

Part 2:

## **Analytical part**

Chapter 5:

## **Analytical study of foreign and local urban intervention**

## **Introduction**

Britain, France, Germany, Austria and the USA in particular had contributed powerful precedents and design images that were used world wide. Which particular nation or school of planning was taken as a model depends on the parent or empire country. In some places the British planning system not of the 40's but of the 30's was chosen; but in others the U.S system particularly the National housing Act 1949 was the model. Imperialism had created, among economic and other sorts of dependency, a cultural dependency that did not end with the empire. Formally or informly the master cultures had a domination of ideas that was virtually a monopoly.<sup>1</sup>

Thus among the criteria of selection of comparative countries is their planning effect on Egyptian planning approach, tools, laws, along with their effect on administration.

### **5-1 Selection of Comparative Countries :**

To be able to select countries with experiences in land use intervention and to draw from their experiences we had to categorize countries according to its economic, political and or governmental structure

A- The economic structure : for this purpose countries have been categorized as follows :

- Developed countries; such as the United States, Britain, France.
- Developing countries; such as Egypt.

B- The governmental structure:for this purpose countries are classified in 4 categories.

B-1- The Federal Structure : countries having federal government structure include:The United States , Switzerland, Germany and others In these countries every Federal state has its own planning, organizations, and legislation system .For example the United states has a federal government structure. Every state has its own planning, organization and legislation system. Federal government intervention is limited to problems that cross whole country.

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<sup>1</sup> Rothenberg, Jerome 1967, Economic evaluation of urban renewal, pp.10-12

B-2- Centralized local government structure : Countries having this structure include; Britain, Denmark, Sweden, Holland and others. Here the central government draws general objectives of the country or basic features of general plans, while local planning officers prepare plans and decide action priority areas.

B-3- Regionalized structure: countries having this structure include, France, Italy, Spain and others, where regionalization means creating new regions as a result of regional planning and legislation is effected through the regional council.

B-4- Centralized structure : countries having this structure include Greece, Turkey, countries of Latin America and most developing countries.

As one of the study objectives is to verify that there is a link between land use intervention tools and context this context includes the administrative, organizational and economic structures. Thus, the criteria for selection of comparative experiences must include different categories of countries so as to benefit from different ways of intervention ( different process) so as to chose the most suitable to the Egyptian context.

C- The role of state; internationally there are 4 theories defining the role of state :

- The state as simple supplier of public goods and services.
- The state as facilitator and regulator of the economy.
- The state as social engineer.
- The state as arbiter of social conflicts (between areas & authorities).

These four roles coincide with the governmental intervention aspects stated in chapter two. Different countries stress special governmental roles. The study will try to choose two different countries with a different governmental role.

D- It's relativeness to the Egyptian experience :

Egypt imported, and still does, a lot of its planning approaches and tools from other countries. In the past it followed Turkey, England, France, Belgium and in recent years the ideal model has been the U.S.A with its market economy, and privatization of services and utilities

Studing the previous four criteria of selection ,the following countries have been selected:

1- The United States of America; it is a developed country with a model of federal political structure. It follows a market economy with limited government direct intervention.

2- The United Kingdom ;it is a developed country with a central system of government. Central government lays down direct plans and strategies for regions such as the policy of new cities and the rehabilitation of urban areas. The government intervention is called for social and environmental reasons.

## **5-2 British Experience**

### **Introduction :**

During the colonial and post-colonial eras the English model of planning and legislation, at various stages of development was exported to a wide range of developing countries. Although, the planning issues faced by such countries like Egypt are of course highly diverse.

The study will try to give a background on the English model of planning and how it was imported during the colonial era and try to follow its adaptation in Egypt and the typical problems it faced. The problems typically fall into two principle categories. Firstly, there are the inherent differences between planning problems in developing countries,as Egypt and the UK as a developed country, and therefore in appropriate modes of planning intervention. Secondly, there are possibly large dichotomies between the legal or customary traditions of Egypt and the foreign legal system from which the model for planning provision was derived.<sup>2</sup>

### **5-2-1 Historical Background of British planning:**

#### **1- The urban crisis**

The industrial revolution in UK.caused the rapid increase of population, the decline of agriculture and the rise of merchandized mass production, the triumph of capital and wealth of industry, and the social aspects of the rich bourgeoisie and the powerless poor. Living in housing of industrial workers that was built up conformed

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<sup>2</sup> Mc Coubrey, H 1988, English model of planning legislation in developing countries, Third world planning review, vol 10,

to classical pattern . The congestion caused by undifferentiated gridiron, resulted in streets being the only open spaces, and low sanitary standards .<sup>3</sup>

## 2- Utopian Solutions

A lot of utopian thinkers (revolutionary) thought the solution was in the countryside .These thinkers included Robert Owen who put forward “a plan for relieving Public distress and removing discontent by giving permanent, productive employment to the poor & working classes”<sup>4</sup>. Calling for the formulation of a cultural village with population of 800 to 1200, as a kind of neighborhood with other similar advantages of a city without its evil .

James Silk Buckingham’s suggested the model town association should be formed “Victoria” the model town of 10.000 population - all inhabitants would be shareholders in the town owning all land and buildings.

## 3. Ebenezer Howard and the Garden City movement :

his book,“Tomorrow’s a peaceful Path to Real reform” he points out the advantages and disadvantages of town and country and how to eliminate it in the “town-country” of tomorrow<sup>5</sup> . The first garden city to be built was Letchworth and the second Welwyh. Each town was built by a company selling shares to the general public shares. Despite their positive achievements, garden city enthusiasts for many years could not influence the government policy.

## 4. Planning Legislation :

From 1848 onward, the British Parliament ventured to set minimum standard of housing for the poorest classes, but problems raised by other types of housing and urban growth as a whole were recognized more slowly. Twentieth century legislation manifests an increasing recognition of the desirability of town planning first on a local then on a national scale The public Health Act 1848 introduced a method for the

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<sup>3</sup> Orlans, Harold, 1952, Stevenege p 13-20

<sup>4</sup> Owen ,R., in Orlans, H,1952, pp. 14-20

<sup>5</sup> Howard Ebenezer, “Tomorrow’s a peaceful path to real reform”, in Orlans,H., 1952.,pp 18-20



control of new buildings and new streets, but it was altered by the local government Act of 1858 to control by local authority bye-laws<sup>6</sup>.

Under the Public Health Act of 1875 local authorities were empowered to make bye-law regulating the construction of houses and the space between them. The Housing of the working classes Act 1890, was the first significant measure to promote slum clearance by local authorities. That by a law control achieved substantial results in securing that new houses and streets were constructed so as to be reasonably sanitary is demonstrated by the sharp contrast between houses built before and after this control was established.

The First direct planning law, the Housing and Town planning Act 1909, permitted ( but did not require) local authorities to prepare plans for new suburban areas, but built-up areas and open country were both excluded. These plans were negative in effect. Although no development could take place which did not comply with the scheme. There was no effective provision to ensure that particular development did take place. In 10 years less than 10.000 acres were brought under planning due to the deterrent regulations of the act. The Housing, Town planning Act of 1919 compelled towns above 20,000 to prepare suburban planning schemes before January 1st, 1926. This provision enabled local authorities to form joint committees for the preparation of a more comprehensive scheme. A number of succeeding laws adjusted the planning powers exercised by the local authorities. Act of 1923 enabled the planning of areas of special aesthetic or historic interest . The town act of 1925 the first to separate housing from planning consolidated previous legislations.

Finally, the town and country planning Act of 1932, extended planning powers to almost all built up and undeveloped urban and rural land. The last pre-war planning measure, the restriction of Ribbon Development Act of 1935, was designed to restrict attenuated building along major roads, which was one of the features of construction in Britian after 1918.

A Greater London Regional planning Committe created in 1927 accomplished little beside issuing reports, mainly the work of Raymond Unwin the famous planner.

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<sup>6</sup> Ibid, Orlans. P 13-20

The committee recommended a graduated policy of realisation of the importance of cooperation of owners of land.<sup>7</sup>

To sum up the pre(1939) war situation , the town planning Acts were restrictive in their operation, though general in scope and the Housing Acts constructive in operation but limited in scope.

#### 5-Post-war British planning:

The new town Act (1st August 1946) provided most of the machinery that the new town committee deemed necessary. The first New Town Designation Order for Stevenage, Hertfordshire, was in 1946 and by December 1949 new towns had been designated.

The second World War brought a marked change in dealing with problems of urban planning. The national control of the location of industry, the unemployment and distress in depressed areas began to be a matter of concern. Also the aerial bombing made decentralization an urgent military necessity. This along with other less tangible factors, the moral and psychological need for something to which the nation can look forward to<sup>8</sup>.

The government's ambitious housing programme was to channel a substantial part of post war housing away from existing urban areas and into model garden cities.

A change came with the town development Act of 1952 which channelled resources into town extensions rather than new towns and there were no new towns founded between 1950-1961.<sup>9</sup> This act also abolished the development charge. But that made dual market, for those owners of land that was compulsorily purchased for planning purpose received only existing use value, while those who sold in the free market received development value in full. It was rectified in an Act 1959, which restored market value as the price to be paid on compulsory purchase. Town and Country planning Act of 1968 amended in 1971, 1972 radically changed the structure of local government, as the upper-tier authorities were made responsible for structure

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<sup>7</sup> Ibid, Orleans, pp. 16-20

<sup>8</sup> A lot of common factors that called for the same policy in Egypt after 1973 war.

<sup>9</sup> Ibid, Orleans, pp. 20-24

plans and the lower-tier for local plans. Most development control passed to lower-tier authorities.

Inter war government efforts to deal with urban problems was a failure especially the London problem. Professor Patrick Abercrombie prepared "Great London Plan" 1944 for the Ministry of Town and country planning to guide future development. Abercrombie divided great London into four rings - Inner Urban, suburban, Green Belt and Outer Country.

The 1947 Town and country planning Act established a new system. In effect land development value was "nationalised" so that a landowner wishing to undertake any action statutorily defined as 'development' required permission from a local planning authority to do so. Planning control was now to be implemented through development plans which, unlike the rather rigid 1932 pattern schemes, were to be capable of amendment in the light of changing circumstances.

The 1947 act conceived town planning as a strictly physical treatment of environment with utopian background, "the question of control of land was quite simple. Planners simply wished to put land to its best use without considering financial consequences based upon the fortuities of ownership" as Abercrombie stated.<sup>10</sup>

#### 6-The failure of the 1940's planning system. (The contradiction of land values & development):

While planners thought of development plans as blue prints as their utopian origins implied, they became in practice simply another facet of the property market which developers had to play and build into their calculations. Thus property development became more complicated but it was not altered fundamentally.

The engine in 1947 act was the betterment tax. Betterment was seen as increase of value of private property that was due to the activity of society as a whole rather than the individual owner, who therefore, could not be considered to have an exclusive right to it. The converse of betterment was detriment or the deterioration of

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<sup>10</sup> Abercrombie, P., 1944, "Great London Plan", in Orlans, pp24-25



property value through public activity. Betterment tax was 100% tax on development.<sup>11</sup>

This was blamed more than anything else for stopping development. The 1947 Act also states the obligation to obtain permission for development by defining development in some detail or by introducing the idea of General development orders and use classes orders, which the Minister was authorised to make under the Act. These orders are still an essential part of development control in Britain and other countries which adopted the same concept.

The Act also defined development in what has become classic wording:

“the carrying out of building, engineering, mining or other operations in, or, over or under land or the making of any material change in the use of any buildings or other land”.<sup>12</sup> In the 1947 Act the government included the solution for the compensation and betterment problem. As in this act, the value of a particular piece of land may be divided into two parts: its value for the purpose to which it is currently being put, and an additional value, usually called development value, attributed to the probability of being put to some more profitable use in the future.

#### 7- From Physical to socio economics (change of 50's & 60's)

The 50's and 60's changes were made to improve statutory planning due to the growing dissatisfaction with the bias of plans towards physical ground plans that might be overtaken by social and economic changes long before implementation.

One of the more significant changes in planning can be identified, first, as the move away from purely physical land-use criteria for plan making, towards the more broadly based set of economic and social criteria in strategic, or structure plan making. This largely followed the planning Advisory Group (PAG) Report (1965) and the subsequent enactment of its recommendations in the 1968 Town and Country Planning Act. This act also introduced a two tier system of structure and local plans at the appropriate levels of generality which constituted the 'development plan' for an

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<sup>11</sup> It is important to note that Egypt did not have similar reaction for plans were simply ignored

<sup>12</sup> Keeble, Lewis, 1983, Town planning made plain, pp 15-17

area. Also the latter town and country planning act of 1971 introduced the 'new style' development plans with separate structure and local plans.<sup>13</sup>

#### 8- Urban areas crisis of the 70's and up to the present:

The problems facing British urban areas for the 70's and until now have arisen as a consequence of population loss, employment loss and economic decline, causing low levels of private sector investment in urban areas and thus worsening the image, and hence business confidence within the distressed area.<sup>14</sup>

In the climate of economic expansion of the 1960's, dominated by large scale urban renewal projects, it was common to regard all but the most venerable buildings as obsolete and that their replacement was necessary in the interests of efficiency and modernization. But as emphasis was put on conserving the traditional character of urban areas and the diverse activities they contained, and as investment capital became harder to attract, it became more and more recognized that the stock of existing buildings was an asset which could be re-used. This idea of re-using the buildings has its roots in the USA. Another idea to come to Britain from the USA is the packaging of the finance from different resources and using finance to "Lever" private investment.

The 1978 Inner Urban Areas Act is an example of new planning laws, for it gave local authorities the power to declare Industrial and Commercial Improvement Areas. Under this act 12 districts were designated<sup>15</sup>.

The problems facing British urban areas is huge in scale and difficult to assess because of their subjective and dynamic nature, but to summarise they usually suffer from the following :

a- Vacant and underused land; in 1978 within Leeds for example 13% of the total inner urban areas was vacant and underused land. Another problem is that from 70%-80% of these land was city council ownership. Similar size and ownership patterns exist in other districts.

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<sup>13</sup> Braken, Ian, 1981, Urban planning Method p 12

<sup>14</sup> Braken, Ian, 1981, Urban planning Method p 12

<sup>15</sup> Department of Environment, 1989, Inner city research program, p. 14

b- Limited recreation and amenity facilities ;laid out in the Victorian era, a lot of existing city facilities need improvement. Within the inner area of Manchester the provision of 1.8 ha of public open space per 1000 residents compares unfavourably with the average of 3.09 ha per 1000 residents outside the inner city. As open space and play space especially for young children is a priority of citizens, no inner area development can be achieved without providing such service.

c- Graffiti, fly tipping and vandalism problems;the problems of stress in inner city are manifest in high levels of vandalism, fly tipping and graffiti. Thus, additional resources are needed to secure public buildings and to improve environment.<sup>16</sup>

d- Environmental problems of industrial areas; infrastructure and road patterns are unsuitable for industrial requirements. They also include, employment loss, parking difficulty, limited opportunities for expansion, access problems,and vacant land.

e- The problems of shopping and commercial areas ;In broad terms the problems of these areas relate to declining demand, over capacity, functional difficulties and the deterioration of the building stock. The declining demand is a consequence of limited local spending power, changing shopping patterns and strong competition from newer shopping development.

f- The problems of existing housing stock;limited market demand , along with the high costs of improvement works. This is compounded by conservation policies.

g- Derelict land;derelict land is officially defined as “land so damaged by industrial or other development that it is incapable of beneficial use without treatment”.

The British government have put emphasis on policies to tackle the heritage of dereliction which had been building up since the industrial revolution. The shift in emphasis towards urban sites and inner cities

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<sup>16</sup> Department of Environment, Inner cities Directorate, 1987, the evaluation of environmental project founded under urban programme p.10-12

reclamation for development since the mid and late 1970's first in preference to rural sites, in order to relieve pressures on the country side, and second, due to concern at the economic decline of inner cities, thus it became important to attract investment by reclaiming land to close the gap of land shortage.<sup>17</sup>

### 5-2-2 Administrative and government structure

The United Kingdom is a constitutional monarchy. Parliament consists of the House of Commons and the House of Lords. Legislation may be initiated in either houses but it usually originates in the House of Commons to whom the Cabinet is responsible.<sup>18</sup>

#### I- Local government :

Under the 1972 Act England and Wales were divided into countries and those countries subdivided into districts. The functions allocated to the countries include responsibility for education, social services and libraries. As for the district's, responsibility allocated to them was for issues such as housing and environmental health. The management of services such as parks, playing fields and car parking are negotiable between district and country councils.

Six areas in England were given title of metropolitan countries, thus the system is mainly a two tier, hierarchy system. The main problem is that functions are not so clear cut between tiers. The task of preparing development plans was divided between countries and districts. Country councils are responsible for formulating the general strategy for land use in their area (structure plan) and the planning permission or matters of details are left to the district.

The last decade has been a time of great change in local government, with financial constraint, legislative change and debate on the proper relationship between the public and private sectors. The governments of 1979 to 1987 made substantial revisions to the local government finance system, introduced rate-capping, abolished the Greater London Council and the metropolitan counties and introduced council

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<sup>17</sup> Ibid, Department of environment, 1987, pp.10-12

<sup>18</sup> The Europa world book, 1996, volume II, pp 3258-3260



house sale amongst many other changes. Between 1979 and 1987 the basic patterns of operation of local government largely continued unchanged and while individual authorities introduced new approaches, there was no widespread acceptance that radical change was needed.

The legislation that has been introduced since 1987 has raised fundamental questions as to the future of local government and the way that it should operate. The traditional understanding of the nature of the public service and local authority management is being questioned. Local government has traditionally been sufficient, hierarchically controlled and professionally dominated, but it is becoming more concerned with working with other agencies, decentralizing control and emphasizing management more than professionalism.

The changes that are being made in the organization and management of local government are paralleled by changes in the approach to the organization of the civil service and the national health service (NHS). In both cases there are attempts to develop more accountable management, delegate financial responsibility and control, and introduce commercial attitudes. The changes in local government are part of the fundamental changes in the culture of the public service and the concept of public administration.

## II- Housing

Housing once seen in England as a service for society, which the government has to deliver to all members of society is now changing. The major development in housing before 1987 were the cuts in the level of public funding and the sales of council houses. Housing has been the service most affected by financial cutbacks. The aim of the Local Government and Housing Act is to move local authorities even further from direct provision towards a strategic role with other agencies, notably housing associations, being the main providers. Tenants are to be allowed to pick their own landlords, and a few authorities have already passed the responsibility for their stock over to a housing association, normally established with the co-operation of the authority itself.

The finance of local authority housing is to change with the Housing Revenue Account being 'ring-fenced', that is, receiving no subsidy from the rate fund. The system of financial support for poorer tenants is to be changed so that more of the cost



is likely to be met from within the Housing Revenue Account itself, which is likely to lead to higher rents in many authorities.<sup>19</sup>

### III- The department of Environment

It is the central government department responsible for administering the planning system in England. Separate arrangements are made for Wales. The department created in 1970, was essential to provide administrative and policy coordination as the department has the overall responsibility of local government conservation, environmental protection and housing, as well as, town and country planning. It also distributes finance, via the rate support of grant, among local authorities. The Secretary of State, who is head of the department has the overall responsibility for approving development plans and ensuring that development plans are consistent with each other. On the top the department is the Secretary of State, in addition, there are two ministers, one responsible for local government and environmental service, the other for housing and construction. There is also the planning inspectorate, which functions as a self contained unit within the department, they are delegated from the Secretary of State to decide planning appeals.<sup>20</sup>

#### 5-2-3 Demographic and Social Context:

The widespread decline in the inner areas of many of Britain's cities is a relatively recent phenomenon which has close parallels among the industrial cities of Europe and especially the USA.

