a way that seeks to obtain objective answers from the interviewees. A

number of probing questions related to previous studies in the planning field and work or internship experience will be used as a control measure to ensure the objectivity of the instruments.

### ***1.9. Limitations in the Study***

Due to time and budgetary constraints, the study will focus purely on the core issues outlined in this report i.e. the planning programmes at Wits and UCT, the extent of collaboration or interaction between government and institutions of higher learning, graduates experience in the working environment on completion of their studies. Apart from budgetary and time constraints, the researcher's reason for focusing on Wits and UCT is driven by an underlying assumption that the two universities can be seen as representatives of all institutions offering the same courses.

Given the broad nature of the study, there are a number of issues or areas of interest which are linked to the study which may arise e.g. the internal politics within institutions (faculty budgetary allocations, selection criteria, teacher qualification, etc) which can impact on the curriculum delivery and the throughput of institutions. Other issues pertaining to overall administration (mergers, reduction in government funding, etc) of these institutions of higher education will not be addressed.

### ***1.10. Wits; MSc Development Planning***

Students for the Wits programme are recruited mainly from outside the Planning and Built Environment School. They are then enrolled into the two year programme and undergo an intensive first year of course work where they are introduced to various theories as well as other issues surrounding planning. Students are taught on the broader issues involved in the discipline of planning i.e. planning theory, spatial concepts, technologies and techniques of planning, development economics, project management in developing areas, etc. The ten months that form the first year of the programme are used to introduce students to basic concepts in planning as a means of providing them with a foundation for continued knowledge acquisition.



The second year of study is allocated to the researching and writing of a research report. The research report is where students display their grasp of issues through the writing and presentation of a research report related to the broader issues that they would have been introduced to in their previous year of study. The research report that counts 120 points, one half of the second year of study allows students to engage in a field of independent study, guided by an assigned supervisor.

### **1.11. UCT; Masters in City and Regional Planning**

This course also recruits primarily from other areas outside of planning and the built environment. The first year of study of the programme focuses on city planning although regional planning has as its focus the generation of economic, landscape and settlement frameworks relating to national and regional space ([www.arp.uct.ac.za](http://www.arp.uct.ac.za)). The discipline exposes students to the attitudes and principles which will enable them to operate responsibly in any context. Studio work projects, integrating theory and practice, are incorporated into the programme to equip graduates with the professional skills and knowledge necessary to operate effectively in a professional context, as well as enabling them to relate to practitioners from other disciplines ([www.arp.uct.ac.za](http://www.arp.uct.ac.za)). The degree programme runs for two years full-time with an extended option over three years. The programme consists of theory and studio-work modules. Great emphasis is placed on the studio as a vehicle of teaching and of promoting praxis between theory and practice (*Ibid*).

Students are taught Planning Theory and Practice, Aspects of City Design, Natural Systems, Urban Systems, Local Area Planning, Planning Techniques, Urban Development Processes, Planning and Governmental Systems along with Regulatory and Legal Framework. The second year involves the writing of a dissertation. This involves undertaking an approved project or research exercise in an arena of the student's choice. This could be: ([www.arp.uct.ac.za](http://www.arp.uct.ac.za))

- The restructuring and design of parts of an urban area;
- Finding ways to promote local economic development;
- The promotion of urban agriculture;
- Planning the urban fringe;

- Management of environmentally sensitive areas;
  - Planning for small town growth;
  - Development management of a particular region or any other project; or
  - Research exercise which meets the educational objectives of the programmes; and
- the upgrading of an informal settlement.

This research will attempt to establish the extent to which these programmes are able to prepare graduates for their jobs within various spheres of government. Entry level positions for graduates in this field are in Local Economic Development (LED), Geographic Information Systems (GIS), Housing and as Integrated Development Plan (IDP) officers. These require expert knowledge in the particular field. Having only limited exposure to these issues, are the graduates able to cope with the demand on the skills or are they forced take part in in-service training or crash courses to acquire the necessary skills to deal with their demanding situation?

The research report will attempt to establish whether the length of the institution's programmes is sufficient to produce quality planning graduates or does it leave gaps in the training of these planners which could be exposed under the strenuous working conditions. Also to be examined are the actual skills obtained in the two years of study i.e. do students in these programmes become over exposed to theory and find themselves in situations whereby their grasp of the issues at hand is limited by their lack of exposure to the practical aspect of their jobs.

Unlike other programmes where practical experience is pivotal to obtaining one's qualification, these two post graduate programmes do not include a compulsory practical aspect. Although the UCT programme includes compulsory studio time, much like its counterpart at Wits, it does not push for gaining of practical experience outside the university environment. This could cause problems for those driven enough to seek internships or other knowledge enrichment programmes of this discipline as the internships offered by government and the private sector often give preference to those who need the experience in order to qualify. As a result internships are provided to students enrolled in programmes with a mandatory practical experience component.

Although they were designed to equip planners in all government spheres, the private sector and NGOs, the researcher views these programmes not to have provided its students with avenues for gaining practical experience.. Being aware of government's focus on new vocationalism and skills acquisition, these institutions of higher learning are not viewed as having brought government in on the process of provision of practical experience for student in these programmes.

### **1.12. Skills for a Developing State**

Before one can delve into issues of skills and programmes aimed at tackling unemployment it would be useful to identify the main government programme guiding these interventions i.e. ASGISA. The Accelerated Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (ASGISA) was set out by the South African government in 2004, not to replace Growth, Employment and Redistribution programme GEAR but to work in conjunction with it to halve poverty and unemployment by 2014. The challenge set for this "national shared growth initiative" is to reduce unemployment to below 15% and halve the rate of poverty by 2014. It is believed that these objectives will be made attainable by an effective partnership between government, organized labour and business. The programme is set out into two phases. The first phase is to take place between 2005 and 2009, which seeks to achieve a growth rate of 4.5% or higher and the second phase will happen between 2010 and 2014. The second phase seeks to attain growth averaging at 6% of the GDP (Mlambo-Ngcuka: 2006).

Six major constraints have been identified for focused attention and improvement. The first being the volatile currency, the overvaluing of the Rand narrows areas of investment and inhibits exports. Government plans to improve this area through expenditure management in government capital investment. The cost, efficiency and capacity of the national logistics system were identified as the second constraint. In order to remedy the situation government has proposed tackling the backlog in infrastructure and increase investment. The facilitation of competition within the industry will also ensure a drop in transportation pricing. The third constraint is the shortage of suitably skilled labour. The price of labour of the poor is pushed up by apartheid spatial patterns which required

many to travel long distances to their areas of work. The Joint Initiative for Priority Skills Acquisition (JIPSA) has been put in place to identify urgent skills needs and find effective solutions (*Ibid*).

Barriers to entry, limits to competition and limited new investment opportunities were identified as the fourth area needing review. The development of competition law and industrial policies is believed, will be effective in counter-acting these factors. The performance of small business in their contribution to the GDP has been identified as the fifth area of intervention. In this case municipal regulation and labour law will need to be changed to ensure the facilitation of business development. The last constraint identified was the deficiency in state organization, capacity and leadership (Mlambo-Nguka: 2006)

Countering these constraints will entail a series of decisive interventions. These will not be limited to a shift in policy only. The initiatives undertaken by the state will be organized into the six categories of:

- Macroeconomic issues;
- Infrastructure programmes;
- Sector investment strategies (industrial strategies);
- Skills and education initiatives;
- Second economy interventions; and
- Public Administration issues.

Various skills clusters were identified by the Joint Initiative for Skills Acquisition (JIPSA) as urgent and critical to the achievement of government's developmental programmes i.e.

- High level, world class managerial, planning and engineering skills;
- Town, city and regional planning skills;
- Artisan and technician skills;
- Management and planning skills for public health and education; and
- Mathematics, Science, ICT and language competence teaching in public schools.

Listed among the critical skills for the achievement of ASGISA's aims is planning, particularly development planning and urban and regional planning. (Le Roux 2007:16) However given the

number of unemployed graduates in the country and numerous planning graduates known to the researcher as well as other graduates from areas listed as critical skills areas for the development of the country, one has to wonder about the quality of the graduates produced by institutions of higher learning.

Mantashe (2007) sees the phenomenon of unemployed graduates as a mismatch between skills supply and demand within the country. He proposes that, the issue is a direct consequence of the apartheid education system, where historically disadvantaged institutions compete with the former white institutions. These institutions produce graduates in the same fields as these former white schools and thus create a surplus of skills with no demand in the economy. Although he is silent on the issue of the quality of graduates, his statements imply a certain inadequacy in the quality of graduates produced in the historically disadvantaged institutions. However can the same not be said for universities without a disadvantaged historical origin? Mantashe (2007) further asserts that, the government needs aggressive re-skilling programmes in order to combat unemployment in youth, especially among graduates.

Project 'Sebenza' and project 'Lebota' are programmes headed by the city of Johannesburg aimed at re-skilling unemployed graduates. These were created as part of the Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) in 2004 and are expected to create about 120 000 jobs by 2009. Project Lebota involves the construction of a wall around the Johannesburg fresh produce market. The project is part of the City of Johannesburg's policy whereby the city employs people on a contractual basis to complete labour intensive tasks on various projects ([www.joburg.org.za](http://www.joburg.org.za)). Project Sebenza on the other hand is aimed at identifying unemployed graduates for job placement, practical training or even re-skilling as a means of meeting the growing demand for skills

### ***1.13. Theoretical Framework to be used in the Study***

As a means of developing a coherent argument for the premise of the proposed paper, two theories have been identified as a means not only for developing the argument and bringing it to its logical conclusion but also as an important tool for the development of recommendations as well as

the development of questions for further inquiry. The first theory is that of Patsy Healy i.e. collaborative rationality which calls for constant engagement/communication among stakeholders in the brokering of solutions. The second theory is that of Critical Theory in Education by Douglas Kellner which advocates for a multi literacies approach to skills development.

### **1.13.1. Communicative Rationality**

Healey acknowledges the communicative approach to planning as one that promotes social justice and environmental sustainability. She also describes this communicative process as one that facilitates collective consensus on matters of collective concern (Healy: 1993). Healey sees planning as a product of modernity and thus highlights the centrality of the concepts of democracy and progress. She does not overlook the reality of conflicting interests among different classes and races but emphasizes that the communicative process ought to be informed by principles of tolerance and respect (*Ibid*).

The fact that what is right is what is agreed upon does not translate to the exclusion of morality and aesthetics from reasoning as individual's reasoning is influenced by various 'life worlds' among them the issue of morality (Healey:1993). Thus the consensus that the process produces is inclusive of various sensitive issues not usually discussed in a planning forum. Such an approach would then help foster an understanding within the planner of people's needs and values and thus ensure development that is sensitive to these needs.

This model can be adopted for the evaluation of the relationship between government and institutions of higher learning as it does not deny the existence of relationships of power where one stakeholder may have more influence than another. In the case of government and institutions of higher learning, institutions of higher learning enjoy a high degree of institutional/administrative autonomy from the state. This however is limited by their heavy financial dependence on the state which often puts government in a situation to dictate the terms for interaction. The theory can provide a framework for future collaboration or increased interaction between government and institutions of higher learning where the power relations are not neutralized but are temporarily set

aside for the achievement of a common good i.e. good quality graduates and effective public sector servants.

### **1.13.2. Critical Theory in Education**

Douglas Kellner's critical theory of education advocates for the democratic restructuring of education and development of multiple literacies as a response to new technologies. It argues for democratic and multicultural restructuring of education which builds on a synthesis of perspectives of the classical philosophy of education, i.e. the Deweyan radical pragmatism, Freirean critical pedagogy, post culturalism and various critical theories of gender, race, class and society and criticizes obsolete idealist, elitist and antidemocratic aspects of traditional concepts of education (Kellner 2003:2).

### **1.13.3. T.A.M.E.D**

T.A.M.E.D. is an acronym to describe a number of literacies and skills identified as important for the development of a planner. It is to be used in this study as a criterion for the assessment of skills possessed by planning graduates from the two universities. The criterion/acronym has been taken out of a number of readings by L. Sandercock (1998, 2000). The criterion describes the various planning skills and literacies that Sandercock believes are critical for the development of a good planner. The criterion was also selected on the basis that it gives resonance to the ideals of the critical theory in education which views the development of multiple literacies as a means of shaping education to be more responsive to the needs of a changing professional environment

### **T.A.M.E.D Explained**

#### **Technical Literacy**

Technical literacy refers to skills or competencies in the following areas or tasks; basic statistics, computing, economic and demographic data collection and analysis. Also listed as important

aspects of technical literacy are Geographic Information systems (GIS), report writing, property finance, project management, the ability to read plans and knowledge of planning legislation (Sandercock 1998:225). One criteria not listed by Sandercock that seems to emerge in the recent planning discourse in South Africa is the issue/study and understanding of development finance. The relevance of this area of expertise will be discussed further in the study, as a means of developing a solid set of criteria for the measuring of planer competencies in a developmental context.

### **Analytical Literacy and Multicultural Literacy**

Analytical literacy and multicultural literacy refers to the approach that a planner ought to have to the task of planning. This involves his/her ability to listen and interpret the reality/the developmental context in which he/she finds himself or herself in. This means that a planner ought to develop sensitivity into 'ways of knowing' i.e. be able to respect the indigenous knowledge systems of the community which he/she will be working with. This also entails developing the consciousness that as a development planner, one is there to work with the community rather than working for the community (Sandercock 1998:228).

### **Ecological Literacy**

Ecological literacy is listed as an ethic towards caring for nature which every planner ought to develop. Sandercock does not merely list the various pieces of environmental legislation that a planner ought to be familiar with, she highlights the need for a planner to develop an intrinsic love or consideration for the environment (*Ibid*: 228). This is especially relevant for planners who find themselves serving in a developmental state/local government context where the legislation present may not be sufficient to compel adherence to international conventions. Most developing countries simply do not have the legislative framework to guide much of the development in any given area, thus it falls on the shoulders/conscious of the planner to ensure the prevention of environmental desecration.



## **Design Literacy**

Design Literacy is listed as the final criteria for a quality/adequately trained planner. Literacy or competency in the area of design is seen as important for the separation of design from planning. Although like many of the previously listed criteria, design could be studied on its own as an area of specialization. It is important however for a well rounded planner to be competent in the field as a means of preventing the trend of impoverished understandings of the urban field among planners (Sandercock 1998:228).

### **1.13.5. Limitations of T.A.M.E.D as Criteria for the Evaluation of Planning Programmes**

The wide range of competencies listed as necessary for the adequate function of a planner seem so broad to the extent that it seems that Sandercock's view that planners ought to be advocates for a generalist approach to education, seeing as the vast list of competency areas makes it impossible to adopt a specialist approach. Not to be misunderstood, Sandercock finishes the list by making a statement much in line with Cornelia Farling's understanding of what planning education ought to be i.e. a foundation for lifelong learning. For Sandercock (1998:230) the "goal of education is not how to stuff the most facts, techniques, methods and information into students' minds, but how to raise the most basic questions of values i.e. How might we live with each other in multicultural cities and regions of the next century."

These five criteria will be adopted in the research along with other criteria that will be developed from the literature review stage of the research. In finding additional criteria for the evaluation of the quality of planning education, attention will be paid to issues of culture, gender, race and class i.e.; the extent to which these issues are addressed by the curriculum. Given the fact that the study is focusing on a context which is particular to the South African developmental local government, the criteria used ought to also reflect this. Although T.A.M.E.D may be a good means of measuring the performance of planners, its exclusive use in the South African context will only serve to establish

the competence of the planner and not his / her competence in a situation of mass infrastructural backlog, unemployment, non payment of services, etc which are characterizing feature of South Africa's local government.

As a result of the research not having established other relevant criteria for the evaluation of the quality of development planners, the definition of the term quality in this research remains (for now) a fluid/open ended one.

### **1.14. Research Methodology**

The study will use both qualitative and quantitative approaches. An in-depth desktop study of literature and document reviews will be conducted as well as data collection through questionnaires and interview schedules. Sources of data will include books, journals, conference papers, government policy documents, course outlines at the universities and the graduates to be selected from two development planning programmes at the two universities.

While acknowledging the existence of other planning schools in South Africa, a population sample from the School of Architecture and planning, University of the Witwatersrand (Wits) as well as the School of Planning and Geomatics from the University of Cape Town (UCT) was used. The student samples comprised of students with a postgraduate qualification and are at the beginning of their career. Using an assessment framework designed for this research, an attempt was made to ascertain the expectations, perceptions as well as the level of preparedness of graduates working in both the public and private sector.

The review of government human capital development such as JIPSA and the *Plan for Higher Education* assisted in providing a basis for analysing the crises on skills shortage as well as the government proposed interventions. In addition, the assessment of existing government strategies where complimented by some academic literature on collaborative planning and the triple helix conceptual framework which will be explained in the following section.

### **1.14.1. Data Collection Methods**

The paper will adopt a two pronged approach to data collection. This will comprise of a desktop review and in-depth interviews with graduates from the two universities as well as programme coordinators of the UCT and Wits post graduates programmes. From the skills matrix to be completed at the end of the interview process, the study will seek to consider the implications of the results from phase 2 to the findings and lessons learned from phase 1. In so doing it will draw conclusion as well as put forward recommendation for further study.

#### **Phase 1**

The first phase will focus on the development of arguments in support of the premise put forward at the introduction to the study. Various books, journals and other sources of literature will be used in the exploration of the proposed theoretical framework.

#### **Phase 2**

The second phase of the study will focus on the methods and sources used in the construction of the research instruments as well as the processes followed in data gathering and capturing. The main activity of this phase of the research apart from the interviews will be the development of a skills matrix from the data collected.

## ***1.15. Proposed Chapter Outline***

### **Chapter 1**

Introduction of the research question and highlighting of the main themes to be addressed in the study.

### **Chapter 2**

The chapter outlines the body of literature consulted for the study. It identified points within the literature that support its hypothesis and assumptions and builds the foundation for arguments to be brought forward later in the study.

### **Chapter 3**

This chapter outlines the methodology used in the study as well the various processes that were involved in the collection and analysis of qualitative data. The chapter presents the findings from the qualitative component of the study and the analysis thereof. Following the analysis of the data, a new way forward is tabled and then pursued throughout the remainder of the document.

### **Chapter 4**

This chapter looks into the outlining of a theoretical framework more suited to the new focus of the study and at the same time puts it forward as a recommendation for the realization of the study's hypothesis.

### **Chapter 5:**

This chapter looks to link the theoretical framework proposed in chapter 4 to the assumptions not disproved by the qualitative component of the study as a means to strengthen the arguments for the trilateral collaboration proposed by the study.

### **Chapter 6**

This chapter outlines a framework and puts forward recommendations for trilateral collaboration between the government, private sector and academic institutions which can be best suited for the South African Context.

### **Chapter 7**

This chapter summarizes the processes that the researcher underwent in the time it took to complete. It also highlights the various lessons learned in that time.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### ***LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK***

#### ***2.1. Introduction***

The aim of the review is to highlight the body of literature written in the area of planning education. The literature covered in this review will be used in the development of the main argument in the study i.e. The lack of skills in South African government spheres is a result of a disjuncture and / lack of constant engagement and communication between government and academic institutions. The literature to be reviewed by the study seeks to demonstrate that although planning education in South Africa has evolved over the years, academic institutions are failing to produce the quality of planners needed by the country. This being a result of a lack of communicative and inclusive approach to curriculum development in academic institutions. The review will be looking at planning education in South Africa with specific reference to the planning curriculum in the Wits and UCT post graduate planning programmes i.e. the Master of Science in Development Planning at Wits and the Master of City and Regional Planning at UCT.

The evaluation of these programmes will be set against the criteria based on Leonie Sandercock's TAMED as well as literature obtained, which expresses the various competency areas needed by planners. Information obtained on how planning education ought to be structured, the various skills needed in planning as well as other sources on the planner's role in society, will later be used in the study as a tool for developing/creating additional criteria to TAMED.. This is to ensure that the extended criteria used in the study for the evaluation of planning graduates from the two programmes covers all the competency areas/ skills needed by planers in order to drive programmes in South Africa's developmental context, especially that of developmental local government.

## **2.2. Planning Education in South Africa; the Early Years**

Until the mid 1960s planning was not an established discipline in South African universities, it was an appendage to other faculties within the university and in public organizations. This changed with the establishment of a Department of Planning (currently the Department of Land Affairs) in government as well as the introduction of four year undergraduate qualifications for planners at Wits and UCT (Dept of Planning: 1965). South African planning education has its roots in (Royal Town Planning Institute established in 1913) British teaching which has its foundation in the discipline of architecture, engineering and surveying. It was assumed that persons in possession of one of these skills could launch themselves into the planning field. Law was later added to the skills needed by planners in the practice as planners needed to have knowledge of the legal framework in which they are to conduct their work (*Ibid*: 8).

Among the key competency areas added to the training of persons entering the planning profession were sociology, economics and geography. These applied sciences were included as a means of building 'mental skills' which were increasingly seen to be the basis for planning education. Professor Mallows characterized the Wits post graduate planning programme as taking a "guinea-pig approach" to planning education. Given its status as the first post graduate course in planning and the relative 'newness' of the profession and the broad range of competencies required by planners, the university sought to integrate students into the problems of society by creating a link between theory and practice (Dept of Planning 1965: 11).

Included in the issues discussed at the 1965 conference on the training of town and regional planners was the problem of technological teaching problems. The failure of universities to teach technical skills raised questions at the conference on whether planning ought to remain a university subject (Dept of Planning 1965: 5). However, it was agreed that the training given at universities gives planners the mental qualities that the industry demands of them, also highlighted was the high rate at which technical skills in the field become obsolete. Professor Mallows of Wits university explained the Wits approach to planning education as follows, "What you want to train people to do is to be able to think clearly, to see their skills in relation to the problems of society as a whole, in

other words, to have a very wide general viewpoint and be given a general education and trained mind" (*Ibid*: 7)

Mr. Viljoen who was at the time the chairman of the Department of Planning raised concerns that; although 'mental skills' are beneficial to the profession, there is still a need for technical skills. He expressed his frustration saying "we have people at the top, people at the bottom, but nobody in between to do the work" (Dept of Planning 1965: 41). A Mr. Pistorious of the Natal Provincial Administration also expressed his frustration with the issue of planner training saying even those persons training under the pioneering Durban University's undergraduate planning diploma as "straight planners" are not displaying the adequate technical skills required (*Ibid* : 43). According to Mr. Villjoen, planners produced by academic institutions at the time were not meeting the needs and requirements of public bodies employing planners.

