READING THE URBAN PLANNING IN INDONESIA: A JOURNEY TOWARDS SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

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Abstract

Background: As urban population increases rapidly, urban environment has become a focus area in global agenda. Global agenda for this response has lead to the significance of sustainable development. The UN has also published several guidance on how to achieve sustainable environment. This agenda has been adopted across the world. However, such attitude appears to be problematic in the context of developing countries, including Indonesia particularly in the relationship with urban planning practice. *Methods*: This paper attempts to provide preliminary discussion of how urban planning practice in Indonesia has transformed to embrace the issue of sustainable development. It explores some readings relevant to the planning practice in contemporary context, from the post-colonial period until the recent reformation movement, using chronological interpretative approach on some available literatures on urban planning and development. *Findings*: The paper hints that the planning practice in Indonesia finds some challenges in adopting the idea of sustainable development, particularly from social sustainability point of view.

Keywords: urban planning, sustainable development, Indonesia

INTRODUCTION

The discussion about urban environment often touches upon not only development at an urban setting but also in a rural environment as well. Sometimes, the discussion presents both in different terminology like urban planning, town planning, country planning, city development or outer city and village development (e.g. Kameri-Mbote, 2004; Ward, 2004). In fact, the setting of suburbs and outer city often indicates a continuous influence to the urban centre development, for example related to the issues of urbanisation (Ward, 2004). In short, the definition of urban development often indicates that the issue of development involves urban planning for both physical and social elements, as well as development at urban and rural environment at the same time. Urban planning can take various issues and level of development into its discussion.

The development of urban environment has become a popular global critical interests since that the population of urban area had reached 50.3% of the world's total population (TheWorldBank, 2011). In response to this, urban planning practice has begun to actively promote sustainable urban planning particularly after the Second World Urban Forum in 2004 (UN-HABITAT, 2010). Following this effort, a number of guidelines has been set out to achieve better – safer and resilient – urban environment. The current development practice, however, sometimes finds some difficulties to achieve sustainable development, including in developing countries context. This paper attempts to present the transformation of planning practice both in general context and Indonesia. In the context of Indonesia, this paper summarises preliminary reading on urban planning practices from post-colonial era to the current planning practices. Using chronological interpretative approach on the literatures on urban planning and development, this paper also aims to better understand the challenge of planning practice in order to achieve sustainable development from time to time.

Urban Planning in the Global Context

The definition of urban development often indicates that the issue of development involves urban planning for both physical and

social elements, as well as development at urban and rural environment at the same time. Urban planning can take various issues and level of development into its discussion. Despite its focus on the physical environment development, urban planning discussions also concerns itself with 'future-oriented activity' and 'public sector activities' (Kameri-Mbote, 2004: 1).

The definition of planning has been influenced by the history of urban or town planning practices, particularly the revolution of the ideas of the practice. Nigel Taylor (1998) notes in detail that there have been at least three waves of urban planning since the 1920s until now. The first wave of urban planning began with a movement focusing on physical development, especially during the 1920s until 1930. This period witnessed three different, but similar, elements. 'Town planning was seen as physical planning, design is central to town planning, and town planning requires a master plan or blueprint to represent spatial configuration of land uses and urban form' (Taylor, 1998: 5). Later, this concept moved to address more social challenges in the 1950s. One example of this social movement appeared in response to the industrial working class in Britain.

The second wave presented two movements, both which occurred in the 1960s. The influence of the physical planning, from the first wave, progressed into the first movement of the second wave which saw 'planning as a system of interconnected parts'. The second movement approached planning from the 'process' point of view. Planning became a 'rational process of decision-making' (Taylor, 1998: 60). It was not surprising that this process became a part of political procedure even though many had suggested town planning practices should be distanced from politics. In response to this debate, planning started to recognise public participation.

Planning as a rational process developed into 'procedural planning theory' in the third wave around the 1970s (Taylor, 1998: 95). During this period, planning has filtered the influence of 'social democracy' into planning practices (Taylor, 1998: 131). This movement became more apparent in between the 1980s and 1990s when planning had to respond to the issues of not only economic development, but also social opportunities and inequalities (Taylor, 1998: 148).

