THE CHANGING IDEOLOGICAL BASIS
OF
PLANNING PRACTICE
IN
HANOI, VIETNAM

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Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
MASTER OF ARTS
DEAKIN UNIVERSITY
June 2000
I certify that the thesis entitled:

'The Changing Ideological Basis of Planning Practice in Hanoi, Vietnam'

submitted for the degree of: Master of Arts

is the result of my own research, except where otherwise acknowledged, and that this thesis in whole or in part has not been submitted for an award, including a higher degree, to any other university or institution.

Full Name...............Ha Van Que.................................................................
(Please Print)

Signed .................................................................

Date......................22 May 2000.................................................................
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Figure 1. Vietnam Urban System
Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 1986 - The pivotal year

Since the liberation of North Vietnam in 1954, the Communist Party and the Government of Vietnam have always paid attention to the training of specialists in architecture, civil engineering and urban planning. In order to implement this strategy, from the its establishment in 1955, the Government of the Democratic Republic of Vietnam already had a policy of sending students abroad to other socialist countries, especially the former Soviet Union, to be trained in the above mentioned fields. In 1956, the first planning organisation of Vietnam was officially established, with a staff of only 10 people (NIURP, 1996: 3). Only now, after 40 years of development, the planning profession in Vietnam can be seen as having a sufficient number of practitioners and a level of qualifications necessary to build a network of planning bodies throughout the country. The knowledge in the field of architecture and planning brought home by the Vietnamese architects and engineers who studied in the socialist countries was mostly derived from the Soviet planning theory.

With this knowledge, the Vietnamese experts, either themselves or together with experts from the socialist countries such as the Soviet Union, Poland, Bulgaria and East Germany, prepared numerous plans for cities in Vietnam. In the case of the Vietnamese capital city of Hanoi, the Communist Party, the national government and the municipal administration have since 1959 always been committed to the renovation, development and planning of the city. During the period from 1955 to 1965, with the assistance of experts from European socialist countries, urban planning as a public service was founded and started to make its first encouraging steps in building and renovating the city. During the same period, with the assistance of the Soviet experts, a planning scheme was prepared, to identify the direction of development for this important city (Dao Ngoc Thuc, 1996: 45).
As mentioned above, with the planners trained mostly in the former Soviet Union and within the framework of the Soviet planning theory, various general and detailed plans for cities in Vietnam, especially for Hanoi, were prepared. However, these planning schemes were only able to meet the demands of a centralised management system; that is, they were only plans prepared for the Government to implement.

In the process of economic development in Vietnam, the Sixth Congress of the Communist Party, held in December 1986, represents a historical landmark. The Congress approved a set of 'open door' and 'renovation' policies known as Doi Moi. The policies also introduced a decisive shift in the macro-economic model adopted by the national government to meet the difficult practical conditions facing Vietnam at this time. The main aim of this new economic model was to develop a socialist-oriented market economy with the participation of different economic sectors, ruled by the market mechanism but under the management of the government which maintained its overall control by legislation and other instruments.

Since 1986, with the implementation of the open door policy and the market economy, the Soviet-inspired planning schemes have become inappropriate. A new ideological basis for urban planning and development practice for Vietnam in general and for Hanoi in particular is required, so that the demands of a current rapidly developing market economy can be met. To cope with the rapid rate of urban population growth and urban sprawl during recent years, which reflects various defects in urban planning and development control in Vietnam, especially in Hanoi, it is a matter of urgency to recognise the need for and to implement changes in the ideological basis of planning practice.

The author of this thesis would like to make a contribution to the renovation process in Vietnam in general and Hanoi in particular, especially in the field of planning, with the hope that the demands of a market economy can be met and that Vietnam can integrate with its regional community and the world.
1.2 Main aims of this thesis

In the implementation of this thesis, the author focused on the following main aims:
1. To identify the influence of the socialist ideology on urban planning and development management in Hanoi;
2. To identify the advantages and disadvantages in the Soviet planning approach as applied in Vietnam and Hanoi in the past;
3. To identify the ideological changes in the urban planning guidance in the circumstances of an open door policy of the Party and the Government; and
4. To seek to define an appropriate model of urban planning and development management and control for Vietnam in general and for Hanoi in particular in the new context of market economy mechanisms.

1.3 The main research questions

The following main questions provided a framework for the research:

1.3.1 Practice under the Soviet socialist urban planning model:

- How did the ideology and revolutionary course of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union provide guidance and affect the urban planning process in the Soviet Union in general, and Moscow in particular?
- How did the Soviet planning theory affect planning of Hanoi city?
- What were the main conduits for transferring Soviet planning ideas to Hanoi and Vietnam?
- Since Vietnam is a socialist country, how have the policies of the Communist Party and the Government influenced the development planning in Hanoi city?
- How have the roles of the public and the community been reflected in the socialist planning system, both before and after 1986?
- How have the policies on land and housing influenced planning and development in Hanoi?
1.3.2 **Planning practice under Doi Moi**

- How have the open door policy and the market economy affected planning research and implementation in Hanoi?
- How have foreign investment projects affected the planning approach and implementation in Hanoi?
- What are the roles played by the economic sectors in the market economy, and how do they affect the process of urban development?
- How have the planning management and development control mechanisms in Hanoi City contributed to the realisation of the planning goals?

1.4 **Hanoi: a case study**

Hanoi is perhaps one of the most important historical sites reflecting the development of Vietnamese culture, identity and urban life. It contains artefacts from all periods of the recorded history of Vietnam. The urban landscape reflects the interaction of indigenous cultural development and the cultures of foreign invaders that have become parts of the built urban fabric of Hanoi, and Vietnamese history. It is an important site within the Southeast Asian region as an example of a major historical capital, a trading port, and as a site for the study of urban development (Thomson, 1995: 81).

Hanoi is the national capital of the Socialist Republic of Vietnam, its scientific, social, cultural and political centre and, at the same time, a large economic and international transaction centre. Having experienced 1,000 years of the history with various changes, Hanoi has always kept its role as the heart of the country, the capital city embodying the age-old culture, values and hopes of the Vietnamese nation.
Hanoi is a rendezvous of abundant manpower resources drawing intellectuals and talents from every corner of the country. In the city, more than 80 per cent of scientists and managers have post-graduate degrees. Many of the largest universities, scientific and research institutes are located in Hanoi.

The Resolution of the Seventh Vietnamese Communist Party Congress on 24 June 1991 entitled The Strategy for National Socioeconomic Development and the Resolution No 08 of the Political Bureau of the Party’s Central Committee on Hanoi capital on 10 July 1991 set the targets for the building of Hanoi. They confirmed the city not only as an economic, political, cultural, scientific and technical centre of country, but also as being the civilised and modern capital of Vietnam on a par with other capitals and big cities in the region (Le At Hoi, Chairman of HPC, 1994: 4).

Hanoi has a unique and at the same time typical townscape of the region. The city was founded nearly 1000 years ago, and its built environment reflects various influences: the Chinese and Vietnamese feudal past, the period of French dominance, and the recent years of independence and building of Socialism. This successive layering of foreign cultural influences left strong imprints on the features of the city. According to Logan (1994), all the cultural layers in Hanoi have significance and the best areas, buildings and monuments, almost each of them deserves some conservation considerations.

In the middle of the XIX century, a foreign visitor had such a profound impression about Hanoi:

Even though Hanoi is no longer a location where the Crown heads lived, I think it still is the first-class city of the country, for its artists, industries and trading, for its numerous and wealthy inhabitants, who are very experienced and cultured. It can be said that in all the corners of the country, nowhere could one find better skilled craftsmen than those in Hanoi. This city has assembled all the talented peoples, all the skilled craftsmen, all the rich traders, and this place has produced all
kinds of goods and luxurious handicrafts. In conclusion, this
city is the true heart of the country'.

This was the description of the city given by J. Silvestre in his book, *L' Empire
d'Annam et le peuple annamite* (Silvestre, 1889: 28).

Hanoi has invariably been given great attention by the Vietnamese central
government and the whole nation, and this is why all the policies and strategies of
the Communist Party and the Government are always mentioning Hanoi and apply to
Hanoi first. In fact Hanoi has been planned many times, with the wishes of
Communist Party, the Government and the Vietnamese people to make it 'grander,
more pleasant' as was said by President Ho Chi Minh. During the period from
liberation of North Vietnam in 1954 until now, of all the Vietnamese cities, only
Hanoi has made seven versions of its Master Plan and amendments, all of which
were prepared and directed by Soviet planning experts, or by the co-ordination
between Soviet and Vietnamese planning experts. This situation is unique in
Vietnam. It is worth noting that in 1993, the Vietnamese Government, for the first
time, created the system of Chief Architect's Office for Hanoi, as an experiment in
urban governance. This office was later responsible for major studies leading to the
establishment of the Master Plan and the Detailed Plan for Hanoi City. It was also
responsible for urban development and urban control of the city.

In recent years Hanoi has been faced with many complicated and difficult issues in
planning and urban development control, especially those related to the conditions of
*Doi Moi* period. The main problem, however, was that the existing town planning
mechanism and procedures did not provide the planners in the Chief Architect's
Office with sufficient direction on how to control all of these new developments so
as to ensure that (a) they were consistent with the government policies and statutes;
(b) there were adequate infrastructure services to cope with the new development;
and (c) development proposals did not create environmental and social problems.

As a result of the Chief Architect's Office investigations, it became readily apparent
that many of the current administrative processes in planning management are only
suited to the development under the former system of centralised control and now
appear to have very little relevance in a market economy. Working as the Senior Town Planner in the Architect-In-Chief Office, I found that many important planning and urban management problems had to be solved in order to meet the conditions of a market economy. I hope that this thesis will be able to contribute to the identification of the shortcomings of the old planning and urban management system, with the purpose of finding some appropriate solutions for creating a new planning and urban management system for Hanoi in particular and for Vietnam in general.

Hanoi is not only the capital city of Vietnam; it is also a city where various typical features of urban areas in Vietnam are concentrated. The following areas are good examples where these features can be found:

1.4.1 The Ancient Quarter (The 36 Old Streets)

The Ancient Quarter of Hanoi, which is also called the '36 Old Streets' area, is the oldest settlement area of the Thang Long Royal City. The 36 Old Streets area was first mentioned in 1464 AD, in the historical records of the later Le dynasty. Originally the name of the area, Ke Cho, or Cha Cho (meaning marketplace), reflected the role of the area in the formation of the whole city. The name of the area was derived from the organisation of the capital city, which consisted of 36 administrative units called phuong. Each phuong's name was either related to the trade of the majority of its inhabitants, for example, the Dyers' Guild (Phuong Hang Dao) and the Silversmiths' Guild (Phuong Hang Bac) - or to its geographical position or specific feature, as in the River Mouth Guild (Phuong Ha Khau) and the Eastern Bridge Guild (Phuong Cau Dong). Later, most of the names of the phuong became those of the streets. The unique character of the Ancient Quarter is created by the juxtaposition of city houses, shop houses and places of worship, reflecting the original landscape and the historic and cultural development of the last 1000 years.

The Ancient Quarter also remains the symbol for the culture and the elegant traditions of Hanoians. Many traditional activities can be linked to ancestor worship and the founders of the various phuong. The area still contains a rare concentration of historic buildings and other objects. The built environment consists of several
historic layers, which blend with the natural geographical features (Phe and Nishimura, 1990: 1). The built environment and the residential lifestyles have changed slowly and only minimally when compared with other major cities within Southeast Asia, mainly due to the relatively slow and interrupted pace of economic growth in the development of the country over the last 50 years.

In brief, the qualities of the 36 Old Streets include:

- A strong historical character as seen in the buildings, religious centres, street layout, names of the streets, activities and trades;
- A strong sense of place;
- A small scale of buildings in both width and height;
- The close intimate, friendly and positive urban character;
- The social network and a sense of community;
- The multiple mix of use (residential/commercial-religious/education);
- The trees lining the street; and
- The area's role as a basis for local, municipal and national pride and identity.

The Ancient Quarter of Hanoi is at risk because of uncontrolled development, representing a serious threat to conservation and preservation efforts. The Ancient Quarter needs a feasible policy and approach for development, renovation and conservation management.

1.4.2 The Old Quarter (The French Quarter)

Towards the late nineteenth century, the Nguyen Dynasty took less and less interest in Hanoi, and the capture of the city in 1882 by the French completed their conquest of Vietnam. In 1902 the various French protectorates and colonies of Indochina were merged, and Hanoi was chosen as the capital of the French Indochinese Union.