Post war policies of dispersal of population and employment through providing new towns and new expansion of towns and new programmes implemented to regenerate the inner cities was found to be in opposition. Although planned dispersal to new and expanded towns has been halted, yet some out-migration is still taking place-with the continuing pressure of suburban expansion.<sup>21</sup>

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<sup>19</sup> Institute of contemporary British History, 1990, contemporary Britain , An Annual review 1990, ed . by Catterall, Peter. pp 52-87

<sup>20</sup> Department of Environment, 1988, Improving urban areas, p 2.

<sup>21</sup> Town and country planning Association, 1986, Inner city report pp. 5-7

#### 5-2-4 Finance

According to the World Bank the U.K's gross national product (GNP) was equivalent to \$ 18.410 per head. During 1985-1994 it was estimated that GNP per head increased at an annual rate of 1.4%. Over the same period the population increased by an annual average of 0.3%. In real terms GNP declined in 1990-1992 by an average of 1.3% then increased by 2.3% in 1993 and 3.9% in 1994.

Between 1979-1987 local government finance system undertook a lot of change in an attempt to control local expenditure. Local government finance became more complex and more constrained and thus difficult to manage. The local government finance Act of 1988 introduced a fundamental reorganization of the system. Domestic rates are to be replaced by the "community charge", a flat rate tax levied on everybody over the age of 18. The potential impact of the community charge is that lower spending authorities would subsidize higher spending ones. The business rate is to be replaced by the national non-domestic rate which will involve the same level of payment all over the country with central government distributing the proceeds to local authorities according to population.<sup>22</sup>

#### 5-2-5 Legal system

Britain has a long heritage of planning laws and regulations, starting from the public health act of 1848 and onward. The study has reviewed such acts when studying the historical background of English planning. It is worth stressing that until the 70's, all the planning control was entirely 'negative' in nature. The developer makes proposals which the planning authority may approve upon conditions or reject. The system then was on the whole concerned with the restraint of 'bad' or inappropriate development rather than the encouragement of 'good' development.

A new approaches to urban intervention brought about new projects such as private / public participation, re-use of redundant building and infill development. A new approach of planning that is positive in nature, that attracts the good or changes the bad into good. Along came change in legislation and administration to enable the local government to undertake such projects.

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<sup>22</sup> Ibid, Institute of contemporary British history pp. 87-140

The main structure of the development control system has four interrelated issues; central and local policies expressed in structure and local plans, development permit procedures, general development order and use class order and finally local authorities action. These four issues collaborate in the formulation of the general development control system. Parallel also is the legal system, the administrative system and the political system, which all form the whole British urban land use control system. Any failure in any system means failure in others. Any change in land use control calls for change in the legal and administrative systems backed by change in the political will.

Recent years have seen growing awareness of the importance of environmental improvement by different British national agencies. British Rail and British Water Ways Board got interests in improving areas under their ownership. Thus calling for relaxation of the restriction (change in regulation) imposed upon their undertaking improvement works. This resulted in British Rail partnership arrangement with local authorities for example 'Brixton station', British water ways board undertaking projects 'Liverpool canal'.<sup>23</sup>

Thus as new actors get involved, regulations have to be changed or relaxed to suit the new partnership between old actor's (localities) and new actors whoever they may be.

#### **5-2-6 Practical examples**

As the study can not highlight all important intervention achievements and facets of good practice in the approaches used within the U.K. to combat problems of urban areas. The research chose to illustrate three examples, reasons for such choice are :

- I- Britain's success in such intervention approach and its responsiveness to the British context.
- II- Their relativeness to the Egyptian context that is, they could be adapted in Egypt with some variation to suit the Egyptian context. Bearing in mind the common problems in Egypt and the U.K. Such problems as congestion,

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<sup>23</sup> Ibid, Dept. of Environment, 1988, p.10

antiquated road patterns, poor access, old ware houses and factories within old city fabrics, redundant and or polluted water ways and infilled ones.

The practical examples are :

- Recycling of buildings and recycling of land .
- Infill development.
- Good practice publications ( educational tools)

5-2-6-1- Recycling of land and buildings :

*I- Recycling of land ( Land Registers)*

In the mid 70's a survey indicated that there are about 210000 hectares of vacant land in England and area 2and 1/2 times the combined area of the English new towns. In mid 70's estimates were that in Metropolitan areas 5% on average was vacant and average .<sup>24</sup>

The extent of vacant land in major cities has increased since then. In 1985 Moor says that waste land is both a symptom of malaise in inner city and also a major factor contributing to it.<sup>25</sup>

Another problem is dereliction. The official definition of derelict land is; land so damaged by industrial or other forms of development that it cannot be beneficially used without treatment. It is about 5% of metropolitan areas. For such land to be worth redevelopment it has first to be freed of its dereliction, such treatment may be very costly thus the government offered to help through grants.

The derelict land grant(DLG) funded under the department of environment is seen not only as a way of removing the environmental and safety problems, but as an active instrument of urban regeneration. Since 1980 (DLG) is available for private sector and public authorities other than the local government.

Legislation dealing with derelict land has been on the statue book for many years and was to be found in the National Parks and Access to Country side. Act of 1949, the local authorities land act of 1963, the local government act of 1966, the local employment act of 1972 and the local government, planning and land act of

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<sup>24</sup> Area of vacant land within Egyptian towns is 10-15% according to study of salient features of Egyptian towns to year 2000

<sup>25</sup> Chisholm, Michael, 1987, "Inner city waste land",pp 14-19



1980. These various provisions are now largely contained in or replaced by the derelict land act of 1982.

As a means or tool to recycle land and curb dereliction and vacancy, the 1980 local government, planning and land act introduced land registers. These require land owners in the public sector to re-appraise their land with a view either to making further use of it themselves or putting it on the register which signifies its availability for sale and/or development - All publicly owned vacant land of more than one acre (0.4ha) must be registered.

The problems of land register as a tool to encouraging selling land or recycling it include:

- It is aimed only at public owned land, no private owner is obliged to do so.
- The disposal of surplus land has presented several authorities especially nationalized industries with new and troublesome responsibilities. For example, British rail has a particular problem in that its land ownership is fragmented into an enormous number of separate parcels difficult to survey and study. The problem is staff shortage on the property management side of authorities and nationalized companies.
- The act requires all public authorities to make land available for reuse as soon as it becomes surplus to operational needs. The determination of surplus is difficult, to day it might be unused but foreseeable events may indicate that it could be needed in the future. As nationalized industries like gas, electricity and Rail, tend to operate on a very long time scales and very large budgets, the impact of large derelict and vacant land on surrounding area is great but the nationalized industries, are not obliged to consider.
  - Another problem is the intensity of use, while sites may be classified as operational because they are used for open storage pipes, in other methods it could be partially used.
  - Nationalized industries are required to adopt a fully commercial attitude towards running their operations, that is means they have to profit from the sale of surplus land as high much as they can. But the obligation to sell, may



make them sell surplus land at a time when demand is low.<sup>26</sup> Thus the conflict between demand of commercial management and requirements of immediate disposal of surplus land is unresolved.

- The low cost of retaining disused land waiting for the right opportunities along with the cost of clearance discourage nationalized industries to dispose of land.

- Cumbersome sales procedures, usually because local authorities can not raise the purchase money, and the private developer searching the records, is told that local authorities are going to buy, and he should look elsewhere<sup>27</sup>

Answers to such problems may be:

- Local or public sector authorities may help survey nationalized industries land indicating areas that may be reused if nationalized industries have no use for them.

- Local and public authorities may enter partnerships with owners of unused land offering them such incentives as loans, grants, tax abatement, promise of future renting premises to government services.

<i>Owning Group</i>	<i>Number of Sites</i>	<i>Area (ha.)</i>	<i>% of Area</i>
District Authorities	4,754	18,023	44.8
County Authorities	1,665	5,981	14.9
British Rail	1,392	4,145	10.3
New Towns	534	3,249	8.1
DHSS	302	1,976	4.9
Electricity Boards	226	1,758	4.4
Port Authorities	77	1,283	3.2
Water Authorities	221	906	2.3
National Coal Board	142	855	2.1
British Steel Corporation	28	486	1.2
Urban Development Corporations	45	452	1.1
Defence	55	409	1.0
Department of the Environment	47	331	0.8
Other	133	381	1.0
<b>TOTAL FOR ENGLAND</b>	<b>9,621</b>	<b>40,235</b>	<b>100</b>

Fig (5-1) Ownership of land on the Register 1987

Source: Chishlam, 1987, Inner city waste land

<sup>26</sup> Nabarro, Rupert and Richards, David, 1978, Wasteland a Thames television report pp.11-34

<sup>27</sup> Ibid, Nabarro, pp 11-34

## *II- Recycling of buildings re-use movement*

The normal practice since the industrial revolution was to demolish and rebuild rather than adopt or extend. It is only in the past 20 years that the idea of conserving redundant industrial and commercial buildings, such as market building, railway stations and warehouses, and putting them to new use, came about. Still many officials dealing with such buildings are not familiar with the new possible uses and conditions. The move for conservation and reuse was emphasised in the 1970's as conserving the traditional character of urban areas, along with the economic realities of the existing stock became an asset.

Several ideas that have been gaining ground in Britain have their roots in the USA. For in the USA recycling of buildings is a well established practice where the main idea is packaging the finance from different resources and using public finance to lever private investment. In Britain urban development grants are based on that principle. In the USA tax incentives are far more important. Each within its context sets suitable incentives. Moreover, the idea of public/private participation in the USA in and Britain is taking place through the establishment of development trusts.

Another idea from the USA is having mixed uses in the same building especially work place and residential accommodation to revive the inner city especially at night. Orthodox planning in Britain has been against this but is now undertaking mixed use projects. It is important to note here that Britain has copied ideas and practices from the US but adapted them to suit its context.

As Egypt has a lot of these buildings within the urban areas, such as market places, warehouses and mills, local authorities must be encouraged to find new uses for these buildings. Rod El Faragh market which has been transferred to a community center when the users moved to Obour market outside Cairo, is the first example of reuse of buildings. Lessons learned and means of finance must be published so that officials elsewhere know how it was done and what are the problems.

### 5-2-6-2- Infill development :

As large numbers of unused sites affect the overall quality of built environment, infill development is of growing importance. The filling of a gap can be a major improvement as can the conversion and reuse of buildings. It enables better use of the infrastructure already existing. But some of the problems is having work to

within the existing constraints of other buildings, difficulty of access to building site existing near foundations, and services and the rights of adjoining owners. The local authority can help by considering scope of flexibility in policies such as allowing intensities of development on such sites different from overall norms, requirements of parking or other requirements that might make such infill impossible.<sup>28</sup>

The study will give 3 examples of infill development.

I - Westminster-Piccadilly

II - Liverpool, Old Hall street, Office building

III- Wolverhampton; Lichfield street Bilston Bank

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<sup>28</sup> Department of environment, 1979, Infill development, p 10

This scheme is an outstanding example of collaboration between developer, architect and local authority. The site was very difficult to develop economically because of its size and shape and the need to provide for the central area raised walkway system. Designing to fill the gap between buildings of disparate sizes, shapes and materials also posed complex problems.

The authority's multi-departmental team arranged to close off a street, to obtain rights to build over an electricity substation, and to waive the standard office plot ratio in

order to secure economic and functional improvements in the building design, as demonstrated by the architects in a succession of four different schemes. Despite the early and continuing collaboration, during which the developer exercised considerable patience, the scheme took four years from inception to completion but the result is satisfactory for all parties and a significant improvement to the townscape.

The photographs illustrate before and after views of the scheme.

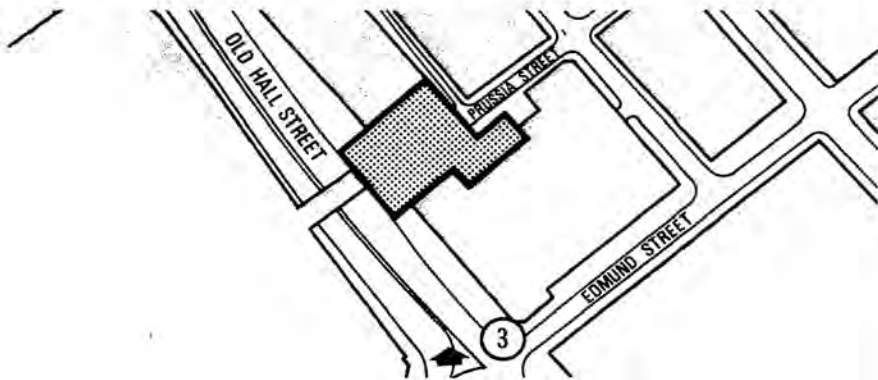
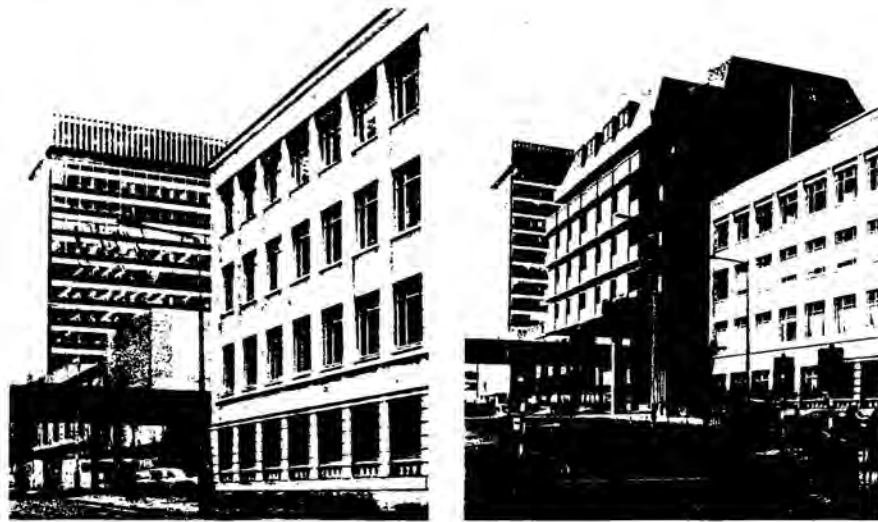


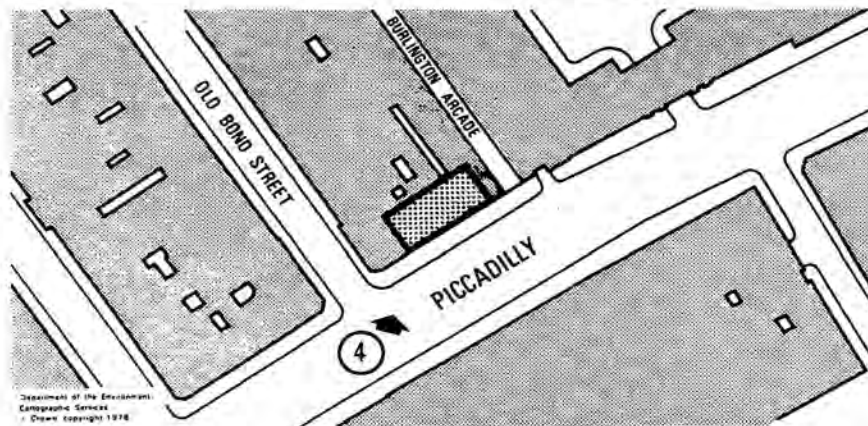
Fig (5-2) Liverpool Old Hall  
Office Development

Source : Dept. of Environment , 1979, Infill development.

This scheme demonstrates that high levels of skill as well as of patience can be required to achieve infill of a satisfactory standard in conservation areas. The local authority's policies on infill development are set out in their district plan: in conservation areas, the aim is to ensure that new development respects the scale and form of its surroundings and maintains the existing character of the area. In this case the local authority required the developer to provide residential accommodation and restrict the amount of office space. There were also difficulties in developing the site: for

example, 17 adjoining owners with whom to negotiate.

The authority, while always prepared to discuss design questions with applicants, preferably at the initial stages, is reluctant to work up proposals with applicants in too much detail, since this pre-empts the consultation process and the subsequent decisions by members. Against this background, and the developer's wish to maximise redevelopment of this prime site, which led him to submit several planning applications, the history of this scheme was long and tortuous.



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Fig. (5-3) Westminster- Piccadilly  
office and shop development

Source : Dept. of Environment, 1979, Infill development





7a



7b

This redevelopment scheme provides a significant lift to the character of an otherwise declining area for which, however, the local authority has a number of other improvements planned. The building is boldly different from its neighbours and is enhanced by the landscaped forecourt – the product of being set back from the existing building line for a future road-widening scheme.

Initial discussions between the architects and local authority officers established the authority's requirements which were simple and limited. At first, there was some reluctance on the part of the officers to accept the proposed design, but this was overcome when they had been shown a building already constructed to a similar design. Otherwise, negotiations were straightforward and planning permission obtained speedily.

The reasonableness of the authority here contrasted in the developer's and architect's opinion with their experience elsewhere, particularly with regard to planning and design standards and to the co-operative approach of the authority.

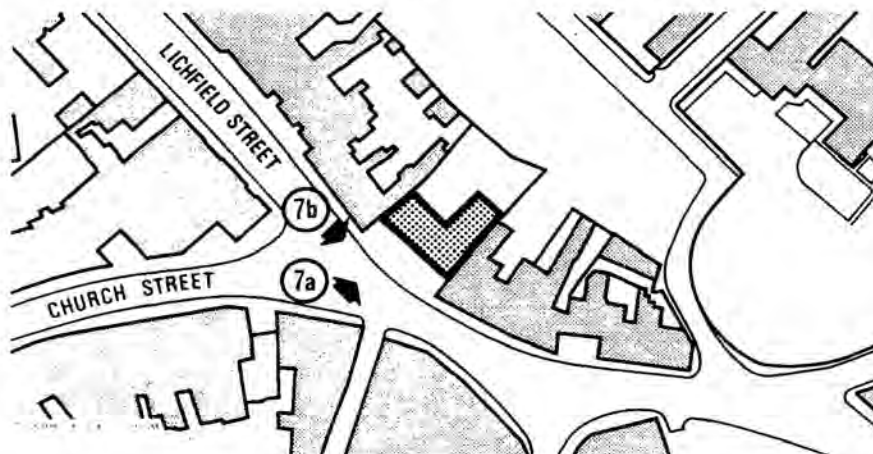


fig. (5-4) Wolverhampton; Lichfield street Bilston Bank  
Source : Dept. of Environment, 1979, Infill development

### 5-2-6-3- Good practice publication (information and educational tools):

The Department of Environment undertakes a lot of projects to improve the environment in urban areas whether these projects be; improving inner city areas, greening city sites, infill development, re-using redundant buildings, derelict land clean up or urban regeneration.