In current practice, the discussion of urban planning involve a broad area of development. Its long history has influenced a variety of different perspectives from which urban planning and development are viewed. By using British developments as the example, Barry Cullingworth and Vincent Nadin (2006) identified the discussion on planning practices for housing and public health provisions, such as sanitation infrastructure in early 1900s, as the central key to planning for urban and rural areas. Following this, the focus of planning slightly moved towards 'zoning plan' in response to the emergence of industrial zones in 1930s. It attempted to 'control buildings and space around them' and to avoid causing the areas to deteriorate (Cullingworth and Nadin, 2006: 18).

In the 1940s, another focus area emerged in response to post-war development. After World War II, the need to develop on larger areas of land was recognised as vacant land had become more available. In this period, the development faced some issues with regard to the redevelopment of the old city. This led to the emerging of conservation movement. These examples of planning elements have remained in current practice with the addition of more elaborate details and variation. For instance, housing provision is sometimes related to the issue of social pathology or economic development for the inhabitants.

The trend slowly shows the movement from larger development into smaller planning units such as local district planning during the 1990s. Planning systems also began to include private development and public investment into its practice since the government is no longer capable of providing 'everything for everyone' (Cullingworth and Nadin, 2006: 24). This statement revolves around the notion that the way planning works is now moving from a direct method to an indirect method (Rydin, 2011: 12). Conventional planning methods would focus on the direct creation of new urban development with the government as the key actuator. Contrary to this, the indirect method attempts to increase the collaboration between public and private stakeholders. This

method will encourage the private sector to take part in the development process while the government would act more as a controlling authority.

After the 1990s, urban planning practice in general presented a new movement especially after The Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro in 1992. Although the term actually came sometimes around in 1905, 'sustainability' and 'sustainable development' begin to be more discussed on planning practice during this era (Ward, 2004: 235). The terminologies have become more popular since then but, on the other hand, the definition of sustainability often gives more attention to long-term economic competitiveness as well as environmental protection (Ward, 2004: 236). Along with this new approach, some characteristics of the previous wave of planning practice remains. Urban planning and development discussion continues its concern on, for example, delivery of public participation and opportunity for private development to take place.

The short history of urban planning practice in general has shown that urban planning is evolving. On the other hand, it also retains some of the original elements of the first practices. The urban planning and development practice is moving from a large scale development into a smaller scale development, for example, neighbourhood level. The focus has also shifted from physical development towards developments designed to tackle socially-sensitive issues. For example, the issue of social inequality and people participation in urban development are now at the forefront of the global concerns. These kinds of issues begin to influence the distribution and provision of urban development elements which are central to urban planning practices. Table 1 summarizes some elements which commonly appear in urban planning and development discussions.

Urban planning practice has begun to take sustainability into account more seriously. In fact, the United Nations (UN) through UN-HABITAT has attempted to actively promote sustainable urban planning particularly after the Second World Urban Forum in 2004 (UN-HABITAT, 2010). Some important points from this event arouse, including the potential role of public participation and consultation. Another

important achievement emerged in 2009 when the UN issued 'Global Report on Human Settlement: Planning Sustainable Cities' (UN-HABITAT, 2010). Within the report, the UN lists down ten 'Principles of New Urban Planning' which conceptually provides a general guideline for a better urban environment. This clearly indicates that the UN has increased its concern in the urban planning discussion and, particularly, its relationship with the issue of sustainable development. Table 2 summarizes ten principles on how the UN encourages urban planning practices to integrate spatial, social, economic, environment, and cultural elements of an urban environment into the development process.

Particularly in relationship with vulnerable environments, the UN adopted the Yokohama Strategy and Plan of Action for a Safer World, known as Yokohama Strategy at the World Conference on Natural Disasters. In 2005, the World Conference on Disaster Reduction took place in Kobe, Hyogo, Japan. This Hyogo conference, in particular, presented Framework of Action 2005-2015 which focus on 'Building the Resilience of Nations and Communities to Disasters'. It attempts to 'promote a strategic and systematic approach to reducing vulnerabilities and risks to hazards' (UN, 2005: 3). Under the terminology of vulnerability and hazards, the definition relates the discussion on sustainable development with some issues such as demographic, socio-economic condition, urbanization, high-risk zones, development gap, environmental degradation, climate change, geological disaster, competition over resources, as well as public health issues (UN, 2005: 3). After this conference, it is expected that the global community will experience substantial reduction of disaster losses in terms of social, economic, and environmental assets within the next ten years. To achieve this outcome, three strategic goals were adopted (UN, 2005: 5-6), as presented on Table 3.