The French realised Hanoi's potential as a major city within the region and, in accordance with the grading system they applied to cities and towns within their
Figure 2: Plan of the Hanoi Ancient Quarter, French Colonial period
colonial Indochina boundaries, classified it as a first class city, together with Hai Phong, Saigon and Cholon.

The French destroyed the walls of the citadel in the 1890s, and started to develop the lower region to the south. The original citadel walls, having been destroyed, allowed greater access to the old citadel area, resulting in more pedestrian and road access to and through the area.

In the Ancient Quarter, development activities were carried out to promote commerce and trade. The streets were widened. Overall, the houses at the beginning of this period were traditional in design and the majority of them were two stories in height. Under French colonial rule, at least two master plans for Hanoi were created. The first was the Hebrard Plan (1920) and the second was the Cerutti Plan (1940) (Thomson, 1995: 56).

The Old Quarter, which was constructed and developed during the French period, has the character of European architecture, with architectural styles of provincial French villas. In some ways it is the transition between the architecture of the Ancient Quarter and European architecture. This area is also the centre of some of the most significance public and office building in Hanoi and Vietnam. The quarter is beautifully landscaped and has a pleasant environment, with its wide boulevards, tree-lined squares and various heritage buildings that create a special charm for tourists. At present, the Old Quarter of Hanoi is suffering from an explosion of high-rise development projects based on foreign investments and of the uncontrolled extensions to old buildings, which result in the loss of the compatible, charming appearance of villas and courtyards.

1.4.3 Living quarters built according to Soviet planning and architectural styles and construction material standards.

Hanoi is a typical example of the Soviet Planning Model with many General Plans and construction activities. There are many so-called 'living quarters', or public housing estates, which were built and developed during the period from 1956 to
Chapter 1: INTRODUCTION

Figure 3: Typical facades of houses within the 36 Old Streets and their period of construction

Figure 4: Main elements of a tube house
1986. Examples are the Kim Lien, Trung Tu, Thanh Xuan and Nghia Do living quarters. These were built according to the Soviet mikrorayon planning principles, with high-rise, box-shaped publicly owned building consisting of many apartments designed to Government standards. These living quarters typically incorporate community facilities such as kindergartens, schools and shops. However, most of these living quarters were not satisfactory in design. Today, these residential precincts have various disadvantages and are no longer appropriate for the social and economic conditions and the modern living standards demanded by urban residents. Further research is required to find out the most appropriate ways to renovate and redevelop them.

1.4.4 Suburban areas of Hanoi

These are the newly urbanised villages in the suburbs of Hanoi, villages in the outskirts, villages within urban areas, which have become urbanised gradually, during the development process of the city. These suburban areas provide large sources of labour and land for the development of Hanoi, but they are also main reason for the disorder and complexity in the urbanisation process of Hanoi city. Nowadays the process of urbanisation, many suburban areas of Hanoi have became urban areas and therefore new urban districts were established for Hanoi City by a decision of National Assembly and the Government. These new urban districts include Tay Ho district, Cau Giay district, Thanh Xuan district, and in the future the Gia Lam district. In the period of applying market economy principles, the suburban areas surrounding Hanoi city are changing very rapidly, especially under the impact of new developments such as the Sai Dong Industrial Park, the Song Hong city project, The Lien Complex, the Ciputra project, the North Bridge project and the Sumitomo Industrial Zone. All the new projects have turned rural land into new residential or industrial areas and are increasingly built-up, with the result that many villages are now brought into the urbanisation process. The life of the farmers is improved and the gap in living conditions between the suburban and city areas is becoming narrower.
1.5 Urban development and planning in Hanoi to 1986.

The history of Hanoi began from the eleventh century. According to Dai Viet Su Ky Toan Thu (The Complete History of Dai Viet), in autumn 1010 (Canh Tuat year in the lunar calendar), King Ly Thai To moved the capital from Hoa Lu to Dai La, and called this area 'Thang Long'.

In May 1428, after defeating the Minh aggressors and liberated Thang Long City, Emperor Le Loi came to the throne. He called the country Dai Viet and the capital city Dong Do. During this period, the capital consisted of 36 phuong.

In 1805 Emperor Gia Long changed the name of the city to Thang Long. During this period, the country was prosperous and could afford major construction works, so the Emperor removed the former citadel and built a new citadel according to the Vauban model.

In 1831, Emperor Minh Mang changed the name of Thang Long to Hanoi province. At that time it consisted of four districts: Hoai Duc, Ung Hoa, Ly Nhan and Thuong Tin. The capital city was moved to Hue by the Nguyen dynasty. However, Hanoi, which was the ancient cultural centre of the country and had a developed economy, retained its vitality. Its important role for the whole country did not diminish.

On 19 July 1888, the President of France issued a decree to identify Hanoi as a grade-one city, and in 1889 he established the suburban area of Hanoi city, including the land of Vinh Thuan and Tho Xuong districts. After that, there were only minor changes in the boundaries of the city, with only the population changing. In 1904, inner area of Hanoi was divided into eight quarters. During this period, the French colonial authorities reinstated Hanoi as the chief cultural, administrative centre of the Indochinese Union, which consisted of Tonkin, Annam, Cochinchina, Laos and Cambodia. The townscape, dating from the period of French colonial control, notably in the French Quarter, Ba Dinh Quarters and the administrative district east of Hoan Kiem Lake, was marked by broad tree-lined boulevards and streets.
frequently in a grid pattern, with wide footpaths interspersed with small squares. The French urban design work in Hanoi is of special architectural significance.

The French authorities created an imposing colonial city, which remains very largely intact today. That is, they built a new city that was designed according to the architectural and planning ideas then in vogue at home in the colonising country - in this case, France - and laid out alongside the traditional indigenous city (Logan 1995: 4). The fact that the French plans was left incomplete due to a succession of the momentous events: the Great Depression, World War II and the First Indochinese War. Even these events could not lessen the significance of this colonial layer in Hanoi's built environment.

In 1945, the August Revolution succeeded, and, after the French finally left in 1954, Hanoi became the capital city of the Democratic Republic of Vietnam. In 1945, the city consisted of five inner quarters and 120 suburban villages. In 1954 Hanoi consisted of four inner districts which included 36 phuong and four suburban districts containing 46 villages. The population of the inner city was 380,000, while metropolitan Hanoi's population was 530,000 including the suburban areas with the total area of 152 square kilometres.

In 1978 Hanoi was expanded to include some districts and villages of Vinh Phu, Ha Tay Provinces. The area of Hanoi was now 2,123 square kilometres and the population was 2,426,155.

Today, Hanoi consists of five inner districts, five outer districts with the total area of 920 square kilometres and a population of 2.2 million.

Since the liberation of the capital city in 1954, the Communist Party and the Government of Vietnam have always paid attention to the planning and development of Hanoi. When there was only a relatively small group of planning experts, the Government nevertheless assigned a considerable number of key experts to do research on planning of Hanoi according to the socialist model, and at the same time sent the staff for study tours to China and the Soviet Union. In 1956, Vietnam invited
Figure 5: Plan of Trung Tu Living Quarter

Figure 6: View of Trung Tu Living Quarter
a delegation of Soviet experts to assist in design and planning of Hanoi. In the period from 1960 to 1963, the time of the first five-year plan for economic development, Hanoi commenced the development of a number of industrial clusters, some large-scale architectural objects such as office buildings, schools and hospitals. There was an obvious need to have a proper planning for the capital to control development process. Between 1955 and 1965 the city planners, helped by Soviet experts, began to study Hanoi's planning problems and needs and drew up a rough plan called the 'Zone Plan for Hanoi Construction'. This plan was presented to President Ho Chi Minh. It later went on public exhibition in 1960 and appeared to have been adopted by the government in 1965 (Dang Thai Hoang, 1985: 47; Hoang Huu Phc and Nishimura, 1990: 5). The plan was aimed at revitalising the Ancient Quarter as a commercial area, but promoted development to the west of the West Lake (Ho Tay), to the south-west and to the east (in Gia Lam, across the Red River). A new city centre would extend from Hoan Kiem around Ho Tay and incorporate the Ba Dinh area.

Detailed planning for the area between the two lakes showed the penchant of the time to develop radiating roads aligned with key buildings to create striking vistas - the Haussmannian model was still in vogue by then. A railway network around the river and two bridges to the south of the existing Long Bien and two to the north were planned. Although the plan was not implemented, mainly due to the war and aerial blitzes between 1965 and 1972, it set a pattern for later plans, notably in seeing expansion of the commercial centre around Ho Tay (Logan, 1995: 457). This plan was designed for a capital city with the population of one million and an area of approximately 20,000 hectares.

In the period from 1964 to 1974, Vietnam's staff of planning experts developed strongly. A range of experts trained in various countries such as the Soviet Union, China, Poland and the East Germany came back, armed with knowledge and theory in the planning field and able to prepare a plan for Hanoi in the direction of socialist principles. Also in this period, the party's politburo issued the 1991/NQTW decree. This identified Son Tay, Xuan Mai, and Bac Ninh as satellite cities following this
decree, the urban planning for Hanoi was incorporated with the planning for the development of the surrounding cities.

During the period from 1974 to 1976, the party’s Secretariat issued an announcement allowing Hanoi to develop a population up to 600,000 - 700,000 within the existing area. A group of Soviet experts led by Bordanov came to Hanoi to help Vietnam prepare technical and economic arguments. Also in this period experts from ten socialist countries had come to help Vietnam prepare plans for other ten cities and towns. On the basis of the technical and economic arguments prepared by the Soviet experts and the proposals of Vietnam, on 17 July 1972 the Governmental Council issued Decision 163/CP. According to this decision, in the year 2000, Hanoi was to have a population of 1.5 million people (Dao Ngoc Thuc 11/1996: 45).

During the period from 1976 to 1981, after the unification of the country as the Socialist Republic of Vietnam, the socioeconomic situation displayed various changes. In 1979, a war broke out on the northern borders. As a result the point of view of the Government was clearly to plan new development mainly to the south of the Red River. On the basis of Decision 163/CP of the Government, Soviet advisers were again called upon in 1973 to lend their expertise - on this occasion to draw up a new town plan to take Hanoi to the year 2000. This main Soviet plan for Hanoi is outlined by S. I. Sokolov, who was, in fact, head of a large team of Soviet planners from the Leningrad Scientific Research Centre for Town Planning and Construction (Sokolov 1983). On 24 April 1981, this master plan was approved by the Government in the Correspondence No100TTg. According to this plan the population of the inner city was to be 1.5 million and the total territory to be 100 square kilometres.

Although the Leningrad Centre had considerable experience in the development of city master plans, this had been for cities in Siberia and Kazakhstan, and the Hanoi master plan was its first effort in tropical Asia (Logan 1995: 456). Hanoi can receive up to 200 millimetres of rain in an hour during the monsoon season; in summer it is hot: the temperature can reach 45 degree celsius, and humidity - 90 per cent, an extremely uncomfortable condition; In winter, the temperature is down to 5 degree
celsius, the sky is cloudy and the air damp. As Sokolov acknowledged in an interview with the journalist A. Kucher from *Lenigradskaya Pravda*, this was:

*Our first experiment in planning large cities in a tropical zone. The difficulties? There were many of them. Firstly, climatic; secondly, topographical: the city is built on the practically flat location. The question arose: How should we dispose of the abundant rainfall? [and] what about the transport problem? (ibid).*

Kucher described the planning of Hanoi as 'one more symbol of the indestructible Soviet-Vietnam friendship'. However, even though Vietnamese planners were involved in the process, according to Logan (1995: 458), the results 'as outlined by Sokolov are pure fantasy, being 'based on a poor understanding of Hanoi's history and demography, and totally divorced from both the local culture and economic realities of an impoverished government'. A new city centre was to be built on the southern and south-western bank of the West Lake (Ho Tay) with radiating boulevards, green spaces, high-rise public buildings and pedestrian overpasses.

Standard Soviet planning techniques were used, such as the planning of residential communities as *mikrorayon* (microregion); that is a planning unit of residential and associated facilities theoretically based on a fixed population formula replicated around city outskirts. In Hanoi's case, the size of the *mikrorayon* was to be set by the number of people required to provide viable base for a senior high school - 60,000 to 70,000. Five industrial districts were planned, each with its own specialisation. Growth was to be channelled to the north-west, west and across the river to Gia Lam and beyond (Logan 1995: 458).