The Department of Environment draws together the findings from these case studies and highlights good practice lessons by undertaking researches on the successful projects around the country and publishing them. Whilst the case studies discussed in each report vary in scale and objective they share the characteristics of being “good practice” the facets of good practice can be broadly summarised under five categories :

- I- Responsiveness to local priorities and opportunities (through involvement of local interests) .
- II- Good management and resolution of complex problems and conflicts.
- III-Special features of improvement.
- III-Mechanisms for drawing resources together.
- IV- impact achieved.

Each research usually comprises of five sections.

The first section, making things happen, discusses the ways in which projects have been identified and factors that influence the successful choice of sites and improvement specifications. Whether the project is greening city cities, re-using redundant building, derelict land clean up, improving inner city areas or urban regeneration. The second section is ‘making things last’ , identifies the factors that can facilitate maintenance. For many of the environmental improvement projects are influenced by design factors. The third section, ‘design ideas’, some of the alternative design approaches are discussed. The fourth section “getting the most from limited resources”, discuss issues of cost-effectiveness, appropriate level of treatment, and wider community involvement.<sup>29</sup>

The final section ‘ learning by doing’ considers ways in which progress of improvement can be monitored and future choices made.

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<sup>29</sup> Dept. of Environment, 1979, Inner city development, pp.2-5

This document is intended to be of value to a wide audience, local authority officers involved in the development of urban areas, voluntary groups and charitable trusts, private sector organizations and officers, civil servants and politicians within local authorities. It is hoped that the lessons learned will help inform those taking or considering future decisions on action that are most likely to bring improvement.

Such a tool is needed in Egypt where projects and programs implemented in one area of the country especially in Cairo are never published and the general local executive agency in any other authority does not know about such practices. Lessons learned in one area are not transmitted to other areas. Often officials have to use trial and error or to employ experts from another area or even foreign experts.

### **5-3 United States of America Experience**

#### **5-3-1 American city planning history :**

City planning in America has no official certificate of birth. But, if a date has to be chosen, it is surely 1909: the year of the First National Conference on "City Planning and Congestion" and the publication of Burnham's Chicago Plan. American planning is 85 years old.

The history of planning shows that urban problems and their responses are not unique to the United States- though often America is the bellwether that warns the rest of the world of coming urban storms. Ten periods in the brief history of planning both in the U.S and probably in some western countries may be distinguished.

##### **1- The City Pathological, 1890-1901:**

Between 1880 and 1890, the respectable bourgeois urban world discovered the slum city that festered underneath it. Two remarkable pieces of journalism- Andres Mearns' "The Bitter Cry of Outcast London", in 1883, and Jacob Riis' "How the Other Half Lives", in New York in 1890- provided the trigger. The reaction was a mixture of fear and guilt.

The origin, then, was precisely the same: it was the discovery of the urban underclass, numbering, according to both Riis and the Tenement House Commission of 1894 - three in five of the New York population.<sup>30</sup> In New York and Chicago and

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<sup>30</sup> Hall, Peter, 1989, in APA. The turbulent eight decade; challenges to American city planning, APA, vol 275

a dozen other cities, it was the socialization of the new immigrants who were so overrepresented in the tenement population, that was the principal motive behind Jan Addams' settlement house movement at Hull House in Chicago, itself modeled faithfully on Toynbee Hall in London's East End. It was likewise the major concern of the sociologist-planner Clarence Perry, who devised the concept of neighborhood unit at the Russell Sage Foundation between 1909 and 1929. It was also the obsessional subject-matter of Robert E. Park and his co-researchers in the Chicago School of Sociology during the 1920s.

There was, however, one key feature of the American response that sharply marked it off from that of the Europeans. There, in Britain, France, and Germany alike, the answer was government support for social housing programs. Here, the New York Tenement House Commission report of 1900, principally authored by Lawrence Veiller, decisively rejected public intervention; private benevolence could do the job, the commission held, provided a framework of physical regulation was put in place. As Catherine Bauer bemoaned in the 1930s, that this one report put back the cause of public housing in America for decades. Peter Marcuse has suggested that this unique divorce occurred because of the three issues that then emerged- fire and disease dangers, fear of disorder, protection of real estate values. The first two issues soon faded, leaving the infant art of planning to an alliance of real estate interests and middle class home buyers.<sup>31</sup>

## 2- The City Beautiful, 1901-1915

Whatever the explanation, the fact is that almost from the start, and for at least two decades, American city planning was almost entirely removed from the kind of social concern that drove the movement in Europe. In the first decade of the new century, the City Beautiful movement represented a deliberate and conscious attempt to impose on America's greatest cities the kind of heavily formalistic urban reconstruction that Haussmann had carried through in Paris, and Cera in Barcelona, between 1850 and 1870. Virtually all those attempts were made by patrons of an autocratic regal or imperial regime, while in Cleveland, in San Francisco, in Chicago above all- the agency was an alliance of downtown merchants. The plan though

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<sup>31</sup> Ibid, Hall



contained a built in contradiction, in that it favored centralization but then tried to control it.

Already at the crucial first National conference on City planning and Congestion in 1909, Planners and their business backers were seeing that such solution of a kind of "aristocratic city for merchant princes", as Mel Scott once put it - was going to cost more than the backers are willing to pay. This cause the switch from city Beautiful to city Functional.

### 3- The City Functional, 1916-1939

The new solution was far more down-to-earth. It included zoning of land uses accompanied by advisory city planning commissions. It proved instantly and hugely successful. Starting with New York City's historic Zoning Ordinance of 1916, zoning had been adopted by more than 750 communities by the end of the 1920s. The reason was that everyone could see that it was good for business, the right customers downtown, and the right neighbors in the new streetcar suburbs. In New York, the Fifth Avenue merchants backed zoning because they were concerned that floods of immigrant garment workers would compromise their exclusive stores. Out in the suburbs, it was the same story the first-known use of zoning, in Modesto, California, in the 1880s, was to keep Chinese laundries out of residential areas <sup>32</sup>

In practice, the notion was to preserve real estate values in settled neighborhoods, while imposing only nominal restrictions in areas that held out the possibility of profit. One of the basic city planning tests of the 1920s, from the husband-and-wife team Hubbard and Hubbard, italicized the point: "zoning and plat control divide honors in being reported the most profitable results of city planning". As the Hubbards succinctly put it in a chapter heading: IT PAYS TO PLAN".. Thus, far from being a device to speed the transition of the immigrant poor from the tenements to the suitable housing, zoning in practice became a way of keeping them where they were. And, despite rare exceptions Bettman's Cincinnati, zoning was usually divorced from city planning: the first was legally based, mandatory, and invariable, the second voluntary, advisory, nonmandatory, and irregular. In practical terms, the City Functional was and is - without doubt the dominant American

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<sup>32</sup> Ibid, Hall



contribution to the planning movement; but it is a curiously low-key, unidealistic one. It is driven hard by the demands of profit from land development.

#### 4-The City Visionary,1923-1936

There was a massive exception to all this, of course: the small band of visionaries- including Lewis Mumford , Henry Wright, Clarence Stein, Stuart Chase, Benton MacKaye, and Catherine Bauer who constituted the Regional Planning Association of America from 1923 on. Dedicated followers and interpreters of Ebenezer Howard and Patrick Geddes, they blended the ideas of their British masters with distinctively American thought. Thoreau's ideas on self-sufficiency, and southern regionalism- to produce something much more than the sum of its parts. The basis, for both, Howard and Geddes, was an anarchism: a vision of small, largely self-sufficient rural communities in ecological balance with their rich natural resources. Because of this, they went far beyond even Howard's blueprint for garden cities as the solution for the ills of the congested metropolis: they wanted nothing less than a reconstruction of the whole foundation of American life.<sup>33</sup>

The vision was too utopian, the forces lined up against them were too strong. Their main practical experiment, the garden city of Radburn, soon came to grief in the Depression and is today swallowed up in the suburban sprawl of northern New Jersey. What might have been the truest realizations of their vision, the greenbelt towns of Rexford Tugwell's Resettlement Administration and the regional plan for the Tennessee Valley, alike foundered, as Congress halted the first, and as personal feuding and ideological differences drained the second of meaning.

The New Deal represented a unique chance for American planning to go a European road, a decade before Europe itself did so; but by 1936, with FDR in political retreat, the battle was lost and it fell to Britain, Sweden, and France to implement the RPAA's ideas.

Clarence Stein's contribution to the 1925 RPAA manifesto, "Dinosaur Cities", uncannily predicts the outmovement of industry from the cities and the resulting inner city problem that would actually take place more than 40 years later.

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<sup>33</sup> Ibid, Hall

Benton MacKaye's essay of 1930, "The Townless Highway", similarly anticipates the freeway and the dispersed settlement form of the 1950s and 1960s. So, in a different way, did Frank Lloyd Wright's personal manifesto "Broadacre City", a few years later, though he always held aloof from the RPAA group. After World War II, the irony was that they all lived to see their vision, but as a shell without the substance: bedroom suburbs instead of garden cities, white-collar commuters instead of farmer-artisans. All of these planners were visionaries, and the forces of reality-embodied in the City Functional tradition-proved too strong.<sup>34</sup>

Finally the break came with the first revolt against San Francisco's freeway (Embarcadero Freeway). This caused a complete inversion of almost every basic value in American planning practice.

#### 5- The City Grassrooted, 1965-1980

By the end of the 1960s, all was changed. The civil rights movement had been followed by the free speech movement; the riots had torn through the newly renewed cities, revealing just how little the process had done for the underclass; opposition to Vietnam, and with it the whole Pentagon style of planning, was at its peak. Almost every value that planners had cherished was now stood on its head. Instead of a belief in top-down planning by benign value-free experts, there was now a deep distrust of professional expertise and a demand for advocacy planning based on grassroots involvement.

Within a few years, the new skein of radical planning unraveled into a number of incompatible groups. They were however united on one point: their agreement that the planner had not got much power, and deserved to have less. Planners, in the version that came to dominate in the late 1970s, were mere agents of the capitalist local state, seeking palliatives to stave off crisis in the system; but in the process, they would sidestep one problem only to face another.

#### 6- The City Theoretical, 1975-1989

By the end of the 1970s, planning theory had become divorced from planning practice. And the top products of the nation's top planning schools were becoming increasingly uninterested in the day-to-day activity of planning. Some top theorists, like Allen Scott and Manuel Castells, have moved away from questions of the relation

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<sup>34</sup> Ibid, Hall

between theory and action, and into heavily empirical investigations of changing economic and social structures - a movement, in other words, from urban planning to urban political economy. Others, like Ann Markusen, Barry Bluestone and Bennett Harrison, have sought to combine this style of analysis with active regional policy prescription for older industrial regions. Yet others, like John Friedmann and John Forester, have continued to study the problem of connecting theory with action- in Forester's case, by drawing on German critical theory. The lesson was cultivate community networks, listen carefully to the people, go out to those who are least well organized, educate the citizenry, supply plenty of information, and ensure that people know how to use it. It is essentially a theory of practice<sup>35</sup>.

The big growth areas of the 1980s have included economic development planning for distressed regions and communities, the understanding of project finance as the key to urban development and redevelopment, the achievement of affordable housing, and the use of the personal computer, coupled with geographic information systems, to help solve these and other problems. The result, not unique to the United States, but exceptionally evident, a gap between planning theory and planning practical.

#### 7- The City Enterprising, 1980-1989

The most distinctive feature of the 1980s is what can be called "Planning-As-Project", or planning-as-real-estate-development. The models are Baltimore's Inner Harbor, Boston's Quincy Market and Waterfront, San Diego's Horton Plaza, and a score of imitators. (In Europe, the same phenomenon is visible on an even grander scale, in London's Docklands and in the Parisian Eurodisney land). Each consists of the mega-development of a huge site, through the cooperation of public and private capital, and involving major injections of money from government- huge public works, subsidies linked to private leverage, and tax exemptions in the form of enterprise zones-as well as new institutional forms. Some might say that this is urban renewal all over again. Indeed, in Boston and Baltimore the development follows a straight line, but the scale is grander and the stakes are bigger-no less than the transformation of decayed industrial and port cities into leading centers of the new

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<sup>35</sup> Ibid, Hall

nodal-service economy, through a new combination of producer services, theme-park entertainment, leisure shopping and street theater.

As has occurred so often in twentieth-century American urban history, public planning and public money are being directed to the pursuit of private profit :the City Functional lives. As in the era of urban renewal, powerful growth coalitions backed the enterprise.

#### 8- The City of Ecologically Conscious ( Nimbyism, 1980-1989)

Urban areas were facing a different set of challenges: the growth of the suburbs, the development within them of entirely new service nodes and the transformation of older rural centers, the rapid spread of suburban gridlock as the infrastructure of the 1960s is overwhelmed, the problems of water supply and waste management and air quality, the loss of open space and rural qualities in huge swathes of land around the major metropolitan areas. Hand in hand with these trends, inevitably, goes the multiplication of special interest groups devoted to maintaining and enhancing the quality of environment, but also to stopping further development- the arrival of NIMBYism as the populist political philosophy of the 1980s. Everywhere from New Hampshire and Virginia to the San Francisco Bay and the Central Valley, these problems of growth and spread now dominate the lives of many, perhaps most, Americans. And planning, as yet, has no clear and consistent set of answers.

Further, the two areas of concerns may have a common basis.

In the new urban landscape of technology-led deconcentration, what exactly is the role of the traditional city? Even if some places manage to survive on the basis of their special qualities-New York, Chicago, and Los Angeles as major world centers; Boston and San Francisco, as centers of education, technology, culture, and tourism: and Atlanta, Dallas, and Denver as regional nodes- can all of America's cities survive? Or will they be reconstructed as Disneystyle cities of the places they once were, living museums of the urban past? Is it possible again to create integrated downtowns, as Jonathan Barnett suggests in the Spring 1989 Journal.<sup>36</sup>

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<sup>36</sup> Ibid, Hall



### 9- The City Pathological Revisited, 1890- 1989

Tied to these concerns is another: the one that gave rise to planning's birth. To tell the truth, the urban underclass never went away; that much is clear from a succession of fine empirical studies, from DuBois at the end of the nineteenth century, through Park and his colleagues in the 1920s.

Frazier in the 1930s and again in the 1950s, Myrdal in the 1940s and Moynihan in the 1960s, to Wilson in the 1970s and 1980s. What is uncanny is that all tell essentially the same story: of traditional preindustrial cultures overwhelmed by the transition to urban life, of the particular stress on the first urban-born generation, of the collapse of the family and the destruction of traditional parental authority, of the resulting problems in the schools and the courts.

There is perhaps one difference, underlined by Wilson: the sharp division of the black community, since the 1960s, into a middle class mainstream group and an ever-more-segregated underclass. Donna Shalala and Julia Vitullo-Martin gave us the figures in the Winter 1989 planning Journal: nearly two-thirds of all poor blacks, in 1980, lived in areas where the great majority of people are poor.<sup>37</sup>

#### 5-3-2 Administrative and government structure :

The United States has a federal government structure. Every Federal state has its own planning, organization and legislation system.

The division of governmental functions between the state government and local governments varies widely among the states. Some state governments take over and perform functions that others leave in local hands . In the former case it can be regarded as centralized . In the latter performance is decentralized. This division of functions between local and state also exists between state and federal. The per capita expenditure is a rough measure of difference between states, but the cause of such difference is population and income or (rich states spend more)

Three questions arise in evaluating the federal and state division of public policy responsibilities in development :

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<sup>37</sup> Ibid, Hall



- I - Is any government intervention called for ?
- II - Should it be the concern of federal or state government ?
- III- What form should federal or state involvement take?

The justification for federal involvement depends on the extent to which the problem is non local in nature. The strong federal role is justified by three major concerns:

- I- Spillovers or external effects, that is costs or benefits from activities that cross jurisdictional borders.
- II- The efficiency advantages of centralized coordination.
- II- Poor distribution of resources especially for certain disadvantaged groups or regions

Consequently the justification for state and local involvement depends on the importance of local conditions and local impacts. The Form of federal involvement depends on reasons for intervention. In some cases the federal government will define its role, as a source of funds, and wants states to administer programs. In other cases it will want to provide directly certain goods & services bypassing state participations.

### **5-3-3- Demographic and Social Context:**

The United States has special Demographic and social characteristics that shape its urban areas and affect its planning and intervention strategies they include :

I-In 1980 there were approximately 226.5 million Americans with an annual rate of natural increase of 1.6 million or 0.7 percent. Generally there has been a substantial decline in the rate of childbearing to the average of 1.8 births per woman(1980s) in contrast to the 3.7 in the late 1950s. In short there will be a gradual aging of the American population, starting in the eighties and reaching a peak in the early decades of the new century. By 2030 the elderly will account for at least 18% of the population.

There will be a continuing need for and shifts towards services and products aimed at adults and the elderly. This situation will have important implications on immigration to the U.S. and the composition of the labour force.

II- America has become a greatly diversified and richer culture in the 1980s, blacks, Asians other minorities and Hispanics comprised 18.7 percent by 1990. This implies need for bilingual education in schools. Also the change in the ethnic and racial composition of the population will not affect every area of the country with equal force.

III- Household type and size have also changed. For the first time over half the households consist of only one or two persons. ( more Americans move away from parents earlier), divorce , or delay marriage are main reasons.

IV- The home ownership, central to the American dream will continue to exist but due to the high prices of real estate it made a modest rise from 66% in 1980s to 67% in 1990s.<sup>38</sup>

V- The two other social trends that greatly affected the American life is the vast number of women entering into the labour force and the growing number of single parent households, particularly those headed by females.

VI- Interregional Deconcentration; the most significant changes of the last decade in America has been in where people are choosing to live and with whom. People are now moving away from cities entirely to rural areas and small towns (decentralization) The population migration from North and East to south and west which started in the 1970s and is still on going. The reasons for migration are mostly economic reasons, but it may also be for reasons relating to environment or quality of life. The west (until about 1960) and now the south have emerged as the major growth centers of the nation. The interregional dispersion of jobs has occurred much faster than the redistribution of population. This caused the growth of the industrial heartland to be relatively slower than other regions, but in the near future will cause the south will catch up as the north stagnates or declines.<sup>39</sup>

VII- Decentralization; since World War II, a simultaneous deconcentration of population and industrial activity at several geographic scales in the United States has

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<sup>38</sup> President's Commission 1980, The Demographic Background Toward a Portrait of America in the eighties and "The Deconcentration of urban", A national agenda for the eighties, pp230-238

<sup>39</sup> Kasarda, J.D. 1988, People and jobs on the move: America's New spatial Dynamics, in America's New Market Geography nation, edited by G. Sternlieb and J.W Hughes. pp.143-152

become evident. People live and work at lower densities within cities, while densities are increasing in places beyond city borders. Thus urban activities crossed city borders, creating more abstract boundaries of metropolitan areas, and even multistate regions, the influence of central cities will be diminished as certain production, residential, commercial and cultural functions disperse to place beyond them. The advantages of agglomeration and central location have been eroded by technological innovations and new production technologies that have given locational freedom to an even wider array of industries. The deterioration of amenities and delivered services has reduced the attractiveness of central locations.<sup>40</sup>

Federal policies have operated to reinforce industrial and residential dispersion. In most cases "anti-city" bias has been implicate. Federal taxation policy that encourages new construction rather than restoration, housing policy that directs growth via subsidies to the periphery of metropolitan area; water sewer, and other utility subsidies, and transportation policy that drastically lower the costs of access between distant points. Approximately half of the new nonmetropolitan growth is adjacent to existing metropolitan areas.