### ***2.3. Liberal Minds in a Repressive Context; the Wits and UCT Anti-Repression Approach to Planning Education***

Farling (2003: 70-72) looks into the planning profession and planning education in South Africa during the 1970s and 1980s. This period of South African history was not only characterized by a racist regime and rising protest bordering on violence. The economic crisis and need for political reform saw a rise in internal pressure on the planning profession to clarify its political position. As a result of the situation, the profession became politicized, fragmented and ambiguous as those within the planning profession rose up to criticize the planning profession's involvement in Apartheid.

As a result of the involvement of Apartheid critics like Dewar and forward looking scholars like Smith and McCarthy, Wits and UCT and the University of Kwazulu Natal were to become involved in the political struggle of the country. The political views of these individuals filtered through to the planning programmes within the two institutions. The Wits and UCT planning programmes were to be transformed into institutions that would produce planners for a task beyond the socio-political confines of a repressive regime (Farling: 2003: 70)). Although resources in the 1980s were scant, the two institutions kept their post graduate programmes, increasingly drawing from the pool of

social sciences (humanities) graduates. According to Farling, these institutions struggled to meet the educational expectations for the implementation of the Reconstruction and Development Programme, however their recent curricula have been adapted to meet the demands context of political decentralization, democratization and the move towards centralizing service delivery to poor communities (Farling :2003: 71).

## ***2.4. Mapping South Africa's Development Challenges***

The post-apartheid state is faced with a range of complex social, economic, spatial and institutional challenges. The rising unemployment rate, crime, slow-paced delivery of basic services such as water, housing and sanitation in most of the country's communities has, in the minds of many, cast a shadow of doubt on the country's capabilities to build an inclusive state. Faced with the abovementioned challenges as well as other hurdles characterizing most transitional states, the South Africa government is in a dire need of policy-makers and most importantly implementers of these development-oriented policies. Indeed, the current political regime has managed to transform the institutional apparatus of the state through various pieces of legislation and policies. From an institutional perspective, for instance, the transformation of local government as well as the formation of nine provinces, arguably put South Africa on a relatively sustainable development path.

Interestingly, the availability of an exhaustive policy framework has not led to the realization of the social and economic aspirations of the majority of South Africans. Whereas the rhetoric of 'collaborative' and 'multi-stakeholder' planning continues to be promoted, not much has been done by the government and the business community to effectively address the socio-economic challenges faced by the majority of South Africans. In this time of crisis, development planners find themselves in the coal-face of the aforementioned development challenges.



### **2.4.1. Skills Central to Planning in South Africa**

The focus on planning skills acquired at academic institutions and their compatibility to the needs of the state is due to the fact that, the state is the single largest employer of planners in South Africa. From an exercise conducted in the Professional Practice and Ethics class on 27 March 2007, the researcher among other students of the second year Wits Development Planning class and the fourth year Town and Regional Planning class was able to identify employment avenues for planners within the country as well as skills and competencies required by their prospective employers. The exercise involved evaluating a large number of classified advertisements that aimed at filling planning positions in a number of private sector companies as well as national, provincial and local government spheres.

The classified adverts looked at were all published in national newspapers i.e. Mail and Guardian and Sunday Times between 1 January 2007 and 25 March 2007. A substantial number of these advertisements were for posts for planners within National, Provincial or Local government. These could be seen as a reflection of current trends in the employment of planners and the competencies demanded for work in the public sector. From the materials (Mail and Guardian and Sunday Times, January – March 2007), the researcher was able to deduce the various roles and competencies expected of a planner by the majority of planner employers i.e. the state/three spheres of government. The exercise revealed the following as roles that a planner can be expected to play in any given planning context:

- A researcher (policy formulation and co-ordination);
- A strategic thinker;
- A development officer;
- An advocate (negotiate between community interests and those of the environment);
- A project developer and project manager (LED and IDP); and
- A land reform manager.

In appendix 3 of her study on the relevance of Town and Regional Planning education in South Africa, Farling's (2003: xi-xii) lists the various skills and competencies needed by South African

planners as agreed upon by a number of Planning Schools gathered in Bloemfontein in the year 2000. Although these are far more detailed and specific, they can be listed as six broad competency areas. The full description of these skills and competency areas will be used in designing a skills matrix for South African planners and creating a skills and competencies checklist for planners interviewed in the study. These are:

- Knowledge and understanding of moral and ethical dimensions for working in the public domain and the application thereof in one's professional practice;
- Sound theoretical and contextual knowledge and the ability to apply these in one's actions within professional practice;
- The ability to link knowledge to spatial plans and policies;
- The ability to link and synthesize programmes and projects from a number of sectors and institutions within a framework for integrative development;
- The ability to conduct academic research and develop critical thinking and problem solving abilities; and
- The ability to apply managerial and communicative skills necessary for the managing of planning and development processes in the public and private sectors.

## ***2.5. The Planner as an Agent of Social Justice***

Eversley (1973: 5) evaluates the core competencies underlying the planning profession through defining the term 'planner'. The planner is defined as "an allocator of scarce resources" (*Ibid*) In setting his/her objective, a planner ought meet the wishes of electors as well as safeguard the right to share a better life for those whose voices are not heard though the normal democratic process (Eversley 1973:14). With this function in mind, the planner has to be an advocate on behalf of society vis a vis local government (*Ibid*: 17). The job description and responsibilities of the planner are often tied to the definition of his/her job. Thus the definition of what a planner is and the requisite skills involved in planning tends to be broad. Eversley extends the definition by looking into various types of planning i.e.; development control planning, structure planning and strategic planning (Eversley 1973: 5).

- Development control planner; determines day to day allocation of land for various purchases.

- Structure planner; takes a long term view of the physical, social and economic structure of the region or sub-region and within this view local plans have evolved.
- Strategic planning; takes a broad view of living standards, lifestyles, physical and mental needs of a population and devises policies. Measures trends over time as a means of looking into the achievement of the set policy objectives.

Apart from the role played by the planner in his capacity as development, structure or strategic planner, Eversley focuses on the responsibility that planners in general have towards the society in which they live. Having defined the planner in the broad term of an "allocator of scarce resources" (Eversley 1973:5) he then focuses on the role a planner can play in the allocation of these resources. He argues against the use of planning an instrument for property protection but highlights the need for planners to see society as something more complex than an amalgamation of politicians, news paper reporters, chairman's of pressure groups, industrialists and large landowners. He sees the role of the planner as being not only concerned with the above mentioned groups but as also concerned with those that have no say in terms of votes or often do not use their voting power. This particular interest group is made up of the young, the old, recent arrivals into the area, the illiterate and those that live a quasi-nomadic life (Eversley 1973:15).

He uses England's war time planning in the late 1930s and early 1940s as an example of a utopian approach to planning. He sees it as utopian in the sense that it sought to make provisions for all citizens of the country in a time of need. Local authorities were responsible for the provision of dwellings to all those in need of such. The provision of housing ceased to be a charitable act by local authorities to those in need and became a duty of the local authority. This approach prompted the drafting of action plans for the creation of a new world where there would be no unemployment, no slums, and no hunger and green spaces for all (Eversley 1973: 13-15).

Eversley acknowledges the power struggles that exist within local authorities but he sees them as challenges that the planner can either face or shy away from. However in shying away from the challenge or choosing to be neutral by simply being completely passive, the planner runs the risk of diminishing or extinguishing his role in society. In short, by adopting the role that the situation demands of him/her, the planner becomes vulnerable to attacks from groups in and outside of

government. However, by not taking the advocacy approach that the situation dictates he runs the risk of epitomizing a rotten public administration system (Eversley 1973: 16-18).

## ***2.6. The Centrality of Substantive Knowledge and Analytical Skills in Planning***

Sandercock highlights the centrality of analytical literacy and multicultural literacy. These literacies refer to the approach that a planner ought to have to perform his duties as a planner. This involves his/her ability to listen and interpret the reality/the developmental context in which he/she finds himself or herself in. This means that a planner ought to develop sensitivity into 'ways of knowing' i.e. be able to respect the indigenous knowledge systems of the community which he/she will be working with. This also entails developing the consciousness that; as a development planner, one is there to work with the community rather than working for the community (Sandercock 1998:228).

Faludi (1978: 21-26) writes of the core competencies needed by planners in order to survive the increasing encroachment of other disciplines on traditional planning areas i.e.

- General education;
- Planning core;
- Generalist with a specialism; and
- Problem oriented project work.

These four criteria are identified as pivotal to the structure and content of planning courses. He identifies a two pronged approach to the development of theoretical application of knowledge in planning education i.e. the general education and the planning core. He sees general education as providing the basis that would ensure increased awareness and preparedness among students. Although he acknowledges external pressure from practitioners as well as internal pressure generated by the academic world to improve the academic standing of courses, he sees general teaching as necessary and in the interest of students. He asserts that; in teaching subjects connected to the course that ensure student orientation to the outside world as well as writing and verbal communication skills, academic institutions will be securing the future of its students (Faludi 1978:23).

However, this is not to say that such training will serve to over-ride the desire of academic institutions to serve the immediate needs of practitioners. The second criteria which is the planning core, is central to planning education as when its used in conjunction with the general education it can (Faludi 1978: 23) “enable students to apply theoretical concepts skillfully to all processes concerned with deliberate change and to see their common element”. The planning core of the curriculum provides students with a core competence in planning, i.e. strategizing. It educates students on the manner in which decisions in planning are made/ arrived at and implemented. The approach focuses less on the substance of decisions made but provides students with the tools to be able to become decision makers and strategists in their planning profession. In the likely event of changes during a graduate’s professional career the skill, i.e. “applying theoretical concepts skillfully to planning processes concerned with deliberate change” will still be applicable to whatever context a planner may find himself/herself in (*Ibid*).

The broadness of planning education stems from the realization those planners ought to be knowledgeable in all fields pertaining to the problems before them thus; there is a need for substantive knowledge and procedural knowledge in the development of planning education. Substantive knowledge is needed in the consideration of variables involved within a problem while procedural knowledge provides the solution on how to go about tackling a problem (Faludi 1978:162). Although Faludi highlights the need for both substantive and procedural knowledge, he acknowledges the restrictions under which planners often work. These are often a result of the context in which planners find themselves, thus planners also need to possess the capacity for rational decision making. This involves making choices from a limited number of alternatives within a given context. Although rational planning is instrumental in identifying solutions to problems within a given context, competency in other areas of planning theory are key to identifying alternatives and evaluating consequences (Faludi 1978:168-169).

## **2.7. The Necessity of Areas of Expertise in Planning**

The third criteria of a generalist with a specialization stems from the realization that the planning practice is a broad discipline, which can cover a whole range of aspects from physical design to

social and economic policy. Thus, Faludi sees specialization in planning as something that ought to stem from a general appreciation of the theoretical core (Faludi 1978: 24). This approach to specialization would necessitate the adoption of a two-tier degree structure, where the first degree is awarded on completion of the core programme and a second degree is awarded for specialization. Already, this is the case in most academic institutions. Four year undergraduate qualifications within planning programmes form the core planning component of the programme and post graduate study/qualification serve to provide those interested in specialization with the opportunity to do so. The post graduate programmes to be evaluated in this study provide students with the core planning component but fail to create avenues for specialization.

## ***2.8. The Role of Project Work (Studio-Work) in Planning Education***

Technical literacy refers to skills or competencies in the following areas or tasks basic statistics, computing, economic and demographic data collection and analysis. Also listed as important aspects of technical literacy are Geographic Information systems (GIS), report writing, property finance, project management, the ability to read plans and knowledge of planning legislation (Sandercock 1998:225). One criteria not listed by Sandercock that seems to emerge in the recent planning discourse in South Africa is the issue/study and understanding of development finance. The study will further discuss the relevance of this area of expertise as a means of developing a solid set of criteria for measuring planners' competencies in a developmental state.

Another criterion listed as essential for a quality planning education programme is that of problem orientated project work. This area of planning education is seen as providing planning students with an "advantage over other types of education struggling to establish project work with little time left for it in the curriculum. Project work functions to make learning and teaching more meaningful. It is a "central learning and teaching vehicle to convey the knowledge, skills and attitudes needed for planning, including the requisite reflection about oneself and one's role in society" (Faludi 1978:181).

Within the criteria for problem oriented project work, Faludi highlights three components necessary for problem orientated project work i.e., problem orientation, action orientation and innovative behavior. Faludi warns against the conducting of project work based on vague aesthetics (Faludi 1978:24-25). He asserts that project work should deal with problems which are of concern to people in the outside world. This will ensure that project work within planning courses contains an element of problem analysis which will involve the conducting of genuine pieces of research. With the adaptation of this approach to project work, planning courses will be able to instill action orientated practicals. Students will need to come up with proposals for action and these will be based on analysis and evaluation of choices.

Although project work is given priority in planning education, Faludi (1978:25) highlights the role of the individual in planning education. He identifies the third criteria for problem oriented innovative behavior. This is dependant to a large extent on the degree to which an individual is involved in project work. Individual participation in project work ensures not only a plurality of approaches to problem solving but also a diversity of different forms of co-operation. Although Faludi (1978:26) warns against the tendency of planning schools to focus on the narrow definition of a planner i.e. a physical planner, he emphasizes the centrality of the practice element within planning courses. Faludi (1978:61) emphasizes the need for planners not to remain aloof from the practice element of planning. He sees project work as a means of arriving at an "operational definition of the planning process in its political context and in the face of complexity and uncertainty."

New Demands on Planning Education; Need for Management, Organization and the Facilitation of Public Participation.

According to the Royal Town Planning Institute's (Planning Education Review: 1986), the planning profession needs planning education to provide vocational education to those seeking to enter the planning profession. The review acknowledges the impact that development trends have had on the teaching of planners. As a result of accentuated uneven development, which stemmed from economic restructuring in the 1980s, planning education has become multi-faceted. The 1980s saw the re-emergence of regional scale planning concentrating on area based development programmes as well a rising demand on planners to co-ordinate diverse interests in the

development process and to work more with and within the private sector (Planning Education Review 1986: iv).

In the guidelines set for initial professional education, the Education Planning Review (1986: 9-10) stressed the need for planning programmes to generate a comprehensive, policy based approach. According to H. Perloff (quoted in the review), a core programme should centre on basic principles and methods of planning. Students are to be taught methods of employing these principles and methods in a problem solving context and should be enabled to understand the various kinds of inter-relationships among problems and subject matter.

Apart from highlighting the skills and competencies needed by planners, the Education Policy Review highlighted the need for basic competencies to be possessed by people wishing to study planning. Given the broadness of the planning profession and its growing education curriculum, students admitted into planning courses needed to have a firm foundation on which to ground their initiation into planning. According to the Schuster Committee, a student looking to enter into a planning career needs to have (Planning Education Review 1986: 7):

- A thorough appreciation of economic and social issues involved in controlling land use;
- Practical skills in preparing and implementing a land use plan;
- Knowledge of the history and theory of planning; and
- An understanding of the effects of government machinery on the administration of planning.

Brian Parnell (Chief Planning Officer of Manchester) summarized the requisite planning skills in the Planning Education Review as follows (1986: v);

“Planners have traditionally had the necessary analytical and policy formulation skills in taking action on the ground (reclamation, environmental improvement, economic development, conservation, country parks, etc). These will continue to be needed but also needed in the future will be increased skills in organization and management, working with other disciplines and the general public and achieving action through influencing, enabling and facilitating others in their actions. This will involve negotiating, communication, networking and campaigning skills.”



## **2.9. The Planner and the Environment**

Ecological literacy is listed as an ethic towards caring for nature which every planner ought to develop. Sandercock does not merely list the various pieces of environmental legislation that a planner ought to be familiar with, she highlights the need for a planner to develop an intrinsic love or consideration for the environment (*Ibid* : 228). This is especially relevant for planners who find themselves serving in a developmental state/local government context where the legislation present may not be sufficient to compel adherence to international conventions. Most developing countries simply do not have the legislative framework to guide much of the development in any given area. Thus this falls on the shoulders/conscious of the planner to ensure the prevention of environmental desecration.

Armstrong (1979: 84-98) focuses on the role of the individual planner in promoting/advocating for environmental awareness and conservation. All the activities listed in the chapter are suggestions for the roles to be undertaken by the planner. However, all of these are based on the assumption that the local authority concerned has made a commitment to environmental education. Armstrong acknowledges that not all local authorities are prepared in terms of capacity to be officially involved however she places a great deal of responsibility on planners to act on issues pertaining to the environment in their individual capacity through individual initiatives.

The list of potential activity by planners is divided into two sections. The first being a list of activities for planners working in local authorities. The second list provides suggestions for the involvement / participation of planners working outside of the public sphere. The individual planners working within a local authority can (Armstrong 1979:84-88):

- Volunteer to become a contact person for schools i.e. schools and colleges;
- Keep colleagues informed on what is going on in the field;
- Educational work within the local authority, i.e. becoming a source for physical resources, maps, statistics and reports.

The planner working outside the public sphere can: Armstrong 1979:88-95)

- Lecturers can feed into student interests in the environment by introducing projects that facilitate the development of skills in the area;
- Accompany children on informal trails or survey work; and
- Design activities for young people in the community who are outside of school as well as adults.

## **2.10. Skills Distribution in South Africa's Planning Areas of Operation**

Todes et al (2003:4) identified the following growth areas in planning;

- Environmental management
- Project management
- Strategic planning and integrated development planning
- GIS
- Public management
- Performance management
- Public participation/ facilitation
- Local economic development
- Land restitution and rural planning

Todes et al 2003: 4 identifies skills shortages has also been identified as planners increasingly fail to translate their ideas into implementable realistic projects as a result of a lack in the following skills: (*Ibid*)

- Good writing skills;
- Project management;
- Economic and financial skills;
- Conflict resolution and communication;
- The interpretation and application of law; and
- Computer aided design (CAD).

According to a report released by the Municipal Demarcations Board powers and function committee (MDB: 2007), evaluating municipal capacity in South Africa, Local municipalities' responsibilities continue to rise in the face of declining skills in the public sector. Municipal responsibilities and functions continue to expand as district municipalities relegate more and more of their responsibilities to local authorities. 51% of all local municipalities are currently performing the function of running cemeteries, which were in the past the responsibility of district municipalities. Other functions inherited from the districts are refuse collection, now performed by 57% of municipalities, Fire fighting now done in 31% of municipalities and the management of roads which are now the responsibility of 33% of all local municipalities.

This move however, has not been supported with the transfer of the requisite skills or capacity to the municipalities involved. The majority of South African municipalities find themselves in a situation where public servants like municipal managers, corporate services personnel, technical services and IDP managers within the municipality do not possess the requisite skills to perform their duties and in some cases do not have sufficient experience in the field to tackle their growing responsibilities and roles (MDB: 2007).

Although 65% of municipal managers have at least a bachelor university degree, 13% of these have a teaching qualification and 5% have only matric without an additional qualification. Only 22% of these managers have a qualification in public administration while 10% have a legal qualification. Unfortunately the lack of requisite skills and appropriate qualifications among municipal managers is not supported by experience in the field as 48% of them have two or less years experience on the job (MDB 2007:27-29). Although finance management within local municipalities is in a better position than other municipality areas, only 72% of finance managers in the municipality have a financial qualification, only 43% have a university degree or diploma in finance. Only 26% of corporate services personnel have a university qualification and 45% of managers have less than 5 years experience within local government (*Ibid* : 30-33).

Technical services is among the greatest casualties in the face of skills and experience gaps, with 60% of personnel having only a matric qualification and 42% of the managers in the area having less than 5 years experience in local government (MDB 2007: 33). Although IDP managers are

among the most appropriately qualified persons in local municipalities with planning and other development related qualifications, only 38% of these have 5 years experience in local government (*Ibid* : 35). Although there may be other underlying explanations for the skills shortage in local government, these figures taken at face value serve to verify the working assumption in this study i.e. academic institutions are failing to produce the requisite skills needed by the public sector, especially within developmental local government.

### **2.11. A Communicative Approach to Curriculum Planning**

The study plans to adopt Patsy Healy's theory of communicative rationality which is based on the Habermasian notion of opening up spaces for communicative action. The theory will be used in conjunction with Douglas Kellner's Critical theory of education in evaluating the relationship between government and academic institutions. By looking at this relationship through the lenses of communicative rationality and critical theory, the study can bring about solutions or recommendations for interaction between the two major stakeholders in planning education. These theories do not deny the existence of relationships of power where one stakeholder may have influence over the other, nor do they adopt a reductionist approach to the evaluation of power relations that they view all relationships only in terms of power relations.

Academic institutions enjoy a degree of institutional/administrative autonomy from the state however, their autonomy is limited by their heavy financial dependence on the state. The reliance of academic institutions on the state often results in a situation where the state dictates terms and conditions for funding, in some cases those terms and conditions include issues of curriculum development. The theory can provide a framework for future collaboration or increased interaction between government and academic institutions where power relations are not neutralized but are temporarily set aside for the achievement of a common good i.e. ensuring a throughput of quality planning graduates and effective public sector servants. These will be looked at not only in terms of the various skills criteria set for quality planners but also the various qualities/values outlined in Douglas Kellner's critical theory in education.

## **2.12. On Habermas and Discourse Ethics**

Flyvbjerg (2000) in his article; *Ideal Theory, Real Rationality: Habermas Versus Foucault and Nietzsche* summarizes the work of Jurgen Habermas. He draws on a number of critiques of Habermas by Foucault to explain the various pieces of Habermas' work which actually draw attention to the limitations of his discourse ethics. However the main idea throughout the text serves to use the comparative study of the two as a means of endorsing the Foucaultian notions of power as an alternative to Habermas' communicative rationality. His review Habermas' work on discourse ethics, serves as a valid reference for the study as it provides an accessible and detailed description of the work of Habermas as its limitations as highlighted by Foucault.