Although the aim to take the transport plan was misfired, ring railway line and a new airport at Noi Bai were planned but only the latter was constructed. A planned major highway, running from it to the city centre and cutting the historic old sector in two, was fortunately aborted. The population prediction on which the plan was based were unrealistic, as was the prediction that Hanoi's area would need to expand as much as
three times. As a result the Noi Bai Airport stands in wide-open countryside, an
unnecessary 65 kilometres drive from the city centre. The Vietnamese government
approved the first stage of the plan in 1976, no doubt in the first heady days of peace
and unity; it was finally approved in 1984 (Hoang Huu Phc and Nishimura, 1990: 55).

Today, in retrospect, Logan says it is clear that the optimism underlying the plan was
ill founded: Hanoi would not become the bustling metropolis envisaged by the
planners - during this century at least (Logan 1995: 459). Vietnamese planners and
architects in the 1990s are re-thinking the basic principles of town and regional
planning. The master plan, which was prepared by the planning experts from the
former Soviet Union and approved in 1981, was difficult to implement. Therefore, in
1984 Vietnamese planners had to adjust the plan themselves, so that it would fit the
conditions in Hanoi. Nevertheless, the technico-economic standards were
maintained. During the period from 1989 to 1992, the government planners again
adjusted the Master Plan of Hanoi, under the new direction of the Government, the
Municipal People's Committee and the Ministry of Construction. On 18 April 1992
the Chairman of the Council of Ministers approved the Master Plan under Decision
132/CT. This Master Plan was changed in basic ways. The total population for the
year 2010 was now forecast to be 1.5-1.7 million, with the expectation that it would
increase to two million. From 1992 up to now, on the basis of the approved general
plan, the city has provided guidance for the development of the city and, by doing so,
has made considerable achievements.

Since the open door policy was implemented by the Government of Vietnam in
1986, many foreign investment projects have been attracted to the city, and the
physical appearance of Hanoi has been constantly changing. In order to meet the
demand of urban development under the market mechanism and with the
participation of various economic sectors in planning implementation, and at the
same time seeking to apply higher standards for planning, the Government of
Vietnam directed the Hanoi's Municipal People's Committee and the national
Ministry of Construction to co-ordinate their efforts in amending the Master Plan for
Hanoi to the year 2020.
Chapter 1: INTRODUCTION

Through the above-mentioned documents, it can be seen that Hanoi has been planned many times. Only within the period from 1954 up to now, Hanoi has had as many as six plans and amendments, of which four plans were directed by Soviet experts or prepared by the coordination between Soviet and Vietnamese experts. Moreover, most of the local planners were trained in the Soviet Union or other countries within the framework of the Soviet planning theory, which uses mikrorayon as the basic unit for the planning structure of the city.

Another special feature is that, in all plan schemes for Vietnam, the Soviet performance standards and procedures were applied. Even at present, Vietnam still does not have new procedures and standards in planning. These facts themselves show how deeply the Soviet planning theory has influenced the planning in Hanoi. Another evidence is that, during the construction and development process in Hanoi, a range of residential quarters were designed, planned and constructed in accordance with the Soviet theory of residential area and micro-rayon. More particularly, several plants producing concrete slabs and components for pre-fabricated blocks of flats were imported from the Soviet Union.

Though Hanoi has a 1000 years history, the architectural appearance, buildings and townscape features of the city are still largely intact. A difference between Hanoi and other cities in the region and the world is that, despite its development process and the enormous pressure of the market economy, the city can maintain its Ancient Quarter and Old Quarter as well as other beautiful architectural and scenic sites. It seems to be able to preserve its unique cultural, social and humane identities.

A new set of international cultural ideas have been influencing Hanoi's development since 1986, when Doi Moi policies began to open Vietnam up to capitalist forces, emanating from the West and from the Newly Industrialised Countries of East and Southeast Asia. During this period there has been an explosion in development in the city. However, the amounts of investment are different between inner and outer areas, and also between quarters.
In summary, the essential characteristics, which set Hanoi apart from other Asian cities and the reasons for selecting Hanoi as a case study of the thesis, are as follows:

- Hanoi is the capital city of the Socialist Republic of Vietnam - the scientific, economic, social and cultural and political centre of country;
- The intactness of the various urban layers bearing witness to the city’s rich cultural and social history;
- The imposition of an essentially European city onto a traditional indigenous city during the French colonial rule;
- The earlier Sino-Vietnamese feudal basis of the city’s planning, including the juxtaposition of the royal citadel and the market town;
- The development of Hanoi city along socialist line, using Soviet planning and architectural ideas;
- The physical environment of a tamed river and reclaimed terrain in which abundant water features (lakes, ponds, streams and canals) remain a dominant scenic feature;
- The high level of urban amenity in terms of open space and vegetation, the relative uniformity and harmony of architectural design in the various city quarters, the human scale of buildings generally, allowing the greenery of street, the trees and parks to dominate the townscape.
- Hanoi has a typical and unique urban management mechanism for the cities of the Socialist Vietnam

1.6 Literature review

Socialism and Capitalism are the two opposite political ideologies of the world and have been most clearly expressed in the years 1917 to 1990. In this period, the number of countries which built their political systems on socialism and a Communist Party totalled 15. The socialist, Marxist-Leninist ideology became widely spread over the world. In this section of the thesis, I want to outline the socialist ideals and the way that Socialism affected urban planning and development in the socialist countries of the world, and especially, in Hanoi. In the framework of this general goal, I have paid special attention to the following subjects:
1. Ideological impacts on planning;
2. The transmission of planning ideas from one country to another; and
3. The increasing globalisation of economies, cultures, and ideas.

1.6.1 Ideological impacts on planning

The great October revolution of 1917 brought Russia to a new era in the construction of Socialism under Marxism-Leninism. At the heart of the Marxist-Leninist ideology were the concept of social justice, the principle that national property belongs to the people, and the belief that no group of people should exploit other people. State and economic management would be under a system of centralised control and subsidisation of particular goods and services. This management mechanism deeply affected the socioeconomic development of the nation, and will have direct effects on urban planning, building and construction.

Each country has its own political system to lead all economic activities with the aim of serving the nation, defining the development guidelines in line with the ideology of the Party in power and under the leadership of the Government. This is clearly seen in the Socialist countries that emerged during the twentieth century. These countries following the Marxist-Leninist ideology do not accept multi-party forms of government, insisting that only the Communist Party's leadership can be accepted. All argument, guidelines, policies originate from the leadership of the Party and all Socialist countries strictly abide by the management mechanism that is summed up in the saying: 'The Party leads, Government implements and people are their owner'.

Due to the above ideals, the Communist Party's strategies and guidelines in socialist countries have been clearly expressed in terms of the economic mechanism based on 'managerial oriented subsidisation' and in the social issues that have emerged. They are also reflected especially in planning goals. According to R. Antony French (1995), a socialist type of city did indeed develop. But its characteristics and thus its distinctiveness are an amalgam, on the one hand, of socialist features deriving from Marxist theory which postulates a very high level of centralised state power and planned operation of economy, and, on the other hand, of surviving elements of
earlier capitalism and new elements of rediscovered capitalism. The whole amalgam is heavily affected by changes in technology.

The great October revolution brought a fresh power to Russia – the Bolshevik Party based on the principles and guidelines of Marx and Lenin for the national construction and development. Following Marxist-Leninist ideology, Russia constructed a form of socialism that aimed to eliminate exploitation, uphold social justice, provide land to farmers, enforce the principle that the national property belongs to the people, reject the market mechanism, and rely on centralised economic management. In another words, the socialist model of government and development differed completely from the capitalist way. R. Antony French (1995: 3) has written in his study that capitalist society used the market as the regulator of activity and development and the inherent contradictions of such a system led to sub-optimum benefit for all society.

In order to construct socialism and communism, Russia established a process of construction and development according to ideological principles; that is, the Government was completely responsible for urban construction and for investment from basic infrastructure to social infrastructure. All the construction and investment were implemented according to the plan and policies and under the leadership of the Party. Thus, urban planning and development in Russia gives a general picture of the ideology and the policy guidelines of the Russian Communist Party.

Baranov, Shkvarikov, Barkova et al (1976: 5) wrote in Soviet Planning Principles that the way in which ancient cities were to be upgraded with new social facilities was determined in the program of the Communist Party laid out in 1919 under the leadership of V.I Lenin and approved by the general membership meeting at the Eighth Congress of the Russian Communist Party (Bolshevik). In the program it was emphasised that the conditions for labouring workers needed to be improved by removing slum houses, reconstructing old houses and making them suitable to the new living conditions, eliminating old and narrow streets and improving hygiene standards (Baranov N., Shkvarikov V., Barkova H. et al, 1976: 6).
With the above instructions from the Bolshevik Party, Russia determined the basic orientation of its urban planning and the priority construction tasks. The activities designed to restore industrial growth and construct enormous new factories and enterprises led to dramatic urban development in this Socialist industrialisation period. The tasks of constructing houses and projects for cultural activities and undertaking a basic upgrade of all aspects of construction meant that cities were completely renovated (Baranov N., Shkvarikov V., Barkova H. et al, 1976: 7).

The above ideals clearly showed that the ideology of the Russian Communist Party affected all activities of the country, including urban planning and construction and changed the outlook of Russia and Russians. R. Antony French explains in his book *Plans, Pragmatism and People* (1995) how and to what extent the urban planning process and ideas in Russia were affected by the advent of the new regime in 1917. With communism, a new kind of power was established and a strong ideology became dominant in every layer of society and in every activity. A lot of decisions were taken that reflect this new ideology in planning matters. These included:

(a) the nationalisation of all land in 1917 and the taking of all urban real estate property into the hands of the State or local authorities in 1918 (French 1995: 29);
(b) the subdivision of the large houses of the rich into apartments (French 1995: 29);
(c) the setting up of an Architectural Studio for the re-planning of the centre and outskirts of Moscow (French 1995: 30).

However, until Gosplan was established in 1921, there was no plenipotentiary organisation able to draw up and implement plans (French 1995: 30).

Thus, French's book provides a picture of the ideological effects on planning of the revolutionary experience. It seems through the Russian and the Soviet experience that ideology can influence the urban planning process in many ways. First of all, it can put in the foreground a certain kind of architecture and promote a special school of thought in planning. According to French (1995: 17), street plans and architecture alike reflected the eighteenth-century fascination with absolutist and triumphal grandeur. It laid foundations for a grandiose imperial expression in the urban
landscape that was eventually to flower once again under Stalin. But, inevitably, the Revolution expressed a sense of revulsion towards the Tsarist city, and many architects and planners turned away from the flamboyant traditionalist architecture (French 1995: 31). Malevich and the Suprematists, for instance, brought into sharp focus the concept that creative art and practical design for living were inseparable (French 1995: 33). They led the way from Suprematism to Constructivism where the barriers between art and practice to all intents and purposes entirely vanished. As the name of the group implies, its members were not concerned with representation in art, but with construction. For them, it was the same people who expressed forms and patterns in art and then used them for practical buildings and city plans (French 1995: 33). The concepts of a number of foreign planners and architects, such as Frank Lloyd Wright, Soria y Mata, the Bauhaus group and Le Corbusier, were also taken up by other Russians (French 1995: 32).

It was perhaps not surprising under such circumstances that just as important as the social planners (such as Howard) were the preceding trends in the creative arts (French 1995: 33). Gradually, from the welter of ideas, dreams, experiments, models, drawings and paintings, there emerged concepts and designs for actual buildings and, by the late 1920s, specific plans for towns. In particular, the artistic works emphasised geometric patterns, which were utilised not only in designing new buildings, but also in laying out city plans (French 1995: 34). The circle and the parabola were used, but the form that appeared most frequently in the creations and concepts of the time was the linear pattern (French 1995: 34).

Moreover, architecture, cities and planning can be used to reflect the nature and the specificity of the regime and a certain ideology through symbolism and city patterns. Symbolic functions are given to certain kinds of places such as the 'central square' (Red Square in Moscow) which are made for political functions and significance, and no longer retain commercial functions (marketplace) (French 1995: 12), and to symbolic buildings, like mausoleums (French 1995: 12).

The nature of the regime influences the shape of new towns. For example under absolutist Peter the Great, the new city of St Petersburg adopted a regular planned
layout and took a rectangular street pattern (different from the usual Middle Ages cities). Then, the planned geometries of classical cities spread out in Russia (French 1995: 15).

Logan’s article ‘Russians on the Red River: The Soviet Impact on Hanoi’s Townscape’ adopts a similar approach, speaking about Hanoi townscape in these terms:

Vietnam’s cities are characteristically multilayered, each layer the legacy of a period of political and cultural domination by an external power. Hanoi’s environment is strewn with political icons, each regime producing buildings, streetscapes and whole districts to demonstrate its ideology (Logan 1995b: 443).