Between 1940 and 1970 more than 4 million southern blacks moved to northern cities along with the whites bearing cities by millions to "promised land" of suburbs. This caused racial segregation between cities and suburbs. In Detroit area in 1960 only 11% of poor black families lived in suburbs but 45% of poor white families lived in suburbs.<sup>41</sup>

Using the central city as a unit of analysis decentratism will cause the erosion of fiscal capacity. The increased ghettoization of the poor and minorities, the enduring high unemployment rates, the chronic economic depression in poverty neighborhoods, the under use of built environment, the deterioration of urban public services and facilities are all consequences associated to deconcentration, dispersion and low density social and economic arrangements.

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<sup>40</sup> Frey, W.H. 1984, Life course Migration of Metropolitan whites and blacks and the structure of Demographic change in Large Central Cities, American sociological review, 1984 pp 11-15

<sup>41</sup> Ibid, Frey 1984, pp 11-15

VIII- The illusion of urban Renaissance; in recent years the incipient rebirth of cities has been highly touted. Also called "regentrification" process has been heralded as marking the return of the middle class and their incomes, clout and allegiances to the city. Although a great deal of housing stock upgrading and restoration is being experienced in central city it is not of statistic detection. What statistics do reveal, however, is the continued deterioration of living conditions and income levels in central cities.

In summary, the dispersion of jobs, people and taxable income, especially in the North East and Upper Midwest Regions of the USA. is not being mitigated by a selective return of the middle class to the central city. During the next decade the larger policy issues would be whether the revitalization of older cities should take precedence over further growth of suburbs and beyond? A question which deserves more careful consideration. A factor that may be too easily overlooked is suburban growth has made a general upgrading possible for those who have left and for those who have been left behind, for as people left the city the resulting trickle down process, increasingly better housing becomes available to the poor. One of the major answers to the suffering of big cities is that civil responsibilities should not be limited to place of residence as a mean of helping the left behind people and cities. Benefits and costs of suburban growth should be shared by all wherever they live. Thus, the new policies should not be devised to attempt a restoration of the central city's historic role in urban society, but they should work with determinant trends to ensure the competitive strenghts of the city are nurtured.

To sum up the ability to exit has been a tradition in America, even it owes its very existence and growth to millions of decisions favouring exit from all over the world to come to America . Then later the exist from the East coast to the West coast. The physical exist or mobility of people when dissatisfied with city, area, services is a common pratice in the USA that affects all personal decisions.<sup>42</sup>

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<sup>42</sup> Hirschman, A., 1970, Exit, voice & loyalty, p. 106-107.



### 5-3-4- Finance :

As has been stated the administrative Federal structure and its division of responsibility and justification for federal, state or local intervention gets translated to fiscal responsibilities.

Also the percent of public expenditure of GNP and on what public service it is spent is changed according to the change of government. But the share of government expenditure in GNP is higher in the U.K than in the United States although it has risen since the 60's. It is also note worthy that the defence expenditure in the US has increased somewhat faster than civilian ratio for the last 50 years.

The study through giving this simple financial background along with the administrative system to emphasises the main ideology that controls the USA's whole system that is, market like economy, with government role limited to facilitation of economy. Users needs and demand save met through market forces of supply and demand.

*Notes* Includes all levels of government. GNP at factor cost *Sources:* Up to 1958 *Fiscal Systems*, op cit, p 100 For the United States, 1958-1970 *Survey of Current Business*, July 1971 For Germany and the United Kingdom *National Accounts of OECD Countries*, 1953-1969, OECD, 1971 and 1976.

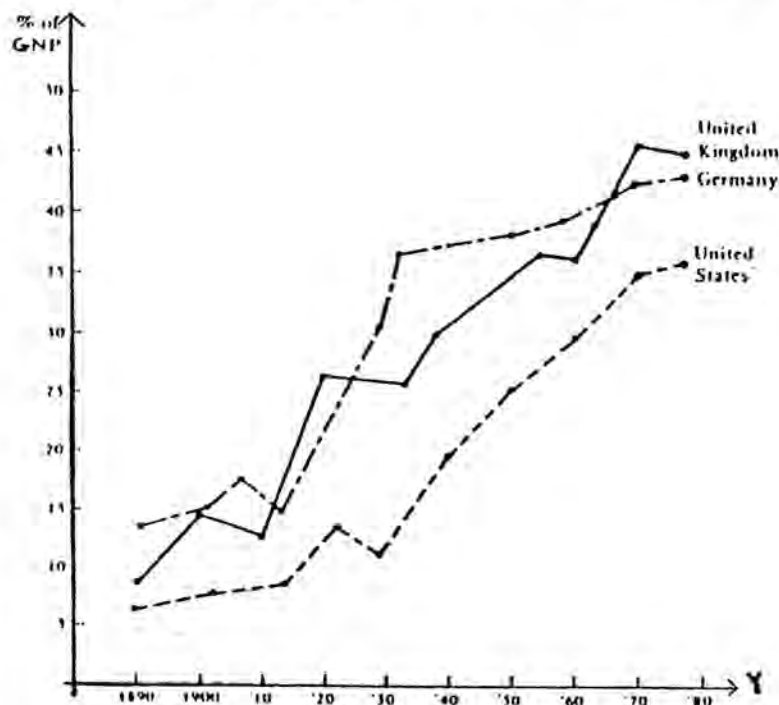


Fig (5-4) Public expenditures as percent of GNP in several countries

Source: Peterson, 1988, The new urban reality



### 5-3-5 Practical examples :

The American approach to urban land use intervention is an economic approach using economic incentives and penalties to encourage or discourage developers. Also using economic approaches to decide what incentive to use and which proposals to undertake.

Thus the study will study two main examples in the US the cost/benefit and cost effective studies.

#### *I- Cost/effectiveness of project and subsidy devices*

There are two approaches to estimate various programs' outcomes versus cost, cost/effective and cost/benefit. Usually in social projects or programs, the cost /effective approach is chosen because the estimation and information requirements of the cost/benefit analysis are very complicated, especially if we have to estimate the value of a life saved or illness averted or cured. The cost figures for each program are stated against how effective they are or against outcomes.

While the fact that discount benefits are larger than discounted costs indicates that a project is justified, it does not indicate that a project should be started at once. The proper timing of a project requires that the difference between discounted benefits and discounted cost be kept to a minimum. If the cost savings are larger than the loss in benefits the project should be postponed further. A sound expenditure decision, whether made by a legislator or an executive, requires detailed information regarding the merits of alternative projects.

In recent years in the United States the cost benefit analysis became one of the most lively branches of fiscal economics at both the practical and analytical levels. Actually, it has a long history, beginning with the evaluation of federal expenditures in the field of navigation undertaken by the corps of Engineers. The flood control act of 1936 lent further impetus to cost/benefit analysis in the realm of water resource projects, and in 1950 general principles and rules were set out by the committee concerned with the evaluation of the various river basin projects. In 1965 a planning-programming- budgeting (PPB) system was introduced by executive order to apply to all federal departments.

Cost/benefit and cost effectiveness analysis have since been used for many government spending agencies' although they are used more by public works agencies than by agencies that deal with social services. It has even been used in

environmental regulation assessment and in assessing the most cost /effective mean of financing projects or attracting private investment to long needed projects especially in inner city areas.

- Assessing Environmental regulations :

The General Accounting Office (GAO) of the United States found three specific problems which have hampered cost/benefit analysis. These problems involve major gaps in underlying scientific data (Such as tying air or water quality to specific health effects), legal restrictions preventing the use of such analysis even when their results may be useful ; and the Environmental Protection order 12291. This order requires federal agencies to prepare cost - benefit analysis for major regulations.

GAO recommends the overcome of non-legal problems and enhance the use of cost benefit analysis involving environmental regulations.

The Executive order 12291 requires that each agency prepare, in connection to every major rule ( With annual effect of \$ 100 Million or more on the economy) a regulatory impact analysis, for the office of Management and Budget review. The order requires such an analysis to be made even if it can not be used, and the information be known to the public.

During the 1970's when most of the environmental laws were enacted more emphasis was on the level of cleanup to be achieved more than on the costs involved to reach such standards. Today (1980's) actions already taken have reduced many of the threats, but the costs of such controls is rising. Thus, calling for the use of cost benefit analysis.<sup>40</sup>

*II- Investment incentives and cost effectiveness of subsidy devices :-*

For Local Development Agencies (LDA)in the United States to attract developers and private owners to provide the needs of the community and to strike the best bargain, that is maximize public benefit or the minimize public costs, the local development agencies and decision makers have to evaluate the subsidy devices through variation of discounted cash flow analysis. Discounted cash flow analysis

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<sup>40</sup> Ibid, Presidential Commission, 1980, pp.134-145

evaluates a series of payments, specifically net after-tax profit, generated over the life of an investment. The technique adjusts for widely varying payments received by developers or forgone by LPA over an extended period of time. Through such an analysis the public officials are able to realize the cost of subsidy or how costly is each subsidy device - thus chose the most, cost effective or less costly with same end or outcome of attracting private developers.

Thus this process is two fold the first : the cost of the subsidy to (LDA) costs can be incuded in several ways; extending a lease or loan (LDA) deprived of use of money for a period of time, tax abatement, that is real property tax foregone and cost of municipal borrowing if needed. This cost will be discounted by a chosen discount rate. Second: the cash flow or effect of project on property and /or other intended imporvement will be calculated comparing both costs and effects to decide on the best device.<sup>41</sup>

In a model using some subsidy devices such as tax abatement, tax incentives, direct cash grant, tax incentive bond and leases adjusting each to equal \$ 1 million regardless of form, it was foundout that subordinated leasing is an extremely effective device followed by second mortgages<sup>42</sup>. Tax abatement is least effective although a popular device. For further information see appendix (A)

## 2- Takings and American legal system :

One of the main principles of American context is private property and how it is seen as the bulwark of individual liberty, to be held sacred and unviolated against any and all intrusions. The American constitution in the fifth amendment: "nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation". Thus, within a lot of law cases the counts have put property rights advanced at the expense of government ability to regulate land use.

The study will discuss two cases where owners went to court stating that the local authorities have imposed on their property regulations that are considered a "taking" thus requiring compensation or ruling of such order.

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<sup>41</sup> Ibid, Presidential Commission, pp.140-145

<sup>42</sup> Nenno, Mary and Colyer, George, 1980, New money, new methods, pp 13-50

**First Case: First English Evangelical Lutheran Church versus Los Angeles :**

The church operated a camp site which consisted of a retreat center and recreational area for handicapped children, the complex included bankhouses, a church and outdoor chapel. It was located on 12 acre plot along Mill Creek. In 1978 a flood destroyed all the buildings of the camp.

Thus in 1979 the county passed an ordinance that no person shall construct, reconstruct place or enlarge any building within the outer boundary line of the interim flood protection area located in Mill Creek Canyon.

The effect of this ordinance was to prohibit any reconstruction of a complex. The church brought suit against county for taking "all use" of its property.

The court ruled that the ordinance denied appellant all use of its property for considerable time - stressing on the phrase "all use". Thus the court by a six to three vote ruled that there was a taking and compensation has to be paid. This ruling is an important limitation upon the ability of the state to impose temporary restriction of land use without paying compensation.<sup>43</sup>

**Second Case : Nollan versus California Coastal Commission.**

The commission is charged with general supervision and management of the extensive coastal resources within the state, and balance between the interest of public in the shoreline and its access to it and the interest of the adjacent property owners.

Nollan had acquired a lease with an option to purchase land graced by a decrepit 504 sq foot bungalow. Then Nollan requested a development permit to build a 3 bedroom house in keeping with the neighborhood. The state sought to accomodate the Nollan's desire to new development , on the condition that the development not diminish the overall public access to coast line, thus requesting a deed restriction that would ensure lateral access. In the commission's point of view the development conditioned on such a restriction would fairly attend to both the public and private interest.

The court ruled 5 to 4 ,majority took refuge in the difficult doctrine of unconstitutional conditions to impose requirements, a condition for granting privalage. Also the commission demanded lateral easement from some owners and

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<sup>43</sup> Epstein Richard, 1978, Taking,Descent and Resurrection, the supreme court review, pp. 30-50



not all operating under standards no one could understand ( arbitrary behavior) A unified conceptual framework is necessary to analyse the two cases. Four questions are relevant to the taking cases

- I- Has there been a taking of private property ?
- II- If so, has it been justified under police power  
so that no compensation need be paid ?
- III- If not has the taking been for a public use?
- VI- If so, has just compensation, been provided?

The takings clause must be understood as part of a comprehensive effort to discipline the exercise of government power by demanding that it pay when it takes private property for general public purposes.<sup>44</sup>

In the takings cases in the US. all actors are active whether, owners, judicial bodies, officials or executive government bodies along with any interest groups. The benefit of such a system is mainly securing that no corruption or unjust action is undertaken by government . In knowing so, owners have more faith in their government and its actions or regulation system and are willing to abide by it ,so long as they will receive fair compensation if they lose any part of their property when such regulation is in use.

#### **5-4- Egyptian experience :**

##### **5-4-1- Choice of Historical period of research :**

The selection of a historical period for a study is subject to two fundamental considerations; The first concerns the position of the selected period in the historical development of the city, not merely as a chronicle or description of events and components, but rather as a set of fundamental lessons and rules underlying the urban and social structure of the Egyptian city. Hence, such a period must necessarily be a period of transition and fundamental transformations, rather than a historical continuity.

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<sup>44</sup> Ibid , Epstein, pp. 30-50



The second consideration is with regard to its relation to the Egyptian city's present and future realities, i.e. it must constitute the historical roots of the present.

The researcher chose the period since the era of Mohamed Ali and until the present day because this period is central to an understanding of the inherent duality experienced by Egypt. Evidence of this two fold aspect could be found not only in all governmental institutions and way of life itself, but also in the architectural expression and city planning aspects.

Historically, the period that will be studied falls amidst a vitally important phase of intellectual and religious development in Egypt. The beginning of the century witnessing the physical completion (urbanistic and architectural) of institutions on western lines as initiated by Mohamed Ali and planned under Khedive Ismail. A turning point in Egyptian public life (1919-1952) is the "liberal age" as called by Prof. Saad El Din Ibrahim.<sup>45</sup>

The debate between the inherited and the acquired, the original and the contemporary regardless of forms of slogans is one of the problems that has been facing planning since the beginning of the century and is still on going .

The study deals with the urban development of the Egyptian cities especially Cairo and Alexandria from the mid nineteenth century and up to now. But the research shall concentrate on other aspects of the Egyptian context, that is the administrative and legal aspects of urban intervention since the Revolution of 1952 and upto the present. Our choice of this period is justified by the following reasons :

- I- This period is unique with its beginning clearly defined by (1952) and has lasted for 45 years. Hence it is a period that left its imprint and in fact witnessed the radical change in the Egyptian society.
- II- This period coincides with the post-second world war period in Europe and the USA with the radical changes that they too have undergone.
- III- On the Arab level, oil was discovered in the Middle East, Egyptians left their homeland in great numbers (for the first time in history) to work in Arab oil countries, and their remittances did to a great extent affect urban development.

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<sup>45</sup> Ibrahim, Saad El Din, 1984, Transformation in Architecture, in Aga Khan award for Architecture, The expand Metropolis, coping with urban growth of Cairo.

VI- Examination of the urban development and means of intervention in the last 45 years is feasible, as registered information prior to that period is very limited and not on all cities.

V- It was during this period that the first attempt to regulate, organize and control urban development was made. For in 1940 law No.52 was enacted to provide for the development and subdivision of land for building. Followed by law No. 28 for 1948 for defining industrial zones in towns, and law no. 577 for 1954 providing for expropriation of land for public utilities purposes. More laws followed.

Scholars have divided this period into several other sub-periods according to various considerations. For example the well known scholar Gamal Hamdan divides it into three distinct eras :

- I -The era of closed policy ;(The transformation from feudalism to capitalism of the state under the slogan of socialism )1952-1974
- II - The era of open policy ;(The transformation from the capitalism of state to the capitalism of individuals )1974-1981
- III- The era of productive open policy or the rectification of the course of development from 1981-1990.

The National Centre for Social and Criminological Researches, in a published research divides this period politically into five eras:

- I- The transitional era or stabilization of public order and respect of the law 1952-1956.
- II- The cooperative social democratic era of the National Union (Al Itihad Al Qawmi) 1956-1961.
- III- The era of socialist transition, central planning and war economy 1961-1974
- VI- The era of plurality of parties, economic open policy and urbanization 1974-1980.
- V- The era of productive open policy and the rectification of the course of development 1980 and up to the present.<sup>46</sup>

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<sup>46</sup> The National Centre for social and criminological research, 1985 .Social survey of Egypt between year 1952-1982.

## 5-4-2 Egyptian Urban Development History

### 1-Heritage of Medieval City

Each profession or trade in the city (specially Cairo) had its own corporation or several, if physically separated - at the head of which was a "shaykh", generally assisted by a "Naqib" or ceremonial organizer.

The role of the "shaykh" and his deputy was to supervise the ethical dealings of the profession, to adjudicate between members in cases of internal dispute, to gain cooperation for mutual welfare needs, and most important is to act as intermediary between members of the profession and the central administration, chiefly to collect the professional capitation tax, to sequester labour for "public" ventures and to disseminate rulings and regulations.

When the system operated in an ideal manner the "shaykhs" of individual professions were connected to the central administration through a government appointed religious officer, the "Muhtasib" an official whose role had been nothing less than to oversee the moral life of the community in all its aspects. Rather than total morality, his chief concern developed and later became that morality which was exercised in the economic sphere of life, i.e. the market place. It was he who set a just price, enforced accurate weights and measures, checked the scales of the "house of money" controlled quality, oversaw the cleanliness of the market places and even at one time, the upkeep of the mosques, the walls, the water system and other public facilities.

Enforcement of the "Muhtasib's" judgments was obtained through his own quasi-police agents but also, especially in late Mamluk times through the "shurtah"(municipal police) under the authority of the governor of Cairo. During the Ottoman administration, the role of the Muhtasib gradually faded until after the reign of Muhammed Ali, when the position of Muhtasib in Cairo was abolished and his responsibilities assigned directly to the municipal police.<sup>47</sup>

Two other city wide officers might have filled the vacuum created by the Muhtasib's faded role, one in the "secular" hierarchy, the other in the religious .

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<sup>47</sup> Abu-Lughod, Janet, 1971, Cairo ; 1001 years of the city victorious pp. 73-75

The governor of the city of Cairo was the first, the "chief Qadi" the second, the governor, in practice a military figure whose chief responsibility was that of military governor. The second significant power over the municipal affairs was the "Qadi", later called the "Mulla" in Ottoman Cairo. The "Qadi" was charged the power of guarding the general public welfare along with the fact that he was an important figure in the administration of "Waqf". Matters seem to have deteriorated during the Ottoman supremacy, for by the end of the sixteenth century the powers of the Chief Qadi of Cairo were given to powerful Mamluks.

Thus the main heritage of this medieval Ottoman city if not municipal anarchy, at least low level of corporate coordination. There was no single administrative structure which combined police power, market supervision and the judiciary into a municipal government. Private enterprise partially met the needs of water, waste disposal, roads, public water fountains, hospitals, and many other facilities and amenities existing in the city.