Habermas is a philosopher of moralitat (morality) based on consensus. He sees political and administrative rationality as best understood in terms of consensus. He has based his views of communicative rationality on the notion of humans being (homo democraticus) i.e. democratic beings. Habermas pre-supposes the universality of the consensus reaching process as he sees it as unavoidable and central to the human experience. Although he acknowledges the threat of rationalization and power in contemporary society, he argues that it is the force of argumentative speech that is unifying and able to bring about consensus in 'competing' groups. Habermas saw the emerging social movements of his time as agents of communicative rationality who will bring about much needed change in the public sphere (Flyvbjerg 2000:1-5).

However the success of his theory/ discourse ethic is subject to five key requirements (Flyvbjerg 2000: 3) i.e.:

- Generality; no affected party should be excluded from the discourse;
- Autonomy; all participants should have the equal opportunity to present and criticize validity claims;
- Role taking; participant must be willing and able to empathize with each other's validity claims;
- Neutrality; existing power relations must be neutralized so that the differences have no effect on the creation of consensus; and
- Transparency; all participants must openly explain their goals and intentions.

Although the theory of communicative rationality makes central the issue of consensus i.e.; “what is right and true in a given communicative process is determined solely by the participants in that process” he clarifies any possible misinterpretation by highlighting that the theory operates only within the context of the law and sovereignty. Among the issues brought forward are the mitigative measures on power and its abuse is the constitution. He sees it as a unifying factor among citizens as well as a power regulating tool in a pluralist society (Flyvbjerg 2000:4). The theory is plagued by a lack of congruency between theory and real rationality; although the theory has well meaning intentions, the implementation thereof is impossible in the form that Habermas has presented it. Habermas notes for himself the lack of institutions which would ensure that the decisions/conditions reached during the communicative exercise are met (Flyvbjerg 2000. 4).

### **2.13. Communicative Rationality**

In the conclusion to his essay on planning theory and the education of planners, Faludi (1978: 182) highlights the need for a collaborative approach to planning education. He advises the participation of representatives in the discipline on issues on the frontier of planning knowledge in advanced seminars. He asserts that the core of planning education ought to be developed jointly by those concerned. Continuous dialogue among representatives of planning education is important in fusing the core curriculum with its multidisciplinary envelope.

Healey advocates for a communicative approach to planning. She sees it a tool for the promotion social justice and environmental sustainability. Healy describes the communicative process as one that facilitates collective consensus on matters of collective concern (Healy: 1993). She sees planning as a product of modernity and thus highlights the centrality of the concepts of democracy and progress. She does not overlook the reality of conflicting interests among different classes and races but emphasizes that the communicative process ought to be informed by principles of tolerance and respect (*Ibid*). The fact that what is right is what is agreed upon does not translate to the exclusion of morality and aesthetics from reasoning as individual's reasoning is influenced by various 'life worlds' among them the issue of morality (Healey: 1993). Thus the consensus that the process produces is inclusive of various sensitive issues that are not usually discussed in a

planning forum. Such an approach would then help foster an understanding within the planner of people's needs and values ensuring development that is sensitive to these needs.

Susan Fainstein (2000) looks at communicative rationality within the context of planning practice. She describes communicative rationality as a communicative model that draws on two theories; that of American pragmatism by John Dewey and Richard Rorty and the theory of communicative rationality by Jurgen Habermas. It serves to provide an alternative of decision making to traditional models of decision making i.e. paternalistic or bureaucratic models which at times did not consider/reflect on the needs of other interest groups. The theory looks into the issue of solution brokering where reason or rationality is/becomes the product of an "inter-subjective effort at mutual understanding" (Fainstein 2000:454). In a situation where stakeholders cannot agree on a particular matter of common interest, the theory advocates for the use of an intermediary or negotiator that stakeholders/interest groups of a higher positions within the socio-economic hierarchy do not dominate the proceedings (Innes 1998 in Fainstein 2000:454).

## **2.14. Critiques of Habermas' Discourse Ethics**

The first critique highlighted by Flyvbjerg (2000:5-14) is one against Habermas' appeal to humans as democratic beings. Machiavelli quoted in Flyvbjerg (2000:5) states "one can make this generalization about men: they are ungrateful, fickle, liars and deceivers". In this quote he emphasizes the fact that all communication is happening within the context of power relations where affected parties will seek to direct the discourse in a manner that will ensure the preservation of their interest. This disproves the Habermasian assumption about people being inherently 'good'. Also brought out by the critique is the oversight resulting from the homo democraticus assumption, which is that human are far more complex and have the ability to simultaneously be a number of contradictory things. e.g. A person can be a patriot while being a dissident, tribal while being democratic etc (*Ibid* : 5).

The second critique brought up Flyvbjerg against the theory was its failure to distinguish between the workings of power in formal rationality and real rationality. The critique accuses Habermas of formalism, idealism and insensitivity to context. He states that the theory fails to take into

consideration problems relating to identity, cultural divisions and the issue of gender. Habermasian discourse ethics is viewed as being mainly normative and procedural and is seen as paying little attention to the preconditions of actual discourse (Flyvbjerg 2000: 7). The third critique is one leveled by Foucault as quoted in the text (Flyvbjerg 2000:10) The theory's operation in the context of authorization of power by law is not enough as the judicial system is incongruous with new methods of power. Foucault sees the methods of power that are employed on all levels and in all forms as going beyond the state and its apparatus. He highlights this point by pointing out that the law and administrative procedures do not always ensure freedom, equality or democracy. Flyvbjerg affirms this point by highlighting the issue of suppressive regimes where law is not put in place to safeguard the interests of the citizens but is a tool ensuring the survival of those in power (Flyvbjerg 2000: 13).

The fourth critique to the theory describes the communicative approach as one oriented towards universals, context dependence, and control via constitution writing and institutional development (Flyvbjerg 2000: 14). It is seen as failing to realize the need for power in order to limit power. The theory makes no attempt at identifying institutions to be used within the discourse to control power relations and it gives little guidance on how such implementation could take place (*Ibid*). His fifth and sixth propositions contain no critique, only observations on the nature of power. The fifth proposition states that "stable power relations are more typical of politics, administration and planning than antagonistic confrontations" (Flyvbjerg 2000:321). The sixth proposition highlights the changing nature of power relations i.e. "power relations are constantly being produced and reproduced" (*Ibid*).

The seventh proposition is a fifth critique of the work of Habermas. The critique is an extension of the first critique where Flyvbjerg criticizes Habermas' idea of 'homo democraticus'. The proposition states that "the rationality of power has deeper historical roots than the power of rationality" (Flyvbjerg 2000:231). This point emphasizes the fragility of ideas of democracy, rationality and neutrality as it compares them to the long standing traditions of class and privileged. He asserts that these are to be seen as a part of power and not the end point of it (*Ibid* ). His eighth proposition highlights the subversive role that rationality has to power i.e. "in open confrontation rationality yields to power" (Flyvbjerg 2000:232).



In his ninth proposition which is his sixth critique of discourse ethics, Flyvbjerg posits; "rationality power relations are more characteristic of stable power relations than of confrontation" (Flyvbjerg 2000:233). As result of the stable nature of power relations, a working consensus with unequal relations of dominance often results in distortions in the production and use of rationality. This means that the consensus that Habermas hopes to attain through the discourse process may not be real rationality. In light of the distortions it may end up a quasi-rationality of sorts. His final proposition builds up on his overall argument on discourse ethics and the workings of power i.e.; "the power of rationality is embedded in stable power relations rather than in confrontation" (*Ibid*).

### **2.15. Critique of Healy's Communicative Rationality**

(Fainstein 2000: 640) highlights the shortcoming (much like those listed by Flyvbjerg) within the approach stating that the communicative rationality model does not take into consideration the possible gap between rhetoric and action. Agreement between the various stakeholders does not ensure that any action will take place. Although the intermediary may be successful in brokering consensus, there are no provisions made by the theory to ensure that decisions are carried through. Fainstein also questions the practicality of the approach as reaching consensus via participatory processes may be a lengthy/time consuming exercise (Fainstein 2000: 460).

She further asserts that the focus of communicative theorist on the mediating role/process rather than on what should be done in the context in which the situation arises, results in the failure of the theory to achieve its objectives (Fainstein 2005: 125). Also highlighted as a limitation of the theory, is its failure to take cognisance of the promotion of neo-liberal values in the context of deepening social economic differences. This trend towards a market rationality results in the introduction of these values into the deliberative process thus making consensus brokering more difficult (Watson: 2006).

## **2.16. Filling in the Gaps; Beyond the Communicative Approach**

In his tenth proposition Flyvbjerg highlights the fact that the lack of equality between rationality and power in democracy, results in the limitation within modern democracy to make use of naked power. However, he sees modern democracy's ability to limit its use of naked power as a general strength. In an earlier proposition, he spoke of the changing nature of power i.e. power being produced and reproduced. The aim of the study in adopting a communicative approach is to use the very channels provided by modern democracy to bring across an additional dimension to the power relations within planning education (Flyvbjerg 2000: 231-233). As Flyvbjerg himself has already acknowledged, power relations are not stagnant but continue to change. History has revealed that the discourse element contained in modern democracy has increasingly provided marginalized groups with a voice, Thus a chance at changing power relations within their given context.

The democratic context that the study looks into provides much room for discourse to take place. Even though the factor of power within that context may continue to exist, that power is neutralized by the progressive approaches inherent in both parties. As Farling (2002: 70-72) posits, Wits and UCT programmes were leaders in transformative planning education in the time of the peak of repression in the apartheid state and would thus prove perfect candidates/participants in a collaborative initiative to the designing of planning curriculum. Collaboration between these two institutions and the state would give resonance to the ideal of institutional collaboration highlighted in section 6 of the draft national plan for higher education (Ministry of Education 2001:68).

The ministry acknowledges that the issue of programme collaboration remains uncharted territory. The plan however, articulates the willingness of this particular organ of state to 'get the ball rolling' i.e. initiate the process. However the ministry has also acknowledged the fear of this process displayed by academic institutions (*Ibid* : 70). Many fear the loss of institutional identity that may result from the process while at the same time wanting to ensure a throughput of quality graduates. Thus in the situation of communication between the state and academic institutions on the issue of planning education, the interests of the two parties may not be identical but they feed into each other. The close alignment of the interests of the two parties would then eliminate the

factor of self interest as highlighted by various critics. And in the absence of self interest from this discourse, the consensus reached can be found to be real rationality.

Klein (2004: 1-20) looks into the conflicting rationalities and subtle power relations that shape planning education in South Africa. In his analysis of these issues he adopts the lens of real rationality, taking into account a range of factors i.e. national and regional planning priorities, market demand, institutional obligations, societal values etc and highlights the centrality of multiple rationalities to the construction of a sustainable planning curriculum. The approach to reaching real rationality is discussed further by Kellner (2003: 1-16). As part of the development of a critical pedagogy, Kellner advocates for the promotion of radical democratization as a tool to counter the trend towards the imposition of a neo-liberal business model on education. Given the limitations of the study, the issue of increasing neo-liberal tendencies in institutional administration and curriculum development will not be broached. However the theory of critical pedagogy will be referred to in support of a communicative approach. Its foundation which is rooted in radical pragmatism, Freian critical pedagogy and post culturalism provides the element of relevance to the broad South African context and will in its application enrich the envisaged discourse.

## **2.17. Conclusion**

This literature review has highlighted the needs of planning education in South Africa dating as far back as the 1960's. A number of varying sources of literature have also been consulted, each detailing the various literacies, skills and competencies that planners ought to have. What the review was also able to unravel is the issue of a growth in areas of operation of planners in South Africa as well as the need to expand planning education to address the surge in skills demand resulting from this growth. The acknowledgment by Alison Todes that planning is expanding into areas of project management, strategic planning, public participation and Local Economic Development, etc, shows that the demand for advanced planning skills stems from a need by the developing state. These skills need not be limited to strategic planning and other policy orientated courses as taught at Wits and UCT.

Some of the materials consulted highlighted the growing demand for skills among municipalities in South Africa, especially with the local sphere of government taking on more and more responsibility for development. This rising demand for skill has necessitated the creation of graduates who will be able to translate their ideas and strategies into implementable projects and programmes. Materials consulted for the theoretical framework have also been able to highlight how communicative rationality can be applied in this instance not only to foster the creation of collaborative multi-faceted curriculum delivery to students but also to have shown how communication can work as a key to creating a balance between cognitive skills learned in class and experiential learning gained from working in the field.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### ***METHODOLOGY AND RESULTS***

#### ***3.1. Introduction***

This chapter is dedicated to the explanation of the research methodology used in the study. It aims to outline the methods used in the qualitative component of the study. It will focus on the various methods used to select graduates to be interviewed for the study and will also delve into matters of sampling and explain how the interview process unfolded. Apart from detailing the methodology used in the study, the chapter will present the findings of the qualitative component of the study and proceed to explain the changes in the study that result from these interviews.

#### ***3.2. Sampling***

The sample chosen for the study was constituted of graduates from the UCT School of Planning and Geo-Sciences as well as Graduates from the Wits School of Architecture and Planning. Although the researcher understands that Wits and UCT are not the only universities in South Africa offering the same or similar courses, she has chosen the two to be representative of post-graduate planning programmes in South African Academic Institutions. Persons interviewed for the study had graduated from either Wits or UCT in the last five years and had a minimum of one year's exposure as professionals within the planning environment and other planning related environments.

##### **3.2.1. Sample Selection**

The selection of respondents was determined primarily by their graduation dates and the availability of up to date information within the selected institutions. Both institutions conveyed to

the researcher their policy on non-disclosure of information on their alumni. The researcher therefore had to request from staff for details of one past student with whom they still maintain personal contact. As a result of the said criteria, the majority of persons identified for the study were mostly recent graduates at the institutions with the latest graduates having an average of 18 months working experience and the others averaging at four years working experience.

Information on the first persons interviewed from each university was obtained from their former lecturers at the two institutions. However the manner in which one collected the information was slightly unconventional as both universities have stringent policies giving out information to non-university staff. Both the lecturers gave only the name of one graduate they know of and that they are still in contact with. They advised that one use the limited information as the basis for a snow-ball approach to gathering information on the graduates. Information on one graduate from each university was then used to obtain information on the five other respondents needed for the sample.

This snow-balling approach worked best in the Western Cape as I had no personal contacts there however the contact person given to me by the Course Coordinator was more than willing to assist in providing contact information of his peers. Each person contacted was able to provide at least one contact for the study. The close network that exists among UCT planning graduates allowed for the study to have two focus groups within the Western Cape as most participants were in contact with each other and preferred for the interview to be set up in a manner in which they could all participate at once or have at least a number of them participating at a time. This was done as a means of alleviating me from the pressures of travel in unfamiliar territory. It also allowed for better analysis of opinions on questions of collaboration among the institutions and possible gaps they have identified in their studies.

The snow-balling approach did not prove as effective in the Gauteng Province, most of the persons contacted to be part of the study either declined, continually postponed the interview or found ways of avoiding contact after being sent the questions and skills checklist which they had requested beforehand. In this case I had to employ the three graduates from the Wits programme who I know personally to speak to any of their former classmates and colleagues on my behalf. This proved

fruitless in the end as I was unable to secure the requisite number of interviews needed for the study. Of the persons contacted in the Gauteng area three of the graduates whose details I was given were still unemployed, while in the Western Cape, I ended having a far larger number of respondents than what was initially anticipated which prompted me to review the sample size for the study and extend it.

### **3.2.2. Sample Ratio and Sample Representatively**

From telephonic discussions with school secretaries and programme lecturers prior to the interviews with programme coordinators for the two programmes at Wits and UCT, one was able to ascertain that the graduation average for each university programme is estimated at about twenty graduates per programme per year. This information when interpreted provided the number of graduates in the last five years to be around 200 graduates for both universities. Thus with the goal for the sample size being 12, the ratio of the sample to that of the total study population was then established to be 6% of the total study population.

The twelve interviews were conducted in person around various locations in the Western Cape and in Gauteng. This however was done after making initial contact with respondents whose details were obtained from other willing participants. Although the study had set out to interview twelve people i.e. six graduates from each institution, the end result was that I was able to secure twelve interviews. However eight of them happened in the Western Cape with seven UCT graduates and one Wits graduate working in the area, only four interviews were done in Gauteng.

Given the premise of the study, the sample collected from the total study population would have to be comprised of graduates working in every planning area of operation i.e. the public sector, the private sector as well as NGOs. From the UCT sample, the majority of respondents were employed within the public sector (provincial and local government), others in the private sector (consultancies working with local and provincial government) and one within the financial sector. The UCT sample had the highest number of respondents working within the private sector. This could be a result of the snow-ball approach to the selection of respondents. Many of them had

proceeded from being fellow students at UCT to being professional contacts within the working environment.

The Wits sample on the other hand, was slightly different as three of the five respondents interviewed had either in the past or still at present worked as researchers at the Council for Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR) Built Environment Unit in Pretoria. While one was located within local government in the Western Cape, the others were spread throughout local and provincial government as well as the private sector within Gauteng. Among these graduates was a CEO of a successful planning consultancy in the Parktown area.

### ***3.3. Focus Groups in the Western Cape with UCT Graduates***

The first focus group was held at the MCA, a planning consultancy in the Rondebosch area in Cape Town. The focus group took place following the interview with Ashraf Adam who is both the CEO of the consultancy as well as the chairman of the South African Planning Institute. Given that the interview with Mr. Adam was to ascertain the sentiment of employers on the skills possessed by recent graduates entering the work environment. Although a coincidence, it was only fitting that the subsequent interviews serve to either confirm or dispel what he has stated. The interview/focus group had three graduates from UCT participating. Two of them were recent graduates although employed at the MCA as second year MA students and the third had worked within the MCA for a period of about three years. The second focus group took place at the City of Cape Town offices with two graduates that work as land use managers.

### ***3.4. Other Interviews in Gauteng and the Western Cape***

The rest of the interviews that took place at the Western Cape were one on one interviews with graduates employed within the provincial government, local government and the financial sector. All the interviews conducted in the Western Cape area were done on the last week of May 2007 and completed within a five day period. The Gauteng interviews on the other end were spread out throughout the month of June 2007 and took about three weeks before the researcher gave up on meeting the initial set target of a minimum of six interviews per institution.



### **3.5. Results of Qualitative Component of the Study**

#### **3.5.1. Feedback from the SAPI Chairman and Course Coordinators**

##### **The First Respondent**

There has been much change in the programme in the past ten years. This has been done to ensure that the programme keeps up with changes within the planning framework which he perceives to have changed drastically. He acknowledges that there has been a rising demand on the skills of planners and that, perceptions are shifting regarding what planners ought to be.

The role of planners has shifted along with the curriculum to try and accommodate the rising expectations of society when coming to planners. There is more of an emphasis on legislation and policy. The transmission of explicit values governing practice from procedural to normative has become a key outcome of learning within planning programmes. The focus has shifted away from regulative planning to developmental planning which seeks for individuals to have had rigorous intellectual development. The reason for this shift has been ascribed to the need for academic institutions to produce graduates who will influence/give guidance to planning processes and not merely operate with given tools to maintain the status quo.

The course already consults with the private sector when coming to curriculum delivery within their programme. He made me aware that he does already know of the preference of consultants for graduates that have strong technical skills to balance their cognitive abilities. However the school has chosen to focus the two years of the course in developing a strong policy, legislation and strategic background in their graduates. He views the expectation of planning employers especially within the private sector as being unrealistic and misdirected. He believes that the programme which he directs and also works in as a lecturer does address the demands of the South African planning context.

Although he approves of a collaborative curriculum delivery model between themselves and the private sector or public sector, it is hard to fit it into the programmes as most employers are

reluctant to get involved in such initiatives. He sees it as impractical and raised concerns over the impact this may have on the autonomy and identity of the institution. He does however encourage his student to gain professional experience by pursuing internships if they can manage the balance between work and study.

### **The Second Respondent**

Although the work of planners has changed with the political and social environment, there is too much outside influence on the competencies that a planner ought to have and the work that a planner ought to do. This has had a negative impact on students and has confused them when coming to the understanding of their work and what is to be expected of them in the work environment. With the addition of the knowledge of planning legislation, Spatial Development Frameworks and Environmental Planning to the existing expectations of a planner, the area of Spatial Planning is still one expected for a planner to master. This goes to show that there has been little thought from outsiders and employers on the practicalities of teaching planners.

He sees the caliber of graduates produced in the institution as okay but not good enough. He attributes the shortcomings of graduates not on the curriculum but on the selection criteria for students to be recruited for the programme. He also sees it as a result of the prospective students lack of information on planning in general and the uncertainty about their intentions for the course. He sees the problem in skills shortages among the institution's graduates as stemming from the big gap between the candidates' previous studies and the programme offered. He stated that no academic programme can fully equip people for the environment in which they will end up. All the course can do for the students is to provide a foundation of substantive knowledge, skills in critique and reflection. The programme has adopted this approach as planning is a very broad discipline and it is impossible to fully equip graduates for any niche they may occupy.

The programme attracts a large number of black students from previously disadvantaged backgrounds. Most of the student recruited often don't fully understand what planning entails but see it as a tool for economic emancipation as it is a professional degree with good prospects for employment. Those that have emerged out of the course in the last ten years have been able to

attain a certain level of affluence and thus had their expectations met. He sees the generalist nature of the programme, a result of the time constraints as more of a strength than a weakness. Graduates can use the qualification along with the previous qualifications to occupy any sector in the economy.

Because of the relative success of their graduates in the work place, the course can be seen as having equipped them for whatever role they expect to play in the developing economy. Although the course could do more in the area of design, project management and financial management, the institution cannot risk the duplication of its functions and courses. This creates strain on the teaching staff. On the issue of collaboration, he highlighted problems with the existence of a level of distrust of government and the tendency of academic institutions towards rejection of interference from the state. He warned of the danger of self-interest from various parties disrupting the process through the pursuit of narrow agendas and the lack of critique and reflection on the process. He did however acknowledge that, "Academic institutions are more than ready to collaborate, more so than in the past. However, they are partial to institutional independence and academic freedom."