The HFA might have provided a set of guidance for more resilient environment. However, the implementation faces some challenges. The mid-term review to the HFA presents that the implementation differs from country to country (ISDR, 2011) after five years since the framework was adopted. The

challenge also illustrates how economic and political situation as well as and institutional supports matters. In response to this, the Review suggests 'national and international institutions to integrate disaster reduction in their development, climate-change adaptation, environmental and humanitarian planning, execution and accountability frameworks in order to safeguard development gains and investments' (ISDR, 2011: 69). As a part of the recommendation, the guidance needs to consider the local 'context' to guarantee national and local level could work comprehensively.

In summary, planning theory generally distinguishes between two different types of theory. First, planning theory focuses more on the object itself, whether towns, cities or rural development. This 'substantive theory' aims to 'improve our understanding of the planning problems' (Taylor, 1998: 153). It is concerned with the elements of planning practices. It touches upon the discussion of spatial planning, land-use planning, building regulation and conservation. To simplify the discussion on this type, the term 'urban development' will be used henceforth to describe the development in either urban or rural settings, unless stated otherwise. The second theory defines the planning process as the 'procedural planning theory'. In this case, planning practices have some steps to follow in order to apply particular urban development policy. Under this type of planning, the procedure sometimes needs to address the views and opinions of different stakeholders. It also needs to consider communication with different administrative boundaries. Under this type of movement, the planning practice attempts to address the multiple interests of various development stakeholders. It involves more developmental agents as the government is no longer a sole power in control of the development and it takes more of a public and private role into account. The planning theory has implicitly progressed from mostly physical development into more social development. In other words, the current urban planning practice begins to acknowledge some social issues within society such as developmental gap and social inequality, i.e. social diversity. Particularly under the theme of sustainability, urban development has received more attention from the global community such as the United Nations. A number of guidelines has been set out to achieve better – safer and resilient – urban environment. However, the local context still plays a significant role to ensure the development provides benefit to a wider range of communities. This indicates that the current practice of planning and development acknowledges social issues, particularly those which deal with inequal and vulnerable environment.

Table 1. Common Features of Current Urban Development and Planning Practices

Phase	Features	Focus/Characteristics	Note
First wave (1920s – 1930s)	Physical design, master plan, spatial configuration, land uses, urban forms	Zoning regulation, building control	The beginning of social issues in planning
Second wave (1940s – 1960s)	System planning, rational decision making	Conservation, public health issues	The beginning of public participation
Third wave (1990s)	Procedural planning process	Guidance for public and private development, public private collaboration	The issues of inequality, social opportunities
After 1990s	Procedural planning continues	'Sustainable' development	Market driven development, economic regeneration, environment concern, policy delivery

Sources: (Taylor, 1998; Ward, 2004; Cullingworth and Nadin, 2006; Rydin, 2011)

Table 2. Principles of New Urban Planning

• Promote sustainable development	• Promote market responsiveness
• Achieve integrated planning	• Ensure access to land
• Integrate plans with budgets	• Develop appropriate planning tools
• Plan with partners and stakeholders	• Be pro-poor and inclusive
• Meet the subsidiary principles	• Recognise cultural diversity

Source: http://www.globalplannersnetwork.org/pdf/reinventingfrench07.pdf (UN-HABITAT, 2010)

Table 3. Strategic goals of the Hyogo Framework of Actions (HFA)

(a)	The more effective integration of disaster risk considerations into sustainable development policies, planning and programming at all levels, with a special emphasis on disaster prevention, mitigation, preparedness and vulnerability reduction;
(b)	The development and strengthening of institutions, mechanisms and capacities at all levels, in particular at the community level, that can systematically contribute to building resilience to hazards;
(c)	The systematic incorporation of risk reduction approaches into the design and implementation of emergency preparedness, response and recovery programmes in the reconstruction of affected communities.

Source: (UN, 2005: 5-6)

Brief History of Contemporary Urban Planning Practice in Indonesia

The practice of 'modern' urban planning and development in Indonesia, like some other major Southeast Asian cities, has been influenced by a long history of colonialisation (Silver, 2008) especially by Dutch governance. The urban environment has transformed since the initial colonisation periods. Buchanan and Cooper (2011) notes that the history of urban planning practices can be traced back to at least the 1910s when the ruling power of Dutch governance in Indonesia began to fade. During this period, some cities along the coastline faced quite a rapid population increase. As a response to this situation, the city council appointed Herman Thomas Karsten to design Semarang (currently capital city of Central Java Province). A similar approach also appeared in Surabaya (capital city of East Java Province) along the way (see Figure 1 and 2). During this phase, planning was more concentrated on the physicalities, such as the aesthetic aspect of the town. The actual town planning was a more centralistic exercise which relied on the power of the architects. In the mid 1920s, the city development began to recognise the demand for public and private development. The town planning authorities started to propose some regulation of private development.