## 2- The first attempt at Modernisation (1800-1850)

The first attempts at modernization under Mohammed Ali Pasha focused on institutional reform, introducing technology imported from the west (mostly France). Cairo's administration was reorganized and edicts were issued to ensure that saqqas (water carriers) and harats (streets) were kept clean. The public sector was busy building palaces, schools and factories. The use of wheeled carriages in unpaved streets proved inadequate so the government undertook the responsibility for road system widening and maintenance .

The next step is the reforms brought about by Mohammad Ali to facilitate more efficient management of the city and country. The main important thing is that there was not really a separation between the administration of Cairo and that of Egypt. Although Cairo, Rosetta and Damietta were given special status of "Muhafazah" (governorate)

The main regulations were addressed to street cleaning and lighting but the first attempt to convoluted circulation patterns of the city was not attempted until 1845, when Mohammed Muhamid Ali in his approach of preparing a tanzim (plan) for the city provided for a number of new or enlarged streets. As noted by Amin Sami by 1847 there existed a "majlis tanzim al mahrusah" (council for Cairo) which recommended that many of the streets be given names, that houses be numbered and



that street signs be installed. But most of the proposed artery streets destined for completion during Mohamed Ali's lifetime, were completed after wards, the work of Mohammed Ali had been to clean the pre- industrial city of her encrustations , the modern city came into being in the age that followed.

### 3- The modern Era ;first attempt of engagment of a planner:

What is remarkable is that although the French occupation lasted only for brief 3 years while the British occupied, and administered the country for forty. Modern cities especially Cairo is stamped in the French rather than the British mold. French occupation, improved the city. Of these reforms instituted by the French, only two were to persist after the actual physical presence of troops. One was the reorganization of Cairo's administrative districts for they judiciously combined the 53 existing "harat" of Cairo, creating 8 large "arrondissements" each known as a "thumn" (Arabic for 1/8). This basic division established more than a century and a half ago have been retained , with certain boundary modifications, and were later supplemented by the "aksam" ( districts) of the newer quarters of Cairo. The second impact of the French was on the street patten of the city. For purely military reasons the French began to regularize a number of important communicating streets in the city .Like the street of Fajjalah, the street connecting Azbakiyah to the medial city or Azbakiyah, Bulaq, street.

Ismail grandson of Mohamed Ali inherited Egypt at a moment when many events some planned, others coincidental, converged to stimulate the most dynamic era of city building that Egypt experienced a hundred years. The Egyptian cotton boom was caused by the American withdrawl of supplies during the civil war. Egypt's population was experiencing its first upsurge . By the end of his reign the Egyptian's became (17millions) Ismailiyah canal was constructed as part of public works, along with other canals which made a lot of land free of flood and ready for development (Jazirah, & Bulaq). Hand in hand with these public works went an attempt to provide Cairo with water, gas and municipal utilities.<sup>48</sup>

With the project of the Suez Canal was the building or planning of 3 new cities Port Said, Suez and Ismalia. It is conventional to attribute the inauguration of a

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<sup>48</sup> Ibid, Abu Lughad, pp 75-80



modified system of decentralized government in Egypt to the passage of the 1883 First organic Law. In actuality however, the administrative subdivisions utilized in this system had been delimited in 1820 by Mohamed Ali in accordance with a reorganization that was taking place throughout the Ottoman Empire.<sup>49</sup>

Khedevis Ismail's modernization efforts focused on social and cultural aspects, starting with the city of Cairo's physical appearance. A modern city starting from Al Azbakiya grew first to the west then northeast. Ismailiya new district was laid out according to a plan for Cairo prepared in 1874 by a French architect. It introduced European features sharply contrasting with the familiar Islamic environment; rectilinear, grid and radial plans, free-standing structures, and wide streets to accommodate vehicular traffic. The first boulevard wide enough to accommodate a carriage was cut across the fabric of the old city between Al Azbakiya and the Citadel (Mohamed Ali boulevard) in 1840. New land use and activities needed new buildings embassies, ministries, European hotels department stores, boutiques, banks, a stock exchange and even an opera house were built. In 1865 the center of government was moved from the citadel to Abdeen as a symbol of transition from the medieval to the modern era .

#### 4- New Era of City Municipality (Baladia):

Even before 1883, in 1869 the cotton export merchants of Alexandria agreed to contribute taxes or more accurately, to pay assessments to improve the road between Minat Al Basal and the port. This nucleus organization grew into a town council by 1885 and was finally succeeded in 1890 by a municipality ( Baladiyah) the first to be established in Egypt.

In 1893 the Minister of Interior authorized nine cities to form local commissions for the purpose of planning municipal improvements that were to be financed by subventions from the national government, thus towns like Mahallah Al Kubra, Asyut, Damanhur, Domyat, Mansurah, Fayum, Suez, Tanta, Zagazig. Had obtained such municipalities.

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<sup>49</sup> Ibid, Abu Lughod, pp.80-82

These local governments were to confine their attentions to political housekeeping functions, such as, arranging for the installation of water, electrical systems, overseeing the maintenance and cleaning of streets, and regulating public facilities.

In 1896 eleven more communities were added but these commissions were faced with the problems of raising local taxes and specially the legality of collecting tax of foreigners. By 1908 three dozen Egyptian cities had local or mixed commissions but Cairo was still absent. Even in the constitution of 1923 which established the provinces, cities and village of Egypt as Justistic personalities and enabled the enactment of several basic local government laws. It was not until 1949(law no. 145) that the municipality of Cairo was created.

Before that the protection of public way and property lines of Cairo was the responsibility of Tanzim, a special subsection of the Ministry of public works .(City, State relation not clear). During 1879-1880 Tanzim was reorganized and a special subunit of it was given its own staff and special budget in order to coordinate road planning for both Cairo and outlying Halwan.

#### 5- Colonial Enterprise and town planning

At the turn of the century there was a phenomena of investment in the land and real estate on going with the development of abasia, Sakakini on the edge of the town, Zamalik's development as a private development, also large developments like Maadi and Heliopolis. During the late nineteenth, early 20th centuries the public utilities were under foreign control long after political independence ( Anglo-Belgian firm) due to an agreement between the government and the foreign firm as the government had failed to establish standards, to control performance or set rates.

Decisions made by foreign companies, for example the building of tramlines, served to encourage urban development in certain directions and for special clientele. Thus, the urban subdivisions were shaped according to such decisions and the Tanzim had no power over them.<sup>50</sup>

The growth of European influence was marked by the establishment of the British colonial administration in 1882. The number of foreign residents in Egypt then had climbed to 91000.inhabitants. Colonial authorities diverted foreign capital away

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<sup>50</sup> Ibid, Abu Lughod, pp.145-147

from industries into trade and real estate development. Land speculation and a general building boom marked the beginning of century.

Improvement of transportation network, the introduction of tramways, building bridges across the Nile and other utilities were introduced under long-term franchises granted to foreign enterprises water in 1865, and electricity and tramways in 1883. After World War One, automobiles appeared on the scene.

The movement of upper income groups to new developments followed by the movement of middle income groups to these places leaving old quarters to poorer classes and rural migrants then began.<sup>51</sup> In the old part of cities, buildings which once had been the homes of the rich and powerful, housed dozens of families crowded into rooms in the subdivided structures and densities mounted. Thus for the majority of the urban population living conditions declined between 1870-1950.<sup>52</sup>

Since 1870 there had been in Cairo and Alexandria a clearly expressed wish to control urban development. The efforts to provide services were certainly apparent in the Municipality of Alexandria and the achievements of Tanzim. Along with the new development of Heliopolis, Maadi and Zamalek.

#### I- Heliopolis<sup>53</sup>

Heliopolis was started, 1902 by the Belgian Edouard Empain. It has 3 distinctive features; first it was built without any assistance from the state; second, the new town was to be set up from scratch and built in the desert, and finally it was the expression of one individual's personal dream (Empain) and not an outcome of a town planning project, although it was a manifestation of the concept of the "Garden City" then a popular concept.

The first building began to rise in 1908 along with the first tram route to Cairo (a distance of 10km). By 1915 there were 6210 inhabitants and as high as 224000 in 1928. It owes its survival to its communication routes. The city is a work of a Belgian

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<sup>51</sup> Ibid, Abu Lughod, pp 140-145

<sup>52</sup> Invasion and succession behavioral aspects of land determinant was quite evident at that period.

<sup>53</sup> Ilbert, Robert, 1984, Heliopolis, Colonial enterprise and town planning success, Aga Khan Award for Architecture, The expanding metropolis pp. 36-45

financier built by Belgian, French and British Architects. Thus, has colonial appearance although it has been successfully grafted onto the urban fabric of Cairo.

It is not a colonial city with the most governing feature of a colonial town planning being the differentiation of "European" and native poles. Heliopolis is more of a garden city than a parallel town. Its general plan has an obvious affinity with that of Letchworth city, designed by Unwin and Parker 1903 and implementing the theories of Howard.

The ideal town proposed by Howard was to cover 2400 hectares; Heliopolis according to its original plan was to cover 2500 hectares. "Zoning" clearly in evidence (a quarter for palaces and villas, a quarter containing factories and workers dwellings). There is no denying the "imported" appearance of Heliopolis. It was clear in the plan and in the appearance buildings, heights, number of storeys, the percentage of ground to be occupied by buildings were strictly regulated. The width of roads and the truncated corners at the crossings were calculated on the basis of regulations which take into account vehicular traffic (before they were even popular).

Viewed demographically, the general composition of the new town shows that, on the whole, it was Egyptian right from the start. At least half the inhabitants were local including in 1925, 20% European. Socially it was stamped with the image of the ruling class but the design of buildings with its variety attracted Egyptians of all classes. Moreover, the considerable financing opportunities made available enabled purchasers to find in Heliopolis what they could afford. see fig. (5-6)

#### II-Colonial model :

The colonial model of city planning was very clear in Port Said, Ismailia and Suez. The governing feature of Colonial town planning being the differentiation or segregation of European and national poles by careful Zoning with two poles complementing each other one for European (Usually working in the Suez Canal Company) and the other for Egyptian working at other Jobs. The first was named (Hail El Efrang) and the other, Hai El Arab. They still exist until now although only by name. Since most of the Europeans have now left.



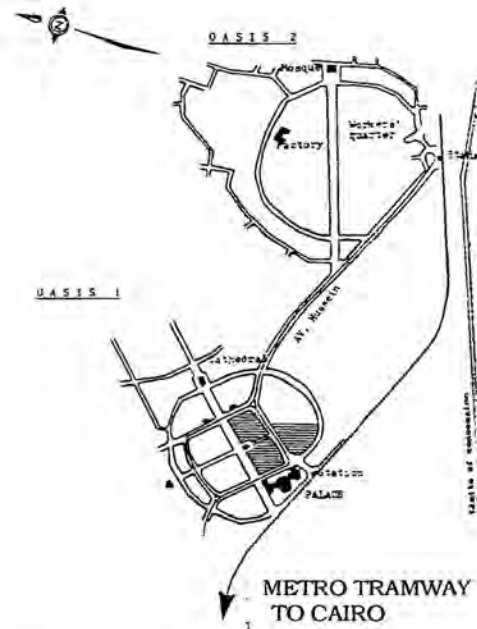


Fig.(5-6 ) Heliopolis site plan

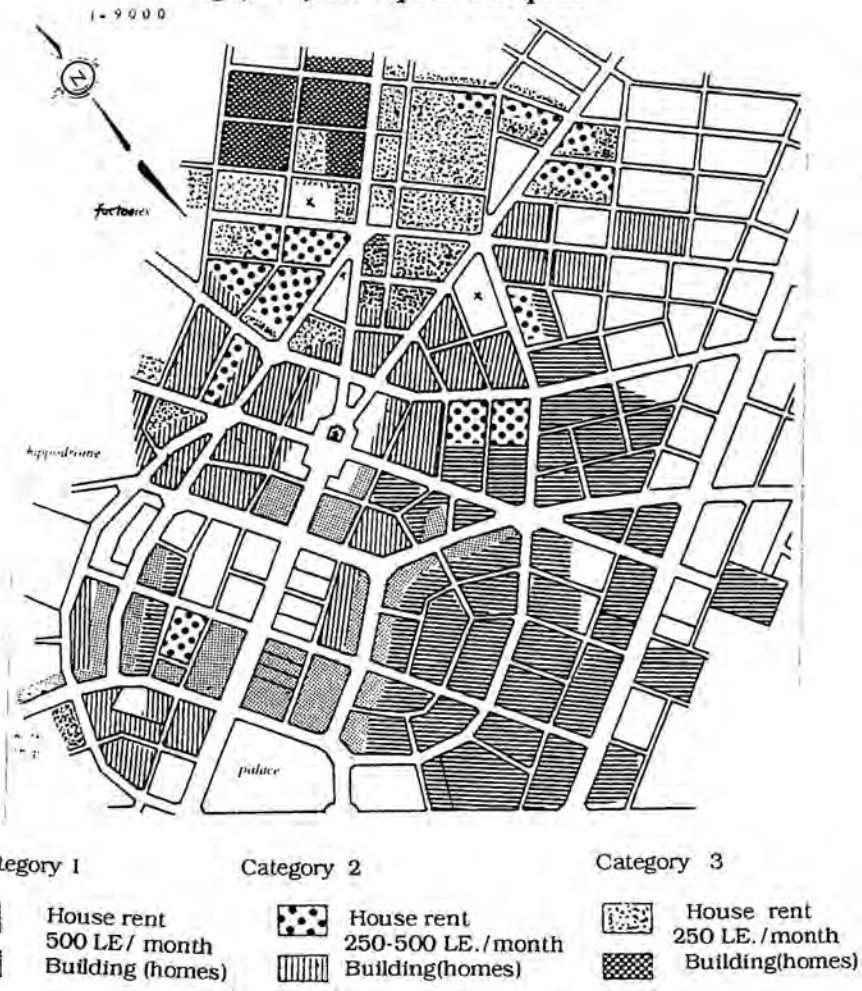


Fig.(5-7) Heliopolis : distribution of housing  
 Source: Ilbert, Robert, 1984, Heliopolis Colonial enterprise and town planning success in Aga Khan Award for Architecture

#### 6-Development and urban changes after the Revolution(1950-73) Nationalization:

As the number of foreigners began to decline after the revolution, and since 1961 it became negligible, foreigners were replaced by Egyptians in urban areas. Subsequently, the modern city was restructured to reflect its Egyptian spirit. International architecture remained the accepted building style but subtle characteristics of traditional urban fabric reappeared. For example mixed land uses, lower floors of apartment buildings were converted to shops and offices. Commercial streets became specialized according to the different goods and services being marketed. The intensity of land utilization increased, and villas were replaced by high rise apartments.

The private real estate market was thrown into a state of disarray by the promulgation of "rent control laws". Starting 1954 rental market virtually stopped and large subsidies were given to corporate housing with liberal credit terms. The government with a planned and centrally directed economy, considered housing for low income groups to be among its primary responsibilities.<sup>54</sup> Massive programmes of large scale public housing projects were undertaken mainly in Greater Cairo and Alexandria. The area per unit ranged from 25 to 65 sqm. In order to make housing affordable it was nearly subsidized. Housing accounted for 32.5% of the National budget 1952-1957 and 23.1% from 1957-1960. But due to 1967's war and the political and financial problems the overall annual investment in housing 1960-1971 dropped to 8.5%.

Nationalization also meant more Egyptian students at universities, more sent abroad for higher education coming back with new trends, specially in city planning and building. It was those scholars and professionals who helped start the first attempt of preparing Master plans.

A new trend was emerging, a Master plan for Cairo was prepared in 1956 recommending the creation of outlying industrial sub-centres to absorb population and contain the growth of the city. Unfortunately these industrial suburbs that were designated to be Helwan, Shubra Al-Khima, Imbaba and Giza.

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<sup>54</sup> A notion that continues to have a great bearing on Egyptian politicians and professionals, as well as, the urban public until now.

Another trend was the direct action of planning and new governments center to the north of Cairo, Nasr city, to house a middle class population of civil servants. To address the problem faced by Cairo city the greater Cairo planning commission was established in 1966. It produced a plan that called for the concentration of growth in four satellite cities to be developed in the desert.

During this period also the development and planning of Nagah Hamadi industrial complex (city & town) and Kima complex as examples of company town (single product town) was established in upper Egypt.

During this period and due to accelerated urban population increase which completely transformed the Capital and big cities to zones of wealthy and middle class educated families who took up the residence in the modern city and the poor, young, unskilled rural migrants who lived in new informal areas.

The unbanization rate increased and the informal areas enlarged while municipal authorities watched helplessly unable to control direct, let alone service the new zones or stop informal areas.

#### 7- Era of open door policy (individual capitalism) 1973-1981:

The beginning of this period witnessed two events that affected the socio-economic, as well as, urban aspects of the Egyptian context. The declaration by President Sadat of the open door economic policy and second the migration of Egyptians by great numbers, for the first time, to Arab oil countries.

Urban land had become a means of investment, thus the demand on land increased along and prices of building material rose due to both excess demand and relaxation of restriction of imports. Moreover, due to migration of qualified building technicians to oil countries there was a rise in the wages of buildings related jobs.

As demand for urban land increased agriculture preferred land was changed to urban uses. More demand on urban areas caused the change of uses from villas or family house to more intense uses, the former two and three storey buildings were extended, new floors were added, and the area enlarged to gain extra dwelling units.. Another rise in prices of land and more demand changed the use of several areas from multi storey buildings to high rise buildings and commercial buildings. Areas like Nasr city Heliopolis, Mohandessin in Cairo witnessed such changes. On the overall the fabric of the city due to such trends caused the phenomena of multi-nuclear CBD and the existence of large areas of informal settlements. Also in this period a new

phenomena in urban apartment tenure system began as a reaction to rent control. Although rent controls have existed since the 40's ( World War II) it was not fortified until the 60's. The Revolution enacted several rent control laws on agricultural land and apartments hoping that over the short or medium term it should lead to lower rents and a net transfer of wealth from landlords. (Unpopular to the revolution) to tenants (favoured by revolution). On the long term this trend resulted in lower investment in maintenance and no new investment in rental buildings. The new means of building was owned apartments or associations of homeowners.

The government realizing this phenomena tried to regulate it by enacting two laws law no.49 for 1977 and law no.136 for 1981. The most important feature of these two laws was that the number of units to be sold in a building should not exceed 10% in the 1977 law and 1/3 of the building in 1981 , the rest of building is to be rented thus, subject to rent control law. In the 1981 law the commercial units were left all to the owner to sell so as to compensate him on low percent of units sold in building. It is to be noted that government authorities and public agencies and cooperative housing associations were allowed to sell 100% of the buildings.

To overcome these laws developers would only put the cost of land up front, then use payments from future owners of units to complete the building, forming homeowner cooperative association. This system has many advantages, as the developer only puts small amount of money up front, and the profit gains in the future is not taxable, over riding the law of 1/3 of building only to be sold.

But the disadvantages or problems of this systems are the high registration fees and the fact that the property tax is paid by the owner after having the deed of ownership. The ownership of units in buildings still a new trend in Egypt enables owners to change its inner and outer appearance causing urban chaos and may affect the stability and safety of the building as has been seen 10 years later in the 90's.<sup>55</sup>

Also at that period following the war, policies directing urban growth away from greater Cairo and Alexandria into new cities was highly emphasised. New cities were planned and built such as the 10th of Ramadan , the 6 of October, the Sadat cities.