### **The Third Respondent**

There is a need for organization like SACCP, ACTRP, SACPLAN and SAPI to engage with institutions and ensure that they are adequately preparing graduates for the planning environment. Not all the courses deal with technical aspects of planning like GIS and plan drawing. This can be limiting for the graduates. Although having employed some of the brightest students from one university, there is still a need to train them in the area of GIS and plan drawing. He finds the graduates he has employed as having serious gaps in this aspect of their studies. The training thus involves having to move people out of their comfort zones and expose them to areas of planning that they had come to see as not theirs.

He sees planning as a highly complex discipline and feels that universities are not engaging with that complexity. He feels that analysis and strategy formulation cannot take place outside the understanding of basic planning tools. He sees technical capacity as important as the

understanding of legislation and planning theory. There are too many profound changes in the planning arena and emerging planners ought to be able to engage with how things unfold in their working environments. It is not enough to understand that planning features in the Constitution. The graduates he has been exposed to have no knowledge of structure and the spatial.

He has taken in a number of second year students from the same and similar university programmes. This is not explicitly called an internship however the first six months is focused on training them in areas of technical skills and linking these skills to what they have learned at their respective institutions. This has served as a pilot programme for continued professional development within the organization. This has stemmed from observing the strong engagement happening at SAPA branch levels in the Western Cape between students and professionals. It is reflective of the anxiety that students may have about the skills learned from their university courses.

He acknowledges the need for more structured engagement between institutions and the industry. He sees the current benchmarking exercises as not beneficial to the students in the programmes. The institutions that Wits and UCT seek to align themselves to, cannot really relate with the third world planning context. What these institutions should be seeking to do is to create organic intellectuals committed to the country as a whole and not on creating links with organizations that can not relate nor have an impact on their situation. Much like the University of Free State, University of Venda and Stellenbosch University had a choice to either distance themselves and be unresponsive to the social and political changes affecting planning, Wits and UCT have a choice to distance themselves from the mainstream through the pursuit of international accreditation. They can, like the three aforementioned institutions embrace change and move towards participating in brokering African solutions to the unique South African development context.

Table 1: Study's results on respondents' competencies based on the T.A.M.M.E.D criteria

Respondents	Technical literacy	Analytical literacy	Multicultural literacy	Managerial literacy	Environmental literacy	Design literacy
1	2	4	5	3	4	1
2	4	4	5	4	3	4
3	3	4	5	3	3	1
4	3	5	5	3	5	3
5	2	5	5	2	3	4
6	2	4	5	2	4	5
7	4	5	4	2	5	1
8	3	5	4	3	5	1
9	2	5	4	5	3	2
10	2	5	5	2	3	2
11	3	5	5	4	4	1
12	3	4	5	2	3	1

### 3.5.2. Findings on the Skills of Graduates

A research instrument was designed for the study which sought to ascertain the level of preparedness of graduates at the point of entry into the labour market. A set of criteria was developed for this purpose and other probing questions were asked and these were to establish the previous work or study experience of the graduates. A skills checklist was designed to work hand in hand with the questionnaire thus allowing the interviewer to give respondents this checklist and trust them to rate their skills according to their level of competency in each area.

Although the research instruments were designed in a way that sought to obtain objective answers from the interviewees, by probing into questions relating to previous study experience in the planning field and work or internship experience, the results remained questionable. An overwhelming majority of the graduates interviewed from both institutions had not had any

exposure to planning before their time at UCT or Wits. Only four among the group had been able to obtain experience in the form of an internship during their studies. Two had had planning related training in their undergraduate studies as they had town planning qualifications which they obtained from technical school.

66% of the respondents interviewed were able to secure employment before completion of their studies despite their lack of internship experience. 25% were able to get employment soon after graduation and only one UCT graduate was unable to find employment in a period of over two years. This then forced him to use his teaching qualification in the meantime and teach at a school while looking for a planning related job. This however was not surprising as three persons who completed their studies at the end of the year 2005 at Wits, were still desperately seeking employment within the planning field. This highlights a key oversight in this study. Instead of interviewing graduates, the study looked to interview employed graduates and was thus unable to ascertain the level of competency among the graduates who have not been able to find employment.

The rating of the results ranged from one to five, five being excellent, four as very good, three being good, two being satisfactory and one seen as not satisfactory. Given that the skills checklist had the number of questions for each area of competency ranging from five to twenty questions, the average for that area of competency was decided on the rating most commonly given in that areas i.e. when a respondent rated themselves mainly at three then the rating for that area of competency would be regarded as the amount most used which is three.

In the area of **technical literacy** the majority of respondents had little confidence in their mastery of the preparation of spatially orientated plans and policies as well as the development of spatial development frameworks etc. 42% of the respondents rated themselves as good however none of the respondents rated themselves as being excellent and only 17% saw their skills in this area of competency as being very good.

In the **analytical literacy** component of the skills checklist, 58% of respondents rated their skills in this area as excellent while the rest rated themselves as very good. None of the respondents

showed any doubt of their skills in this area as none rated themselves as good or merely satisfactory. This meant that the majority of the persons interviewed have an understanding of social dynamics and power relations involved in planning. It also means they understand political processes and governance as well as comprehend the effects of government machinery on the administration of planning among other things.

When coming to **multicultural literacy**, much like the analytical area of literacy, 66% of respondents rated their skill in this area of competency as being excellent while 44% rated themselves as very good. This would mean that they have a firm grasp of a people centered approach to planning, a respect for professional ethics and the ability to relate and work with people. This would include an orientation to social justice as well as an appreciation for diverse cultures and views etc.

In the area of **managerial literacy**, the ratings of respondents did not display the same confidence in their skills in this area of competency. Only 8.3% of respondents saw their mastery of the management aspect of their work as excellent. Only 16% had rated themselves as being very good, while 25 saw their skills as good, 41.6% of respondents saw their skills as being satisfactory in this area. This means that the majority of graduates interviewed do not have a firm grasp of strategic thinking and management skills as well as financial management and project management skills.

Most of the respondents proved to be confident in their skills in the area of **environmental literacy**. Most felt that they understood legal, policy and institutional frameworks within which development occurs. They felt that they understood key policy development issues in this area i.e. local economic development, land reform, urban restructuring and the development of integrated settlements. 50% of the respondents rated themselves as good while the other half rated themselves higher than that, meaning that the majority thought their environmental literacy skills are very good and at times excellent.

The most disappointing results were in the area of **design literacy** where most of the respondents displayed a serious shortfall in their skills for this area. 50% the group had the ratings of one which

means that their skills in this area are not satisfactory, while 16.7% of the group rated themselves at two, 8.3% rating themselves at three and only 16.7% people rating themselves as very good and another 8.3% rating themselves as excellent. This means that the overwhelming majority of the group does not possess the ability to use technology to assist in planning processes, nor can they communicate effectively and verbally through graphic and by electronic means.

### ***3.6. Analysis of Qualitative Interview Findings***

Although the research attempted to link findings from the fieldwork to the premise of the study and the arguments developed from the literature review, problems were encountered as the premise of the study was revealed to have made great oversights and generalizations. These would be extremely negative and critical of the discipline of planning within academic institutions. Following this phase of interviews the researcher realized that the flaws in the study stemmed from the premise/assumption that the lack of communication between academic institutions and government is what resulted in the lack of adequate skills transfer to student in academic institutions.

The interviews revealed that this was not the case. There was and still is some degree of co-operation happening between government and academic institutions as well as the private sector and academic institutions. This however mostly takes place in the form of meetings to ensure university curriculum accreditation and state sponsorship of individuals/specific schools or projects doing research within the respective institutions. This form of cooperation will however serve to produce the results envisaged by the study

The problem was therefore not resulting from a lack of communication but the lack of structure in that communication. Academic institutions were found to have various arrangements with either government or the private sector and these were defined by a rather parasitic approach to co-operation where either government or the private sector would make use of services offered by staff within academic institutions. However the benefit stemming from these projects or programmes would benefit solely the individuals involved, with none of the benefits filtering through to students.



A significant number of the respondents questioned on the matter alluded to the cost of university staff allocating more time and focus on their research as opposed to their teaching obligations. While lecturers continue to have well established relationships with the private sector and government, this benefits their own pocket as most of the work done was either in the form of private consultation or sponsored research. None of these projects make use of the skill or time of students in order to give them exposure to planning consultancy work. This prioritization of funded research and consulting over teaching was outlined as undermining students' learning opportunities as very few to none were exposed to the staff's personal projects. Most were curious about the work done and did not hide their willingness to be involved and learn from the projects as a means of developing a practical understanding of their future work as planners.

The study found that absence of a compulsory internship component to the programmes often creates stumbling blocks for those driven enough to seek internships or other programmes which can enrich their knowledge of the discipline as the majority of internships offered by government and the private sector often give preference to those who need the experience in order to fulfill their qualification requirements. As a result, most internships are awarded to students enrolled in programmes with a mandatory practical experience component. Although both programmes were designed to equip planners in all government spheres, the private sector and NGOs, they have not provided avenues for the obtaining of practical experience by students from these programmes. Being aware of government's focus on new vocationalism and skills acquisition, these academic institutions although already having an established relationship with government and the private sector have not brought these two key stakeholders in on the process of provision of practical experience for student in these programmes.

As a result of this observation, the study put forward a new focus i.e. how the triple helix development model can be used as a tool to meet post apartheid development planning challenges and facilitate institutional reform. In establishing trilateral linkages and networks with government and the private sector in the delivery of these courses, academic institutions i.e. the UCT and Wits planning schools create opportunities for the students to gain practical experience. In a situation where these linkages and networks are established, traditional planning school functions could be expanded in light of the schools' new entrepreneurial /developmental approach i.e. lecturers can

identify opportunities for students to serve as interns in government departments or planning consultancies “where their temporary apprentice role transcends the original education intention” (Etzkowits 2000:16). These networks will not be limited only to issues of curriculum delivery but will serve as a launch pad for collaborative attempts at intervention on issues pertaining to development planning in the country.

The significance of collaborative planning in South Africa cannot be doubted. From the interviews conducted with planning professionals who graduated from Wits University and UCT, one realizes that there is much that needs to be done in linking the government processes with that of universities and the private sector. As one respondent pointed out (name provided on request), the governments departments responsible for planning such as Department of Provincial and Local Governemnt (DPLG), Department of Land Affairs (DLA), the Policy Unit in the Presidency as well as Department of Trade and Industry (DTI), to mention but a few should forge linkages with relevant planning schools as well as agencies that are directly involved in the planning practice. This collaboration would allow these planning entities like South African Planning Institute (SAPI) to be able to set their agenda, thus influencing planning policies in the country.

Among the issues highlighted in interviews with planning graduates, programme coordinators from planning schools as well as other planning practitioners, planning is a complex discipline. To simplify the complexities, universities as knowledge producers must engage with practicing planners in both public and private sector as well as in NGOs in the preparation not only of planning schools’ curriculum, but also in providing innovative ideas for the private sector to explore and investigate. As a multi-disciplinary profession, planning can benefit from inputs stemming from beyond university corridors. Undoubtedly, universities have a major role to shape and inform the planning discourse in South Africa. As one planner interviewed pointed out, universities’ main reason for existence is to stimulate innovation and shape the planning trajectory or path through informed research. This therefore implies that universities must not lose their academic autonomy, but they must create a space for engagement with other key players in the planning profession. The research emanating from planning schools in particular, must benefit the community that the institution strives to serve.

What also came out strongly from the interviews was the need for planning students to be given opportunities to have a feel of the industry. In other words, universities, the government and civil society, must devise a method of ensuring that students get exposure to the industry through learnerships, internships and other form of programmes that would bolster students' knowledge of the planning field or sector. In addition, as one graduate pointed out, practical experience encourages students to be more positive and informed about the profession they seek to operate in. This improves the quality and form of research produced by students at the end of their programme. Most graduates interviewed were aware of various existing collaborations between their former academic institutions with either government or the private sector. The majority of respondents were concerned by the fact that the collaboration happening is limited to the management level of the institution and does not filter through to school level in order to benefit students.

Although there are a number of initiatives aimed at developing the sort of collaboration envisaged by this study at institution management level, there is a lack agency at the school and department management level thus the change fails to filter through to the people whose lives it should be affecting. Heads of departments within academic institutions need to liaise with heads of schools to ensure that all decisions regarding curriculum delivery are implemented. By being pro-active and displaying the agency needed to drive these processes forward, heads of department would then foster the creation of a bottom up approach to development and institutional transformation. In being pro-active they will be ensuring that the collaboration framework created will reach all the beneficiaries the processes were intended for.

As previously outlined earlier in the chapter, there is a need to build institutional thickness / social capital (Goddard: 1997). This however can not happen in the absence of the political will from all parties involved. Some of the respondents interviewed highlighted the need for institutional transformation as a precursor to the collaboration, most respondents in the Western Cape spoke of the need for their former academic institution to let go of institutional protectionist tendencies linked to its identities during the time of Apartheid. As a result of the institution's political stance during apartheid, the university did not have a good relationship with government and as a result of past traditions they have positioned themselves in a manner which remains antagonistic to government

and favourable to the private sector. As professor Wilkinson of the University of Cape Town put it; "collaboration may be problematic as it may affect our institutional identity and autonomy"

Other universities like the University of Free State and Stellenbosch have had to undergo institutional transformation in order to become more responsive to the context in which they now serve. These have positioned themselves at the forefront of collaborative curriculum delivery processes and government has responded by sending a significant number of its senior personnel to these institutions for continued professional development. Although both universities were the academic home of Apartheid, they made a choice not to become distant and unresponsive but to become responsive and support the development mandate set for the country. While the majority of academic institutions are looking towards their collaboration with government for a framework for curriculum delivery and accreditation, the two universities identified by this study are looking to foreign international bodies like the Royal Town Planning Institute to guide their framework for curriculum delivery.

Thus, from the discussion above, it is apparent that there is a lot that is yet to be done to improve the relationship between the planning schools, and other social actors such as the government and the private sector. Like all institutions in post apartheid South Africa, universities are trying to grapple with the legacy of the past regime. Planning schools in particular have a major task of rebuilding their credibility, given the role that this profession played in the previous political dispensation. Talking about the liberal universities prior to 1994, one planning professional interviewed stated:

"...the stance that these [universities] adopted during Apartheid allowed them to build their image as forward thinking liberal institutions however their current bid to maintain their ivory tower institutional identities as shaped by Apartheid history is frustrating current forward looking trends which seek to create "organic' or genuine intellectuals who will be more concerned with the developmental agenda in the country than meeting world-class criteria" (Interview; 2007).

### ***3.7. Disproving of Some of the Assumptions Initially Made in the Study***

From a class exercise looking at job advertisements in the Sunday Times from January the first to March 25 2007, there was a realization that most of the entry level positions for graduates in the field of planning are as Local Economic Development (LED), Geographic Information Systems (GIS), Housing and Integrated Development Plan (IDP) officers. These areas of planning tend to require expert knowledge in the particular field. Having only a limited exposure to these areas of knowledge, will graduates be able to cope with the demand on their skills or will they be compelled by their relative inexperience to take part in in-service training or graduate development courses to acquire the necessary skills to deal with their demanding work situation?

Although the study initially looked at various competencies required for entry level jobs, the researcher did take cognisance of the fact that some if not a significant number of planning jobs may not be advertised in the mass media/Sunday Times in particular. The researcher was to later discover in the course of the study that a significant number of entry level planning jobs are advertised in the "Workplace" a pull out of the "The Star" newspaper available each Wednesday. The jobs advertised there are within municipalities, provincial and national government and most are geared at graduates with a strong cognitive and strategic background who are able to interpret policy and work within the monitoring and evaluation component of general work done among the spheres.

The study examined actual skills obtained in the two years of study i.e. it sought to assess whether students in these programmes become over exposed to theory and find themselves situations whereby their grasp of the issues at hand is limited by their lack of exposure to the practical aspect of their jobs. This has proven not to be the case. Both the programmes evaluated have produced strategists, researchers and monitoring and evaluation practitioners whose work is valued more than that of planning technicians. This is evident in the gap between the remuneration packages of entry level technicians such as land use planners and entry level strategists such as strategic planners.

### ***3.8. Shifts Away from the Assumptions Informing the Study***

During the qualitative phase of the study, a link was discovered between the study and other pedagogical issues relating to vocationalism and non-vocationalism. The study however did not seek to identify a specific pedagogical approach as being more conducive to the production of quality graduates needed to boost public sector capacity. After looking at the results obtained from the qualitative component of the study, the researcher developed a concern for issues of communication and collaboration as a means of comprehensive skills development as opposed to adopting one or other specific approach to teaching as a means of achieving the same.

The researcher realised that, by not limiting itself to issues of pedagogy the study could be better able to explore possibilities for the transformation of academic institutions to becoming major role players in the development of the country. Aside from developing criteria for quality graduates, the study developed the premise that, quality graduates can only be produced through collaborative means of curriculum delivery between academic institutions, government and the private sector. As a result of deeper investigation into the possible results for this collaboration, the study evolved as the researcher explored opportunities which can arise from increased engagement between these institutions, government and the private sector.

### ***3.9. Changing the Study; Re-Focusing the Research Question***

From its conceptual stages, this study was concerned with the issue of the skills learned or imparted onto planners within academic institutions. The research question stemmed from the researchers pre-occupation with whether or not she would have been adequately prepared to function as a planner within the context of a developmental local government or within other areas of South Africa's demanding developmental context. The topic underwent a number of changes in the weeks following the qualitative research component of the study.

The study's topic developed from "How can academic institutions produce the quality of graduates needed to function in South Africa's developmental local government" and through various rigorous cognitive processes brought on by the analysis of the qualitative results into "Planning for development; the role of universities in tackling post-apartheid South Africa's developmental

challenges” to “evolution from ivory tower to facilitator of development; the role of universities in tackling post apartheid South Africa’s developmental challenges” and finally into its present form i.e. *Tackling Post-Apartheid South Africa’s development planning challenges; the Triple Helix as a tool for skills development and institutional transformation.*

This shift in focus is a reflection of the intellectual development which has moved the study from its focus on requisite skills and the need for skills development to issues of institutional transformation and its impact on the country’s development agenda. Although the research still recognises the centrality of skills and the need to build human capacity for development, it sees collaborative ways of building capacity and knowledge sharing and interchanges in technology as far more effective for the realisation of set development objectives/goals. This shift took place when the fieldwork for the research was conducted in the Western Cape with University of Cape Town (UCT) graduates from the MSc Town and Regional Planning course and from interviews in Gauteng with the University of Witwatersrand’s MSc Development Planning graduates.

### **3.10. Conclusion**

What the researcher realised in the processes involved in this study is that skills are central to the development agenda of South Africa however universities have come a long way in ensuring that their graduates are ready and able to perform at a level and with the efficiency expected for the posts that they will fill. The majority of graduates interviewed in the study were confident of their skills on graduating from their respective universities. The skills that many highlighted as lacking from their training can not be in essence identified as core skills in planning. Many alluded to needing further training in Geographic information systems (GIS), project management as well as other planning related expertise which could be acquired from a few weeks of graduate development courses.

Both graduates and programme coordinators highlighted the issue of the length of their programmes. One coordinator outlined that, for their programmes to be effective much focus needs to be placed on developing cognitive skills through the teaching of planning theory and to deepen students understanding of the planning environment both local and abroad. This is to teach them

of various approaches and mechanisms for dealing with challenges facing the planning profession in varying contexts. Given that both programmes are run over a period of two years, there isn't enough time to concentrate on developing skills which students may not use in their jobs. However the literacies imparted by the programme remain applicable in any given planning context.

As a result of the majority of planning students in the programme not having a planning background, the programmes focus on building the ground work for their lives in the profession. Given the dynamic nature of the technology used in the planning field, focusing on technical skills may prove to be a waste of time as not all graduates will be in a position to put their skills to work in their chosen area. The technology is also in a state of continuous change and modification that it necessitates regular and continued professional development of those already in the field.

As a result of these findings, the study had to be remodelled and this necessitated taking another look at the premise and problem statement for the study. The initial study was premised on the notion that, the lack of skills in South Africa's planning graduates is a result of a disjuncture or lack of communication between academic institutions, government and the private sector. The premise of the initial study proved to only be telling half the story as far as South Africa's development planning challenges are concerned. Although the graduates interviewed did not claim to be in possession of all required skills and competencies for their area of work, the majority laid claim to having the core planning skills necessary for effective performance in their given job.

The researcher also came to the realization that, graduates who remained unemployed for extended periods of time did so because they aimed for higher entry level positions, whereas the majority of graduates who are employed in the public sector entered at the level of an Assistant Director which is a lower management job. The three unemployed Wits graduates who had found work by the time the study was submitted in October 2007 were employed as Deputy Directors in the Department of Arts and Culture and in the Department of Trade and Industry which are middle management jobs.



The researcher thus came a realisation that, there are other challenges outside of the lack of planning skills which go into creating the current development planning crisis facing the country. These can be dealt with more effectively through collaborative means of solution brokering. This realisation brought about a new focus for the study. Although the focus of the study has shifted to issues of collaboration as the main route to tackling South Africa's development planning challenges. The focus on skills is because the issue still forms an important part in the discourse on development in the country and the collaboration envisaged will have to deal with the issue of skills development among other things.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### ***COLLABORATING FOR DEVELOPMENT***

#### ***4.1. Introduction***

According to Wange and Rweyemamu (cited in Malada 2007: 2) "Africa's future economic growth will depend less on its natural resources and more on its labour's skills to accelerate economic growth". The ever expanding knowledge economy has placed academic institutions at the center of South Africa's economic development. The development of the required skills will depend largely on the capacity of the universities to collaborate with key stakeholders in the economy to perform this task.