The demand for a town planner got bigger. In 1934, a Town Planning Committee was developed in Batavia, now Jakarta (Figure 3). This idea was also captured, not long after, by the birth of a Planning School at the Institute of Engineering (in Bandung, West Java) in 1941.

After the Independence Day in 1945, planning practices in Indonesia challenged the political transformation. Government power moved from the 'European elite' to 'indigeneous urban elite' (Silver, 2008: 29). The governing system began to see the need for power distribution to the local government. During this period, planning practices faced difficulty due to lack of human resources and expertise in the area. After a long process, the government finally agreed to form a Committee for Spatial Planning Regulation in Non-Urban Area, under the Department of Civil Work and Reconstruction in 1948. This organisation became the foundation of modern urban planning practices in Indonesia. It attempted to anticipate the potential gap in the society which might occur between urban and rural environments. It dealt with, for example, land regulation and power distribution between the central and local government.

The Committee for Spatial Planning Regulation focussed mostly on post war urban reconstruction programs (Pambudi, 1998). Jakarta had an example of this in the Kebayoran area, with focus on housing, drainage, and transportation development to anticipate the migration to the Jakarta urban centre.
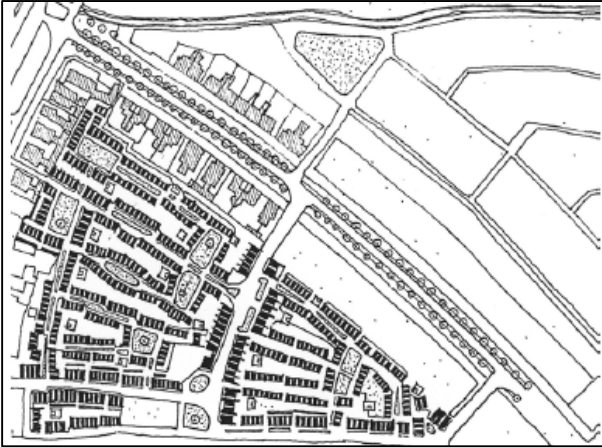
Figure 1. Example of Herman Thomas Karsten's Work
on Kleinwoningbouw Project
in Mlaten, Semarang
Source: Re-sketched from Karsten – Local Tecniek 1/2
1932 P.11 by (Ignasia, 2008: 46)

Another initial planning organisation in Indonesia was born in Yogyakarta in 1947: the Hall of Development Spatial Planning (Balai Tata Ruangan Pembangunan/BTRP) (Soefaat, 2003). In its first five years, it focused on urban environment development. In its second five year programme it began to look at some less urbanised development such as Riau and West Sumatra. The third five year policy, between 1960 to 1965, had a chance to incorporate the organisation into 'Jawatan Tata Ruang Kota dan Daerah' (Department of Urban and Regional Planning) under 'Direktorat Jenderal Cipta Karya' (The Directorat General of Human Settlement). Under this new expanded organisation, it had a larger scope of development.

During the 1960s, planning practices tended to implement partial development strategies (Akil, 2003). The development did not take sectoral development into consideration in a comprehensive way. In addition to this, the planning was focussed more on urban development. As a result, it was alleged that this created a gap between urban and rural environments in term of demographic distribution and economic development (Deni, 2003). Urban areas became a strong magnet which attracted people from rural environments.

Figure 2. Surabaya City Planning
Source: Tresling & Co. Amsterdam in (Ignasia, 2008: 35)

In the 1970s, planning practice in this period began with sectoral development, such as agriculture, transmigration, forest, land, and tourism (Deni, 2003). This approach could speed up the development, but in some ways it also failed to address multiple stakeholder's interests related to the development. In response to this, planning practices then attempted to apply wider context planning strategies up to a regional level (Akil, 2003). This was the beginning of study on regional infrastructure, economic regional development, and across administrative area coordination. At urban level, the development often focussed on clean water provision and urban settlement improvement programs (Zaris, 2003), particularly under the first Five Years

Development Plan (namely Repelita I, 1969 – 1974) development agenda. Under the Repelita II (1975 – 1979) agenda, it touched the urban development at a medium level, between neighbourhood and regional level, which focussed on some areas such as drainage and solid waste management (Zaris, 2003). Urban development touched upon beyond small-scale projects but upto city level.