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<sup>55</sup> Two luxurious apartment building have collapsed in 1992,1996 in Heliopolis due to violation of laws of height and changing the inner structure of units.



In housing the government concentrated its efforts to building for the limited income brackets of population, programmes of self help, site and services and upgrading did not extend beyond a few pilot projects.

#### 8- Era of productive open policy/privitization 1981-1996

By the beginning of this era a lot of the policies and programmes of the previous era became questionable. The government's main policies and programmes were directed towards providing acceptable infrastructure and services in old cities and new to encourage national and foreign developers and investors to invest in Egypt.

Laws were changed giving incentives to developers in new towns, the trend of privitization of some public services has been started, first by improving special highways and charging their users. Other services include solid waste collection in some areas.

The new trend of the 90's is privization of public sector Nation-companies working in different sectors, housing, urban development, industries, medicine ...etc.

In housing the government concentrated its effort on the production of mass housing for low income brackets of the population and a programme of "low cost housing" was carried out to provide, partially finished apartments, with the skeleton and main infrastructure and each users finishes his own unit.

During this era the informal settlements continued to grow with accelerated rates, and due to the realization that these areas are the feeding areas for terrorism a lot of programs and plans for their upgrading have been undertaken by the government, NGO's and foreign agencies.

One of the urban trends of the 90's is the trend of community builders and home-association built in the urban fringe or in new towns. Undoubtedly, the key to homeassociations is the ability to diagnose a need, and to meet a demand which began to be clearly expressed from 1980 onwards. A lot of developers lunched schemes for building homeassociations specially on the fringes of Cairo (Sakara, Marioteya, Shovouk) and other summer resorts or second family house (near Alex., King Maruiot, Abu Yossif...) Although there were many who thought such communities were destined for failure. But it is now clear that these new quarters are for the bourgeoisie, the new developments were tailored for clients with expensive tastes in every detail and every service. The regulation and control over communal owned

areas and even the outside image of these dwellings are very complicated but are very respected. These new developers understood that after the “open door” strategy a new class was emerging. And that this class wished to gain access to urban property to modes of life (life style) similar to the European. Family house or second family house was the developers respond to this class demands.

It is also important to mention practical considerations and economic factors which govern the success of such associations rather than aesthetic and architectural aspects the relatively good communicational network with either Cairo or Alex. Good financial terms of payment, loans, earlier condominiums success and property price increase or appropriation, declared these projects as successful.

It is important to note that in 1997 the jurisdiction bodies approved that such subdivisions of land may have their own regulations different from the laws of the whole country.

#### **5-4-3 Local government system in Egypt today:**

The government structure in Egypt is made up of the President of the Republic, the Prime Minister, his deputies and the Ministers. Specialized National councils are directly accountable to the President . Mean while several ministerial committes, authorities and supreme councils are affiliated to the Cabinet. Moreover the administrative structure of the Republic includes : Ministries, general organizations, local administrative units, authorities of the public sector , and scientific research departments, along with new semi private companies.

The administrative authority in Egypt is made up of the following :

Sovreignty functions : defence, security, justice, foreign Affairs.

Service functions : housing, utilities, transportation, communication, medical care, social affairs, education.

Planning functions : preparing plans and following their execution and implementation, providing data, census and information.

Supply functions : development of agricultural, industrial, commercial activities and encouraging the private and cooperative sectors.

Organizational functions: organizing the administrative authority and manpower.

Control functions : control of public expenditure, the use of public funds, their distribution and control of performance.

See fig (5-8 )

#### 5-4-3-1- Development of the local government system in Egypt:

Egypt has adopted several forms of systems governing the relation between the central government in the capital ( Cairo ) and the various regions. This process started with the establishment of councils for the different municipalities or governorates in 1883 and the establishment of the village councils in 1918. The 1923 constitution defined three levels of local units representing the municipalities (governorates, the towns and the villages and the moral entity of each). It also set the rules that should be taken into consideration by legislators when enacting legislations concerning local administration. Several laws have been enacted under this provision of the constitution, perhaps the most important of which is law No.24 for 1934, dealing with councils of municipalities and law No.145 for 1944 regarding municipal councils and village councils in the fifties several other laws regarding local government were enacted after the 1952 revolution including law No.66 for 1955 regarding municipal councils and law No.6 for 1956 regarding village collective units.

The system of local administration first, introduced in 1960 by virtue of law No. 124 for 1960 sought to promote local participation through centralized planning and decentralized implementation. This law divided Egypt into local units namely, governorates, towns and villages, each having its own moral entity and council to manage its affairs.

Commitment to the principle of local government was reaffirmed in 1971 (by virtue of law No.57 for 1971). Which granted the governorates a special state based on the establishment of twin hierarchy of executive committees and popular councils to provide more administrative flexibility to municipal authorities and to give an active role to citizen participation.

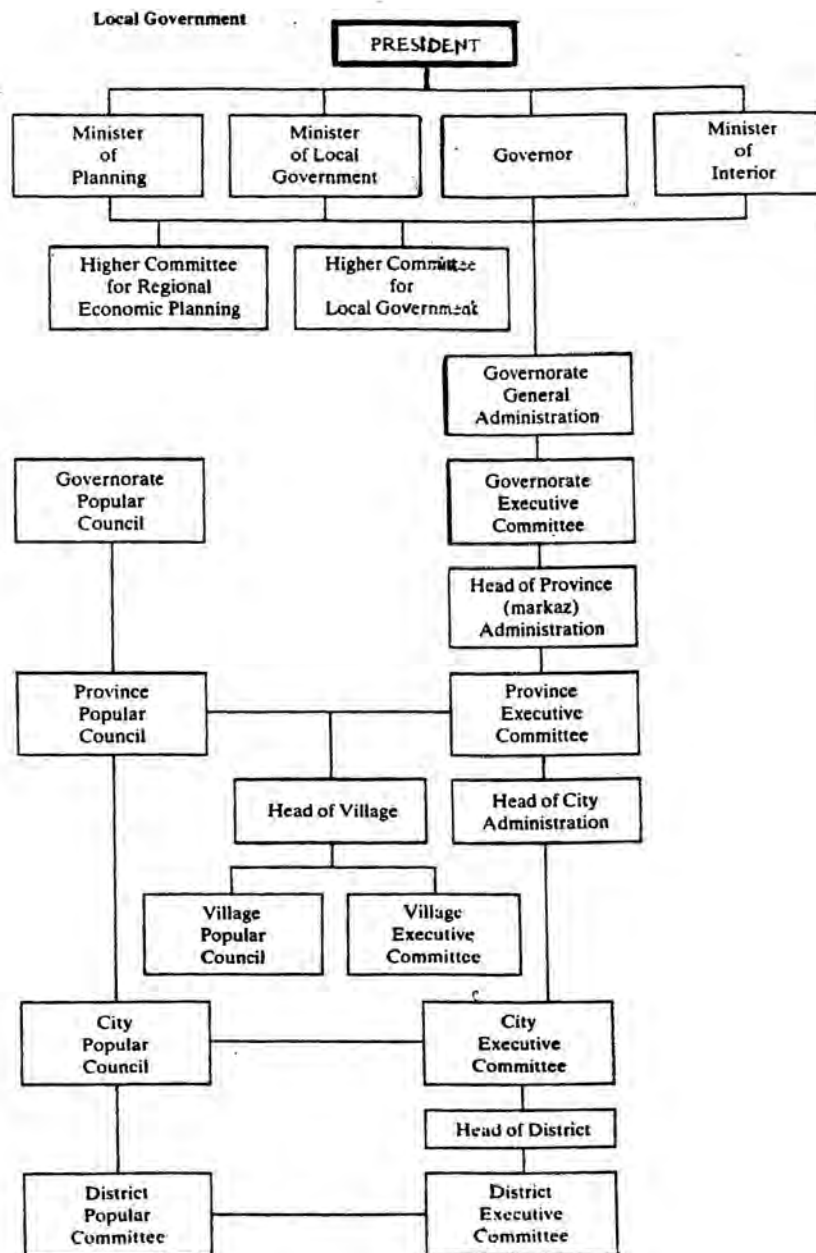


Fig (5-8 ) Local government

Source :Serag El Din, Mona, 1984 Aga Khan Award

of Architecture, The expanding Metropolis: copying with the urban growth of Cairo



In 1975 law No. 52 for 1972 was enacted to replace the previous laws. In this law several levels of government were recognized, markaz, town, governorate. "Hay" is a local level in a city and is more like a collection of neighborhoods. The system was amended in 1979 by law No.596 to allow greater latitude to governors and council chairmen in local affairs and to strengthen the authority of governors, who are now considered the direct representatives of the President. They assume the executive authority of ministers with respect to public service functions for which administrative responsibilities have been transferred from the central to the local level. They have control over housing, public utilities, land development, slum upgrading and most aspects of urban planning design and project implementation. But unfortunately, Governorates lack adequate staff and resources to discharge the new responsibilities given to them by the new laws of localities. Jurisdictional boundaries with the central ministries in matter of planning and coordination remain blurred.

The responsibilities of management developed over a 100 years from the Tanzim Bureau attached to the Ministry of Public Works responsible for Cairo, Alex., and other big cities to the highest order unit of local government in Egypt responsible now a days for many social, utilities and health services.

#### 5-4-3-2- Institutional Aspects in Egypt:

There are three main aspects to institutions that the study will illustrate, who are the actors and how they are grouped to form organizations what are these organizations' spheres of influence and how they interact within the Egyptian context.

Since the Revolution the government took all responsibilities into its hand to the extend of adopting a system of automatic recruitment of all graduates. Such system had its effect on both the quality and quantity of manpower.

- Personnel are frustrated by the inflation of numbers of employees desparingly slow advancement and low remuneration. Managerial competence and technical expertise are certainly plentiful at the higher level with its higher salary and bonus. But low salary levels make retaining promising young professionals very difficult. Any discontinuities in top management are thus compounded by high turnover of professionals and technicians in the middle echelons, the backbone of the administrative structure.

As to the structure of organization , almost all organizations take the hierarchy of the pyramidal pattern of organization, with the head of the agency or organization at the top having links with each and every personnel through vertical chains of employees.

This mainly leads to decisions being taken at the lower level due to the chains of command, that are by definition weak and can easily be over-ruled by higher authorities in various agencies.

- The absence of an over view and a long term policy to be implemented gradually. For chief executive officers and key officials find it difficult to extricate themselves from crisis management in order to concentrate on the broader issues and longer term perspective of programme planning, beyond the requirement of annual budgets.

The structural fragmentation based on “function” rather than “locality” had important implications for the type of local planning that could be done. (i.e. hospitals, clinics, other medical units were provided under the auspices of the Ministry of health and primary and secondary schools in cities , as well as, villiges are established by the Ministry of education ).

If the locality is the basic unit of planning ,a given budget must be allocated among competing community goals. Questions about how much for education, health, roads, and recreation ...etc. are asked. On the other hand, where function ( on the national level ) is the basic unit of planning, allocation decisions revolve to a large extent around competing localities, how much of a given public works budget is given to Cairo and how much to other localities? Thus each locality tries to maximize its share in each separate budget, without considering the effect of each upon “balanced” community development, along with the coordination problems, timing of separate projects or at least trying to block conflicts.

- The involvement of a multiplicity of agencies and enterprises sharing control over sectors or specialized functions is the most prevailing problem. Administratively , the problem is not so much outright conflict stemming from divided responsibilities, as of more subtle issues of rationalizing and coordinating activities under management procedures based on centralized directives.

Thus the absence of the “place” dimension responsibility of everything and support of local government” No delegation of power or authority given to a local

unit. Even when such a power is delegated it is not linked with financial resources and allocation decision making.

Inter-organizational coordination in locality level cut horizontally across the vertical chains of command that are weak and over ruled by high authority at either organizations.

#### 5-4-3-3- Central government and the city :

Dealing with the subject of the relationship between the central government and the cities in Egypt is an extremely difficult task for the following reasons :

First : Dealing with any of the city's aspects necessarily means dealing with man, the individual, and the community with all its interlinked perspectives and levels.

Second : There is no tradition in this respect. For the Egyptian city has long ago foregone its responsibility to the state. The history of Egypt only records one definite and sole political entity, namely, the state which is run and totally controlled by a central government, and the relationship between the city and the authority is not one of partnership but one of complete subordination.

Third : Information on this subject is extremely difficult to obtain and is imprecise and unreliable. In the West the process of development of a city state into a national state was long and tedious, and in fact has not been fully established except in the past three centuries. For cities and boroughs never totally relinquished all their authority to the central government, but always kept in their hands sufficient authority and power to enable them to run their own affairs. They conceded to the central government only that which allowed it to carry out its responsibilities with regard to national issues and foreign affairs. Thus, a balance in responsibilities and authorities was kept between the central authority or government and the city. For while the state maintained its sovereignty, the city enjoyed its individuality and its ability to plan , execute and provide to its community the kind of life it seeks to have. A good example of this type of city-state relationship is that practiced in the United States,<sup>56</sup> where each state has its own constitution, a legislative body, an administration and a judiciary all totally independent from other states, and each could elect through universal suffrage its public servants starting from the Mayor to the heads and executives of departments

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<sup>56</sup> Rageh, Abu-Zeid, 1995, Central government and the city a working paper, submitted to the National Committee for solving the capital's problems.

such as health, education and the police. In fact each state could even decide for itself the type of government it needs so long as this is not against its laws or the constitution of the United States.<sup>57</sup>

It is worth mentioning here that the Federal government of the United States would always seek to implement a regional development plan that would ensure a balance in the development of all regions by providing direct and indirect support and aid to poor regions or cities to enable them to keep up with other more developed cities.

I - Egypt's history of relationship between city and state :

Egypt on the other hand does not have such a tradition or similar rich experience. For as mentioned earlier, the Egyptian city has either voluntarily or arbitrarily relinquished, since the dawn of history, all its power to the central government. This feature of the Egyptian administration is perhaps due to the fact that life in Egypt has always been totally dependant on the waters of the Nile River, which is surrounded on both banks by vast barren deserts, and the need for a central authority to control the distribution of the water of this river was a necessity for the continuation of life itself, particularly that the level of the Nile waters was not regular for there were periods in Egyptian history when its water was scarce, and drought and famine spread in its valley.

It was only in modern history and under foreign rule that our cities experienced some kind of self rule when the foreign rulers introduced some of their systems of government to our cities and set up some municipalities early in this century. Each of these municipalities headed by a director general was responsible for all the public utilities and services, the infra-structure, planning, laying down building regulation and land uses, as well as, supervising over other aspects of urban development. The members of the municipal council were directly elected, and each municipality had its own resources provided through the local taxes and levies. After more than half a century of the application of such systems cities especially bigger ones became somewhat independant.<sup>58</sup>

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<sup>57</sup> Ibid, Rageh

<sup>58</sup> Ibid, Rageh



The municipalities of Cairo and Alexandria were headed by public figures that left their imprint on those two cities as a result of which the first competed with European cities and the second became known as the pearl of the Mediterranean though unfortunately this latter name is about to be forgotten. But, this new system did not last long and the state soon regained all its authority and power by virtue of a law which ironically enough was the law of local administration. For experience over the past quarter of a century has proved that under this law there really is no local administration. It must be made clear here that there is a vast difference between administration and control and domination. For the relation of the central government with the contemporary Egyptian city is not limited to administration but as Rageh suggests "it often exceeds it to almost full domination".

This domination of the state over our cities may have been justified in the past when the population ranged between three and five million inhabitants, who had a life totally dependant on river cultivation in a fixed agricultural cycle. But the population of Egypt now exceeds fifty million. Thus it has become a dire necessity to move out of the narrow river valley into new regions with diverse ecologies which need to be developed through non traditional patterns. Our economic activities are no longer confined to traditional agricultural but have expanded to cover industry, mining and tourism. This qualitative and quantitative change and growth makes it important to find a new suitable formula for the relationship between the city and the state so that we may be able to face the challenges of both the present and the future.

#### II-The last thirty years and Central government responsibilities :

During the past thirty years the responsibilities of the Egyptian central government have become extremely vast and remarkably augmented. This is mainly due to two reasons:

First: The central government is in essence a government of services, for its declared stand in the different constitutions charters and public statements is that of pledging to provide the people with all their basic needs, such as education at all levels, primary, secondary and university, as well as, health services, preventive and curative, and other services such as social security, supply, marketing utilities, and housing.<sup>59</sup>

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<sup>59</sup> Ibid, Rageh

The government went even further and pledged to appoint all graduates of universities and higher and intermediate schools. Thus, the government has turned from an administration government into a social government responsible for the services and welfare of the people.

Second : The responsibilities of the state became extremely great as a result of the establishment of the public sector with its companies and general organizations, and consequently its almost total control over the means of production be they industrial, mining or agricultural. In fact the domination of the public sector covered trade, land, sea and air transport, exportation and importation, insurance, banking, publication and information. True the system of the public sector allows it a margin of independence but it is ultimately affiliated to the ministries of the central government which approve its plans, appoint its directors and dictate its policies.

As a result of this overgrowth of the responsibilities of the central government the government machinery has also become huge in size. But this growth was neither accompanied by development in administration nor increase in efficiency, in fact there is evident proof that the performance of the government has dropped.

### III- Examples of big projects, how they get planned and implemented :

It may be appropriate here to indicate some of the aspects of the control and domination of the state over the affairs of cities, and give some examples of such domination.

First : The central government appoints public servants in the cities, such as the governor, the heads of city councils and district councils, the secretaries general of governorates and the heads of the various sectors in the governorates such as education ,health, agriculture, housing, social affairs, wakfs ( charity endowments) and security. Naturally the inhabitants of the cities have no choice but to accept such appointments which are often haphazardly done with no reason, logic or justification. Furthermore there is no coordination between these sectors or departments or their heads.<sup>60</sup> As the president appoints, transfers and fires the governors and the ministry of local administration appoints, promotes, transfers or fires the head of city councils,

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<sup>60</sup> Ibid, Rageh

district councils, and secretaries general of governorates. Meanwhile each ministry appoints the head of the department or sector in the governorate who is to be affiliated to it. For example the ministry of health would appoint the director of the directorate of health, while the ministry of education would appoint the director of the directorate of education and the ministry of housing would appoint the director of the directorate of housing in the governorate. In most cases this appointment follows the hierarchy which an employee follows in his promotions until if he is lucky enough he would be a first under secretary of the Ministry for which he works. As a result such high officials and public servants find themselves serving two masters, the Minister of the Ministry where he works and the governor with whom he works. In many cases a governor would ask the Minister to replace the head of a department in their governorates if he can not smoothly work with him. Furthermore there are no declared criteria for the choice or appointment of governors and sometimes professional loyalties affect such choice as will be verified in local case studies.

Second: The city is usually made in charge of routine day to day management of work. But large projects in the cities are usually carried out by the central ministries with no significant participation or cooperation from the cities, in spite of the fact that such projects affect not only the present but the future of these cities as well. In the Cairo governorate for example: The underground metro net work and the telephone net work each carried out by the Ministry of Transport and Communication. The power stations and the electricity net works are carried out by the Ministry of Electricity. The ring road project is planned, and executed by the Ministry of Housing and Urbanization, the water purification stations, the net work of pipes, the sewage stations are executed by the Ministry of Housing and Urbanization. The Opera house, the civilization museum, and the International Conference center are the responsibility of the Ministry of Culture. The development of historical areas and the maintenance of monuments is the responsibility of the Antiquities Authority and the development and construction of Kasr Al Einy hospital is carried out by the Ministry of Higher Education.