Although academic institutions are independent from the state, there exists among the two a vertical relationship which needs to be explored. According to Shireen Motala of the Wits Education Policy Unit (EPU), the state acts as both the facilitator and in some areas the restrainer of delivery in higher education. What one ought to explore then is, how can the state act as a facilitator of delivery in both higher education and the economy. This would involve looking at the underlying political conceptions that inform education policy which in some cases can be a hindrance to delivery (Motala S: 2007). In the development of solutions one would have to explore inclusive means of solution brokering e.g. Habermas' notion of opening up of spaces for communicative action (Motala E: 2007).

As a means of developing a coherent argument for the premise of the proposed paper, the theory of communicative rationality and the triple helix development model have been identified as a means not only for developing the argument and bringing it to its logical conclusions but also as an important tool for the development of recommendations and the development of questions for further inquiry.

Collaborative rationality calls for constant engagement/communication among stakeholders in the brokering of solutions. The triple helix advocates for the creation of strategic relationships between academic institutions, government and the private sector in knowledge production aimed at economic growth. When the two are used together in developing a partnership aimed at facilitating development and producing the human capacity needed by the growing South African economy. Much can be done towards meeting the development planning challenges facing the country. However all this will only be possible when universities take the initiative to become more entrepreneurial and take steps to forming these partnerships.

With the emergence of globalization, the shift from government to governance became a prerequisite for sustainable development. As Hague (1990: 296) articulates, a shift towards governance has released “a real tide of imagination and optimism” compelling the public sector to form strategic partnerships and networks with the business community as well as civil society. In a post-modern era, governance is viewed as one of the many successful ways of ensuring that all development actors become more innovative. The public-private partnership that defined the close of the 20<sup>th</sup> century heralded a new philosophy and culture of approaching development. Even in South Africa, the government, through policies such as ASGISA and the JIPSA initiative, has emphasised the importance of public and private sector collaboration in development.

With this backdrop, one is compelled to argue that the future of the planning profession as well as the planners' ability to respond to the needs of the South African community will be determined by the way knowledge-producers i.e. the universities, interact with other institutions that utilise the knowledge, research and innovation – that is the government, and the private sector (Etzkowitz et al. 2000:314). In South Africa where strategic planning is viewed as a vehicle that would necessitate social and spatial integration, one is compelled to interrogate the institutions that impart knowledge and expertise to planners – universities. Etzkowitz and others (2000) highlight the changing role of universities in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Universities are constantly shedding their ‘ivory tower’ image and in its place, a more responsive entrepreneurial institution is being erected (Etzkowitz et al. 2000:314). In other words, universities are now compelled to produce knowledge and practitioners that can add value to the development agenda of a given community.

Thus in looking into the interaction happening between academic institutions, namely the Wits and the UCT planning schools, governments and the private sector, the study is better able to understand the impact of their collaboration on the knowledge produced or skills taught. By talking to recent graduates from the two institutions, the study has been able to identify areas of the curriculum which suffer as a result of the limited resources available in academic institutions but which can be developed through increased collaboration with the government and the private sector. This study does not seek to ignore or belittle various initiatives aimed at skills development within academic institutions which involve the government and private sector. In choosing to focus on Wits and UCT, the study is acknowledging the existence of a shift within academic institutions which seeks to create and maximize benefits for their students by engaging in various varying partnerships with either government, the private sector or both.

What this new focus in the study intends to highlight is the fact that the move from government to governance has necessitated a collaborative approach to the realization of developmental objectives or goals. In the case of skills delivery aimed at boosting public sector capacity, there is a need for increased government and private sector involvement. The study does not propagate infringement onto the institutional independence of academic institutions but seeks to highlight the need for government and the private sector to become more involved in knowledge production and in capacity building within the bounds maintaining the institutional independence and integrity of the institution. In so doing, will produce the skills necessary to build/boost capacity in the public sector by assisting academic institutions to produce the quality of graduates needed to drive government's developmental programmes and projects as well as play a bigger role in tackling development planning challenges.

This chapter endeavors to construct a theoretical framework for the new focus within the study. The study has already outlined various development planning and skills problems faced by the South African planning sector. In this chapter the triple helix development model along with the communicative action principle underlying the theory of communicative rationality is presented as possible solutions for problems outlined. Various themes will be explored from the theory. These will be used in conjunction with principles underlining the triple helix development model to set out a plan for future collaboration and interaction between the major stakeholders.

Also to be discussed are the various initiatives currently underway aimed at restructuring or revising planning education in South Africa. Although these initiatives have not been in effect long enough to realize their intentions, their approach to collaboration may not bring about the desired outcomes as the engagement between government and academic institutions has left out a key stakeholder which is the private sector. This chapter will advocate for the broadening of collaboration in curriculum delivery and knowledge production and dissemination to include the private sector.

#### **4.2. The Triple Helix as a Theoretical Framework**

“The triple helix is a development model that captures multiple reciprocal relationships at different points in the knowledge capitalisation (Etzkowitz and Gulbrandsen 2002: 2)”. It emphasises the importance of institutional innovation particularly in this age of postmodernism. To use Etzkowitz et al.’s (2002) words, the triple helix model appreciates the changing nature of society – with a move from industrial society to a knowledge-based society in which universities interact with government and the private sector in an effort to promote sustainable development. Etzkowitz et al. (2002) also emphasises the significant shift from government to governance, with universities determined to be more responsive and entrepreneurial in their approach to knowledge production, teaching and research.

Healey’s communicative rationality approach is one that promotes social justice. She describes the communicative process as one that facilitates collective consensus on matters of collective concern (Healey: 2000). Healey sees planning as a product of modernity and thus highlights the centrality of the concepts of democracy and progress. She does not overlook the reality of conflicting interests among different classes and races but emphasizes that the communicative process ought to be informed by principles of tolerance and respect (*Ibid*). The theory’s assertion that what is right is what is agreed upon, does not translate to the exclusion of morality and aesthetics from reasoning as an individual’s reasoning is influenced by various ‘life worlds’ among them the issue of morality (Healey: 2000). Thus the consensus that the process produces is inclusive of various sensitive issues not usually discussed in a planning forum.

The communicative planning theory and the triple helix development model can be adopted for the evaluation of the relationship between academic institutions, government and the private sector as they does not deny the existence of relationships of power where one stakeholder may have more influence than another. In the case of academic institutions and government, academic institutions enjoy a high degree of institutional and administrative autonomy, however this is limited by their heavy financial reliance on the government which often puts government in a situation to dictate the terms for interaction.

Academic institutions enjoy a degree of institutional/administrative autonomy from the state however their autonomy is limited by their heavy financial reliance on government. This however is fast changing as universities are forced to become more entrepreneurial in financing their daily administration. The reliance of academic institutions on government often results in a situation where the state dictates terms and conditions for funding. In some cases those terms and conditions include issues of curriculum development. The theory can provide a framework for future collaboration or increased interaction between government and academic institutions where power relations are not neutralized but are temporarily set aside for the achievement of a common good i.e.; ensuring a throughput of quality planning graduates and effective public sector servants.

In the case of academic institutions and the private sector, the relationship that exists between the two has in most cases produced benefits for both parties. Academic institutions have for years maintained bi-lateral relationships with both the government and the private sector. For years however, in order for these relationships to wield the necessary developmental effect, trilateral linkages ought to be formed, joining the three stakeholders in a partnership. This partnership will not only provide solutions for the looming problem of skills but will have a far reaching impact in the country's economic development as well.

In proposing a collaborative approach to curriculum delivery which includes the government and the private sector working with academic institutions and not in silos. The chapter seeks to present issues of skills shortages and problems in organizational capacity outlined earlier in the study not as a problem facing academic institutions alone, but a problem which involves all that operate

within the sector. The chapter sees a governance driven approach to problem solving as one that will help to align the problem solving efforts of the partners involved and will ensure the creation of structures which will facilitate collective agenda setting. It will ensure long term linkages aimed at meeting the needs of the sector as well as the professional development needs of practitioners and students that aim to enter into it. By looking at this relationship through the lenses of communicative rationality, the study can outline possibilities and bring about recommendations for interaction between the three major stakeholders in planning. The communicative rationality theory and the triple helix do not deny the existence of relationships of power where one stakeholder may have influence over the other, nor do they adopt a reductionist approach to the evaluation of power relations that they view all relationships only in terms of power relations.

### ***4.3. The Triple Helix; a Framework for Collaboration in Meeting Developmental Needs***

The triple helix development model has been applied in a number of European countries as a means of boosting the role of academic institutions in economic development. In most cases it has been used in the sciences faculty as a means of transforming science into economic goods. (Lin: 2007). This collaborative model has allowed for the shortening of the time span between the discovery of new technology or knowledge and its utilization in industry or society. The application of this model has allowed for academic institutions to transform from being mere providers of human capital and producers of knowledge to becoming seed-beds for new firms (*Ibid*).

This model for institutional collaboration has allowed academic institutions, government and the private sector to collaborate for the development and the benefit of the entire country. Although there existed in the past a relationship among the afore mentioned stakeholders, the application of this model of collaboration has allowed for the creation of an interwoven pattern of spiral linkages which emerge at various stages of the innovation and industrial policy making processes (Lin: 2007). Resulting from this collaboration are a number of factors which benefit both academic institutions and broader society. Outcomes reached through the triple helix model of collaboration are broad and can vary i.e. (Campbell et al: 2004):

- The general dissemination of knowledge characterized by the routine communication of research findings to the general public through publication in professional literature;
- The creation of university-industry linkages; these are characterized by technology transfer mechanisms which stem from industry sponsored research on the university campus;
- Commercialization of activities; the transfer of technology from the university to industry through patent agreement which often result in demonstrable effects on the local economy;
- Improvement in health care as a result of strong research capacity within academic institutions and effective knowledge dissemination and patent networks with both government and the private sector;
- Increased research productivity as a result of private sector funding and government backing; and
- Local economic development as a result of the impact of knowledge transference on regional economies.

The relationship that previously existed among these stakeholders was one where the three institutional spheres i.e. public, private and academic dealt with each other at arms length. Where collaboration or co-operation occurred, it was kept to a minimum or was geared only at a specific project. This is much like the current level of collaboration occurring in South Africa between academic institutions, government and the private sector. This form of collaboration can be characterized as a laissez-faire model of public, private and academic sector relations.



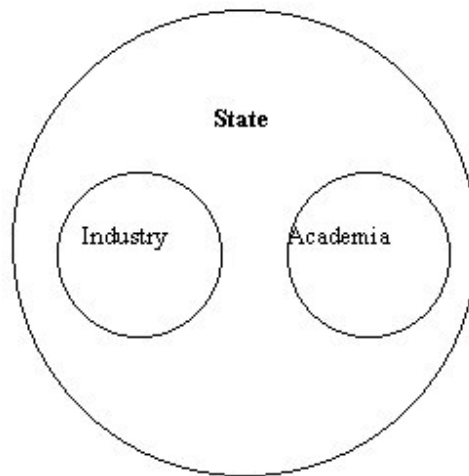


Figure 1. Socialist model of the academic institution-government and private sector collaboration

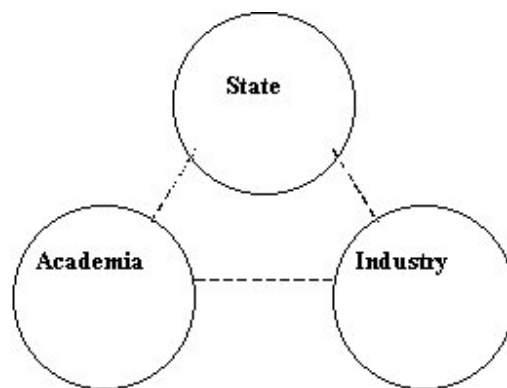


Figure 2. A laissez-faire model of university-industry-government relations. (Lin 2007:2)

All three institutions work at arms length from each other, each guarding or looking out for their own interest. However as the collaborative rationality theory posits, consensus and the resulting collaborative action can only happen when differences and individual interests are placed aside for the collective good. In the case of academic institutions, government and the private sector in

South Africa in terms of planning and development needs to shift the manner in which public, private and academic sector relations are shaped/conducted. For the envisioned skilled (planning) labour force and productive developmental government to be realized, there needs to be a shift that will allow for the creation of cohesion and building of social capital among the three stakeholders.

The triple helix model for university-industry –government relations on the other hand advocates for the formation of trilateral networks. These are maintained by the creation of hybrid organizations which will/can facilitate collaboration between the stakeholders and serve as the knowledge dissemination arm for the group. These organizations can at first be created to stimulate interface and promote organizational cohesiveness among the stakeholders. The creation of these hybrid organizations does not go to say that various differences and points of contention among the stakeholders will be automatically solved, but communication at the network level will be used to reconstruct institutional arrangements for collaboration (Lin: 2007). Using the principles much like those outlined by the communicative rationality theory, collaboration among stakeholders can remain in endless transition as activities are re-organized and harmonized through continuous discussion and negotiation.

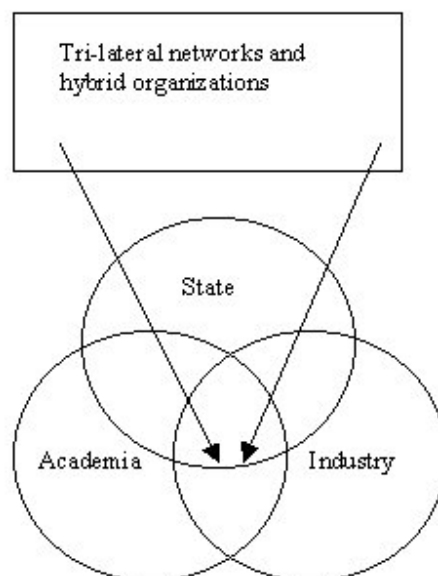


Figure 3. The triple helix model of university-industry-government relations.

The trilateral linkages and extensive collaborative networks envisioned by this development model can only be formed when all three stakeholders undergo internal transformation. This transformation is usually in the form of the formation of strategic alliances and in the case of universities, becoming more entrepreneurial (Lin: 2007). Etzkowits et al identifies the shift toward being entrepreneurial as the second academic revolution within academic institutions. The first phase of the academic revolution within academic institutions is seen as the move within universities towards becoming more responsive to societal needs in their teaching. Another important aspect of the first academic revolution within academic institutions is the establishment or expansion of their research capacity (*Ibid*).

Although there is extensive yet unstructured collaboration (in terms of the triple helix model) happening between academic institutions, government and the private sector, the absence/lack of research capacity within an academic institution undermines the objectives and outcomes envisaged by the trilateral networks and linkages of the triple helix development model. The absence of a research arm and the lack of capacity for research within academic institutions prevents the natural progression of an academic institution toward the second revolution which is the move to becoming more entrepreneurial. In the case of South Africa, not all academic institutions can take part in the collaboration for economic growth. Only those with the capacity to carry out the necessary steps for the realization of the set objectives can participate. Those that cannot ought to also form linkages with government and the private sector in developing their teaching and research capacities in order to secure their role in future knowledge production and transfer networks.

#### ***4.4. Conclusion; Embracing the Future, Collaborating for a Revolution in South African Higher Education***

Badaat 2007 highlights the many discrepancies and limitations within South African universities which prevent them from growing into the entrepreneurial institutions, which government has been urging them to become since its implementation of a wide array of transformation oriented initiatives since 2001. He sees the failure or relative lack of progress towards the creation of

entrepreneurial universities in South Africa as a result of the manner in which academic institutions were structured by the apartheid government. "All higher education institutions were profoundly shaped by apartheid planning and by the respective functions assigned to them in relation to the production of the apartheid social order....this created patterns of advantage and disadvantage which "continue to determine the current capacities of institutions to pursue excellence, to provide high quality learning and research experience.....the attempt to transform higher education occurs within the context of a formidable overall challenge of pursuing economic development, social equity and the extension and deepening of democracy "(Badaat 2007:4-5)

The triple helix is not introducing a new concept to the South African context. The call to academic institutions made by the Education White Paper 3 of 1997, for academic institutions to play a role in meeting the basic needs of people, develop human resources, build the economy and to democratize the state and society through achieving political democratization, economic restructuring and development as well as redistributive social policies aimed at equity (Republic of South Africa:1997). Universities like Wits and UCT which found themselves on the receiving end of the advantages created by apartheid education planning, ought to take up the challenge set by the 1997 Education White Paper and use their advantage to build the economy and meet basic needs.

Planning Schools in particular should position themselves in a manner that will allow for the creation of trilateral linkages between themselves, relevant government departments/ bodies as well as planning focused/related bodies within the private sector. Both planning schools at Wits and UCT have undergone the first academic revolution and have the capacity to move towards becoming more entrepreneurial. Both have been extensively involved in the move towards reshaping and re-aligning planning to the developmental needs of the country through their involvement with the planning Standards Generating Body, the Planning Heads of School collaborative initiative with JIPSA and other planning related/focused government departments, as well as their individual linkages to planning focused companies within the private sector.

With all stakeholders already strategically positioned around these academic institutions, the next step of formulating trilateral links through the formation of hybrid organizations can be initiated.

The human agency highlighted by Badaat 2007 as key to academic institutions' transformation is already in existence and working within the Wits and UCT planning schools as well as their partners. What is now needed, is for all stakeholders to come together and begin to facilitate the creation of a collaborative network. This network will; create the relevant human capacity for government planning departments and bodies and planning focused/related companies within the private sector as well create policy and research advisory bodies that will fast-track the realization of government's set developmental objectives and foster communication and collaboration on all planning policy related matters. In so doing allow every sector to fulfill its role within the context of the developmental South African local state.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### ***FAST-TRACKING SERVICE DELIVERY***

#### ***5.1. Introduction***

Like any profession that strives to contribute positively and meaningfully to the development of all mankind, planning practice has to be responsive, pro-active and most importantly, dynamic. Many planning critics and scholars (Berrisford 2006; Harrison 2006; Healey 2000; Sandercock 2000; Hague 2003 and Watson 2006) have expressed albeit in varying tones and spirit, the need for planning to be more assertive, concise and systematic in its engagement with societal issues. As Harrison (2006) has rightly articulated, planning as a practice was a deliberate and necessary reaction to the socio-economic ills that characterized Europe in the twentieth century. Given its history, planning as a practice has indeed managed to transform and mold itself in many ways. The dynamic and responsive nature of planning has enabled this profession to not only survive but also to flourish and thrive in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. This chapter will try to outline the importance of cementing linkages between planning schools, the government as well as the private sector. The main argument posed here, is that the success of the planning profession is dependent on the manner that planning institutions position themselves and their students in this changing global environment. Responses from planning professionals and graduates will be incorporated to inform the content and structure of this chapter. In addition, various shifts in planning practice globally which have made necessary the need for increased collaboration between government and academic institutions.

#### ***5.2. A Quest for (Re) Positioning and (Re) Focusing of the Planning Profession***

Planning is one of the professions that can impact positively not only on the geographic morphology of towns and cities, but also on the socio-economic and environmental well-being of

communities. Before delving into details on planning practice, it would be worthwhile to define the meaning of 'profession'. According to one source:

[A profession is a] disciplined group of individuals who adhere to high ethical standards and uphold themselves to, and are accepted by, the public as possessing special knowledge and skills in a widely recognized, organized body of learning derived from education and training at a high level, and who are prepared to exercise this knowledge and skills in the interest of others. (Bickenbach et al 2006:162.).

Without doubt, planners need to be learned enough to grasp and/or understand the world around them, thus being in a position to influence policies and development initiatives for the greater 'good' of the community (Harrison and Todes: 2001). Instead of abusing their skills and expertise, planners are expected (and in most instances strive) to ensure that the socio-economic and environmental well-being of the community is not only maintained but also sustained (*Ibid*). To accentuate the abovementioned point on the planner's duty to exercise her skills in the interest of others, the Planning Profession Act of South Africa (2002:2) defines a planner as "a person who exercises skills and competencies in initiating and managing change in built and natural environment in order to further human development and environmental sustainability ...and who is registered in one or more [of existing professional bodies]".

More than merely a gainful occupation, the practice of planning "sets out a social good as its goal and *raison d'être* and requires those who would call themselves professionals to strive to further that goal" (Bickenbach et al 2006:p162). Planning has allowed the development of world class cities as well as the shaping of the ever growing African city which has been characterized by increased urbanization and the pursuit of a better livelihood. Planning has brought together elements of the disciplines of sociology, ethics, geography and economics within an interdisciplinary framework which has been designed to identify and address social issues with the overall aim of improving our collective quality of life (*Ibid* : 168).

The planning profession emerged in the global West in the early 1940s. Until the mid 1960s planning was not an established discipline in South Africa and remained within academic

institutions an appendage to other faculties within the university and in public organizations. This changed with the establishment of a Department of Planning in government as well as the introduction of four year undergraduate qualifications for planners at Wits and UCT (Dept of Planning: 1965). South African planning education has its roots in (Town Planning Institute established in 1913) British teaching which has its foundation in the discipline of architecture, engineering and surveying. It was assumed that persons in possession of one of these skills could launch themselves into the planning field. Law was later added to the skills needed by planners in the practice as planners needed to have knowledge of the legal framework in which they are to conduct their work (*Ibid* : 8).

Thus, planners are professionals by virtue of acquiring academic knowledge, skills and expertise, their affiliation or registration in recognized planning councils and most importantly their quest for serving their communities. Regretfully, however, that there are instances in modern history when planners abused or applied their knowledge to further the interests of repressive and oppressive political agendas (Harrison 2006, Mabin 1992). In this era of post-modernism, the notion of 'professionalism' should not be without criticism. As the South African case study has shown (Harrison, 2006), people who are considered to be professionals can misuse their expertise to perpetuate atrocious policies and initiatives that further the interests of the minority at the expense of the majority.

### ***5.3. A Profession in Disrepute; the Dark Side of Planning***

Although a noble profession, planning practice has unraveled a dark side to the profession i.e. the use of planning tools and legislation as means of repression. Upton (2006; 123) puts the failures in planning practice as the profession having fallen into disrepute. Planning practices meant for the regulation of land uses and the management of public space have been used for the creation and maintenance of practices which seek to further marginalize the vulnerable among our society. Klein (2003: 8) highlights the damaging effects of the 'dark side' of the planning practice highlighting in particular the case of apartheid South Africa, "under apartheid, different zoning legislation for different race groups left its continued spatial legacy. It is virtually impossible to develop one



common land use management system. It is particularly difficult to identify a land use system which does not discriminate”.