He then gives many examples of the creation of a new townscape after the Vietnamese Declaration of Independence in 1945, with icons demonstrating the brotherly links between Vietnam and the Soviet bloc countries. He evokes the Lenin statue in Chi Lang Garden, the Mausoleum of Ho Chi Minh, the Ho Chi Minh Museum or again the Soviet-Vietnamese Friendship Cultural Palace. For him, the Ba Dinh Square precinct demonstrates better than any other part of Hanoi the way in which the built environment is a manifestation of the politics of culture (Logan 1995b: 459).

But even if ideology has an undeniable general influence and affect on the formation of townscape, it never succeeds to erase the deep national culture of the influenced country. Most of the time, former and ancient cultural elements still exist within urban projects, yet completely in harmony with the new dominant ideology. On that subject, Logan asserts that ‘Vietnamese cultural, and hence, national survival has been achieved by bending with the wind, adopting many of the features of the invaders’ cultures while managing, at the same time, to preserve key elements of their own culture, especially language and legend’ (Logan 1995b: 443).
In fact, in the Soviet case, the main ideological affects on planning were the implementation of new principles and ideas that are supposed to guide all planning. As an example, a radical idea can impose itself and overwhelm all the others to become the guiding line to which every new plan should refer. This was the case in the USSR in the 1920s with the concept of the Garden City and the idea of communal housing.

Initially, as one would expect, it was the more radical ideas of the pre-Revolutionary period that most inspired the planners of the Soviet city, and none more so than those of Ebenezer Howard and the Garden City movement (French 1995: 31). Howard’s view that town and country must be married expressed in effect the prime Marxist aim of abolishing the distinction between town and country. Howard also saw his proposed new type of urban environment as bringing about social change. His garden city, as a Soviet city, would have to be a planned city (French 1995: 31).

The emphasis of the garden city movement on space and greenery for psychological and physical health was to become common to all the participants in the 1920s debates and to remain so in Soviet planning thereafter (French 1995: 31). Various other schemes incorporating garden city principles were drawn up, if not implemented in the period before the Revolution. After the Revolution, in 1922, a garden city for 500 people was proposed near Moscow (French 1995: 31).

If buildings actually erected were relatively few and the application of town plans almost non-existent, the great debates did articulate or refine a number of principles of planning as a framework for subsequent town development (French 1995: 46).

Generally opposed to the Disurbanists, was the group that was described as ‘urbanist’. They did not expect towns to disappear entirely, although they did believe that towns should be small and generously endowed with greenery. Most of the urbanists believed in the break up of the family unit and its replacement by communal living. Competitions were held for designs for communal houses (French 1995: 37). Further expressions of communality included ideas for standardisation of buildings, building techniques and materials (French 1995: 38).
In the end, what is acknowledged to be the real and strong legacy of ideology for planning in the USSR is the idea itself of an absolute necessity of planning the town in its development and form, and the belief in the power of new technologies and scientific progress. Those and a few other principles underlay town planning throughout the Soviet era.

The fierce and wide-ranging debate on the nature of the new city was to last into the early 1930s. It succeeded in evolving a number of principles and, perhaps, more importantly, attitudes of mind, which became deeply embedded in Soviet town planning thought ever since. The 1920s saw the affirmation of the concept of planning a city for socialism, a concept accepted as fundamental throughout the Soviet period (French 1995: 30).

In addition to the influence of art and sculpture, there was yet another set of factors which powerfully affected the architects and planners, those things that were 'new' and therefore appropriate for the new world about to be created... The automated factory assembly line was only one of many developments in engineering and science that had to be reflected in the design of buildings and cities (French 1995: 34).

The development of more flexible, fast forms of public transport not only was an expression of the all-embracing modernity and technical advance of the coming new world, but also in practical terms obviated the need to concentrate population in close proximity to places of work (French 1995: 36).

Equally, many shared belief in the appropriateness and symbolism of new construction materials and, above all, in the power of new technology to fulfil their wildest imaginings (French 1995: 39).

On the other hand, communist ideology, which spread out through society from the Revolution to 1931, did not really influence planning concretely. It did not lead to many practical results. Indeed, very few projects were completed from all those ideas and principles that were enunciated in the 1920s. The 1920s saw little enough of the theory turned into real buildings and even less into accomplished town plans (French
1995: 43). Although several estates of houses were built, in only two cases were the concepts of the period put into practice as town plans, and then only partially (French 1995: 45).

Town planning must not be seen as starting in 1917. The concepts of planning and laying out de novo were already enunciated (French 1995: 31), ...a flourish of romanticism that was perhaps more Russian than Marxist, and certainly more influenced by Howard than by authors of the Communist Manifesto (French 1995: 196).

From the concept of the communal house developed the 'superblock', a grouping of four- to six-storey blocks of flats arranged around a quadrangle; this was used frequently for housing during the five year plans before the Second World War, although without the originally envisaged features of communal living (French 1995: 37).

The flexibility of Milyutin's scheme - the linear city - allowing as it did both Urbanist and Disurbanists variants, allowed it to be the concept that came closest to being given expression in reality (French 1995: 41).

It was a period when little was accomplished in practice, but when theories were elaborated about the way in which future town planning should go. The Revolution inspired ideas of change, of novelty, ideas that were reinforced by developments in technology and materials. The arguments were fierce, lively and imaginative. But, at the end of the day, what was left, other than some Constructivist buildings, was a reversion to classicism, now sadly distorted by gigantism, and a set of town planning principles that had individually first been enunciated well before the Revolution (French 1995: 49).

Finally, it seems that ideology leads to a certain form of utopia in planning matters. When planning becomes too conceptual and is set upon ideological bases, it becomes an ideal that is hard to reach and eventually is left unrealised. For example, the will to start afresh the City of the Socialist Man, to base it on new principles, and to
construct it *ab initio*, was a bit unrealistic. It looks like there is some kind of incompatibility between urban planning, which is a long time and evaluative process (according to people’s needs, techniques, legal frameworks, sources of financing) and ideology, which freezes the process in an absolute ideal whose purpose is the well-being of all men. Planning is a very concrete practice that needs realism, whereas ideology consists of concepts and ideals. It explains for some part the failure of planning thinkers in the 1920s to create a new city. Under the reign of Stalin, most of these planning ideals faded into the background or were even disapproved publicly. Instead, the harsh reality of Stalinism saw industry and towns growing very rapidly, while quality of urban life sank even lower.

The multiplicity of associations and the cross-currents of ideas and conflicting theories created a vitality and vigour in the debate. All participants shared Lissitskiy’s 'unshakable confidence in the future', and all shared, as they did with their Bauhaus colleagues in Germany, the belief that they were free to devise the City of Socialist Man (French 1995: 38).

The State, which in any case was to wither away as communism was achieved, was merely the enabler. All believed that the new City that was to arise would of itself bring about social engineering and the desired society (French 1995: 38).

By the time that Milyutin and others were designing the linear city, the political and economic environment was already changing rapidly. Stalin was firmly in control and in 1928, two years before Milyutin promulgated his Sotsgorod, the First Five Year Plan had begun (French 1995: 41).

A decade of discussions and arguments had produced no blueprint for the city of the future, but the need was immediate (French 1995: 42). Time had run out and there had been a failure to achieve results (French 1995: 42). The failure of the theoreticians of the 1920s to come to any consensus and the hard economic realities of the day meant that town planning at that period had no existence in fact (French 1995: 196). Moreover, Stalin was above all a political realist; it is highly unlikely that
he had the faintest belief in the ability of architecture and planning to achieve social engineering (French 1995: 42).

The ideas of the City of Socialist Man were rejected as Utopian; the cities of the USSR, it was averred, were socialist by virtue of their take-over by the Communist Party (French 1995: 42).

The onset of the Stalin era brought to an end abstract theorising about towns and their plans, and simultaneously introduced the national economic plan as the controlling system of the country's development (French 1995: 196). In 1932, final mopping-up operations were completed. A government body, ARPLAN was established by Kaganovich to approve all master plans (French 1995: 43).

Certainly, many if not most of the theoreticians assumed a new society and made little or no effort to understand the workings of social groups in reality (French 1995: 43). At its extreme, some members of this school of thought saw the achievement of the Marxian goal of abolishing the difference between town and country through a total disappearance of the town as it had existed – the group known as the Disurbanists (French 1995: 36).

If the dreamers of new societies in new settings of work and residence ignored the past, the men of action did not. Lenin, the realist, was more sharply aware of the role of heritage in societal consciousness (French 1995: 178).

At the least, urban planning needs a strong public voluntarism and the promulgation of policies that have to be carried out over a long period with coherence and stability. It has to be defined as one of the most important priorities. If not, the other priorities overwhelm the planning principles. That is what happened during the Stalin era. Existing towns were expected to absorb the huge numbers of new in-migrants, yet with most capital investment going to build towns where none had existed before (French 1995: 197).
The drawing up of plans was on a limited scale. Of those that were drawn up, little or nothing was realised. The overriding dominance of industry and its controlling ministries in decision-making again and again frustrated the aims of the planners (French 1995: 197). This legacy of abased urban life put pressure on the entire period following Stalin, giving national and local governments little option but to give total priority to the program of housing construction, with no less disregard for town plans than industry had shown in the earlier stage (French 1995: 197).

Town plans were forced to yield their priorities to the short-term needs of the government of the day (French 1995: 198).

1.6.2. Transmission of ideas from one country to another

The question here is to see how national planning can be influenced by other country ideas. Indeed, it seems that trends exist in planning throughout history. Some ideas, concepts and schemes expressed in a city, a country or a group of countries can be integrated and assimilated by others in various ways. It can be reproduced entirely and similarly, or some ideas of the main concept can be copied and adapted to the local context and specificities. The purpose here is to analyse the different processes according to which planning ideas can be transmitted from one country to another.

First, methods and ideas of planning can be literally imposed by the government of one country on another, typically in a colonial context. Indeed, in the case of the French and British Empires, the diffusion process was one of transference, where planning ideas and practices were transported unaltered by local considerations.

Many of the planning responses of Eastern European countries during the most repressive phases of the communist era may also be understood in this way. Indeed, planning can correspond to a certain kind of ideology and political system, and then spread throughout the countries that share the same ideology. This was the case within the former Soviet bloc where a specific form of planning was almost imposed on the countries that formed the bloc. The socialist political system influenced directly patterns of urbanisation in socialist countries. This influence can be expressed through the adoption and implementation of a symbolic architecture, like
the mausoleum and the International Style. It can also be expressed by methods of urban regulation. Indeed, in most countries of the socialist bloc, common urbanisation trends can be found.

The Soviet strategy, one followed in various ways by most of the Eastern European countries, has been to economise on the costs of urbanisation and block rural-urban migration (Thrift and Forbes 1986: 29). The working out of these tendencies explains what appears to be the innate anti-urbanism of many socialist societies. In effect, the state, in trying to bring all economic activity into public ownership, reduces the economic diversity of cities and therefore their chances for growth (Thrift and Forbes 1986, 35).

In this particular case, the process of transmission of planning ideas is quite simple overall. Mostly, it is either due to the formation and training of socialist country planners in the USSR or Eastern European countries, or to the advice and leading positions of USSR experts in the planning projects of these countries.

These design and construction projects were carried out by mixed Soviet-Vietnamese teams under Isakovich’s direction and his studio provided a major forum for the exchange of ideas. According to Logan (1998: 532), this largely meant the transfer of Soviet design concepts to Vietnam, although at times the Vietnamese were able to get the Russians to modify their ideas to bring in some local elements.

The education system responsible for preparing Vietnamese, Lao and Cambodian architects and civil engineers to develop cities and towns has much to do with the way that Soviet ideas were transplanted in Indochina. Throughout the 1955-1990 period, students went in large numbers to be educated in Soviet and East European universities and graduating architects and engineers brought back to Indochina an urban language that was in line with the needs of a socialist state (Logan 1998: 532).

But in most cases, the influence exerted by planning ideas on different countries is much smoother and much less direct. In fact, a lot of differences in the experience of diffusion in different countries can be noticed. According to Ward’s typology, it goes
from authoritarian imposition to synthetic innovation. Between these two extremes, a wide range of situations can occur. The diffusion process can vary depending on the relationship between the 'importing' country and the 'exporting' country. Among occidental countries, competition and relatively equal positions, without strong dependency, can characterise the relationship. Then, diffusion may be best understood as highly selective borrowing, often from multiple sources. Imported ideas and practices have frequently been consciously changed and adapted to fit local circumstances. In many cases, imported ideas and practices have been not just adapted, but actually synthesised with other ideas and practices to create what became, in effect, further innovations (Ward 1998: 936).