All such major projects are planned, designed and executed by the ministries concerned. While financing usually comes from the state treasury or from foreign loans or both. In most cases such projects take the form of a law by presenting it to the

Peoples' Assembly for approval so that there would not be the slightest chance of objecting to them or to their designs.

Third : The law of Urban planning No.3 issued in 1982 provides that each governorate would be responsible for the planning of its cities. However this very same law allows the central government to provide aid, if necessary, to the local administration to plan the cities. Five years after the enactment of this law not one city was allowed to plan for itself, or even to participate with the central government in its own urban planning. The ministry of housing and urbanization still carries out all those responsibilities on behalf of the Egyptian cities.

It is worthy of mention here that in the early seventies the General Department for Urban Planning for the Cairo governorate, which was a major part of the set up of the governorates machinery was given the name of the Authority of Planning of Greater Cairo. Hence it also became responsible for planning the city of Giza in Giza governorate, and the city of Shubra El Kheima in Qalubeya governorate, on the ground that these parts are, from the planning point of view, integrated with the city of Cairo. This new planning authority was no longer part of the structure of the governorate's machinery but became directly affiliated to the cabinet. In the mid seventies this planning authority became affiliated to the Ministry of Urbanization and its name was again changed to be the General Organization for Urban Planning. It would have been only normal for this authority which has now become part of the central government to be in charge of both national and regional planning, laying down the rates and patterns for city plans. Such planning could have also been accompanied by a restructuring of a new planning department in the Cairo governorate to be responsible for drawing its master plan and the strategy for its urban development. In fact each governorate should have set up a similar department within its structure. For it is extremely difficult for one organization to lay down the urban plans for all the cities, towns and villages of the country. No such authority exists anywhere else in the world except perhaps in some small states where the population does not exceed a few millions.<sup>61</sup>

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<sup>61</sup> Ibid, Rageh



Fourth : The present legislations and laws allow the ministers to directly interfere in the affairs of the governorates . Some of the flagrant examples may be cited here. The law grants the Minister of housing the full right to determine the areas within the city zones where the heights of buildings may exceed those set in the building regulations. The Minister of Housing has accordingly issued a ministerial decree considering the area on the Nile Corniche north of Abu El-Ela bridge as an area of high rise buildings, that is the height of such buildings could exceed the ten floors defined and limited by the building regulations as the maximum height. In fact all those high rising buildings in Cairo and Alexandria have exceeded the maximum height by virtue of ministerial decrees issued by the Minister of Housing. There is no doubt, however, that the height of a building is neither a political issue nor one that is related to the sovereignty of the state, thus requiring the approval of the central government. But it is essentially a matter related to population density, the policies of land use, building regulations in the area, the traffic, the efficiency and capacity of public utilities, the infra-structure and the general urban plan of the city. All such aspects are by virtue of their nature the sole responsibility of the city or so they ought to be. Again the law allows the Minister of Irrigation the right to supervise and control the Nile banks outside an inside cities. Consequently means of using these banks and the type of use or type of buildings to be built on these banks as well as their protection is the responsibility of the Ministry of Irrigation.

#### **5-4-4 Demographic and Socio-Economic Characteristics.**

A lot of demographic and socio-economic changes have taken place in Egypt since the 1952 Revolution, these changes include :

- As a result of the relatively high birth rate and the steady decline of the death rate due the increase in medical service , Egypt's population has increased from 18 million in 1947 to 56 million in 1990. This is a main concern of planning for future in view of the lack of land and resources.
- The revolution's radical change of economy from an agricultural one to a mixed one caused shift in employment patterns. A decrease in the percent of Egyptians employed in agriculture and an increase in those employed in industries and services.

- The previous change together with the fact that most industries and services are located in urban areas caused the escalating net migration from rural to urban areas. The percent of urban population to the whole Egyptian population increased from 24% in 1960 to 43.8% in 1976 to 43.9% in 1986. Urban expansion of almost all Egyptian cities is problematic because almost all cities are surrounded by agricultural areas, thus the expansion would be at the expense of such important resources. And as such a change of use from agricultural to urban uses is illegal, most expansion Egyptian cities is illegal or informal.

- It must also be observed that the share of greater Cairo Region in urban population is about 10% of the nation's population in 1986, which is a very high percent.

Another demographic characteristic is the high percent of young persons under the age of 12 constituting 32% of the population in 1976 and 39% in 1986. This structure of population means that we have to plan for such a young population; schools, universities and houses for future family.<sup>62</sup> For further information see appendix D. It is important to note that while the cities of the US and the U.K cities are losing population to rural or suburban areas Egyptian cities are attracting more population and even encompassing rural areas within urban areas.

On the other hand, the CBD of the US & the UK and also of Egypt is suffering of problems of congestion, unused buildings and vacant land or buildings. That is the inner city needs regeneration although to a less extent in Egypt than in the US & the UK.

#### **5-4-5 NGO's**

NGO's have existed in Egypt for many years mainly as a Charitable societies. The law organizing the creation of NGO's in Egypt is law no.32 for 1964. It cites 13 activity for such organizations, mainly social services, family planning, cultural and religious services.

##### **I- NGO's 1964-1991:**

One of the main features of NGO's at that period is their being a creation of the government more than a grouping of people that have common interests. Their

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<sup>62</sup> Census of 1976, 1986, 1990

programmes and objectives were defined under the guidance of the Ministry of Social affairs. They depended mostly on the ministry's subsidy, even the board of directors of most of such NGO's were civil servants or ex- civil servants. During this period most of their activities were directed towards family planning, charity and religious activities. One of the aspects of this period and since the 70's is the high percent of Islamic religious NGO's . In 1991, there were 11313 NGO's in Egypt of which 2996 are Islamic religious societies.

#### II- NGO's since 1991:

One of the main changes in the last 5 years is the change in the government's attitude towards such organization caused mainly by the government's change of ideology towards market economy and economic reform policies. Such policies had their effect on unemployment, price of goods and inflation. Thus, the government started to view such organizations as means of reducing the effects of its policy as well as, reducing its burden.<sup>63</sup>

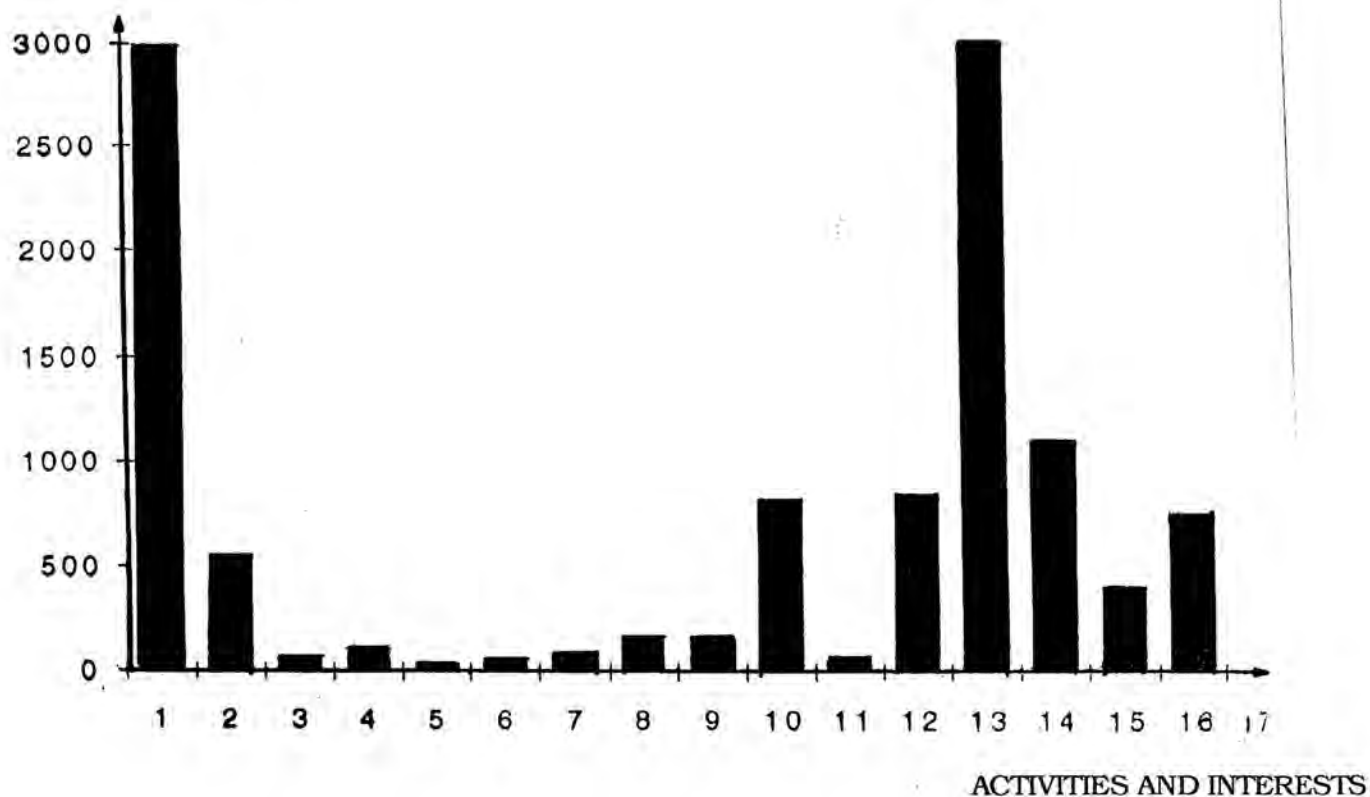
Thus it gave special advantages to NGO's working in socio-economic activities and have established in 1991. The Social Development Fund that to grants and loans to small projects or to NGO's as a facilitators between the fund and the special intended groups or citizens or system of productive families. The law was also changed so that no public officer could also be working in such organization. NGO's working in the field of urban development and environmental protection are still few in Egypt.<sup>64</sup>

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<sup>63</sup> Kandeel, Amani, 1994, Non-governmental organization working in Egypt, p. 500-600

<sup>64</sup> Ibid, Kandeel, pp. 500-600

NO.OF ORGANIZATIONS



1-Islamic  
 2-Christian  
 3-Minorities  
 4-Women activities  
 5-Business men  
 6-Graduates  
 7-Crafts men  
 8-Professional

9- Clubs  
 10-Regional  
 11-Students  
 12-Trust funds  
 13-Development  
 14-Charity  
 15-Cultural  
 16-Others

Fig (5-9 ) NGO's working in Egypt

Source: Khandeel, Amani, 1994 NGO's-working in Egypt



#### 5-4-6 Present legislative structure/ laws and regulations:

The core of the legislative problem in the urban development and land use lies mainly in the preparation of laws and legislations. In the forties all legislations were referred to the department of legislation at the Ministry of Justice. Then they would be submitted to the legislative consultative committee at the same Ministry for examination, then to the committee of state law for revision from the drafting point of view, then to the cabinet and finally to the parliament.

However, after 1945 this task was carried out by the legislation section at the state council until this section was canceled in 1955 and its function were carried out by the committee of "Fatwa" (legal opinions) and legislation. Then this section was re-established once more in 1969. As the parliament was suspended from 1952-1957 and due to the need for revolutionary reform laws were enacted in haste at the expense of objectivity.

Since 1960, an impressive body of laws, decrees and regulations has been enacted covering every aspect of urban development from master planning and land subdivision to building codes and standards of infrastructure.

The study gives a brief summary of laws affecting urban intervention.<sup>65</sup>

At the present, building, planning and land use are regulated by a series of laws the objective of which is to ensure adequate minimum standards of health, sanitation, and safety by reinforcing proper land use. These laws have been also used in directing renewal activities, and development of new areas.

The first building restriction law in Egypt was enacted in the year 1881, enabling local authorities to enforce building acts and lines with a view to developing and widening local streets so as to ensure the civic value of the cities. This building restriction regulation was replaced in 1889 by another regulation with minor changes. Since then, and due to the lack of proper technical control the Egyptian towns expanded without any regulations and so land uses and activities became mingled. This led to the enactment of law No. 52 for 1940 which is mainly concerned with the subdivision of land for building purposes, so as to ensure the proper development

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<sup>65</sup> For more detailed information on laws and regulation dealing with planning refer to Master thesis of Ayman Hashim, Faculty of regional and urban planning, Cairo University 1995.

and to regulate the expansion of cities. The law requires that any subdivision of land within the city boundaries should be approved by the local authorities before implementation. It also fixes the width and proper design of the extensional road. It also requires developers to provide proper utilities at their own expenses. This law was accompanied by another law No.51 for 1940 dealing mainly with building regulations. It regulated building densities along with the percentage of built-up area within a site, heights and design of buildings. It regularized methods of approvals and determined penalties when regulations are ignored. This law has been changed several times the last of which is law 106 for 1976.

Other laws relevant to planning are :

- Law No. 28 for 1947 concerning industrial buildings which enables local authorities to locate industrial areas within the cities and outside the boundaries, and to prohibit the establishment of industry in certain areas.
- Law No. 206 for 1951 concerning public housing, encouraging public, non profitable, and private organizations to carry out public housing with different types of governmental assistance.
- Law No. 577 for 1954 concerning property acquisition for public improvement giving power to public authorities for the compulsory purchase of land and building for the purpose of redeveloping widening streets, or the provision of open spaces.
- Law No. 222 for 1955 concerning betterment tax assessment.
- Law No.17 for 1956 concerning slum clearance and development, which enables local authorities to acquire slum districts for clearance and redevelopment and provides for the payment of compensations to the owners, either in cash or in kind sharing the profits gained from redevelopment.
- Law No 372 for 1952 concerning standards of public establishments.
- Law No. 45 for 1962 concerning building restrictions which provides local authorities with facilities for urban renewal and power to impose planning restrictions for zoning, densities.
- Law No 5 for 1966 concerning cemeteries their zoning and establishment.
- Law No. 29 for 1966 concerning illegal subdivision.

- Law No. 53 for 1966 which is the basic agricultural law was amended by law no. 116 for 1983 banning any kind of construction on agricultural land, and the construction of red brick factories. This law also determines penalties for violating the law..
- Law No. 59 for 1979 concerning new urban communities, indicating that the General Organization for New Communities is responsible for the preparation and supervision of the implementation of these new communities, along with other regulations.
- Law No.3 for 1982 concerning physical planning ,indicating that the General Organization for Physical Planning, with the contribution of the various local bodies are responsible for the replanning of existing settlements and supervision of planning implementation. The law also amends many previous building regulation laws. (This law is only partly implemented for no clear reason especially in the field of building regulations).
- Law No. 106 for 1976 concerning the control and regulation of building activities, indicating responsibilities of engineers, insurance on building procedures and expenses, and defining penalties and exemption of the law. This law canceled law No.45 for 1962 and No.55 for 1964 . This law was amended several times, partly by law No.3 for 1982, law No.30 for 1983, law No.25 for 1992. the latest of these amendments is law No. 101 for 1996.

#### I- Procedures for preparing a Master plan for an Egyptian city:

The Ministry of housing and new communities is entrusted with revising policies regarding the physical planning and construction field proposing the necessary laws to implement such policies. It also supervises the implementation of those policies through the Minister, the under-secretaries, the relevant specialized administration and several general institutions and organizations. Among the most important organizations which deal with city planning are The General Organization for Physical Planning and the General Organization for New Communities.

- The General Organization for Physical Planning (GOPP) is responsible (According to law No.3 for 1982) for preparing both the structural plan and Master plans of existing cities, while the local governments are responsible for preparing the detailed plans and action areas. In case of the inability of local governments to prepare

the detailed plans, the (GOPP) should ask help of consultant offices. Local governments are also responsible for the implementation of these plans, and programmes

The General Organization for New Communities is responsible (According to Law No. 59 of 1979) for preparing the structural plan which is basically a socio-economic plan, the master plan along with the detailed plan of new cities and may employ a consultant office if needed.

#### II- Procedure of designating an urban boundary (Haiez) for a city/ village

Law No.3 of 1982 defines the urban boundary (Haiez) as a specific area to be planned by a local administrative unit. But as such units do not have the experts to do so, they may seek the help of municipale planning departments or the General Organization for Physical Planning (GOPP) . After preparation the popular council is to approve such project of urban border , then it is submitted to the National Committe of Urban Border (Haiez) to approve its, then it is sen to the National Authority for Water and Sewage (specially for villages) so that it may calculate the future needs of urban areas to be serviced. Problems of designating urban boundary (Haiez) will be illustrated in the case study of Zagazig.

#### 5-4-7 Fiscal considerations:

The lack of funds for both capital investments and operating expenditures beyond minimal levels led to the accelerated deterioration of the physical plan and the reduction of the economic life of investments.

National pricing policies based on social considerations, set tariffs, charges and fees without reference to production and operating costs made the revenue raised are insufficient for adequate operation, let alone maintenance.

Fiscal practices putting a premium on minimising immediate outley resulted in over extended infrastructure distribution networks and facilities, operating at levels two to four times above the designed capacity. The rate of increase in the cost of land in urban areas and construction is quickly eroding any hope of broadening affordability through lower standards, better cost recovery and under "low-cost" technology.

Dual levels of service ( premium and popular) are not always a technically feasible alternative and hardly a socially acceptable approach. That is a kind of impact fees, for development in new areas or suburbs that need new infrastructure networks.



From the view point of fiscal management the problem is not competition for scarce resources but is operational practices relying on subsidies and gaps between expenditure and revenue.

#### I - Taxation in Egypt:

Tax consequences is one of the important elements of investment. For profit generated by a project is primarily a function of three factors - cash flow, tax consequences and leverage.

Tax consequence pertain to , how much of the cash flow generated by a project could be shielded from taxation, to what extent can paper losses or real losses be passed on to investors to shield their other sources of income ,and upon sale how much of any profit genrated by sale could be protected from tax.

A study about taxation and investment in Egypt, noted that the main kinds of taxes in Egypt are: unified tax (capital gain tax) or companies profit tax, transaction taxes that include inheritance tax, customs duties, tax on sales and stamp duties along with property tax. In comparing the tax percent to per capita of GNP it was found to be 23.2% a relatively high percent compared to other countries.

The study recommended that special tax incentives be given to special areas where the government wants to increase development, or to special activities that the government wants to encourage. The rate of tax on capital gains is calculated by calculating the amount liable to taxation and according to different categories the percent of tax escalates as income the category increases.

It is important to note that Egypt has had incentive tax consequences policies for 20 years since the establishment of the new towns, for development and industries locating in such new towns had a 10 year tax exemption. New forms of custom tax exemptions include special row materials or special equipments imported from abroad . Although such tools have existed for 15 years no evaluation of their equity and efficiency impact have been undertaken. Taxes are introduced and stopped without evaluation studies. For example tax on vacant land existed for more than 10 years before it was declared unconsitutional . Tax on inheritance has been stopped after many years of application. It is important to note that taxes are supposed to be self assessed at least in their initial application. Public revenue assessors almost always make assessment on how much the tax payer gained,based on a set of highly specific individual assessment decisions , on a case by case principle and judgment. Such

multi system of self assessment and revenue officer assessment causes delay in payment, corruptions and law suits, also makes tax incentives unpopular to use by government officers at localities, and unaccepted by developers because they are cumbersome and their assessment may be unpredicted.