Harrison (2006: 67-83) highlights the challenges faced by planners in confronting the Janus Face of a practice and discipline that had its origins in the idea and practice of social reform, and is still connected to the progressive tradition but which is also implicated in repressive practices. Planning has been linked to goals of poverty eradication, democracy and good governance as well as poverty eradication on the African continent. However it has also been used to validate human rights violations in the form of urban slums evictions much like the recent Operation Murambetsvina in Zimbabwe which left thousands homeless and destitute.

Notwithstanding, the planning profession cannot be discredited or tainted by isolated incidents of ‘misuse’ of professional knowledge. Given the current global restructuring and its consequences namely urbanization, income disparities, poverty and looming environmental threats such as global change to name but a few (Hague: 2006). The need for development planners has never been greater. When engaging and/or reflecting on the role of planners in this age of globalization, one need not be skeptical and cynical. Harrison (2006) also highlights the need for a critique of the profession that does not seek to produce a ‘practice-crippling skepticism’ (*Ibid* : 76). To use Harrison’s words (2001) it is critical for scholars in the global South to comprehend and appreciate the Janus-faced or double-edged nature of planning. While positively critiquing the approach or response of planners to their forever changing environment, it is imperative for one to celebrate the milestones achieved through strategic planning.

#### ***5.4. The Evolution of the Planning Profession; Planning Practice Redefined***

In South Africa for instance, the planning profession has ‘redefined its work’ over the last decade or so. Indeed, there is much that is yet to be achieved particularly with regard to broadening the scope of planning as well as understanding different needs and aspirations of various communities. On the whole, post-apartheid South Africa is witnessing a shift from a repressive apartheid planning (characterized by repression and marginalization of the majority of citizens) to a more

inclusive and engaging planning practice that focuses on development for all citizens irrespective of colour, gender or creed.

The growth or redefinition of the planning profession has given rise to a change in the focus of planning. Planning has diversified into the areas of environmental management, property management, housing, local economic development and GIS (Todes et al: 2003). While those whose work is concentrated within the private sector have moved toward gaining specialized qualifications in project management, Environmental Impact Assessments (EIAs), heritage impact assessment and transport planning, planning within the public sector has adopted an increasingly managerial approach (*Ibid* : 7). Although referring to a different context, Upton highlights concern arising from this shift in planning approach. To some, this move is seen as a threat to the planning profession as it may cause fragmentation and dispersion within the profession. The diversification of planning functions into new fields or areas such as regeneration, economic development, environmental and transport planning is seen by some as drawing planners away from the mainstream of planning. The changes are not viewed by some critics as new additions to the planning profession but are seen as approaches that would seek to break apart the planning profession rather than consolidate it (Upton 2006: 118).

These changes however were made necessary by the radical change in the context in which planners found themselves. In South Africa, the bid to reduce the socio-economic disparities entrenched by the pre1994 regime, saw the ANC government embarking on the process of transforming local authorities, ensuring that they were more 'developmental' hence being more responsive to the needs of local people. In one of his articles, Naude (2003) outlines the transformation process of the South African local government. The transformed local authorities are 'developmental' in the sense that they have 'a special constitutional mandate to foster development' (Naude 2003). Citing from the Constitution.

"A municipality must structure and manage its administration, budgeting and planning processes to give priority to the basic needs of the community and to promote the social and economic development of the community (RSA Chapter 7, section 153a)."

According to Hague (2006) it is critical for the planning profession to reposition itself, thus being able to engage meaningfully and effectively with the challenges and opportunities emanating from a phenomenon that has been referred to as globalization. The 'repositioning of planning' relates to Berrisford's (2003) plea for the planning profession to 'redefine' its work. Although expressed in a rather passionate fashion, Berrisford's call for a more assertive and multi-pronged approach to planning is not unfounded. As it has been outlined by Healey (2002:46):

"Planning ... highlights a developmental movement from the past to the future. It implies that it is possible to decide between appropriate actions now in terms of their potential impact in shaping socio-spatial relations. This future imagination is not merely a matter of short-term political expediency, but is expected to be able to project trans-generational temporal scale, especially in relation to infrastructure investment, environmental management and quality of life."

Without reiterating Healey's point (2002) it must suffice to stress the significance of 'future imagination' and trans-generational temporal scale' in the light of repositioning and/or redefining planning in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Instead of solely focusing on land issue (i.e. zoning and rezoning) planning, there is a need for planning to be all-encompassing and yet focussed. For those critics who find themselves either defending or critiquing planning as a profession (Berrisford 2003, Hague 2006) it is evident that planning professionals are expected to be as dynamic as possible. In the face of rapid urbanisation (which is more often than not accompanied by poverty and unemployment especially in developing countries), there is a need for planners to be adaptable and responsive in their dealing with the challenges of post-modernism. Put succinctly, planners need to move beyond focussing on traditional planning practices to more strategic planning approaches that take cognisance not only of the urban/rural morphology, but also socio-economic and environmental issues. The principles of sustainable development must underpin and inform the planning as a practice and profession.

### ***5.5. A Profession in Crisis; Planning's Response to the Redefinition of its Work***

With this backdrop, it becomes clear that planners must be in possession of skills and expertise that would assist them in their quest for serving the interest(s) of the public (Republic of South Africa 2002: 2). Like medical practitioners and lawyers, planners are not (and must not be viewed as) a homogenous group – they also can and do focus on different fields or areas of expertise thus making them 'specialists'. Planners can function as technical analysts or researchers, some opt to be designers or programme developers while others become managers in both public and private institutions and some carve their niche in academia as educators. This 'specialisation' in planning however, does not mean that planners should lose focus – that is, serving the interest of the citizens.

For planners are not only expected to formulate plans and policies that have a socio-economic and spatial impact to communities, but they are also expected to act as mediators among conflicting community interests. Most importantly, they find themselves playing a major role in determining the distribution of resources at community and/or national level. It is therefore critical, for planning schools to form linkages with the private and public sector in order to be able to respond directly to the planning needs of the South African community. Although referring to planning within the UK whose evolution in the last few decades has been mirrored by South Africa, one critic views planners as needing to be equipped enough to deal with (RTPI: 1986):

- Land-use planning;
- Environmental planning;
- Coastal planning;
- Emergency management planning;
- Economic development planning;
- Transport planning; and
- Housing, social, and community development planning.

With the advent of post-modernism and its tenets, planners are now compelled to move away from the epistemological and/philosophical underpinnings of the modernist epoch [that is, physical

planning which focused on land-use and master-plans for instance] towards more complex and sometimes conflicting demands of the post-modernist society (Harrison 2006, Hague 2006). To accommodate or negotiate such changes, planners in both developing and developed countries are compelled to update their skills and expertise. As a response to the shifting global trends, universities and other academic institutions broaden their curriculum to include Geographic Information Systems (GIS), Infrastructure planning, urban design, sustainable development and sustainable human settlements to name but a few.

South African universities, the University of the Witwatersrand (Wits) and the University of Cape Town (UCT) for instance through their engagement with various stakeholders through the formation of Standards Generating Bodies, have designed their curriculum in a manner that equips students with an edge that would enable them to function optimally in the public and private sector as well as in non-governmental organisations. The main challenge that exists for South African Universities however, (particularly those that were previously marginalised during the Apartheid era) is to engage meaningfully and constantly with the public and private sector in drafting a plan for curriculum delivery; knowledge production and dissemination that would result in well-informed and well-rounded planning graduates.

The redefinition and/or repositioning of planning as a profession is underway not only in South Africa, but world-over. It is the pace, magnitude, scale and form of this repositioning that varies. As Tewdwr-Jones (2001) has posited, the impact of planning is determined not solely but primarily by the structure and form of a given administrative system. What has been referred to as the 'rise of the region' in the United Kingdom (UK) in the early 1990s for instance, not only resulted in the formation of Scotland and Wales as autonomous polities, but it also 'redefined' the planning profession in ways unprecedented (Tewdwr-Jones 2002).

Similarly, the post-apartheid South African planning system have been greatly influenced not only by the political devolution process, but also by the manner in which the administrative system is structured (Harrison, 2003). The local government sphere finds itself faced with the task of being 'developmental' – and the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) – a planning tool that is mandatory for this particular sphere, has defined planning in South Africa (*Ibid*). Much needed is a coherent

and structured sense of professional identity, which would at the same time provide suggestions that would guide and maintain the image and credibility of this particular profession.

### ***5.6. The Knowledge Based Economy; New Approaches to Development Planning***

The changing nature of the world economy has brought about a need for increased skills levels. Among the key areas identified as drivers of economic development in South Africa is planning, a skills intensive area of operation. The changing nature of the South African economy has placed the issue of skills development at the helm of the nation's development agenda. The gradual shift of global economies into knowledge based economies is evident even among countries in the developing global south. Among the key development strategies adopted by the South African government is the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (ASGISA), which seeks to increase the gross domestic product of South Africa by 6% by the year 2010 in order to halve unemployment and poverty by 2014 (Republic of South Africa 2006:2).

The South African government believes that the objectives set in ASGISA can only be possible through improved skills. "The massive infrastructure programme of over R400 billion and sectors earmarked for growth will prosper, if appropriate and adequate skills could be attainable" (Republic of South Africa 2006:2). Today's global economy is in transition to becoming a "knowledge economy", where knowledge is used to produce economic benefit and where know-how is more critical than economic resources. This economic approach adopted by OECD countries is one stemming from the realization that knowledge is the driver of productivity and economic growth and where the focus of government is shifted to playing a leading role in generating information, technology and learning/skills (Pascal 1996:4).

A knowledge based economy is much like what the South African economy is moving towards i.e.;"a learning/skills economy where workers acquire a range of skills and continually adopt these skills and where government plays an increasing role in the development and maintenance of these skills. This is an economy characterized by high technology investment and highly skilled labour where workers are engaged in handling information as opposed to the more tangible factors

of production. This is an environment where knowledge and technology form the driving force behind productivity and economic growth. They also form, an economic reality where employment is characterized by increasing demand for highly skilled workers and where universities play an increasingly relevant educational role by providing efficient transfer of economically useful knowledge and training in skills required by the industry (Pascal 1996: 6-11).

Universities within OECD countries are primarily funded by government in order to meet the labour markets' need for skilled manpower as well as to provide the capacity needed to meet national research and technological development needs. These institutions play an important role in the formation of human capital and in providing leadership for formal and informal local governance structures (Goddard 1997:2). These universities have allowed themselves to move beyond the narrow technical approaches/notions of what a university ought to be. They have shifted from providing direct employment effects through the creation of spin-off companies and the establishment of science-parks to the transfer of technology. They have also embraced a larger role of being the enhancers of the stock of human capital within the region (*Ibid*).

As a result of the reconceptualisation of regional development by the OECD governments, academic institutions have been brought on board to promote reconstruction and development, innovation and technology transfer. However, this approach to development may have had an initial negative impact on the population's employment levels as articulated by Andre' Pascal (1996:16);

“The knowledge-based economy is marked by increasing labour market demand for more highly skilled workers, who are also enjoying wage premiums. Studies in some countries show that the more rapid the introduction of knowledge-intensive means of production, such as those based on information technologies, the greater the demand for highly skilled workers. Other studies show that workers who use advanced technologies, or are employed in firms that have advanced technologies, are paid higher wages. This labour market preference for workers with general competencies in handling codified knowledge is having negative effects on the demand for less-skilled workers; there are

concerns that these trends could exclude a large and growing proportion of the labour force from normal wage work.”

Kanter (1995) quoted in Goddard (1997:4) highlights the importance of skills development partnerships in regional development in stating that “world class places can help grow their assets by offering innovative capabilities, production capabilities, quality skills, learning networking and collaboration”. Given that South African cities like Johannesburg share this same sentiment of aspiring towards world class status , much collaborating and networking will need to take place to create the quality skills necessary for the fruition of South Africa’s development goals. The high level of development envisioned by the South African government can only be possible through the forging of collaborative networks that seek to transform the face of both the public and private sectors.

While there is a world-wide call for academic institutions to become more entrepreneurial in the face of declining subsidies, Goddard (1997:5) extends the same mandate to government; “local policy has needed to be innovative and entrepreneurial itself, typically through drawing on a wider network of resources, negotiating and building alliances between local and other tiers of government, universities, private sector interests and non-profit organizations.” This he believes, can be possible under conditions of political will on the part of all stakeholders involved.

He coins the terms “institutional thickness” and “social capital” as being the key ingredients to the collective realization of shared economic ideals. He believes that the presence of institutional thickness can allow for high levels of interaction which can lead to the achievement of collective interests. Quoting Amin and Thrift (1994) Goddard (1997:5) refers to this approach to development as a “collectivization and corporatisation of economic life”. Goddard (1997:8) sees the collaboration for regional development as only possible when universities attempt to link global trends to local economic realities and finding willing partners within the public and corporate sectors who are confronted with the same challenges of needing to transform in order to remain relevant to the changing or shifting economic context.



Sharing the same sentiment on the role of academic institutions in the country's economic development is Saleem Badat, the current vice-chancellor of Rhodes University and first and former CEO of the Council for Higher Education. Badat (2007:3): sees education as a major area for economic and social transformation and a crucial sphere for the development of South Africa. The South African government also shares this sentiment. This is evident in their various transformation oriented initiatives for academic institutions which included the definition of the purpose and goals of higher education, extensive policy research, policy formulation, its adoption and implementation in the areas of governance, funding, academic structure and programmes as well as quality assurance (*Ibid* 4).

All these initiatives have been adopted to ensure a progressive trajectory towards institutional reform or academic transformation. This transformation has been made necessary by the political transition of the country from being a repressive state where the white minority had positioned itself to rule over black majority for over three centuries. According to Badat (2007:4) academic institutions in South Africa were profoundly shaped by apartheid planning and were given representative functions in relation to the production of the apartheid social order. A democratic government would thus be faced with the task of ensuring equitable redress across the board, The key area in which some of the country's battles for equitable redress and access would be won was within academic institutions, especially former white academic institutions.

In post 1994 academic institutions were called upon by government to respond to the development needs of a democratic South Africa. This mandate for higher education was formulated around 1994 Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) which called for the meeting of basic needs of the South African people, developing human resources, building the economy and democratizing both the state and society (Badat 2007:5). The goal orientated, performance related funding framework of the National Student Financial Aid Scheme (NFSAS) was established with the country's development goals in mind as a tool for increasing access to higher education and effecting social redress for poor students. This funding initiative would ensure that academic institutions begin to move towards fulfilling their potential in respect of knowledge production and dissemination as well as contributing to social equity, economic and social development in the country and the Southern African region (*Ibid* :9).

However Badat (2007:6-7) feels that for institutional transformation to take place, there is a need for a bottom up approach to transformation:

“It is sometimes held that the reconstruction or reform of institutions is a necessary element of their transformation. That may be so, but it is not axiomatic that the reform of institutions will necessarily result in their transformation. It depends, of course on many other issues and conditions.....human agency in contrast to social structure- internal to higher education institutions have facilitated or hindered transformation, or have produced certain inequalities while concomitantly transforming other inherited institutional conditions”

Badat believes that institutional restructuring in South Africa was a precursor to an equitable and productive system of higher education which will be of high quality and would make effective contributions to human resources, skills, knowledge and the research needs of the country. However reformed/transformed academic institutions may be, many are plagued by increasing demands to be more responsive to South Africa’s developmental context and whose programmes are made subject to scrutiny in search of the illusive ideal of quality education. Not to sound hypocritical, this very study has elements of curiosity as to the quality of planning education in the country and is also concerned with issues of skills acquisition and the levels of responsiveness of planning education to the demand for a new breed of planner. The planner who will be able to leave university and assume the position of driving or at least forming part of the driving force behind the country’s developmental projects and programmes.

According to a recently released World Economic Forum (WEF) report (cited in SABC Asikhulume Talk Show 1 July 2007), the South African education system is ranked among the lowest in the world, even lower than Zimbabwe. The labour force in the country is inadequately skilled and is struggling to meet the skills demands of the growing economy. Apart from the suggestion of designing a responsive curriculum by getting increased stakeholder participation, members of the panel (specifically Salim Valley of Wits EPU) called for policy level intervention that is realistic about the challenges faced and the efforts it would take to effect changes. Dave Balt (chairperson

for NAPTOSA) highlighted the need for a cohesive approach which will ensure buy in from all stakeholders in education.

These passionate responses were stemming from the direct involvement of panel members in education matters whether at basic or tertiary levels. Some like Salim Valley have become disillusioned by the counter productive actions of government in the face of a crisis in higher education. Vally (2007:1) views the shrinking allocations to education and the discourse of efficiency and the competitiveness of academic institutions as having sidelined previous commitments to access, equity and genuine transformation made by government. He links education to the notion of democratic citizenship i.e.; education as a basic human right has a direct and indirect impact on democratic citizenship as it can ensure minimum equality of access to civil and political rights. He asserts that; "education can serve as a life raft to rescue people from the sea of protracted poverty", however in limiting access by reducing funding to academic institutions and furthering the corporatisation of higher education institutions, the government in spite of its progressive legislation denies the poor the right to basic education and democratic citizenship (*Ibid* :7).

### ***5.7. Joint Initiative on Priority Skills Acquisition (JIPSA) as a Collaborative Approach to Skills Development***

There is currently an initiative that strives to improve the skills capacity in South Africa. - The Joint Initiative on Priority Skills Acquisition (JIPSA). What is critical about JIPSA is that it identifies Town and Regional Planning as one of the scarce skills in South Africa. Some of the objectives of JIPSA are to:

- Lead the implementation of a joint initiative of government, business and organized labour to accelerate the provision of priority skills to meet ASGISA's objectives;
- Give momentum and support to the implementation of ASGISA;
- Prioritize key skills and to develop the appropriate human resource development (HRD) strategies to address these in the short and medium term;
- Mobilize senior leadership in business, government , organized labour and institutions concerned with education and training and science and technology to address national priorities in amore coordinated and targeted way;

- Promote greater relevance and responsiveness of planning education and training systems to strengthen the employability of graduates;
- Lay the foundation for more coordinated and effective HRD strategies;
- Identify blockages and obstacles within the system of education and training that stand in the way of the achievement of JIPSA objectives; and
- Lead an effective programme to communicate JIPSA's objectives and consult with [key] stakeholder (Republic of South Africa 2006:7 )

In a bid to foster partnerships, delegates from South African Planning Institute (SAPI) and the Heads of Planning Schools Committee (HPSC) met with JIPSA representatives in August 2006 to find ways of fostering a more collaborative and sustained approach to development planning. The engagement was also geared towards harnessing planning skills and expertise critical for addressing the demands of a developmental state. Also resulting from this meeting was a Draft Business Plan submitted by SAPI and the HPSC to the JIPSA Technical Working Group. Some of the tasks assigned to the working group include:

- Facilitating of international recognition for planning qualification (tasked to SAQA);
- The establishment of a bursary fund, which is to be financed through the Department of Education;
- Establishing a standards generating body for the planning profession;
- Promoting the registration of planners; and
- Strengthening of SAPI activities (refer to [www.saplanners.org.za](http://www.saplanners.org.za)).

Berrisford (2006:8) puts forward a list of possible actions which can be taken to ensure the efficient utilization of planning skill in South Africa but also acknowledges that not all of them may be appropriate for JIPSA support. He sees the speculation on the precise meaning and content planning as a discipline and as a government function as having caused confusion and shifted focus away from the core elements of the planning discipline. Apart from the definition of planning competencies and skills, he highlights the need for the strengthening of SACPLAN. Although this idea/notion has already been put forward by JIPSA in their list of proposed solutions, he believes that it can only be done through the identification of a legal framework from which planner are to operate as well the identification of a state organ/institution with which they are to identified. He

proposes the provision of support for the currently disorganized SACPlan from the Ministry of Land Affairs as well as the relocation of the Planning Profession Act from the Ministry of Land Affairs into the Ministry of Public Works where they can integrate the planning profession into the framework provided by the Built Environment Council (*Ibid* : 10)

Among the list of possible actions to be taken by JIPSA are (Berrisford 2006:8):

- Clarification of the constitutional responsibility for urban planning, which will either require an amendment to Schedule 4 and 5 of the Constitution or a definite court decision on the subject;
- Review of institutional curricular and quality of planning education institutions which necessarily involves the Department of Education, individual universities and SACPlan;
- Public relations exercises to boost the image of the planning profession in the eye of tertiary entrants;
- Consolidation of the planning profession under the umbrella of the Built Environment Council;

All these initiatives demonstrate a dedication within the South African planning community and government to work together in fulfilling the task of reshaping planning to meet the demands of the broadening/redefining of planning tasks. However broad this approach is, it excludes a core player within the planning profession i.e.; business. Apart from being the sole activity of the state, planning has also been an important activity of the private sector.(Taylor 1998 and Tewdwr-Jones 1999 cited in Farling 2003). The central role given to planning in the economic development of the country can not be fully realized in the absence of engagement with the private sector. One does however acknowledge the broad scope of participation and collaboration in projects envisaged by JIPSA in its efforts to bring together SAPI and the HPSC. This coalition however, does not necessarily represent the interests of all planners working in the private sector. Although SAPI and South African Council of Planners (SACPLAN) may enjoy the membership of many planners within private practices, their highly diversified composition cannot allow them to lay claim to being sole or exclusive representatives of planners within the private sector.

## ***5.8. Involving the Private Sector in the Development Planning Agenda***

McPherson (2005) highlights the need for government engagement with the private sector in promoting and sustaining economic reform. He sees the private sector as a key player in boosting public sector capacities and promoting economic development. The Centre for Economic Development and Enterprise (CEDE: 2000a) also highlights the centrality of private sector in curriculum delivery. It also states that, business has a fundamental interest in ensuring that what emerges out of academic institutions is a system that can deliver increasing numbers of students equipped for the highly competitive international knowledge economy. The CEDE further emphasizes the need for increased effective communication between business, higher education and government. Such engagements could provide fertile ground in which the three stakeholders can begin to influence and impact on each other in constructive ways. The private sector is seen as having the potential to play an active role in allowing academic institutions to meet the challenges of globalization.

