Preface

The countries that are written about in this volume are sometimes referred to as the South, otherwise they are categorized as developing. In more ways than one these terms are misleading since the countries do not all lie in the south and neither are they all developing; in fact their state of development could range from fast growing to what could only be described as ravished. At the bottom end of the scale lie countries such as Zimbabwe and Sudan which have been ravished by war and internal conflict over many years. At the other end lie Singapore, Taiwan, Korea – the ‘Tigers’ of the Pacific Rim – and other newly industrialized countries (NICs). And somewhere in between lie a whole array of countries, some fast catching up with the NICs while others are losing ground and are sinking to the bottom.

Countries such as Vietnam, Malaysia and Thailand as well as awakening giants such as China and India have gained momentum in recent years, but South Africa, which in the past used to be indicated on maps as ‘developed’ has since lost some ground in several areas – manufacturing, infrastructure, municipal prudence and education. All of these countries have one thing in common; they have dichotomous economies with large parts of their populations living under or close to the breadline, while relatively small proportions are on the same level as people enjoying a high living standard in developed countries.

The 1970s can in many respects be regarded as the watershed decade of transformation for this part of the world. It was a period in which some third world countries started to excel while others started to lag behind. Up until then North America and Western Europe – the West – were the ‘first world’, and they were the undisputed leaders in manufacturing. They formed the core regions of the world while the ‘third’ (less developed) world remained firmly dependent. The latter provided the former with manufacturing material while the former sold manufactured products back to the latter – the classic colonial relationship. Essentially this was the first global division of labour.

But signs that the tide was beginning to turn had already begun to show during the latter half of the 1960s. Japan started flexing its manufacturing muscles and showed that the Far East was waking up. At the same time worker unions started posing a potential threat to the economic viability of the industrial West. Socialist inspired uprisings in France, sparked by the resistance movement against the war in Vietnam in America, spread to the rest of Europe. This radically changed the political balance in the world. The New Left brought new momentum to the socialist movement world-wide and the consequent stranglehold of labour unions on businesses, especially the labour intensive industries, changed the economic geography of the world. Workers regularly used their numbers and the potential financial losses industries could incur in stay-away action as a weapon to demand more for less (or little increase in) productivity. Pressure on profitability caused businesses to look for alternative production options, especially the Fordist sector. Mechanization was one option. The other was to move or outsource the
manufacturing of labour intensive components of production processes to regions of the world where labour was not only cheaper but also more productive. The reaction to this would eventually lead to what later became known as post-Fordism. This brought about new interest in the less developed world. Competition with the ‘second world’ for the hearts and minds of the third world caused first–third world relationships that were often typecast by the latter as neo-colonialism.

In the process a gradual change in the international division of labour occurred. Labour intensive production processes shifted from the high labour cost areas in North America and Western Europe to lower labour cost areas in the developing world, especially Central Asia and the Pacific Rim. This eventually affected the economic geography of the world – a change that would bring about the second global division of labour. The NICs reaped the benefits of this shift in fortunes while Africa and parts of South America (whose workers often repeated the mistakes of the worker unions in the West) started lagging behind. However, despite the high economic growth levels in parts of the developing world, overwhelming majorities of the people in those countries – including the NICs – are still struggling.

Devastating odds are faced. According to the World Development Report of 2009, up to a billion people still live in squalor under congested conditions in slums in the cities in the developing world and a billion more in ‘fragile lagging areas.’ With healthcare failing in many developing countries, millions are dying each year of Aids, Aids related illnesses and other contagious diseases. In 2007 alone 2.1 million people, of whom 333,000 were children, died of Aids. In 2009 an estimated 33.3 million people lived with HIV/Aids, 22.5 million (68 per cent of the world total) in Africa alone. Economically speaking the bottomspeaking billion people all live in the developing world, an overwhelming majority of those in Africa. From 2000 to 2005, cities in the low-income countries in the developing world grew on average at 3 per cent per year, middle-income countries at half that rate and high-income countries at a third.

This volume deals with some of these challenges and the policies countries in the South have to devise to overcome them. In his introduction Michael Pacione looks at urban growth patterns in the developing world. In the second part of the volume the focus is on spatial matters. Karina Landman explains different views on urban fragmentation while Alida Steyn and her co-author critically look at reasons why the compact city concept remains controversial. Jeroen Klink’s work deals with the mobility of labour and capital, and Boris Graizbord and his co-authors look at the differential urbanization phenomenon in the developing world. In the third part of the volume, in which the spotlight falls on policy issues, Vanessa Watson explains the shift in emphasis in planning towards communication, and its significance and peculiarities in the developing world. Peter Wilkinson and his co-authors look at the transformation of public transport systems, and Jelena Pantelic and her co-author look at the vulnerability of the urban poor to disasters. Staying with environmental issues Marielle Dubbeling and her co-author discuss the problems and potential of the urban agricultural sector while Sarel Cilliers and his co-authors attempt to find ways of improving on practices in urban ecology in the developing world. In the last chapter in this part of the volume Shekhar Mukherji explains the lasting impact colonial development had on some countries in the Pacific Rim. In the final part of the volume an attempt is made to see, on the one hand, what the relationships are between crea-
tivity, freedom of the individual and wellbeing, and on the other hand how a positive outcome of these relationships can be attributed to socialist oriented thinking or neoliberalism.

I want to express my appreciation to the chapter authors and co-authors for their dedication and to the staff of Edward Elgar Publishing for their professionalism during the production process. I particularly want to pay tribute to Peter Wilkinson, the lead author of the chapter on urban public transport systems in this volume. Peter passed away on 10 August 2011 in Cape Town at the age of 65. Despite failing health he worked tirelessly and courageously to make this chapter a success. He is remembered with great affection and respect by those who worked with him, particularly his co-authors and colleagues at the University of Cape Town.

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