**Chapter 6 :**

**The strategy of the field study**

### **Introduction :**

As the study aims at clarifying actors in the urban intervention, the strategy if any which they follow and the mechanism of doing it, the study first attempts to distinguish actors in the urban land use, They include private owners of land and buildings, private developers, officials in local government, officials in the central government, politicians, interest groups and NGO's, judicial and legal bodies along with professional experts and opinion leaders.

The study attempts to cover as much of such actors as possible and the field study was aimed at officials in the appropriate ministries, municipalities or company (Nasr City) which carry out the urban land use control policies, and strategies and follow mechanisms to do so, in an attempt to provide information on the capabilities of personnel in terms of their existing background their expertise, and their attitudes towards their jobs, and to discover irregularities and disorders in urban land use control and intervention networks so as to propose means of making intervention more effective.

In the field study we also interviewed private developers and from a previous study we examined the opinion of professional experts. The study also uses documents and other publications to clarify the roles of such actors as the central government officials NGO's and the regional planning centers.

In this chapter we shall be dealing with the most pertinent details of the researcher's endeavours to prepare for the case study conducted in both Zagazig city and Nasr city.

### **6-1 - Field visits :**

The researcher conducted several field visits to Giza and Cairo governorate municipalities in an attempt to carry out the applied study there. However the researcher soon found out that these two governorates represent a special case as they constitute the capital and greater Cairo region, inhabited according to the Central Authority for Mobilization and Statistics by 16 million people<sup>1</sup>. That is, almost one quarter of the total population of Egypt along with their special managerial, fiscal and urban uniqueness. Hence the problems of intervention in urbanization shall definitely

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<sup>1</sup> Egyptian Bureau of Census, Yearly Book, 1995



be more complex, for most government departments and services are concentrated in those two governorates. Moreover their administrative status is also different. Therefore the pattern in these two governorates is unique and thus they could not be a true example of other cities or capitals of governorates.

Furthermore the hypothesis of the study is that applications of interventions in urban land use would be easier and simpler in large cities ( with a population of 150,000 and above)<sup>2</sup> the researcher thus began considering conducting the research in large cities other than greater Cairo, discussing the issue with professors in the faculty of Urban Planning and the National Centre for Social and Criminological Research the researcher decided to choose the city of Zagazig and Nasr City to be the geographical (scope) of the field study.

## **6-2- The selected areas of the study**

### **6-2-1 Zagazig city**

The city of Zagazig was chosen for the following reasons :

a- It is an important pole East of Delta , with a traditional administration:

The city of Zagazig was founded in the early thirties of the 19th century when canals, dams and barrages were being constructed and urbanization was rife. The city grew with no pre-plans, due to its distinguished location, for it started as an affiliated town to the city of “kenayat” then it became an independant city.

Zagazig is the captial of Sharkeya governorate, hence its administration is similar to that of the urban Egypt. With a governorate, city, town district and Sheiyakhats . The city of Zagazig is divided into two districts. The first includes seven sheiyakhats, while the second includes nine, it also includes the adjacent villages. Zagazig also has a housing and utilities directorate ( now a housing department and a utility authority since June 1996) as well as, directorates for health, education.... etc. Which means representatives of the central government in the fields of services and utilities.

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<sup>2</sup> Faculty of Urban and Regional planning, 1990-1991, Salient features of Egyptian cities until year 2000

b- It is a large city:

The population of Zagazig according to the 1986 census is (245 thousand) It is of cities categories (150-300 thousand). Thus a relatively large city according to both international and local standards.

c- It encompass a growth pole:

The Zagazig University as a distinguished service was set up in the early seventies, and undoubtedly had its impact on the demographic structure, the urban development, the distribution of services, the land use in the city, the prices of land, the trends of growth and the direction of those trends.

d- The city has large areas of direct misused and agricultural pockets:

As a result of the large "cordon" of the city it has large areas of vacant lands and agricultural pockets a matter which encouraged urban growth at earlier stages and the creation of vacant & derlict land within the urban block. Most of these vacant lands are agricultural lands that are almost integrated in the "cordon" of other villages, or villages that have become towns, the cordons of which have actually became developed to urban uses even before such villages or towns aquired an administrative role or an urban status.

e- It has a Master Plan study ; that was not enforced:

Zagazig was one of the first cities to have a Master Plan in the last quarter of this century (1974). Thus, it has acquired a Master Plan for more than 20 years even before the urban planning law of 1981 was enacted . During this time the city witnessed sufficient changes to allow for a comparison between the present status and the original plan. Moreover, another urban plan for the city's cordon has been prepared in 1993. Hence it exhibits several attempts or frameworks of urban intervention.

f- Its executive actors have experienced several mechanisms for urban intervention:

There are many cities in Sharkeya governorate for which an urban plan has been prepared. Consequently, the planning department is well aware of the problems and advantages of having an urban plan. Moreover, one of the new cities was also founded in Sharkeya governorate, namely the city of the Tenth of Ramadan, where there are various methods of urban control and of intervention (tax exemptions and advantages, land at cost price, special terms and conditions for certain regions...etc).Furthermore there is also the Cairo Belbis highway with a toll as an

example of privatization in the field of infra-structure . Therefore executives are well aware of these mechanisms of controlling urbanization and how to deal with the private sector even if they have not worked in these regions or directly worked with the private sector.

g- The city of Zagazig is the birth place of the researcher:

As Zagazig is my birth place I have first hand information as to how it developed and I did observe these developments over the years. Moreover it was easier for me to contact both the civil servants, the executive actors and the private sector.

h- The professor supervising the research Dr. Taher El Sadek was one of the original planners of the 1973 Master plan of the city of Zagazig:

Therefore he has full knowledge of the city, its urban plans and its problems hence he was able to direct and guide the researcher.

### **6-3- Choice of the Executive Actors in Zagazig:**

6-3-1- Actors in the public sector: As the structure of management of urban areas in Zagazig follow a hierarchy structure of organization, the actors were selected to represent all the executives in the departments in charge of planning ,management or execution. Hence the heads of the following departments were interviewed.

- The head of the planning department at Sharkeya governorate and his deputy
- The head of the Housing department at Sharkeya governorate
- The head of the technical bureau of the Housing department
- The head of the engineering department at the directorate
- The heads of the planning departments of the two districts of the city
- The members of the technical staff at the department of planning and at the two districts.see fig (6-1) , (6-2)

6-3-2- The social characteristics of the public actors in Zagazig

1-Educational qualifications :

Data collected from this study indicated that 82% of the executive actors hold a university degree and the technicians hold an intermediate diploma in the field of architecture or industry. It is worthy of mention that not all engineers are architects or civil but some are mechanical or other branches of engineering.

## 2-Experience :

The data collected for this study indicated that all the executive actors have at least fifteen years of experience, thus they are quite knowledgeable in the field of intervention in urbanization . Moreover, most of them have acquired part of their experience in civil engineering in Arab Countries such as Saudi Arabia. Their experience in Egypt with regard to planning is restricted to procedures for obtaining building licences, see table (6-1 ).

## 3-Present job :

The executive actors usually hold jobs in the departments of planning and urban management (Tanzim). Therefore the heads of these departments as well as two or three members of the staff were selected and interviewed.

The data indicated that 80% of the actors are administrative personnel of the local government while 20% are the administrative personnel of the Ministry of Housing. It is worthy of mention that this situation created a conflict in responsibility and accountability. For the Ministry of Housing is responsible for the technical aspects while the Ministry of Housing or the local government have responsibility for the administrative aspects.

## 4-Previous job ( if any):

The data indicated that most of the actors have worked in the same field in other cities of the same governorate or in other near by governorates and have been transferred to the city of Zagazig. Therefore, they have a long experience in similar jobs and situations .

## 5-Means of obtaining the present post:

Data indicated that 47.1% of the executive actors were appointed for their jobs and did not voluntarily choose them (for in the sixties and early seventies engineers and architects were obliged to work for the government).

Moreover 41.1% were appointed through the system of application for jobs through the Ministry of Manpower. Hence, those too did not choose their jobs nor the departments where they now work. Only the remaining 11.8% were appointed by means of a contest or competition which is now the new method applied by the government in the appointment of its employees , see table ( 6-5).



#### 6-Perceived job description :

The study sought to find out to what extent are the actors aware of the importance of their jobs. The researcher believed that the director of the department of urban planning at the level of the governorate was responsible for laying down general plans for the city and determining the priority of projects, along with those actors employed in the departments of planning at the district who were supposed to determine the priorities of projects, or to demand a demarkation line, or to expropriate property within the framework of a well known plan. However most of them have summed the description of their jobs by describing a days work, that is, they described their job as being responsible for the procedures of obtaining licences and the enforcement of the law of building, which if neglected would make them accountable.

#### 7- Work Satisfaction:

Dissatisfaction with work was expected as most of those interviewed filled jobs that are not suitable to their qualification . However 88% of the actors interviewed in the city of Zagazig were satisfied with their jobs 86.6% of them were satisfied because the work was suitable to their educational qualifications. This satisfaction may also be due to the fact that they got used to this routine work , see table (6-6).

### **6-4 Nasr City as a land development suburb of Cairo:**

Nasr City was chosen for the following reasons :

#### a- It is a planned suburb:

Nasr city is one of the first urban development projects of the 1952 Revolution. It was planned as an extention of the capital ,and a suburb extension in the desert. The master plan was prepared in 1959 providing the city, or rather the suburb, with planned land uses, as it was divided into zones and neibourhoods, and it did benefit of several special regulations.

#### b- It has a modern administration:

At the time of its foundation, Nasr city was governed by Nasr city company for housing and development which was one of the companies constituting the General Egyptian Authority for Housing and Development. The management and ownership of this company witnessed several changes from a completely public to semi- public company, until it was sold as a private sector company in 1996.

c- It could be compared to a large city (150,000 - 300,000 inhabitants)

According to the 1986 census the population of Nasr city is 180,000 although it is only a suburb of the city of Cairo

d- It has an experience of development under special regulations:

Nasr city's plan of development was achieved in accordance with special regulations and land determinates. When the development of the city first started the government attempted to copy the previous experience of Heliopolis, another suburb of Cairo. Hence following up the development allows for a comparison of the plan to the actual condition. Moreover measures of the levels of control, the rate of deterioration and their causes may be examined.

e- It has a privatization experience :

The Nasr City company has been privitized and hence it has experienced several administrative structures: a public sector company, a business sector company, and then finally a private sector company. That raises several questions about the changes undertaken by each administrative structure in the control system and measures and how the actors perceive these changes in the administrative structure and their roles.

It is important to note that the above differences were intended in the two chosen areas of the case study to explain the relationship between the approach, the mechanisms and the actors in different situations within Egypt.

## **6-5 Choice of Actors in Nasr city :**

**6-5-1 Actors in Nasr company:** As Nasr city company as an organization follow the divisionalized structure of organization, the actors were selected to represent all executive actors in different branches , departments and division , of the company and at different levels.

As Nasr company hierarchy chart is divided into two main branches, technical branch and real estate and fiscal branch hence the following actors were interviewed:

1- Vice President and head of technical sector

1-a Head of planning and design of project division and three managers of departments under his supervision.

- Head of department of designing of infrastructure projects.

- Head of department of designing housing projects.

- Head of department of urban planning projects.
- 1-b Head of implementation and construction of building division, and one of the managers of departments .
  - Head of department of construction.
- 1-c Head of urban development division and two managers of departments under his supervision
  - Head of department of surveying and gardens
  - Head of department of roads and infrastructure network.
- 2- The second sector in the company is the Real estate and Fiscal and administrative sector. Vice President and head of real estate development and administrative and Fiscal aspect was interviewed.
  - 2-a Head of Fiscal division and one of the managers of a department under his supervision
    - Head of department of customers accounts.
  - 2-b Head of real estate development division and two of the department managers
    - Head of sales of land department
    - Head of sales and rent of apartment department

Under the direct supervision of the Chairman of the company is the legal department and the security department a representative of each was chosen and interviewed. See fig ( 6-3)

### **6-5-2 The social characteristics of actors in Nasr city**

#### **6-5-2-1 Educational qualifications:**

Data collected for this study indicated that 100% of the executive actors interviewed hold a university degree (as no technicians were interviewed) It is worthy of mention that not all interviewed were engineers for 50% of those interviewed had non-engineering education probably due to the company's division into two branches technical and fiscal , see table (6-2), ( 6-3).

#### **6-5-2-2 Experience:**

Data collected through interviews indicated that all executive actors have at least 15 years experience and that 80% had more than 20 years. Also important to note is that the experience of most of those interviewed was in Nasr city or other land development companies such as Maadi, Shams, Al Mamoura....etc.

- present job:

Head of sector and heads of departments were interviewed and asked to select a member of staff in their department to be interviewed.

- means of obtaining the present post :

Data indicated that 33% were appointed to their job by governmental decree and about 38% (60-70 engineers were appointed to jobs) as a result of a contest and 16% by the man power department , see table ( 6-5).

- perceived job discription :

Interviewees discribed there jobs in broad terms giving more attention to give a better image of Nasr city as a whole, it was apparent that they had a feeling of commitment to the company and to the city.

- work satisfaction :

Although means of appointment to jobs was not mainly volunterly but kind of imposed from the government or the manpower department, yet 88% of the actors were satisfied with their job. Those who were not satisfied stated that this was mainly due to the quantity of work or that the work is demanding , see table (6-6).

## **6-6 Tools of the study**

The researcher used the following tools

a-The official statistics of the two cities as of the mid sixties.

b-The official reports of the following : I) General Organization for Physical Planning GOPP . II) Nasr City Company. III) Master degree thesis . IV) The salient features of Egyptian cities to the year 2000. V) Publications on NGO's working in Egypt and Sharkia.

c-Official Maps

d-Photos

e-Planned observation

f-Focussed Interviews with public executive officials which covered the following :

I- Preliminary information about the executive officials of the city or company

II- The present job of each actor

- The department in which he works and the previous work, if any.



- Way of appointment to the job
  - The nature of the job, and job description
  - Degree of work satisfaction.
- III- The relation between his sector or his department and the ministry or other departments.
- IV- The opinion of the actors regarding what they consider to be the most acute problem of urbanization in the city.
- V- The opinion of the actors regarding what they consider the best means of urban control
- VI- The most important means of urban control that(a) they know(b) they use.
- VII- The types of common urban violations.
- VIII- The violations that may be reconciled with .
- VX - How best means to deal with violators
- X - The most salient exceptions that may be included in the law
- IX - How to deal with land spaces
- IIIX- How to encourage the private sector to participate in service projects.

### **6-7 Difficulties faced by the study**

The study had planned to use a handed out questionnaire to the different actors. But this plan faced the following problems :

6-7-1- The actors were not interested to fill the questionnaire. As the researcher handed them to the actors in the above mentioned departments and had to pass by their departments several times to pick up the completed questionnaire. But very few had been filled out.

6-7-2- Many of the actors were not regularly in their offices. Hence the researcher had to visit these departments several times although she always planned her field visits on mid week days, Mondays, Tuesdays and Wednesdays.

6-7-3- Most of the actors (staff) were hesitant in their responses, for the respondents feel that the information they give may be used against them, or that the questions are a violation of their privacy, inspite of the fact that the researcher overtly and repeatedly assured them that there would be no legal repercussion for their responses and that their answers and the information

they give are strictly confidential. Some of those interviewed also feared that their responses may reveal the deficiency in their knowledge or the low standard of their educational qualifications.

6-7-4- Some of those interviewed did not fill some items in the questionnaire either because they do not understand the question or because they are not qualified to do so.

6-7-5- Some of the respondents were not convinced as to the value or importance of the study and that it is worth their time to fill the questionnaire.

6-7-6- Sometimes the respondents did not understand the questions hence the researcher had to paraphrase and explain them.

All these obstacles convinced the researcher that she should depend as much as possible, on in-depth interviews and personal observations. Moreover, some of these direct interviews raised certain issues that enriched the study. In these direct interviews the researcher had at times to state the question several times in different ways to get the answer.

Other difficulties faced by the researcher was difficulty in updating the information, data and maps. When officials were asked about certain information and data that should be available in the different departments it was found out that they do not have it, or that the departments have it but were not allowed to give it out to non-employees in these departments.

### **6-8 Time of the field study :**

The field study was conducted at a single point in time. By that we do not mean that every respondent or actor was interviewed at exactly the same instant. We simply mean that data collection was completed in as short a time as possible , the time being July ,August & Septamber 1996 for Zagazig and December for Nasr city. The days being Monday, Tuesday and Wednesday ( days with high official attendance).

The reason why the field study lasted for 3 months in Zagzig and one month in Nasr city are the following:

- Appointments with officials for the interviews (especially high ranks) were difficult in Zagazig and also in Nasr city company.
- The enactment of building act No 101 for 1996 during the period covered by the study was an interesting point in the interview with officials. The opinions of the officials regarding this act were expressed, and many officials were interviewed before then again after the enactment of the law.
- Also during this period the procedure of privatization and selling the shares of Nasr company was taking place . So the researcher had to wait until things settled down after complete privatization and to meet the newest administrative bodies, and to know about the latest company laws, and challenges.

Table No :(6-1)

<b>Years of experience</b>	<b>Zagazig %</b>	<b>Nasr City %</b>
5-10 years	5.8	--
10-15 years	23.5	--
15-20 years	11.7	11.1
more than 20 years	58.8	88.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>

Table No :(6-2)

<b>Level of education</b>	<b>Zagazig %</b>	<b>Nasr City %</b>
Intermediate	17.6	--
University	82.3	100
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>

Table No : (6-3)

<b>Type of education</b>	<b>Zagazig %</b>	<b>Nasr City %</b>
Civil engineer	78.5	33.3
Architect	14.3	66.6
Applied arts engineer	7.4	--
Non-engineering education	--	50
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>

Table No :(6-4)

<b>Level of Intermediate education</b>	<b>Zagazig %</b>	<b>Nasr City %</b>
Industrial diploma	66.6	--
Architecture diploma	33.3	--
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>--</b>

Table No : (6-5)

<b>How were you appointed for this work?</b>	<b>Zagazig %</b>	<b>Nasr City%</b>
By a governmental decree	47.5	33.3
As a result of a competition	11.76	38.3
By the manpower department	41.1	16.6
Other means of appointment (submitting an application)	--	11.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>

Table No : (6-6)

<b>Are you satisfied with your work</b>	<b>Zagazig %</b>	<b>Nasr City %</b>
Yes	88	88.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>

Table No : (6-7)

<b>Why are you satisfied with your work<sup>3</sup></b>	<b>Zagazig %</b>	<b>Nasr City%</b>
The salary is good	--	93.75
Stability of work	40	66.6
Good work services	26.6	50
Suitable to my academic qualifications	86.6	81.2
Suitable to my experience	66.6	81.2
Satisfies my ambition	6.6	81.3

Table No : (6-8)

<b>Why are you not satisfied with your work<sup>4</sup></b>	<b>Zagazig %</b>	<b>Nasr City %</b>
Work is tiring	11.7	88.8
The salary is not satisfactory	58.8	11.1
The work is not suitable to my academic qualification	5.8	--

<sup>3</sup> Total not equal to 100% because interviewees were allowed to choose more than one answer

<sup>4</sup> This question was asked only to those who were unsatisfied.