In general, planning practice still belongs to the central government (Deni, 2003). The integration of various sectors relied mostly on central coordination. Although a more participative approach started to emerge at the end of this era, the application of public participation did not become fully operational.

In the 1980s, the need to have comprehensive planning across each sector and region became imperative. Although only applied to some levels, this period produced the concept of the Integrated Urban Infrastructure Development Programme ('Programme Pembangunan Prasarana dan Sarana Kota Terpadu, P3KT') (Akil, 2003). During this period, planning practices began to recognise the concept of a 'demand driven approach' development. This allowed planning to be more dynamic and participative in response to a quick development process. This era boasts the initial conception of sustainable development in Indonesia (Deni, 2003). In the mid 1980s, the Department of Civil Work initiated a scheme to share the distribution of power for development with local stakeholders. With it came the implication that local people needed to empower themselves in order to increase their capacity. In other words, local people required more knowledge and skill to handle the development. Although the development strategy had required some effort to improve the development process, it mostly focussed on physical infrastructure development such as road and housing construction which likely links to the Department of Civil Work. It still faced some difficulties in interacting with the developmental issues beyond this scope. Under the Repelita III (1979 – 1984) agenda, the development touched upon smaller scale urban and rural environments, and targeted poverty issues in particular (Zaris, 2003).

In the 1990s, planning practices in Indonesia attained a big achievement for this era with the birth of Law No. 24 (UU No. 24) in 1992 on 'Spatial Planning'. This legal support enables planning practices to provide direction on how local level planning should accommodate to central level plans, and on the contrary, how central level plans should accommodate the locals' needs (Akil, 2003). Spatial planning in this era recognised development along with some relevant issues such as social economic characteristics, natural resources, geographical characteristics, demographics, culture, and some physical features as well. This comprehensive approach manifests into spatial or physical planning documents. The law outlines the importance of the planning documents as a tool to achieve balanced development in the relationship with the natural and environmental resources used for economic development.

Along with this approach, another legal instrument manifested to support the concept of local region empowerment. The central government issued Law No. 45 (UU No. 45) in 1992, which focuses on Local Autonomy Governance. Under these two legal supports, planning practices in Indonesia entered a new era. For example, planning became legitimate equipment for alleviating poverty (Deni, 2003). It provides direction for spatial development across sectors and administrative boundaries. Under the Repelita IV agenda, the central government encouraged the local region to gain external financial support for the development beyond central funding (Zaris, 2003).

The new era of planning in Indonesia challenged a number of issues such as governance transparency, public participation, decentralisation and region autonomy, as well as human rights issues (Deni, 2003). This time, the centralistic development approach had contributed to little awareness throughout the population towards development agendas in general. In addition to this, a severe economic crisis occurred at the end of 1990s which was followed by a period of political uncertainty. In response, new legislations emerged. Law No. 22 (UU No. 22) was issued in 1999 on Region (Local) Governance. In support of that in 1999, Law No. 25 (UU No. 25) was
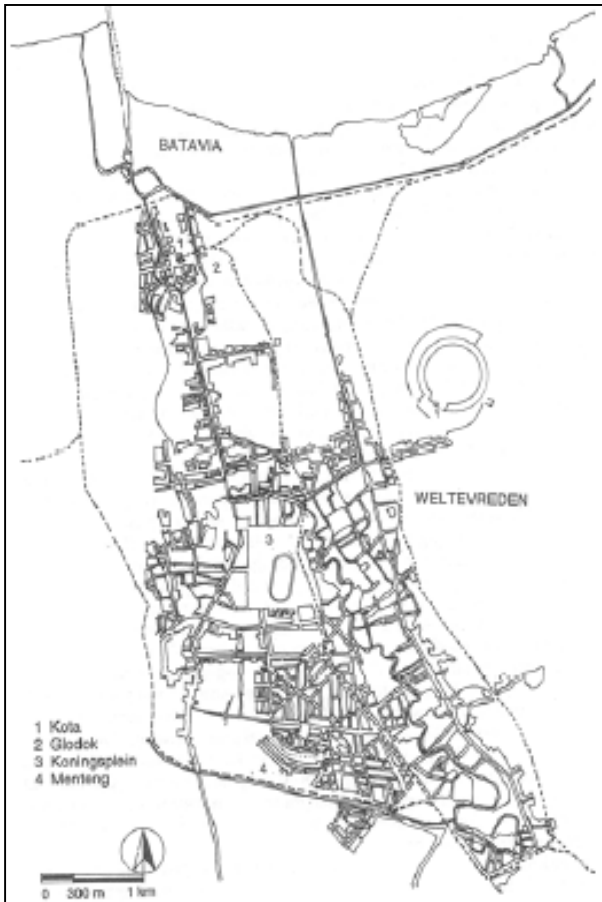
Figure 3. The Expansion Plan of
Colonial City of Batavia – Weltrevreden
Source: Wirjomartono, 1995 in (Ignasia, 2008:
43)