Indeed, nowadays, cities are facing similar problems and have often adopted similar planning responses, consciously borrowing successful ideas and practices from elsewhere to attract highly mobile investment and consumption. One of the best examples we can find throughout the 20th century is the new town model whose concept has been taken and adapted in lots of different ways by many countries everywhere in the world. Another example is provided by waterfront regeneration on the Baltimore model, now established as an international phenomenon (Ward 1998: 936).

But of course, most of the time, planning ideas and practices are not taken up as a whole. They are adapted, refined and applied in specific national settings by the national planning systems to fit local problems. When a particular city or country encounters a key planning idea from elsewhere, it uses it as a solution to its own problems by building up its own model derived from that original idea. Most of the time, the mechanisms of diffusion are very different. The planning model can be exported and imported thanks to key personalities, to reformist or professional milicis, to inter-governmental actions etc (Ward 1988: 937).

In fact, the diffusion process really depends on the balance of power between the exporting and the importing nations. If the relation is a dependent one, there is a significant chance that the process will be characterised by imposition or strong influence. This will happen with the presence of the exporting country inside the
national planning system of the importing country, or with the strong dependence of
the importing country on the exporting country for the training of its planners. If the
relationship is more of an equal one, the diffusion process may proceed through
studies of solutions on common urban problems, through the organisation of
colloquia, through study visits and so on.

I think we are entering a new era in terms of the diffusion of planning ideas and
practices. Indeed, with the end of the cold war and of the bipolar world, and with the
increase of globalisation, a new kind of diffusion process can be established. There is
no need for a country to be part of a bloc any longer. Real cooperation projects can be
set up. Countries with experience in dealing with urban problems can bring their
solutions to the countries that need it without attempting to impose their ideas in the
name of an ideology. They can just share their expertise and try to adapt it to the local
considerations of the importing country. Under these conditions, countries that are
trying to deal with problems that are inherent to recent urban development will be
able to choose between different solutions that will be offered to them by
international experts within the context of cooperation programs. Only in this way
will the world be able to meet with the objectives expressed recently for a durable
sustainable development. Indeed, imposed solutions or undiluted borrowing
unmodified by local considerations are never a good thing. In Japan, mimicry of
planning practices from the most advanced western industrial countries with little
adaptation contributed to the loss of a certain identity and culture. Planning has to be
respectful of the identity, the culture and the patrimony of the city and the country
where it takes place. Only real cooperation projects in the planning field can make it
true.

1.6.3. Globalisation of economies, cultures and ideas

'Globalisation': this word which nowadays overwhelms all the media, is used by
everybody and has many different meaning. It seems to be able to explain both the
advantages and inconvenience of our advanced societies. But what does it mean
exactly? How did it appear? What are the consequences of its development? I will try
to address these questions in this thesis, and will apply them to the urban planning field.

First of all, globalisation results from the extension of communications, which are more and more powerful and open to everyone. Indeed, television, radios, newspapers, and more recently the Internet, all contributed to abolish communication borders. A Vietnamese individual can now get information about distant Venezuela and talk with a resident of African Mali with the help of e-mail, which was unimaginable only 10 years ago. Thanks to this, very few places on the planet remain isolated, and anybody can access this enormous database from anywhere in the world. Thus, cross-cultural exchanges, connections between individuals, cultures and countries are easier and more frequent.

Second, globalisation also stems from the constant improvement of transportation means since the beginning of this century. The increasing popularity of the car in every society, the development of fast trains (France, Europe, Japan), but above all, the development of air traffic and the decrease in plane fares has made almost any point on the planet accessible to increasing numbers of people. Traditional physical borders are now more open to foreigners. The development of tourism that came with the opening of air fares in western countries favoured the discovering of different cultures and civilisations and the knowledge of each others’ culture allows a mixing of cultures to a certain point. Traditional cultures become more receptive to other ones and are threatened by the spreading of the dominant western culture. Indeed, the democratic model and the market economy system, as well as the so-called 'consumer society' way of life, is all the more influential as it spreads through TV, cinema, advertising, internet and all the other media. This is what is called 'cultural globalisation'.

Moreover, this cultural globalisation is inseparable from the economic globalisation that is spreading as rapidly. Indeed, progressive opening of economies, necessary to any kind of development, is also disrupting traditional economies and cultures. The spreading of products like Coca-Cola, jeans and computers conveys cultural images and behaviour as well. The creation of free market zones and the division of the
world into zones of economic cooperation is a mark of cultural and economic globalisation.

We also need to understand how these processes affect urban planning. Indeed, with improvements in communication and with the development of air traffic, ideas, theories, techniques, practices and experiences travel just as much as people themselves. For urban planning, this phenomenon has been characterised by the spreading of different experiences and ideas and by expertise and student exchanges (Logan 1995b: 444-446). Countries learn about each other’s experiences in the urban planning field. For example, Soviet planning experience became clearer to Western observers. As Logan (1998: 529) writes,

In the field of urban planning it was held that city formation in the Soviet Union was moving along a new path in line with Marxist ideology; that is, towards the creation of a distinctive socialist city type. This view was steadily but drastically altered under the increased influence of globalising economic, technological and cultural forces, and as Western scholars gained a better understanding of the actual situation within the country.

Moreover, within Western countries, which offer less resistance to globalisation, ideas and practices in urban planning circulate very easily. Successful ones are quickly borrowed with just a few cultural and local adaptations. The case of new town experience, started in England at the beginning of the century, now developed as a model all over the world, is an example.

Thus, cities facing similar problems have often adopted similar planning responses, consciously borrowing successful ideas and practices from elsewhere to attract highly mobile investment and consumption. The classic example here is the waterfront regeneration on the Baltimore model, now fully established as an international phenomenon (Ward 1998: 935).

Finally, globalisation affects relations between northern and southern countries as well. For technical matters like urban planning, this relationship is characterised
nowadays by cooperation projects. Ideas and practices are not imposed any more as it used to be in the colonial times, with a total ignorance of local cultures. With globalisation, minds become more open, more aware of local considerations as knowledge of a country increases. Thus, research on how a successful experience in urban planning can be adapted to another country, or how we can find a new model from another country’s experience, is possible.

But, beside all these aspects of globalisation, local cultures and identities seem to remain strong in most countries and the field of urban planning does reflect this. Indeed, even when a planning model seems to be imposed on a country (through European or Soviet imperialism, for example), it seems that local adaptations are always happening (Logan 1995b: 447). ‘In the case of Vietnam, Vietnamese cultural and, hence, national survival has been achieved by bending with the wind, adopting many of the features of the invaders’ cultures while managing, at the same time, to preserve key elements of their own culture, especially language and legends’ (Logan 1995b: 443). In this sense, we can say that globalisation does not necessarily mean destruction of local cultures and identities. It is not because French people drink Coca-Cola that French wine will disappear, it is not because Vietnamese wear jeans that the ao dai (tunics) will vanish, it is not because Italians watch American movies that they forget about Italian language. And it is the same with urban planning. It is not because a successful model of planning is used in a country that it will not be adapted to fit with the local considerations. The new town model is a very good example as there is almost as many kinds of new towns as different countries that used this planning model.

1.7 Methodology:

In order to investigate the thesis, the author collected, summarised, analysed and assessed relevant international and Vietnamese planning and construction documents written by various Russian, American, British, French, Australian, Dutch, Vietnamese architectural, planning and historical experts.
Interviewing and exchanging ideas was conducted with Vietnamese and international experts in order to understand further the matters related to the thesis. The author contacted and interviewed architectural, planning, economical, historical, geological experts and urban managers who were trained in various countries all over the world and in Vietnam, including especially those experts trained in the former socialist countries in different periods. Thanks to these contacts and interviews, the author has collected much valuable information and many views on urban planning and development of Vietnam and the other socialist countries. The author especially sought to contact members of the Hanoi community, and also studied the demands of the inhabitants and investors from different economic sectors through reading district planning reports. This enabled the author to suggest changes to the current planning procedures and to put forward reasonable alternative proposals for planning and planning implementation.

The author also collected urban planning documents of former Soviet union and Vietnam to study, analyse and assess the practical result in urban planning and development according to socialist urban planning theory. Socialist ideologies has been stated in construction planning of Vietnam and Former Soviet Union and also the socialist ideologies of Soviet Union influenced on urban planning in Vietnam.

To improve knowledge and planning architectural information for studying, the author had a lot of chances to work not only with Vietnamese experts but also with experts of former Soviet Union, Poland, Bulgaria, German, Cuba-socialist countries. The author was trained in the former Soviet Union (Ukraine) providing a good opportunity to study and acknowledge the theory and the way of socialist urban planning of the socialist countries and the former Soviet Union.

In the ten most recent years under Vietnam's open policy, the author has had a lot of opportunities to participate in international conferences, forums, and short courses on architecture, planning, environment, urban management and urban economic. He has also worked with many planning, architectural, geological, social experts from many countries in the world, including America, Britain, France, Australia, Japan, Netherlands and Switzerland, on projects such as 'Hanoi Planning and Development
Control’, ‘Planning for conservation of 36 old streets in Hanoi’, ‘Hanoi Master Plan for the year 2020’ and ‘Hanoi New Town’. These collaborations enabled the author to study, gain experiences and learn about the way of planning in a market economic context – what is referred to as the Western planning method. Thanks to such courses, the author acquired a lot of valuable knowledge on architecture, planning and urban development management in the marketing mechanism context that enabled him to compare it with the former planning method, and to identify the advantages and disadvantages of each approach. Finally these work experiences allow the author to make tentative proposals for changes in Vietnam’s urban planning methods that will assist the move from subsidised and centralised urban management to urban management within a market economy.

During over 15 years of studying the planning design of Vietnamese cities such as Lao Cai town, Yen Bai Town, Thai Nguyen city, Xuan Hoa new town, Hanoi city, Quang Ninh, Hai Phong, Hai Hung, Da Nang, Ho Chi Minh city, Can Tho, and Long Xuyen, the author has accumulated a lot of practical experience and documents on urban planning according to Soviet planning model that have been valuable in the preparation of this thesis. Especially, during last 6 years, as an assistant to the Hanoi Chief Architect doing planning design directly and planning implementation management of Hanoi, the author obtained much more reliable and valuable information for the theoretical and practical aspects of the thesis. Almost all of the planning of Hanoi has been little more than creating beautiful pictures but with low feasibility, so that the planning has had to be done many times. In short, through documents, learning and practical experience in planning and urban development management, the author has reviewed, analysed and compared approaches in order to find out the limitations and unreasonableness in the former planning method and to propose new planning methods in line with factual condition under renovation in Hanoi and Vietnam.

1.8 Structure of the thesis

While striving to meet urgent requirements of the market economy under the open-door policy of the Party and the State, Vietnamese decision-makers have found the
urban construction and development in the past years to have many disadvantages in
term of its planning design, and urban development management. Disadvantages and
obstacles created by the old urban planning approach and its management system
reveal an urgent need for a basic revision of theory and practice in Hanoi's and
Vietnam's planning and management.

This thesis is an attempt to contribute a small part towards the comprehensive reform
of Vietnam and especially of Hanoi, particularly in planning and urban management
in order to meet the conditions of the market economy and to integrate Vietnam into
the regional and the world communities.

This thesis consists of eight chapters, as introduced below.

Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter seeks to summarise all matters related to the research thesis, particularly
the emphasis on the important historical moment in 1986 that has changed almost
everything related to politics, the economy, education and social affairs in Vietnam.

Hanoi is the nation's capital, a large and ancient city that has passed through many
feudal dynasties, a thousand years of Chinese feudal domination, French colonialism,
Japanese fascism, and a war of American imperialism. The success of the Revolution
of August 1945 brought Vietnam a Marxist-Leninist government. The country
became a member of the socialist camp led by the former Soviet Union and was
unified in 1975. Each historic period has its evidence, an inheritance marking the
influences and changes of each regime.

The clear influence of the Soviet connection on Hanoi is shown in its political
environment and in the practice of planning and construction of architectural works
like new quarters, which were constructed according to planning principles and
architectural styles of the Soviet Union. Recently, a new, innovative thinking has
opened many new planning and architectural approaches and appropriate measures
applicable to the conditions of a market economy.
The above-mentioned issues explain the reason why I have selected Hanoi as the case study. In this Chapter, with an analysis of planning practice in Hanoi during the last 40 years, I have pointed out a series of problems in Hanoi planning and urban management that cannot be solved by the previous planning system. I emphasised these key objectives and questions to be followed in this thesis in order to contribute to solving problems, especially the changing of the ideological basis of planning practice in post-Doi Moi Hanoi. The chapter presents a study of the planning process in the former Soviet Union, analysing actual works completed at leading planning research organisations of the Ministry of Construction of Vietnam, such as the National Institute for Urban and Rural planning (NIURP) and the Hanoi Chief Architect Office, in the past 20 years.