The development of knowledge based economies much like what South Africa is shifting towards, have opened channels where business can influence higher education policies and universities through mutually beneficial relationships (CEDE. 2000b: 1) The level of collaboration happening within knowledge based economies allows for the private sector and academic institutions alike to move away from their traditional roles that were hitherto inward focused. Within the knowledge based economy, the partnership has increasingly brought knowledge and skills. Possible ways in which the private sector can engage with academic institutions include (CEDE 2000a:1):

- Influencing public policy on higher education through policy forums and task teams;
- Working with universities in local and economic and regional economic development;
- Influencing strategies and missions of universities by playing an active part in governing bodies and in an advisory capacity;
- Helping university management to become more business-like by focusing on adding value to their core business as universities and outsourcing other functions;

- Promoting ongoing learning and providing ongoing access to higher education for employees;
- Providing opportunities for work-related learning for students;
- Using university staff on a consultancy capacity
- Using university plant, workshops and laboratories to avoid duplication of facilities as well as providing income for universities;
- Influencing the quality, quantity and direction of university research through grant and contract funding;
- Working with universities and academics to develop and commercialize intellectual property produced, thus generating income for university staff in the process; and
- Developing ideas for university research in the public domain, converting these into economically productive products or services.

The recent move by government of reducing higher education funding is likely to compel academic institutions to become more entrepreneurial and outward looking. For effective collaboration to occur there is a need to foster co-dependency. This study does not advocate the removal of higher education funding from state budgets but simply acknowledges the trajectory that government has envisioned for economic development which both fortunately (for the sake of economic progress) and unfortunately (with regards to poor students or aspiring students needing access to finance) involves nudging academic institutions to become more corporatized, and economically active contributors to the economy.

## **5.9. Conclusion**

The above assessment poses a serious challenge for planning institutions. Much, however, is being done to improve the image of planning in South Africa. In order to bring about the level of collaboration needed to develop necessary skills for development and to ensure continued communication and knowledge sharing between academic institutions, government and the private sector, a framework for skills and curriculum delivery will need to be further developed, this will be addressed in chapter 6. As outlined in the previous chapters, the triple helix paradigm could assist the abovementioned entities to become more responsive to the communities' developmental needs. Indeed, the decision by the government to prioritize the planning practice would certainly

create opportunities for similar initiatives. As outlined in the previous chapters, the triple helix as well as the collaborative planning paradigms can influence positively influence this country's planning system, resulting in the achievement of developmental goals and objectives as set out in policy document.



## **CHAPTER 6**

### ***A FRAMEWORK FOR COLLABORATION***

#### ***6.1. Introduction***

As outlined in earlier chapters the post Apartheid South African state finds itself faced with numerous challenges which range from issues of service delivery to shortages in institutional capacity. The country emerged into the twenty first century in need of an educated workforce to realize developmental goals and challenges. As a result of the growth of the knowledge society, academic institutions have had to review their traditional roles as teaching, research and service institutions in order to include economic development (Kruss:2003). The focus of universities has had to become increasingly linked to the task of preparing skilled labour that will be adaptable to the demanding economic and social context of post Apartheid South Africa.

As articulated in chapters 4 and 5 of the study; for the triple helix development model to be put into application and to produce the envisaged results of trilateral partnerships and developmentally oriented collaboration, there needs to be structured communication/engagement taking place between the three stakeholders. Academic institutions need to take initiative to establish the processes of communication, cooperation and ultimately collaboration with government and the private sector. This however is only possible when the process of change/transformation begins within the academic institutions involved. As already highlighted by the responses of both graduates and programme coordinators; there is a need for institutional transformation to occur in order for the three stakeholders to come together in setting the agenda for tackling challenges regarding skills and other development related issues linked to planning.

As highlighted by Etzkowitz, the changing role of universities in the 21<sup>st</sup> century has allowed for the constant shedding of their 'ivory tower' image and in its place, a more responsive entrepreneurial institution is being erected (Etzkowitz et al. 2000:314). As a result of globalization and South

Africa's progressive stance, the call for academic institutions to become more responsive to development planning needs has resounded throughout the South African communities including the planning community. Universities have been given a new mandate of becoming responsive not only to the needs of the national economy but have also had to respond to issues pertaining to the development of human capital, social development as well as ensuring the global competitiveness of their courses. As articulated in Council for Higher Education (CHE) report (1996:6-7) cited in Kruss (2003); academic institutions will increasingly have to offer a greater mix of programmes, including those based on the development of vocationally based competencies and skills needed in the work place.

*The White Paper on Education and Training 3: A Programme for the Transformation of Higher Education (1997)* outlined the role of academic institutions in post Apartheid South Africa as follows:

- Human resource development; the mobilization of human talent and potential through lifelong learning to contribute to the social, economic, cultural and intellectual life of a rapidly changing society;
- High-level skills training; the training and provision of person power to strengthen this country's enterprise, services and infrastructure. This requires the development of professionals and knowledge workers with globally equivalent skills, but who are socially responsive and conscious of their role in contributing to the national development effort and social transformation; and
- Production; acquisition and application of new knowledge : national growth and competitiveness on technological improvement and innovation, driven by a well organized, vibrant research and development system which integrates the research and training capacity of higher education with the needs of industry and of social reconstruction.

All these points were re-iterated by the *National Plan for Higher Education (2001)* which outlined five policy goals which would serve to guide the transformation framework for higher education, these would aim to increase access to higher education, Promote equity and redress, build research capacity, establish new forms and identities on the institutional landscape and most importantly ensure diversity by meeting national and regional skills and knowledge needs. In order

for this to take place academic institutions will need to establish a new culture and ethos as well as develop new academic structures to meet the surging demand (Paterson: 2003).

The ever expanding knowledge economy has placed academic institutions at the center of South Africa's economic development and the development of the required skills will depend largely on the capacity of the universities to collaborate with key stakeholders in the economy to perform this task (Malada 2007:2). To re-iterate what this study has both implicitly and explicitly stated throughout the last five chapters; the integrity and legitimacy of the planning profession in South Africa will be determined by the level of cohesion and collaboration between academic institutions, government and the private sector in brokering solutions to the country's developmental challenges. To achieve this goal, the nature of interaction between academic (in this case, planning schools), government and the private sector becomes critical. By adhering to the communicative action principle underlying the theory of communicative rationality in applying the triple helix development model; academic institutions, government and the private sector can design and be responsible for a comprehensive approach to dealing with skills shortages and tackling the development planning challenges that face post Apartheid South Africa.

## ***6.2. 'Non-Directional' Engagement; Flaws in Current University, Government and Private Sector Partnerships.***

With the shift from government to governance there is an increasing realization that; in order for the country to reach its set development goals and to meet developmental challenges there needs to be collaboration and partnership among all stakeholders involved. In the face of rising demand for service delivery, the call for skilled labour to drive government's developmental projects and programmes as well as the need for collaboration to strengthen institutional capacity within government departments, academic institutions and government have realized the need to work together towards the achievement of common goals, this can be seen in the JIPSA programme.

Also evident is the traditional university-industry ties that are dominant in the Engineering and Sciences faculties. More common in the area of planning is the consultative work done by academic staff. However there is a need for a more rigorous, strategic manner to actively

collaborate for the meeting of skills and development planning needs as well as to negotiate the terms of that particular engagement (Kruss:2003). Although academic institutions understand the centrality of their role in development, they are still to strategically position themselves alongside government and the private sector to meet the expectations placed on them.

According to Kruss (2002) academic institutions need to develop the capacity to harness the potential for innovation rather than allow for the unregulated proliferation of contract and consultancy forms of partnership with industry to undermine both their long term knowledge generation function and their contribution to innovation. She explains her stance by outlining how consultancy work actually deprives academic institutions of opportunities to become more responsive to the broader developmental agenda as it is more concerned with project -based work which serves to benefit only the individuals working on those projects. This point is evident in the comments received from respondents from both graduates who felt that they had much to learn and not being given exposure to the consultancy work done by their lecturers deprived them of a much needed hands on experience.

What this study is advocating for is a knowledge based collaborative partnership in which all partners make an intellectual contribution and its expected that programmes in this partnership will be informed the imperatives of all three stakeholders. This form of partnership can be used to enhance the knowledge field of that area of focus. Then effectiveness of this form of partnership is often undermined by the institutions' largely unregulated and unstructured approach to partnership (Kruss: 2002), most institutions do not have a clearly formulated institutional policies and structures or mechanisms aimed at supporting partnerships. In order for such a partnership to occur and to be as effective as envisaged by the study academic institutions need to develop a structured, regulated and pro-active organizational response to the promotion of partnerships and setting the agenda for collaboration (*Ibid* ). What is needed for the envisaged collaborative partnership to begin to bear fruit is a framework for collaboration as well as a framework for curriculum delivery which will ensure that all stakeholder are aware of their roles and responsibilities in the joint venture;

“A far stronger and more systematic approach is required on the part of government, industry and higher education institutions , in order to develop and broaden the capacity to ‘harness potential’ for innovation in more universities in South Africa” (Kruss 2002:28).

### **6.3. Triple Helix in Application; Creating a Framework for Collaborative Action**

John Muller (1992) explains the pre-occupation with methodology as resulting from a common concern with the mechanism of decision making. Among the resulting methods for guiding the making of decisions is the Participatory Planning approach. This model or approach to planning arose in the 1960s as pre-occupation with rationality was waning and there emerged a practical concern with citizen involvement in the planning process (Muller: 1992) Participatory Planning was thus a response to the need for the democratization of planning, following the disregard for constitutional civil rights which plagued the United States at the time (*Ibid*). Given the similarities of the participative planning approach to the communicative planning model, the diagram below illustrating participatory planning processes will provide a foundation for the building of the visual representation of this study’s adaptation of the communicative planning model. This model will form the foundation for the initial stages of the formation of the triple helix.

As already highlighted in figure 3 of chapter 4, the triple helix model has three helices that come into contact forming an area between them where trilateral linkages are established and where knowledge is produced and readily disseminated through the three helices by a hybrid organization formed for this purpose and to the benefit of all concerned. However in order to build these trilateral linkages characteristic of the triple helix, one needs to follow certain steps to facilitate the formation of these linkages and the establishment of the hybrid organization which will facilitate and run all projects and programmes aimed at fulfilling the goals set by the three stakeholders. The steps needed to build the triple helix are much like the steps in the following communicative planning model.

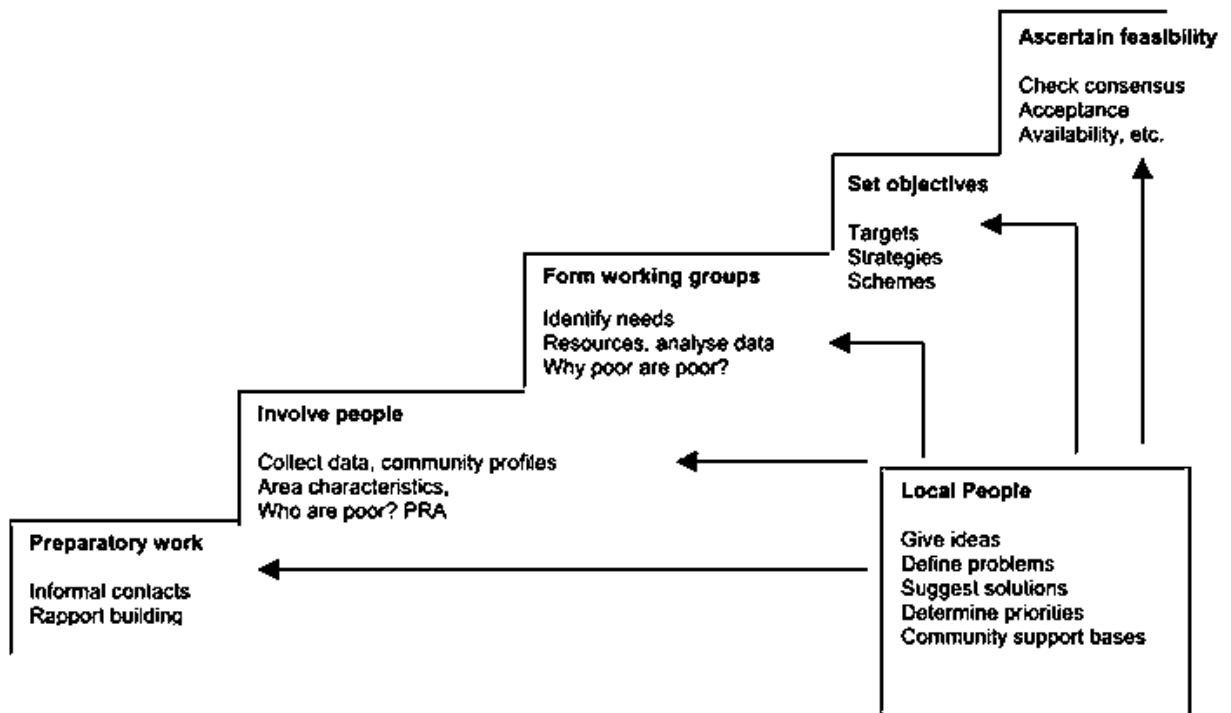


Figure 4. diagramme illustrating process of collaborative planning (www.fao.org)

The communicative planning model is a product of two philosophical approaches i.e.; John Dewey and Richard Rorty's American Pragmatism which is underpinned by British philosophical realism and empiricism and Jurgen Habermas' theory of communicative action which states that reasoning is "arrived at by an inter-subjective effort at mutual understanding" (Fainstein 2000: 454). The work of Dewey and Rorty seeks to uncover planning practices that are both democratic and competent while Habermas' main focus is the reaching of consensus. This work grew out of the post modern critique within social science which rejected foundationalism and scientific rationalism and stressed relativism and inter-subjective meaning (Campbell et al: 1999)

Innes describes communicative theorist as relying "more on qualitative, interpretive inquiry than on logical deductive analysis, and they seek to understand the unique and the contextual, rather than make general propositions about a mythical and abstract planner" (Innes quoted in Sandercock 2000:12) In communicative process the planner's and the academic institution's/planning school's primary function is thus clearly defined i.e. listening to different viewpoint and brokering a consensus. This means ensuring the participation of all stakeholders but also preventing the domination of one particular group's interest over that of another (Fainstein: 2000). The academic

institution thus takes the position of being chief negotiator and intermediary in the collaboration process (Innes quoted in Fainstein 2000).

As expressed in figure 4, there are five steps involved in establishing a framework for participatory planning. This framework has however been adapted in order to form a framework to guide the creation of the trilateral collaboration envisioned by the study. The five steps established by the participatory planning framework have been increased to seven by adding two components i.e.; transformation and monitoring and evaluation. The seven then become the seven core principles for establishing participatory and collaborative curriculum delivery and knowledge sharing process envisioned by this study, which the study has premised to be the solution to the skills and institutional capacity problems fueling the South African development problems;

- *Institutional Transformation*; In order for the collaborative process to have an impact, there is a need for transformation within the academic institutions involved. As discussed in chapter 4; academic institutions need to move towards shedding their ivory tower image and in its place form greater linkages with the communities that they aim to serve. In order for the curriculum to be more responsive to the developmental context in which contemporary South Africa finds itself, academic institutions need to realize the importance of governance driven approaches to realizing development planning needs. What this means is that; academic institutions need to set aside their individual interests and come to the party in processes of collaborative agenda setting for the sake of development and progress. This does not translate into them giving up their autonomy. However it simply means opening up spaces for communicative action whose results will form the foundation of what is to be the new identity of more responsive and developmentally oriented institutions. Meaning that academic institutions need to be more transformative in order to create a platform for strategic decision making which will allow all parties involved to feed off one another in opening up space for a deliberative approach to responding to the skills and development challenges in the country.
  
- *Preparatory Work*; this means that academic institutions, government and the private sector need to be involved in the process of building a rapport with each other and jointly

outlining the vision for the envisaged collaboration as well as ascertaining the commitment it would take. This phase involves identification of participants and communication between the stakeholders involved on issues of roles and commitments to the process. For the development model to work, there needs to be buy in from all stakeholders i.e.; the co-operation and active involvement of the following stakeholders will be key to the success of the plan;

- The Department of Land Affairs
  - The South African Planning Institute (SAPI)
  - South African Council of Planners (SACPLAN)
  - The Association for Consulting Town and Regional Planners (ACTRP)
  - South African Association of Consulting Professional Planners (SACPP)
  - Academic Institutions
- *Involvement of all Stakeholders*; Aside from actual inclusion in the preparatory process, each stakeholder needs to become actively involved in the collaborative process as all that will take place will be defined by the process of collaboration rather than co-operation. This means that all involved will participate in setting out goals and strategies for the collaboration. As a participatory process, the triple helix model of innovation highlights the need for involvement of all stakeholders in each and every process. I.e; Both academic institutions and especially School Governing Bodies (SGBs) as well as Standards Generating Bodies like those at UCT and Wits, government and the private sector will need to get involved in;
- (i) Fast tracking the defining of planning literacies and competencies
  - (ii) Identifying gaps in curriculum delivery and devising strategies on how the curriculum can be more responsive and vocationally oriented
  - (iii) Identify weaknesses in government institutions especially in areas of policy development and identify structures to facilitate institutional development within government departments using resources from private sector and academic institutions
- *Formation of Working Groups/Hybrid Organizations*; This process would serve to inform the basis for the formation of a hybrid organization which is expected to be a result of the



collaborative approach to curriculum delivery and knowledge sharing. The working group will form the basis for the structure of the hybrid organization and will determine how it is to be funded and operated. The working group is expected to transform over time into a hybrid organization which will serve to;

- (i) Facilitate contact across the spectrum; ensure continued contact and dialogue between academic institutions, government and the private sector as well as a stronger link between the three institutions/spheres.
- (ii) Engage in research and teaching, ensure that knowledge and innovation are transmitted through to relevant areas where they can make an impact. I.e; Ensure students gain from the work of the organization. In allowing the filtering through of knowledge and innovation, academic institutions shorten the time between the discovery and use, thus knowledge gained remains relevant and in tune with the market and the world/community students aim to serve.
- (iii) Provide institutional support for cities and government departments on issues of building democratic governance, policy development and other areas where government is experiencing short falls.
- (iv) Investigate relevant concerns and inform public debate through publication, workshops and periodic seminars on prevailing issues around skills and development planning.
- (v) Use research capacity to build the body of knowledge in planning and facilitate the free flow of information and innovation through to academic institutions, government and the private sector.
- (vi) Create a platform for inquiry and information exchange through organizing regional and national seminars involving students, relevant government departments and practicing professionals. These could cover contemporary topics which are the bone of contention i.e.; curriculum responsiveness to market demand, the redefinition of planning as a discipline, new directions for planning practice etc.

The functions of the hybrid organization outlined above are inspired by the work of Centre for Urban and Built Environment Studies (CUBES) at the University of the Witwatersrand.

The organization was formed in order to build linkages between universities and the communities around them. Although this intention has not been fulfilled to the intended extent, their involvement in research, teaching and community work has been beneficial to the communities they serve. As the director of the Centre, MZ Mayekiso put it; the focus of the Centre is in “producing knowledge to empower communities and research would be undertaken where this would enhance the focus” ([www.cubes.wits.ac.za](http://www.cubes.wits.ac.za)).

- *Setting Objectives*; among the characteristics of the collaborative linkages if the triple helix is the issue of duration. The collaborative network envisaged by the triple helix is one going far beyond collective approaches to finding resolutions to issues of skills and tackling of development planning challenges but goes beyond that. Thus in setting objectives, stakeholder need to have their initial goals of skills delivery in mind but also need to set long term objective that will allow the three to collaborate not only on issues surrounding skill but to also look into innovation and institutional support for both government departments but planners in the private sector as well. As part of this process, the three stakeholder may have to sit down and define;
  - (i) The intention of the collaboration
  - (ii) The envisaged outcomes
  - (iii) Expectations of each stakeholder on entering the partnership for collaborative curriculum delivery and knowledge sharing
  - (iv) Understanding of their commitment in terms of time, finances and other resources.
  
- *Ascertain Feasibility*; This involves looking into the goals set for the collaborative networks as well the time and cost implications involved in facilitating the establishment of such a big project as well the resources needed to keep it running. Before any steps can be taken to establish this, each stakeholder needs to commit to the establishment and sustaining of the organization through either supplying human capital or meeting the running costs.

- *Monitoring and Evaluation;* The monitoring and evaluation of the process is necessary through all six stages, thus the seventh step is not a stand alone part of the process but forms a component of each of the six preceding steps. The task of monitoring and evaluating the process could be undertaken by a working group composed of representatives from all three stakeholder institutions. This could include SGBs of institutions, HoD's and strategic planning units of relevant government departments as well the boards of independent planning associations and groupings. The existence of such a group/team will ensure that the processes envisaged by the three stakeholders are continuously modified and adjusted to suite the needs and objectives for the collaboration. In creating such a body to monitor the process, the three will be assured of the avoidance of rigid and often uncompromising structures which often undermine the achievement of goals set for the partnership. Although this framework is presenting a structure for interaction as well as suggesting an approach to ensuring the undertaking of the processes needed to build the trilateral linkages, it remains unrestrictive and avoids being prescriptive given the relative newness of the envisaged collaborative process and the need to create room for change and adaptation should the need arise.