passed on Financial Balance between the Central and Local Government. Since then, a number of principal strategies have arisen in relation to urban planning practices such as decentralised development, public participation, and independent urban development. Under these new concepts, spatial planning became less centralistic with a more bottom-up approach (Deni, 2003). However, the new concepts face a number of challenges. Planning practices will require a more multi-disciplinary approach, either from more experts or even from public participation. The current practices tend to link with multiple deveopment issues accros different sectors. A sole role of urban planner might not suffice the dynamics of the planning practice. To ensure public participation would work well, an empowerment programme becomes necessary. It will inform people on how to develop their own environment. Additionally, the bottom-up approach should also receive significant support from the top-down policy. The power for development now more and more goes beyond the government's hand. People and public stakeholders appear to be more influential. It requires power distribution over development from the central government to the local stakeholders.

Recently, the government passed Law No. 26 (UU No. 26) in 2007, with regard to Spatial Planning, in order to revise the previous planning guidance set down by UU No. 24 1992. This new regulation suggests planning practice is to also concentrate on implementation as an action plan needs to substantially respond to a number of strategic issues (Akil, 2003). Table 4 summarizes Indonesian history of modern urban planning in general.

Table 4. Summary of Planning History in Indonesia

Phase	Milestone	Characteristics	Key stakeholders
Before the Independence Day			
• 1910 – 1920s	• Recognise aesthetics and social aspect • Semarang, Surabaya;	• Building setback, health issues, costing; 'town' design • Centralistic planning	• Planners, town designers: e.g. Thomas Karsten,
• 1930s – 1940s	• Planning School at Institute of Engineering (Bandung); • Town Formation Regulation and Implementation Regulation; • Yogyakarta, Bandung, Batavia (Jakarta)	• Regulation for private development, housing,	• Institutionalisation : Town Planning Committee

Phase	Milestone	Characteristics	Key stakeholders
After 1950 – after the Independence Day			
• 1950s	• Spread of administrative areas; beginning of decentralisation; • Need for more educated human resources on planning; • Kebayoran (Jakarta) development program	• Post-war reconstruction; • Lack of experts, law support, organizational support; • Look at Europe and America; methodological instrument development; • Focus on agriculture, transportation, mining, etc (rural); idea of regional planning to reduce gap between rural and urban • Urban development: housing, drainage, transportation; physical development	• Department of Civil Work and Reconstruction; • Central Planning Bureau; • Civil Engineering; • Central Organisation for Reconstruction • Balai Tata Ruang Pembangunan (Yogyakarta)
• 1960s	• (similar to 1950s era)	• Partial development strategy; focus more on urban environment; gap between urban and rural	• Civil Work Department
During New Order Regime			
• 1970s	• Initial study on regional infrastructure, economic regional development, across administrative area coordination	• More regional planning strategy; • Cross sectoral development issues; conflicting use among sectors • Urban development: clean water and urban settlement improvement	• Civil Work Department
• 1980s	• P3KT: integrated development approach	• Demand for quicker development process; • More physical development	• Civil Work Department
• 1990s	• UU No. 24 1992 (Spatial Planning)	• Leveling on planning and development; • Integrated development	• Civil Work Department, • Bappenas (Bappeda)
Post New Order Regime (Reformation Era)			
• 2000s	• UU No. 22 1999 (Local Governance); • UU No. 25 1999 (Balance Financial of Central and Local Government); • UU No. 26 2007 (Spatial Planning)	• Decentralisation, bottom-up approach; • Implementation guidance, action plan	• Civil Work Department, • Bappenas (Bappeda); • People