With the planning theory of the Soviet Union and other countries of the socialist camp based upon bureaucratic and subsidised management systems applied to the whole economy of the country, with Marxist-Leninist idealism as the basis of thinking and action, planners and architects worked not unlike machines on instructions from politicians, to draw up beautiful and at the same time utopian urban pictures, to be implemented by the State. Implementation was then conditioned by actual conditions, often proving the plans to be unrealistic.

Many authors have written about Soviet planning foundations. One of the best studies is *Soviet Planning Principles* by a group of Soviet authors. This is a summarised study of the whole planning and construction system according to socialist and communist ideology, as well as the bureaucratic, centrally subsidised economy, where all investment and construction in the towns and cities is to be carried out by the State. In this book we could see only the good sides of the ideal Soviet cities. The authors have forgotten, or were afraid, to mention one prime condition of development: what is the cost of implementing the beautiful picture created by them? They also forgot that people are not soldiers and, thus, cannot live in camps all their life. Many authors (for example French, 1987; Bater, 1977a,b, 1986; Osborn and Reiner, 1962; Shaw, 1983, 1995; Thomas, 1978; Ruble, 1990; Logan, 1995) have also written about the planning and architecture of the former Soviet Union, on how the socialist ideology was embedded in the planning and construction sectors of the
former Soviet Union, Vietnam and other countries of the socialist camp. All authors were of the opinion that Soviet planning theory was good, but asked how it could be implemented by a limited centrally subsidised economic mechanism, with socialist knowledge confined to one basic economic sector, the State.

Through research and practice, drawing lessons and analysis from various sources, I have come to the conclusion that changing of the ideological basis of planning in post-

_Doi Moi_ Hanoi and Vietnam should be carried out at any price. Only in such a way we can build towns and cities for the people and let them participate in urban construction and planning processes, in accordance with the conditions of a market economy, which is being renovated continuously under the guidance of the Communist Party and the Vietnamese Government.

**Chapter 2: Soviet socialist ideology and urban planning in the former USSR**

Chapter 2 concentrates on several themes. Urban planning always reflects the interests and ideology of the ruling class (Baranov and Shvanrinov 1996: 7). The main idea of socialism and Marxism-Leninism is concerned with building a non-exploitative society. All the national assets are the property of the people; the people are their sole owner. All people are equal and are provided with state-subsidised benefits such as housing, land for domestic cultivation, jobs, etc. Management is in accordance with the mechanism of a comprehensive system of centralised, bureaucratic subsidisation. The making of plans and their approval, and urban investment and construction should be guided and implemented by the State. People passively waited for the assigned works as well for their housing subsidy.

Urban development in the former Soviet Union was under conditions of total state control. Planning projects were carried out in accordance with the standards and norms promulgated by the State. The Socialist City is a product of the centrally planned economy and the land is a national asset. Social fairness was always the main goal of planning and urban development in the former Soviet Union. The Soviet Communist Party always gave guidance and orientation for the study of socialist
planning and construction. Basic Soviet planning theory is a theory based on Mikrorayon, rayon, public services and its grades.

The application of socialist theory and ideology is clearly reflected in Moscow's planning, construction, development and management. It can be seen as representing the whole Soviet planning method. It has been planned many times, as has Hanoi. This Chapter also suggests that Soviet mikrorayon and rayon planning would be ideal if implemented completely. It would provide new towns with excellent neighbourhoods. However, unfortunately, after nearly 70 years of tentative implementation in the Soviet Union, we have discovered many disadvantages. The gap between theory and practice is simply too great.

In July 1998, I had an opportunity to return to Russia. I was surprised by the degradation of planning, construction and management, particularly at the Mikrorayons level, due to the lack of maintenance. Even now, architects are still designing serial box-shaped blocks of flats. Appropriate attention had yet to be paid to the completeness of living quarters and, everywhere, the lack of competition between managers and constructors was obvious.

Chapter 3: The influence of Soviet socialist ideology on urban planning in Vietnam

In this Chapter, I point out the influence of socialism on Vietnam, especially planning. At the moment we can say that Vietnam is one of the rare countries of the socialist camp that are still faithful to the socialist line of Marxist-Leninist theory. However, in the spirit of reform and renovation, in accordance with the world's trends and the market economy, the country has made a determined effort to shift the direction towards a market economy, renovation and incorporation in the global economic system.

In the past, the former Soviet Union had always seemed to the Party, the Government and the Vietnamese people to be a bright example for construction of socialism and communism. This is not to say that Vietnam had copied all forms of Soviet policy. However, we can say that Vietnam always followed in the general direction of Soviet
urban planning. Since the first days of liberation in 1954, the Vietnamese Communist Party and Government made particular efforts to plan, finance and build new towns, especially in Hanoi. Appreciating all-round and strong assistance from Russia, Vietnam sent a large number of students to socialist countries, especially Russia, to study scientific and humanities subjects, including urban planning, architecture and construction. At the same time, many Russian delegations of specialists in planning, architecture and construction visited Hanoi under agreements between the two countries, to help Vietnam with planning and investment in various major projects.

Through study of the documents, statistics and practices of friendly co-operation between Vietnam and the former Soviet Union during the last forty years in the field of planning, the thesis argues that the influence of Marxist-Leninist ideology is deep and comprehensive. In particular, Soviet planning theory, through the mikrorayon theory and rayon planning practice, affected a substantial proportion of urban planning in Vietnam. Russian specialists came to Hanoi on four occasions to assist or coordinate in making planning schemes for Hanoi. The Master Plans that were made and revised many times left a clear imprint on Hanoi. Besides, the residential quarters of Kim Lien, Trung Tu, Nguyen Cong Tru and other architectural projects in the Russian or East-European manner, such as the Vietnam-Russia Friendship Cultural Palace (now called the Hanoi Palace of Culture), the Hanoi People's Committee Building, Ho Chi Minh Museum and the Thang Long Bridge were built in Hanoi.

Chapter 4: The formation and development of Vietnamese cities

In this chapter, I give a short overview of the development process of cities and towns in Vietnam, from before 1945 up to now. The imprints of historical periods on Vietnam’s urban development will be shown in the following periods:

- The feudal period: the imprints can be seen in villages and urban settlements in Vietnam, with gradual urbanisation of residential architectural and planning styles, such as in the old city of Thang Long. In the artisan villages within the city boundaries, the temples, built in original rural styles, had gradually changed into
more urban-like ones, as the city lifestyle combined with the traditional production of handicrafts.

- The period of domination by China: the imprint was also shown through the architecture of temples, palaces, and in lifestyles. It is true that even now Vietnam and China have a lot of similarities in architecture, culture and social activities.

- The colonised period: This period bequeathed to Vietnam, among other consequences, some valuable cultural and architectural elements, such as the first planning scheme for development of Hanoi as the capital of not only Vietnam but also of the whole of Indochina. These elements include huge squares, green streets and attractive villas, which are to some extent reflective of provincial French architecture, but at the same time tropicalised to cope with the Vietnamese climate.

- Socialist period: This period was much affected by Soviet planning and architecture, shown in architectural objects that the former Soviet Union helped to build throughout Vietnam. It was a period of intensive Socialist construction, in which the co-operative spirit and great assistance of the former Soviet Union were extended to Vietnam in the most difficult years of the country’s construction and defence.

- 'Doi Moi' period after 1986: After Soviet-style socialism disintegrated, the Party and Government of Vietnam introduced the 'Doi Moi' policy, enabling the economy to develop continuously. The main aspects of the 'Doi Moi' policy are the abolition of the bureaucratic subsidy-based mechanism and the recognition of different sectors in the economy. Urban planning is now not only implemented by the Government but also by other economic sectors. Vietnam abolished the subsidy mechanism, and is reforming its economy gradually in order to reach the advanced economic levels of the region as well as of the world.

Chapter 5: The transition period in Vietnam

In this chapter I explain the urban development process in the period of transition to a market economy, the abolition of subsidy mechanisms and the decentralisation of power to enable local authorities to manage their economies by themselves.
Administrative management structures and procedures from central to local levels are being gradually reformed and simplified in order to integrate with the regional and global community. After Soviet-style socialism disintegrated at the same time as the country was being reunited, economic assistance from the former Soviet Union and CMEA ceased, and the Vietnamese economy entered its worst period. Inflation reached a staggering 774%, life was very hard and it seemed that the country could never recover. In the face of this extremely difficult situation, the Party and the Government of Vietnam had initiated the process of 'Doi Moi' to boost the economy by abolishing the centrally subsidised system and adopting the principles of market economics.

The reform policy of Vietnam has had a major effect on all economic, social and administrative activities, especially on the planning and construction system for the development of new towns. A series of projects has been assisted by international organisations and other countries to create the conditions for Vietnam to carry on the reform process. These projects include reforming of the administrative management mechanism for Vietnam, which was financed by UNDP and implemented by a Governmental Organisation Board; the project on planning and controlling development of Hanoi, which was financed by AusAID in order to assist Hanoi to set up a new and appropriate urban management system; and many other projects. Many architects, planners and civil engineers have been sent to the US, UK, Australia, Japan and France, to study and to search for a system of planning expertise which is in line with a market economy and flexible enough to meet the demands of various investors and to create favourable conditions for the participation of the community in planning issues. In the past, all matters related to construction and planning had to be settled by the Government, but the situation now is changed completely. Construction and development are the responsibility of the whole community. If urban management used to be the issue that received only scant attention, it is now a matter of great concern and responsibility for the central and local authorities as well as for everybody.

Chapter 6: The impact of Doi Moi on the planning of Hanoi
Chapter 1: INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, I summarise the process of planning according to Soviet theory. The development of Hanoi New Town is still incomplete, due to a lack of finance and also of a planned system of urban management and control. Thus, I have to deal with experiences in making, implementing and management of planning from the previous periods.

This chapter also points out the factors involved in the construction and development of new towns, such as land, housing and investment. The adjustment of Hanoi Master Plan to the year of 2020 and the planning of the Hanoi New Town provide examples of planning according to the requirements of a market economy. Even though the new methodology is still not comprehensive or sufficiently detailed, it is nevertheless a breakthrough for the new, flexible planning system designed to meet the demands of urban development, various investors and the community.

Chapter 7: Xuan Hoa and Hanoi New Towns – A comparison

This chapter focuses on the practical experience of Xuan Hoa New Town development, which took place before 1986, and of the Hanoi New Town development that is currently occurring after 12 years of applying the Doi Moi policy. During the periods of centralised economic management, city development was only undertaken by the Government. From studying the experience of Xuan Hoa New Town development, Vietnamese experts can learn useful lessons about how to plan, how to choose the right location for a new town, and what reasons caused the failure of Xuan Hoa New Town development. At the same time, the chapter makes some suggestions for creating a flexible planning system to meet the demands of a market economy in the case of the Hanoi New Town. The role of the Government in the New Town development is to create good investment conditions to attract international and local investors. This chapter also outlines key differences between the old and the new planning methodologies.

Chapter 8: Conclusions and suggestions
Chapter 1: INTRODUCTION

After a careful study of the current state of planning and management systems for construction and development in Vietnam over the last 40 years, especially in Hanoi, and through an analysis of the available literature on Soviet planning theory and practice, a number of serious shortcomings of the Soviet planning methodology are identified. These include those methods applied in Vietnam, especially those still being used when the country was on its reform path, transforming itself from a bureaucratically subsidised economy to a market economy. It takes time to change old ways of thinking, but together with reform measures taken by the Government in the legal area and the administrative management mechanism, the planning sector should also be reformed. This is particularly true of training methods for planners, which should include the retraining and sending of specialists to advanced countries for training in planning theory and practice. There are many suggestions in this chapter concerning the reform of planning management in Hanoi and of the planning and design regulations and procedures used in setting up a system of investment management. It is argued that scientific methods should be used to make the planning process and its management a simple procedure at all levels from the central to the local. This chapter also summarises some critical challenges faced in the process of planning and urban development in Vietnam and in Hanoi.
Chapter 2:

SOVIET SOCIALIST IDEOLOGY AND URBAN PLANNING IN THE USSR

2.1 Theory and practice in Soviet Socialist Planning - The 'City of the Socialist Man'

Planning and urban development emerged thousands of years ago. Urban development and the theory and practice of urban planning include various social, economic, sanitary, technical and architectural issues. The activities of urban planning, architecture and urban development always depend on the social system and the level of development of the productive forces in society. Each period in history produces a certain urban planning and development practice. Urban planning is a complex phenomenon, which is affected by various factors. The most important factors, which define the urban planning systems mentioned above, are the social system and the productive forces. Urban planning is always a tool reflecting the interests and ideology of the ruling class (Baranov & Shvanrikov 1966: 7).