#### **6.4. Conclusion**

In order for the process to achieve the expected outcomes, the above principles have to be adhered to as an initial guideline for ensuring the creation of a framework for collaboration, however continuous monitoring and evaluation needs to occur to ensure that the steps/guidelines provided are not hindering the process or undermining the achievement of the objectives set for collaboration. Parties involved need to engage in authentic dialogues where each expresses their interest, expectations and intention. The diversity of interest will not only make sure that the outcomes reached are beneficial to the broadest possible spectrum but will also ensure that stakeholders indeed collaborate to reach the set outcomes and objectives instead of entering into co-operative yet parasitic partnerships characteristic of their current engagement where one party provides financial backing and the other independently produces the outcomes/ deliverables expected. In adopting this approach all parties involved will be facilitating a shift towards the

establishment of a triple helix model of development. The model will be characterized by interdependence among partners and self organization to achieve collectively devised goals and objectives. The innovation model can go beyond informing approaches to improving skills and the delivery of a responsive curriculum but would form the basis for overcoming challenges that are related to development planning in South Africa.

## **CHAPTER 7**

### ***A SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION OF THE STUDY***

#### ***7.1. What the Study Initially Set Out to Do***

From its conceptual stages the study was concerned mainly with the skills of planning graduates. The study initially started by posing the question; “How can academic institutions produce the quality of planning graduates, with the necessary skills needed to drive government’s developmental projects or programmes”? The study delved into issues of institutional reform within the South African government and the implications thereof on the issue of skills and capacity for delivery. It looked into the changing responsibilities of local government and the shift within local government from being a mere provider of services to the masses to becoming an entrepreneur for the national and local economy by fostering development and growth in its area of jurisdiction.

The issue of skills among planning graduates became a central focus as the study moved to evaluate the skills possessed by planners on graduating from the two academic institutions identified in the study. Although the study had alluded to the issue of unemployed graduates, it did not include them in the interviews. All the persons identified for the study were employed graduates. Though three unemployed Wits graduates were identified, they were never interviewed. This proved to be a great oversight. However the researcher uncovered some anecdotal evidence to the effect that; graduates who remained unemployed did so because they were pursuing higher entry level points within the job market.

#### ***7.2. How the Focus of the Study Shifted***

The tone of the study soon changed following interviews in the Western Cape. What one realized is that; the focus of the study ought not to be on issues of curriculum design and institutional policy on skills development. This approach would continue to promote the notion that academic institutions alone are responsible for providing the human capacity needed to drive projects and programmes

in both the private sector and government departments. As the study continued, one realised that; there is a level/degree of communication occurring between government and academic institutions and between the private sector and academic institutions.

It started simply as a quest to answer a deep seated personal question which is; “will I as a planning graduate be able to find a job that is relevant to my training on completion of my studies and will I be effective in the tasks or role that I’m given”. Among the things encountered in the early stages of the study were initiatives or programmes aimed at unemployed graduates. It would seem that the majority of these programmes were aimed at re-skilling graduates in order to help them adapt what they have learned or teach new competencies and literacies that are more useful to the market. One such organization is the South African Graduate Development Association, the Unemployed Graduate Initiative run by the Presidency in conjunction with Umsobomvu Youth Fund and various city level projects such as project Sebenza and project Lebota run by the City of Johannesburg.

The study assumed these initiatives to be a sign that; there is a mismatch between the curriculum taught at academic institutions and the skills demanded by the economy. This disjuncture was seen to be the result of a lack of communication between academic institutions and government. This assumption was to prove false as the majority of persons identified for interviews had employment and some were able to secure it prior to their studies. Those that were found to be unemployed when the researcher sought persons to interview had secured mid-level management/higher paying positions than the majority of those interviewed in the study by the time the study was submitted for marking on 5 October 2007.

The study avoided adopting a reductionist perspective on what the role of universities is in relation to the national economy. i.e.; it avoided presenting academic institutions as existing purely to serve the needs of the market. The reason for the selection of these particular programmes was to establish the responsiveness of post graduate development planning programmes to the developmental mandate of a developmental government. This proved to be the case as the persons identified for the study were involved in fostering the development agenda of their sphere of operation.

In its final version, the study became explicit in its definition of the role of universities i.e.; as knowledge producers and drivers of innovation which in turn drives the economy.. The issue of experience was not put as a sole focus but approaches to curriculum delivery became central in the study's progression. Whether a programme has or does not have a practical element to it, the question still arises; "is the programme responsive to the context and are students fully engaged with the sector that they seek to enter into on completion of their studies. How well informed are they of the many branches in their profession, do they understand their option and most importantly will they have been equipped in order to be confident when stepping out into the real world. Has the academic institutions showed them all the various facets and avenues that they can branch out into. Are they only aware of a planners role in the public sector alone or the private sector, what about his/her role in the community and in areas of research and innovation".

### ***7.3. Lessons Learned from the Study***

What one realized was that there was a disjuncture in the manner in which communication and cooperation between government, academic institutions and the private sector was occurring as opposed to the initial premise which stated that; the shortages in the of skills was resulting from the lack of communication between the relevant stakeholders. What is needed is a framework that would structure communication and cooperation among stakeholders in a manner which facilitates the filtering through of benefits of that cooperation to students within the academic institutions.

The new focus of the study thus became concerned with issues underlying the skills shortage. From the interviews conducted, one realized a need for planning schools within academic institutions to adopt an integrated/comprehensive approach to tackling skills shortages and other development planning challenges. The growing challenges facing the South African economy and various communities have necessitated an integrated approach to problem solving with strategies at each sphere of government being aligned to only speak to each other but to develop a comprehensive approach to meeting development needs.

As the researcher was to find out in the course of refining this dissertation in July 2008 a year after the study was conducted, a Wits University course in Professional Ethics and Practice which is part and parcel of the MSc Development Planning qualification has begun to place students within planning companies as a means of providing them with experiential training/qualification. This was not the case in 2007 when the researcher studied the same course. This change or adaptation to curriculum delivery at the institution can be seen as validating a number of the suggestions and propositions put forward by this study.

Although the study shifted away from its initial premise regarding the level/extent of communication between relevant stakeholders, it still clung to the idea that communication was the key to unlocking the potential for cooperation among the stakeholders. On discovering the triple helix development model, the study presented it as a solution to current problems on the limited cooperation taking place between academic institutions and the other stakeholders. What the triple helix presented to the situation was a model for collaboration and cooperation on issues beyond curriculum delivery and meeting development planning needs. However the triple helix alone would not be sufficient to form the envisioned alliances which would foster collaboration across the board, the principles underlying the notion of communicative action in the theory of communicative rationality would be needed to form a framework for initial contact.

The communicative process was presented as a key to the realization of cross sector strategies and partnerships and the facilitation of the triple helix interactions. This model presented a new approach to development which places academic institutions at the centre of knowledge production, economic growth and regional development. What was presented in chapter 6 was a framework that would ensure the beginning of a collaborative approach to development which would build the growing knowledge economy in South Africa as well as meeting contemporary development planning needs.

#### **7.4. Conclusion**

The study began as an inquiry into whether the skills and competencies developed by post graduate planning programmes are adequate to what is required in the working environment in both the public and private sector. The study focused on Wits and UCT graduates as the



researcher saw these two institutions as being representative of post graduate planning programmes in the country. The assumptions made by the researcher on graduate employment and skills confidence proved false as most of the graduates interviewed were confident of their skills and were not threatened by their lack of technical planning skills. The study then presented the communicative process as being pivotal in driving multi-actor interventions in the area of planning education and the national development planning agenda. Through effective and structured communication stakeholders could facilitate a collaborative approach to setting the agenda on issues pertaining to planning skills and other development planning issues. This approach of an integrated strategy would therefore re-enforce the partnership and ensure the deployment of resources towards a common goal and in so doing make significant strides in tackling contemporary development planning challenges in the country.

What the study did was to take a comprehensive development model aimed at developing regional economies and expanding local knowledge economies and apply its principles to the service delivery problems facing South African local government and skills delivery problems facing academic institutions. The relative shortness of the time allocated for the study did not allow one to delve into other issues relating to the subject matter discussed in the study. As a result further enquiry is needed on issues pertaining to how the triple helix can be used more broadly to develop the national knowledge economy and to build regional knowledge clusters in Africa. On the other hand, the model can be applied in other disciplines to tackle problems encountered by institutions and government alike. Further studies can be commissioned on how the triple helix can be used to facilitate interaction among institutions, combine efforts and define common agendas for meeting challenges facing other troubled sectors in our developing economy.

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## **GLOSSARY OF TERMS**

In order to give clarity on the concepts used in this study, the following concepts are defined as;

### **Quality**

The Oxford Concise Dictionary (1995:1119) defines quality as; a degree of excellence of a thing, a distinctive attribute or faculty or a characteristic trait. Our definition of quality with reference to planning education is derived from Leonie Sandercock. The TAMED concept derived from an appendix of the book *Towards a Cosmopolis; planning for multicultural cities* will be used to define the distinctive attributes or faculties needed by development planners in order to be more responsive to the needs of a developing and developmental government. TAMED is used as an acronym used to describe for the following competencies (Sandercock 1998:221); Technical literacy, Analytical literacy, Multicultural literacy, Ecological literacy and Design literacy. The literacies used as a criterion for quality are the same literacies the study has identified as giving resonance to the underlying principle of the critical theory in education. In having a multidiscipline approach, planning schools could teach various literacies to their student to help them to not only grasp the strategic planning and policy component of their studies but also enable them to have technical and managerial skills which will be pivotal to their performance in the work place.

### **Academic Institutions**

This is referring to institutions of higher learning and research which grant academic degrees at all levels i.e. bachelor, master and doctorate. For this study however, the term will be used loosely to refer to specific schools within two academic institutions i.e. the School of Architecture and Planning at the University of the Witwatersrand and the School of Architecture, Planning and Geomatics at the University of Cape Town.

### **Government**

The Webster online dictionary defines the term government in the following manner; "A complex of political institutions, laws and customs through which the function of governing is carried out". ([www.merriamwebster.com](http://www.merriamwebster.com)). In order to fit the context that this study plans to address, the term government will be extended to various government bodies or institutions which are linked to planning. These are the Department of Education, the Department of Local and Provincial Government, the Department of Land Affairs (government department currently representing planners), the Department of Public Works and the Council for Construction and Education Training Authority (CETA), The Council for Higher Education's (CHE) Higher Education Quality Committee.

### **Private Sector**

This refers to all non-government agencies, associations and/or statutory bodies representing planners working in and outside of the public sector i.e.; the South African Council for Town and Regional Planners, the Association for Consulting Town and Regional Planners and the South African Planning Institute, etc.

### **Collaboration**

This is a process defined by the recursive interaction of knowledge between stakeholders, in this case these are academic institutions, government and the private sector as defined above. The process is further characterized by the lack of leadership as decisions reached through this process are a result of decentralized, egalitarian endeavors at reaching consensus or working towards a common goal. Within the study collaboration will be mainly structured along the lines of the triple helix model of development where academic institutions are expected to take initiative and play as knowledge producing and disseminating bodies in building human capacity and facilitating development in knowledge based economies.

## **APPENDIX 1**

### **LETTER FOR THE GRADUATES AND UNIVERSITIES**

Good day Sir/Madam

I am a Masters Development Planning student at the University of the Witwatersrand. I am currently conducting research on how academic institutions can produce graduates with the necessary skills to drive government's developmental projects and programmes. The questions asked in this questionnaire are based on work previously undertaken by a UKZN Masters planning student. Her study was looking into the relevance of planning education in South Africa (Farling: 2002). The aim of my research is to update and build on Farling's initial work and help me to address some of the areas on which we can improve and to develop further responses that will hopefully assist planning educators in their task of having to impart skills onto the nation's future planners. I would appreciate taking some of your time to answer a number of the following questions with regard to your institutions planning curriculum. The three main questions to this study are;

- What core competencies are essential for being a planner/development planner?
- What specific skills are absolutely essential for being a planner/development planner?
- Does your curriculum provide for the attainment of these competencies and skills?

#### **For the Universities**

Would you also be as kind as to supply me with a copy of the following documents if possible?

- Your department's Business/Strategic Plan;
- The curriculum of all the courses presented in your department.

If you have any questions, you can either phone my supervisor at the University of the Witwatersrand; Mr. Garth Klein at (011) 717 7616 or myself at 083 682 7829 or e-mail me at [mande@webmail.co.za](mailto:mande@webmail.co.za).

Thank you for your cooperation.

## APPENDIX 2

### QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE UNIVERITIES

#### PLANNING PRACTICE

1. How has planning practice changed in South Africa over the past ten years?
2. How has the role of planners changed?
3. What do practicing planners/development say about the relevance of planning education?
4. Do you think there is a mismatch between the curricular and the skills and competencies demanded by the employers?
5. Do universities educate planners/development planners for their role within South Africa's developmental context?

#### PLANNING EDUCATION

1. Who do you think should be targeted for studying an MSc in city and regional planning/development planning? Has this perception changed in the last five years?
2. What are the minimum requirements for studying an MSc in city and regional planning/development planning at your university? To what extent have these requirements changed in the last five years?
3. Why do you think students (in your programme) choose a career in city and regional planning/development planning?
4. What trends are observed in MSc city and regional planning/development planning student demographic composition? Have these changed in the last five years?
5. What core competencies are essential for being a city and regional planner/development planner? Have these changed in the last five years?
6. What specific skills are absolutely essential for being a city and regional planner/development planner? Have these changed in the last five years?
7. Does your curriculum address/provide for the attainment of these competencies and skills?

8. What are the limitations of your planning curriculum?
9. To what extent has your curriculum changed in the last five years?
10. Are students informed about all the possibilities available to them in the labour market?
11. What is your department's philosophy on undergrad versus graduate planning education?  
Does your department have a specialty?
12. Do you think city and regional/development planners should undergo an internship while studying?
13. Are students at your university encouraged to participate in community/voluntary work? At which organizations?
14. Do you have a mentor or tutor programme?
15. Do you present courses which allow for the continued development of planning graduates?
16. Of the students who register for your programme, how many complete their qualification in the allocated time?
17. How is your drop out rate?
18. Does your department help students to find work?
19. What percentages of your students who finish their degree at your university find work within the planning field?
20. To what would you attribute student's problems in finding work within the planning field?

## COMMENTS

1. \*Can collaborative curriculum delivery between academic institutions, the state (i.e. the state organ responsible for planning), and planning bodies (RTPI, SAPI, SACPLAN etc.) bring about the desired skills and competencies in planning graduates?
2. \*Do you think that academic institutions are ready for an approach? (Probe on issues of institutional autonomy)

## 3. PROGRAMME-SPECIFIC QUESTIONS

### 3.1. WITS MSc DEVELOPMENT PLANNING

1. According to your department's document on planning domain components and unit standards, there are 5 planning domains i.e.; strategic, spatial planning and framework, land development, design and management, spatial analysis and research methods, governance and law as well as project and financial management. How many of these domains are covered by your programme and to what extent?

2.1. If not all domains/domain components are covered in the programme; Which planning domains or domain components have you left out of the programme and why?

2.1.1. Is your department looking to incorporate the missing domains or domain components into the DP programme in the future?

2.1.1.1. If the answer is yes, how will this affect the programme length and cost?

2.1.1.2. If the answer is no, why? Will this move not disadvantage your DP graduates in their search for employment or even in their job as planners?

### 3.2. UCT MA CITY AND REGIONAL PLANNING

3.2.1. The Witwatersrand University Planning curriculum is currently undergoing benchmarking for accreditation with the RTPI, is there a similar process happening at UCT? What is your status as far as accreditation is concerned.

3.2.2. Has the university recently looked into ways in which it can improve what is offered in the MCRP programme as far as the coverage of the various planning domains and their components?

## **APPENDIX 3**

### **QUESTIONS FOR PLANNING GRADUATES FROM WITS AND UCT**

#### BACKGROUND OF THE PLANNING PROFESSIONAL

1. When did you complete your degree?
2. How long did it take to complete?
3. How old were you at the time of completion?
4. What was your undergraduate qualification?
5. Did you work before registering or while registered for the graduate planning programme?
6. Why did you choose to do the MSc City and Regional Planning/Development Planning degree?
7. If the answer is Yes to question 5;
  - 7.1. Where were you employed?
  - 7.2. What was your job description; what sort of work did/does this involved?
8. If the answer is No to question 5;
  - 8.1. Did you do an internship while studying or on completion of your studies?

#### PLANNING EDUCATION

1. What is your current position/employment? What does this entail?
2. How relevant was your planning training to your current job?
3. Did you identify any gaps in your training? How did you address these?
4. What in your professional opinion are the core competencies and skills required in planning?
5. Do you feel that your training gave you the skills and competencies needed for your job?
6. Have participated in any graduate/staff development courses/programmes since you entered the workplace.
7. How long did it take to find a job on completion of your studied? How was your department involved, if at all?

## COMMENTS

1. \*Can a collaborative approach to curriculum delivery between academic institutions, the state (i.e. the state organ responsible for planning), and planning bodies (RTPI, SAPI, SACPLAN etc.) bring about the attainment of the desired skills and competencies in planning graduates?
2. \*Do you think that academic institutions are ready for such an approach? (Probe on issues of institutional autonomy)



## APPENDIX 4

### SKILLS MATRIX/CHECKLIST FOR UNIVERSITY GRADUATES

Reflect on the skills and competencies learnt during your time at university; what was your grasp of the following skills and competencies upon entering the planning profession at the end of your studies.

**\* 5 - Excellent \* 4 – Very Good \* 3 – Good \* 2 – Satisfactory \* 1 – Not Satisfactory**

(Please tick the applicable/relevant column for each listed skill or competency area)

SKILLS AND COMPETENCIES REQUIRED BY SOUTH AFRICAN PLANNERS (Based on Leonie Sandercock's five criteria for skills and competencies required for planning education – Sandercock 2000)	5	4	3	2	1
<p><b>TECHNICAL LITERACY</b> Linking knowledge to spatial plans and policies.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Collect, organize and analyze information to support the planning process;</li> <li>▪ Use technologies to assist planning processes;</li> <li>▪ Prepare plans and formulate policies with spatial orientation at different scales;</li> <li>▪ Preparation of spatial development frameworks</li> <li>▪ Understanding of densities;</li> <li>▪ Understanding of thresholds;</li> <li>▪ An appropriate knowledge of planning legislation;</li> <li>▪ GIS;</li> <li>▪ Arrangement of land uses</li> </ul>	5	4	3	2	1
<p><b>ANALYTICAL LITERACY</b> A sound theoretical and contextual knowledge and ability to apply this in actions.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Researcher (policy formulation and co-ordination);</li> <li>▪ An understanding of the nature, purpose and methods of</li> </ul>	5	4	3	2	1

<p>planning;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ An understanding of the histories, theories and philosophies of planning and of development;</li> <li>▪ An understanding of theories relating to the natural, social, economic, developmental and political environments;</li> <li>▪ An understanding of the South African context and its particular challenges;</li> <li>▪ An understanding of theories relating to urban, metropolitan, rural and regional development;</li> <li>▪ An understanding of appropriate methodologies for different research requirements;</li> <li>▪ The ability to collect, analyze and evaluate information;</li> <li>▪ The ability apply theories to the design, management and implementation of planning interventions that will bring about positive changes and societal benefit within human settlement;</li> <li>▪ The ability to Interpret and apply plans to ongoing decision making and problem solving;</li> <li>▪ The ability to creatively apply generated knowledge to planning problems;</li> </ul>					
<p><b>MULTICULTURAL LITERACY</b> An understanding of moral and ethical dimensions of acting in the public domain.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Orientation to social justice and equal opportunity;</li> <li>▪ An appreciation of diverse cultures and views;</li> <li>▪ A people centered approach;</li> <li>▪ Respect for professional ethics;</li> <li>▪ An ability to relate to and work with people;</li> <li>▪ An understanding of approaches, processes and techniques associated with participatory and collaborative forms of planning;</li> </ul>	5	4	3	2	1
<p>* Added criterion; relevant to the South African developmental context. <b>MANAGERIAL LITERACY</b> The ability to apply the managerial and communicative skills</p>	5	4	3	2	1

<p>necessary for handling/managing the development process in the private and public sector.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ An understanding of social dynamics and power relations;</li> <li>▪ An understanding of the political process and governance;</li> <li>▪ An understanding of the effects of government machinery on the administration of planning;</li> <li>▪ Environmental Management;</li> <li>▪ Strategic planning and integrated development planning;</li> <li>▪ Public management/ Organizational management;</li> <li>▪ Adoption of the role of project developer and project manager (LED and IDP);</li> <li>▪ Land restitution and rural planning;</li> <li>▪ Strategic thinking and management;</li> <li>▪ Financial management;</li> <li>▪ Project management;</li> <li>▪ Decision making skills;</li> <li>▪ Performance management/the ability to work in teams as well as individually;</li> <li>▪ Negotiation, facilitation and mediation skills (Public participation/ facilitation);</li> <li>▪ The ability to communicate effectively verbally, graphically and by electronic means;</li> <li>▪ A thorough appreciation of economic and social issues involved in controlling land use;</li> <li>▪ Practical skills in preparing and implementing a land use plan;</li> </ul>					
<p>ENVIRONMENTAL LITERACY</p> <p>Undertaking planning with due appreciation of aesthetic dimensions and with sensitivity to links between human settlement and the environment.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Adoption of the role of an advocate ( negotiate between community interests and those of the environment)</li> <li>▪ An integrative understanding of development issues and</li> </ul>	5	4	3	2	1

<p>processes;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ An understanding of the legal, policy and institutional frameworks within which such development occurs</li> <li>▪ An understanding of key development issues in SA including LED, land reform, urban restructuring and the development of integrated settlements</li> <li>▪ Promotion of efficiency in resource use;</li> <li>▪ An orientation towards sustainable development</li> </ul>					
<p><b>DESIGN LITERACY</b>  Linking and synthesizing projects and programmes from different sectors and institutions within a framework of integrative development.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Ability to think creatively and synoptically</li> <li>▪ An ability to communicate effectively, verbally, through graphics and by electronic means</li> <li>▪ The ability technology to assist planning processes</li> <li>▪ An understanding of the theories and principles relating to the design of urban environments</li> <li>▪ Computer aided design (CAD)</li> </ul>	5	4	3	2	1

Note: All skills and competencies listed in this checklist have been taken from appendix 3 of Farling 2002, Todes et al 2003 and the 2<sup>nd</sup> year DP and 4<sup>th</sup> year TRP joint exercise on identification of planning competencies required of SA planners.