Source: Summarized from (Pambudi, 1998; Akil, 2003; Deni, 2003; Soefaat, 2003; Zaris, 2003; Buchanan and Cooper, 2011)

Observation on Urban Planning Practice and Sustainable Development in Indonesia: the Discussion

The history of planning practice in Indonesia indicates that it has a tendency to move from physical development to procedural development (Buchanan and Cooper, 2011). There have also been attempts to address social development. Firman (2002) argues that urban developments in this country 'mostly focus on resolving the problem at the very small area or community level; it is lacking a comprehensive perspective of urban development over a longer time'. This patterning was particularly common in the 1980s until the early 2000s. Firman indicates too that the country needs more expert support if urban planning practice is to improve. Firman also suggests that improvements in urban planning can be

made by focusing on infrastructure and settlement, improving safety and security, encouraging a supportive socio-economic atmosphere, providing better governance, and empowering community and local participation.

Firman's (2002) arguments seem to indirectly link to general characteristics or urban development in Indonesia. At least seven common characteristics exist (Goldblum and Wong, 2000).

'…(1) suburbanisation sprawl along development corridors beyond master plan; (2) public-private sectors associated with large number or new town + industrial estates; (3) ineffective urban management and lack in infrastructure and commitment to the planning principles; (4) industry + low income groups move to periphery; (5) traditional urban villages demolition (replaced by lucrative and intensive land use); (6) kampong restructuring policy stopped; (7) high speculative property market'. (Goldblum and Wong, 2000: 30).

Both arguments generally agree that urban development in Indonesia challenges a number of problems such as inequality, the public/private relationship, urban management, regulation, poverty, settlements or housing provision and improvement, and security. This difficult situation is believed to link to the inability of Western planning culture, influenced by Dutch colonization, to respond to the traditional system of the country (Silver, 2008).

In response to this, current urban planning practice has attempted to take these issues into account. At least, current the Urban Planning Document (RTRW) highly encourages planning procedures to follow a bottom-up approach from local to national level (Deni, 2003: VII.2.11). The document preparation has to involve public participation, not only in the document writing process, but also in the implementation phase. The regulations also encourage the documents to pay more attention to short-term development and its implementation, take care on both large and smaller scale development, allow more opportunity for private and community involvement, improve environmental quality, and provide an applicable development vision (Deni, 2003: VII.2.11).

According to UU No. 26 2007 (urban planning regulation), urban planning and development policy in Indonesia's context has influence on at least at three levels: national, province or state level, and town or district level. National level documents present development and strategic policy on a national level. Province or state level urban planning documents – called Rencana Tata Ruang Wilayah Propinsi (RTRWP) in Indonesian – presents the development strategy at state level. This document looks to national level documents for guidance and provides general guidance for local-level urban planning practices, the city or district level urban planning. The local urban planning document – Rencana Tata Ruang Wilayah Kota/ Kabupaten (RTRWK) – can appear in two different, but similar, fashions. 'Kota' means 'city' in Indonesian, and it applies to a place with predominantly urban characteristics within one set of specific administrative boundaries. 'Kabupaten' means 'local district', where the administrative boundaries are usually larger than 'Kota' and have more rural characteristics.

CONCLUSION

The development and planning in Indonesia has transformed from a Western style, to a more responsive style to fit local needs. The history of planning indicates that planning practices in this country experience difficult situations at some points, particularly during times of political change. One major change happened around the time of the Independence Day when the governance fell from the Dutch to indigenous Indonesia leaders. During this era, urban development tended to focus on a reconstruction programme. Indonesia achieved its glory, in terms of development, between the 1960s and 1980s. Another big achievement emerged when the first 'modern' legal support for planning beganin 1992. It began the era when spatial planning became an important instrument for development. One significant transformation happened in the early 2000s following the economic and political crisis. Urban planning and development challenged a big task after the country issued formal

regulation relating to region autonomy. After then, urban planning and development became even more important tools. It has to provide not only a strategic agenda but also an implementation plan for the development. In addition to this, the planning system also needs to involve more stakeholders with particular interest coming from the public and private sectors. In addition to that, the current development practice also needs to overcome political, economic, cultural, and physical challenges in order to achieve a more sustainable development across the country.

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