According to the socialist ideology in the former Soviet Union, under the conditions of antagonism between classes in a capitalist social system based on private ownership of productive means and the exploitation of man by man, urban planning serves the interests of the exploiting class. Only the destruction of capitalist ownership of the productive means and the elimination of the private ownership of productive means can bring land, housing and urban planning into the service of all members of society. In the Soviet Union, the social intentions of Soviet urban planning, created by the October Revolution, resulted in great changes in cultural, social, economic and political conditions in the life of the people. The exploitation of man by man was eliminated, the labor force was liberated, assets and properties in cities were nationalised and the private ownership of land was abolished. Socialist production was organised in industry and agriculture, the national economy was
planned, and development was driven in a 'proper' direction with a balanced development of residential areas.

These great revolutionary changes created a new era for urban development. From the first day of the Great October Revolution, Soviet urban planning was intended to serve all the people. The first decisions on the reallocation of accommodation for working people, on the relocation of workers to the central areas with services provided, on the land confiscated from the Kulaks and allocation of land to the peasants under the slogan 'all land to the peasants', were reflected in the consistent references to the benefits of the people in the urban planning policies of the socialist government. The tasks for renovation of the old cities into cities with new social goals were identified in the Programme of the Communist Party led by Lenin in 1919, and approved at the 8th Congress of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union. In this programme, the emphasis was on the necessity to improve the living conditions of working people, to gradually remove squatters, to renovate the old housing stock and to construct new housing that could meet modern living conditions, to demolish run-down blocks which were overcrowded and had inadequate sanitary facilities, to redevelop and improve housing conditions for workers in the outskirts of cities, and to gradually allocate appropriate housing for all working people. In short, the solution of social problems in urban development attacked all the backward vestiges of Russian cities created before the revolution (Baranov & Skvarikov 1976: 5). A new socialist city was produced by the new socialist system.

The socialist accounting system was used in an economy comprising of 100 per cent state owned enterprises; all of the state budget was spent under the centrally planned mechanism, with full subsidies given to housing and other public services. The socialist city was constructed by the State; the State was in charge of distributing houses to its residents, and of urban management. All the urban residents did was to go to work, earn money and wait for the distribution of housing and other public services. That was at least the idealisation of life, and there was almost no gap between the rich and the poor because their salaries, as well as housing, were the same. Further, there was no difference between the manual workers and the educated
people in terms of salary and housing distribution. Indeed, the system was designed to exclude the possibility of creating a divide between rich and poor. Everyone would be satisfied; people had no need to compete with each other, but just to wait passively for the state’s 'favourites'. People learned to be patient when standing in a queue. This led to the development of inefficiencies in the socialist city, where there was no land market and no private housing. Instead, as the slogan put it: 'houses belong to the State, the State has the right to distribute houses to people and allow them to "rent" at very cheap price'.

From a social perspective, the socialist city was structured by standardised mikrorayon and rayon, so the commercial street did not exist, house styles in a city were almost the same, and it was rather difficult to distinguish one mikrorayon from another. That is why the architectural appearance of the socialist urban centres is so monotonous, although Soviet architects had tried to apply traditional architectural elements.

Another feature to which attention needs to be paid was the grandiosity, especially in the centres of urban areas. Soviet headquarters and Communist party headquarters were huge, with large squares and great statues, such as the leader’s statue, victory statues, and the statues of well-known men.

In the field of urban development and management, the Chief Architect Office had extensive powers to carry out urban planning and construction works, and, beneath it the planning institutes worked as design offices. Land was owned by the government, so planning policies could, in theory, be implemented completely. The costs of site clearance and compensation and construction would be financed by the State, so there was no difficulty, theoretically, in implementing urban planning schemes.

The Chief Architect’s work was focused on site selection and granting construction licenses in accordance with the 5-year plans of the State. That was because, under the requirement of the State and the local authorities, no individuals would ask for permission to build a house in an urban area. The socialist city was the product of the
centrally planned economy and State land ownership. These two features exercised a strong impact on the formation of the socialist city.

2.2 Key principles underpinning the ideology

It is now more than half a century since serious consideration was first given to what the Soviet socialist city should be. While most early utopian notions fell on barren soil, two basic premises did take firm roots and have influenced Soviet policies concerning urbanisation ever since. The first was that urban growth should be planned. The second was that there should be a normative style of town planning; that is, the establishment of relatively rigid minimum standards which planning processes must attempt to satisfy (Bater 1987: 177).

The socialist camp recognised that Soviet urban areas were to be constructed to socialist standards and ideals, and this was also the wish of other socialist countries, including Vietnam. Soviet cities were planned and built according to the centrally planned management and subsidised system, in which planning and architectural standards and norms were strictly applied. The Soviet city has passed through several stages of development, namely theoretical argument, heavy and rapid industrialisation, and frenetic housing construction. In each stage, theoretical planning ideals have taken second place to pragmatic recognition of urgent needs (French 1987: 309).

In the theory of city formation and development based on mikrorayon (microrayon, microregion) and rayon planning, it is recognised that the arrangement of structural planning, the arrangement of public services such as schools, hospitals, kindergartens and shops, and also the arrangement of residential areas and industrial enterprises, should be based on standards and norms. In the former Soviet Union there were many similar mikrorayon, so that mistakes could be made and repeated easily. This was also a result of the centrally planned management and subsidisation system, where all kinds of construction activity was carried out and financed by the government.
Based on the above-mentioned management system in urban areas, it was thought that unevenness of investment in different urban areas could not happen. In the Soviet Union, all people could receive subsidies in housing; they could receive a flat or an attached flat in communal houses. In order to obtain a flat, all people had to register on a waiting list, which was controlled and managed by the local authority (propiska system) (Henry & Morton 1980: 225). About 94 per cent of all new flats were distributed to individual households. Usually a family of four would receive a flat of three rooms with a living space of 41-44 square metres. The other six per cent were chiefly allocated to families staying for less than two years in the capital who would have to share accommodation.

2.3 Ideological influences on urban planning and development in the USSR: Theory and Practice

Soviet socialist ideology in urban planning originated from the centrally planned economy, in which the State was in charge of providing accommodation, public services and social welfare for all government officers and workers and their families. Urban development and management works were financed by the State budget; people did not need to worry about their houses and social welfare, all they needed was to passively wait for a flat to be distributed to them by the government.

As mentioned earlier, while most early utopian notions of the Soviet city fell on barren soil, two basic premises did take firm root and have influenced Soviet urban polices ever since. The first was that urban growth should be planned. The second was that there should be a normative style of town planning; that is, the establishment of relatively rigid minimum standards, which the planning process must attempt to satisfy. A normative style of town planning and controlled city growth have spearheaded the attempt to create an equitable level of consumer well-being within, and amongst, cities, and to bring a measure of order into urbanisation (Bater 1977: 190).

Theories of town planning in the former Soviet Union abounded. The distribution of urban centres between extra-large cities, which have an enormous effect on the
socio-economic development of large regions, and cities with medium and small size, was given special attention. Soviet urban planning ideology was reflected in the concern for the limitation of development of extra-large cities, and encouragement of the development of small and medium sized cities throughout the country.

A number of fundamental town planning principles and norms will be examined in the context of the Soviet City of the 1970s. These are: the idea of an optimal city size; the principle of providing an equitable level of consumer well-being; public transport-based spatial mobility and the notion of minimising the journey to work; and the strict segregation of urban land uses (Osborn & Reiner 1962; Kravchuk 1973).

There are certainly other common elements to theoretical formulations of the Soviet city, but these four have a direct relationship to urban form and function and ought to be in general convergence with theory. The notion of optimal city size in many respects typifies the difficulties encountered when attempting to translate theory into practice.

For more than four decades, the concept was widely accepted as an essential element in Soviet policy, though what was to be the optimum size was far from consistent (Strongina 1974, 139-140). Early statements reckoned that between 50,000 and 60,000 inhabitants was ideal. This was a large enough population to make provision of the desired goods and services economical, yet small enough to permit a sense of community and a communal, socialist ethos to be created and maintained - admirable objectives but soon confounded. Industrialisation fuelled a seemingly unending, cumulative process of urban growth.

Unable to hold city growth in check, ideas about what constituted an optimum size began to change. By the 1950s the most frequently cited figures ranged between a population of 150,000 and 200,000, a rather pragmatic accommodation with the reality of urbanisation but also reflective of changing notions about the nature of urban economies. By the 1960s conceptions of the optimal size had increased to a range between 200,000 and 300,000 (Muravyev & Uspenskiy 1974: 90, 91). Not
withstanding the inflation in theoretical optimum city size, the actual pace of urban growth far outstripped it. At the beginning of the 1960s the validity of the concept was being openly challenged (Pchelintsev 1966-1967: 15-23). Events since have put paid to its utility in town planning theory and practice.

The easing in the late 1950s of the so-called 'administrative measures', which had served to control Soviet population movements quite effectively, set in motion profound changes in urban growth and population distribution. Despite a flood of decrees establishing limits to city size, the continuation of the system of internal passports and propiski (the special permits required of urban residents) and the very real need for planners to predict city populations accurately, urban growth, and particularly that of the larger centres, occurred at unprecedented, and invariably unplanned, rates. Legislation directing ministries to develop new facilities in specific small cities has not changed the trend (Loginov & Lyubovny 1975: 47-49). Nor has a host of other measures. In the period from 1970 to 1974 the larger cities not only continued to grow rapidly but at a rate one-fifth greater than the exceedingly fast growth rate registered in the 1960s (Kochetkov 1975: 24).

From the economic perspective, urban centres are formed by the 'basis' sectors, including industry, capital construction, transportation, etc. According to Soviet urban planners' conception, industry is the most important basis for creating urban areas (the Soviet Union's basis sectors had a share of about 30-35 per cent of the whole population of the country; the service sectors had a share of 18-20 per cent and was not considered as an urban-forming component and, finally, the dependent sectors had a share of 50 per cent of the whole population).

From the social perspective, urban communities, without references to individual nationalities, were created on the basis of the planning unit called "residential mikrorayon". A kindergarten was to be found in the centre of a group of houses, and a primary school acted as the centre of a residential mikrorayon. Several mikrorayon would develop into a medium city, or a city rayon within a large city; a lot of rayon could form a huge city. Through this arrangement, it was argued that 100 per cent of children under seven would be kept in kindergartens and preparatory schools and 100
per cent of pupils had the chance to go to school, because the State had the responsibility for subsidising these public facilities. In this respect, Soviet urban goals were to satisfy all of urban residents’ demands in terms of their living, working, travelling and studying needs, on the basis of a centrally planned economy, where everyone was being cared for by the state.

In terms of the structure of architectural space, Soviet town planning performed the powerful act of legitimisation, in developing political centres with symbolic buildings and squares, as well as other public facilities. Urban planning structure basically depended on the city's functions, which included industrial zones, zones of external circulation, living quarters, and urban central areas. The theory of Soviet town planning identified four grades of public services: a) daily services, including kindergartens at the centres of groups of houses, and primary schools at the centres of the microrayon; b) irregular services (weekly services), including high schools, commercial outlets, service shops, and clinics; c) periodical services at rayon grade, consisting normally of commercial, cultural, hospital facilities; and, finally d) high-class services present in only largest urban centres.

Service grades were also applied in rural settlements, where service grade one corresponds to the commune level, service grade two to the district level, service grade three to the province level. The formation of service grades in Soviet human settlement structure and urban planning was a very significant theoretical base, aimed at improving the quality of living and promoting cultural values, both in material and spiritual expressions, for the urban population, in order to ensure sustainable development in Soviet cities. In fact, Soviet cities were founded mainly on theoretical bases: microrayon with daily servicing works within service radius of 200-300 metres; living quarters with irregular servicing works within service radius of 600-800 metres even to 1000 metres and ward with periodical servicing works within a service radius of 2000-3000 metres. In almost any city the microrayon were constructed with high rise blocks of flats of five, nine or 11 storeys, containing one, two or three-bedroom flats including kitchen, dining room and bathroom.
Five-storey blocks of flats were largely of the walk-up type, but those higher usually had two elevators. Each mikrorayon had a garden for the leisure activities of its residents. The structure of mikrorayon in the former Soviet Union was quite convenient and suitable for the centrally subsidised system and the passive lifestyle of Soviet people; everything seemed to be solved by the State (Nguyen The Ba 1982: 27).

The Soviet theory of urban development planning, which originated from the centrally planned economy with various state-owned enterprises and no private sector, could be seen as suitable to the Soviet social system; at least in theory, urban development planning in the former Soviet Union was quite appropriate to its conditions (Nguyen Tai 1996: 23).

Theoretically, any flat in a microregion should be within 100-300 metres of the nearest shop, with 80 per cent of the population not over 1000 metres away (Nikolskiy 1982: 65). In reality, however, the vast majority of microregions did not and still do not meet these standards of service provision. Where shops have been provided, they are not in readily accessible precincts, but scattered through the microregion on the ground floor level of the apartment blocks, thereby entailing much more effort and time in shopping. In particular, any given microregion is very unlikely to have the full range of shops selling daily and weekly necessities. Thus, journeys to neighbouring microregions are often necessary. This geographical dispersal of supply points is being drastically reduced, according to French (1995: 81) as more and more gastronomies (supermarkets) are built.

2.4 Outcomes of the Soviet Socialist planning model

The theory of town planning was formed thousands of years ago and the doctrine of Soviet town planning inherited a wealth of prior knowledge, especially the expertise gained during the time of Peter the Great. The formation of Moscow and especially St Petersburg left its marks on the thinking of those responsible for town planning in the former Soviet Union immediately after the Great October Revolution. From the
very beginning of the twentieth century until now, a large number of town planning theories have arisen world wide, among which the Soviet theory is but one.

In the 1920s, soon after the Great October Revolution had taken place, for the first time town planning moved from theory to real outcomes in the former Soviet Union, with the completion of the first General Master Plan for Moscow. In 1930, the Moscow Master Plan was approved. At that time, the distinctive Soviet theory of town planning was beginning to be formed, under the influence of Howard's concept of the garden city. In the 1950s, the Soviet theory of town planning reached its zenith with the work named Town Building by Professor Baranov, in which he reviewed the questions of theory and practice of town planning in the Soviet Union (Hanoi Architectural University, 1989: 46).

Economically, the cities of the Soviet Union had an industrial base, and the town-creating components included: industry, construction, external transport, and administrative offices. Based on this, the method of calculating population was derived from the number of persons included in the basic component, that is, the leading component of the urban area, which, depending on the size of the city, normally accounted for 33-35 per cent of the total population. It was only the State that invested in urban development, according to its physical and economic plans, and there were no private investments.

The model of hierarchical service structure applied to living quarters, mikrorayon, represented the basic organisational structure of Soviet urban areas. The urban residential rayon in the former Soviet Union was constructed in the style of a high-rise block of flats. The population was served mainly by public transport, such as the underground, buses, trams, and trolleybus. Private cars were not encouraged. The State was responsible for compensating for the losses incurred by the public transport organisations. Thus, the ticket price for the underground, buses and trolleybuses did not depend on the distance, but was regulated, with only one price for each means of transport.
The Soviet town planning process was divided into the following phases: a) the Master Plan, or General plan of the city \((\text{Generalnyi plan})\); b) the detailed plan for each urban area and c) the construction plan.

In a sense, Soviet town planning theory seemed to live in a world of its own; it was a theory that some people saw as ideal, others as too extreme, but in fact it was not a project suitable for operating in a free market context. Nevertheless, the Soviet theory of town planning was quite unique, with its own features. It was fully elaborated from the macro-level to the micro-level, all in accordance with the centrally-planned economic system.

2.4.1 How was Socialist ideology reflected in the Moscow Master Plan (General Plan)?

Master Plan or General Plan:

After the Great October Revolution, Moscow became the capital of the Soviet Union and the Federal Republic of Russia. In the 1930s, during the industrialisation period, many factories and other enterprises were built in Moscow. The Moscow General Plan, drawn up under the direction of G. B. Krasin, was approved in 1930 and showed the initial expressions of the newly-formed socialist planning approach. But its was only at with the approval of the Moscow General plan in 1961 that socialist ideology was fully reflected in planning. According to the 1930 solution for Moscow’s spatial development, the city was to be developed along radial transport axes.

Bater (1980: 27-30) has identified ten main principles, as expressed in the 1935 Moscow master plan:

- Limited city size
- State control of housing
- Planned development of residential areas
- Spatial equality in the distribution of items of collective consumption
- Limited journey to work
- Stringent land-use zoning
- Extensive green space
- Symbolism and the central city
- Town planning as integral part of national planning

The General Plan of 1961 by G. E. Misenco saw the development of a satellite city system. It was aimed at regulating Moscow's population growth rate, creating many shuttle transport flows in order to reduce transport density in the centre, and at the same time organising 'green areas' further from the centre of the city.

Industrial zones were established under Moscow's planning structure, meeting the demand for work, transport and maintenance of the ecological environment at the edge of the town to integrate with the 'green belt' around Moscow. In terms of residential organisations for Moscow residents, the plan showed a housing structure which was organised according to the hierarchical service structure principle, in which groups of houses - residential mikrorayon and residential rayon - combined together in streets and avenues. The residential rayon was to be built-up with communal housing estates and individual houses along streets. The means of transport were mainly public. The Metro (underground) system in Moscow was commenced in 1936. It remains a very convenient and cheap public transport service. Together with the network of buses, trams, and electrified railway in the countryside, a uniform public transportation system for Moscow was created which was capable of meeting the travel demands of Moscow's inhabitants.

In terms of architectural landscape, Moscow's planning showed a modern form within the socialist ideology in Soviet planning practice, with the purpose of ensuring stability of urban areas. However, generally speaking, the State budget was always limited: the supply did not meet the demand. As a consequence, the Soviet people had to queue for their turn to be provided with housing. They also had to wait to buy goods or use public transport. No matter how long they had to wait, most Soviet citizens believed it would soon be their turn.
Detail plan:

In the Soviet Union detailed planning was set up for each functional zone, recreational areas etc., and was aimed at elaborating and finding ways to implement the targets of the General Plan. The Detailed Plan normally showed in full the feasibility arguments in terms of technology and finance. This is actually an important phase of urban design because, besides General Planning stipulations on land use and infrastructure planning, it also showed the organisation of the architectural urban space. For example, from the very beginning of the area’s establishment, the Detailed Plan of Cheremiskin housing rayon in Moscow showed the content and solutions of the detailed plan of a functional area in the city. The detailed plan even presented models for selective houses and calculated cross-sections of pipelines, wires, transmission lines and architectural spatial shapes for some important and significant places.

2.5 Results of the model of Soviet Socialist Urban Planning - advantages and disadvantages

The Soviet Union under the planned economy with direct subsidising mechanism and no private sector (land and other real estate like factories, enterprises and public works were owned by the State and the assets of all the people) created the Soviet urban planning model, which has the following advantages and disadvantages.

Advantages:

- Based upon the centrally planned economy, the Soviet Union set up the model of the complete socialistic urban planning. This is a peculiar model for urban planning which is different from the previous models.
- Under this model, all social levels are treated equally in strict conformity with urban construction standards for housing, circulation, office and public works, and there is no distinction between the rich and the poor.
- The planning was based upon State standards and investment, and the implementation of such planning was initiated by the State. The land was under
State management. Consequently, there were no difficulties or obstacles during the process of setting up and implementing the planning due to private ownership, conflicts among economic sectors, development approval process, or compensation and site clearance.

- Construction management according to this planning system is very simple, because the employer is the State and construction is undertaken by the State construction companies and acceptance of the product is also up to the State. It means that there is no participation of the private sector and the local residents, and the urban products are just distributed to them according to State standards and criteria.

Disadvantages:

- Soviet urban planning theory is not suited to the multi-sector market economy.
- Soviet urban planning considers demands of the communities in general to be all the same, despite the fact that the demands of each residential group can be very different from each other in terms of income, religion, etc.
- Soviet urban planning seemed to pay most attention to physical development. Consideration of the other social demands was not as obvious. Planning seemed to be drawn up inflexibly by directives without participation of the community, particularly of the business sectors.
- Planning policy tended to be wishful, without assessing financial feasibility, and thus remained largely hypothetical without being properly implemented.
- Planning lacked co-ordination among the branches and the regions. During the planning process, different interests and characteristics among the branches and the regions were not considered by the governmental levels.
- Urban architecture is monotonous due to over-application of standard designs, such as the housing and public facilities design repeated on a large scale.
- Another disadvantage of Soviet urban planning was that attention was paid to the existing resident population (recorded with residence book) only, and no attention was paid to a moving population related to tourism, study, work, etc. Consequently, there was no accurate estimation of population. On the other hand, it was firmly believed that the Government was capable of managing population
growth. Therefore, many unexpected problems occurred and affected the quality of planning.

- It is very difficult and complicated to apply this planning method to the market mechanism in terms of development management, adjustment of planning, and land use function in accordance with the demands of the investors, particularly private investors.

- It takes a lot of time and a lot of expense to make a plan, but its efficiency was very low.
Chapter 3

THE INFLUENCE OF SOVIET SOCIALIST IDEOLOGY ON URBAN PLANNING IN VIETNAM

3.1 The transfer of socialism to Vietnam

In 1917, the Great October Revolution in Russia successfully established the first socialist republic in the world, led by Lenin - a great revolutionary who regarded Marx's ideology as the foundation for a new society. In the aftermath of the revolution, a series of socialist countries was formed, including Vietnam. According to Marxist-Leninist thought, Socialism is the opposite of Capitalism, and the development of modern world history would be based on the struggle between these two major systems. In the Political Program approved at the Sixth National congress in June 1991, the Vietnamese Communist Party reaffirmed that the communist party will operate on the basis of Marxism-Leninism and Ho Chi Minh's ideology; and considered the foundations and the guiding principles for its actions.

Not only have these foundations and guiding principles been extremely effective for Vietnam during the past two thirds of this century, they are also very useful for the future development of Vietnam. In the past decades, Vietnam has been able to look to the Soviet Union as a model in more ways than one. The USSR not only provided socialist inspiration but also, like Vietnam, had undergone enormous human losses and physical destruction in wars against foreign powers (Logan, 1996: 444). Kudryatsev and Kirov describe how World War I, the 1917 Revolution, the Civil War and World War II all caused significant changes to the Soviet Union's urban landscape and how cities such as Novgorod, Pskov, Volgograd, Minsk and Kiev had effectively been re-created from the rubble (Kudryatsev A. & Kirov A., 1987: 46-76). This was taken as a precedent for Hanoi's response to its own wars, its large-scale efforts to reconstruct the country's economy and human settlements.
In fact, the Vietnam Communist Party had always considered the former Soviet Union as an example, a leader in every field - socio-economic, scientific, political, and especially in socialist urban planning – from which Vietnam could learn.

3.2 The transmission of planning approaches

In 1954, the northern part of the country was liberated and the Democratic Republic of Vietnam (DRV) was formed. The Soviet people, its communist party and the Chinese revolution had offered strong support to the Vietnamese revolution during the Resistance war against the French. Immediately after being freed from the domination of the French colonialists, Vietnam and the Soviet Union signed an agreement on economical and technical cooperation on 18 May 1955.

This opened the way for Soviet assistance in the rehabilitation and reconstruction of North Vietnam (Buu Hoan, 1991: 362) and was followed, on 12 March 1958, by a Trade and Maritime Agreement, which specified the system of exchange to be used in Soviet-Vietnamese trade (ibid: 362). During the 1960s and early 1970s, economic assistance was interrupted but resumed after the collapse of Saigon on 30 April 1975 and the foundation of the Socialist Republic of Vietnam (SRV) uniting North and South. The Treaty of Friendship and Cooperation signed on 3 November 1978 was to become the most important pact, re-establishing economic assistance relations between the Soviet Union and Vietnam. It also helped to make the SRV a full member of the Soviet Bloc with membership of the Council of Mutual Economic Assistance (CMEA), the International Bank for Economic Cooperation and the Soviet-sponsored International Investment Bank. According to the treaty, the SRV was allowed to run a trade deficit with the Soviet Union of up to 150 per cent the size of its exports each year. Buu Hoan noted that the Soviet Union was involved in implementing 300 projects in Vietnam, of which 30 per cent were in the industrial sector (ibid.).

As a result Vietnam was drawn tightly into the Soviet economic orbit. Some 60 per cent of Vietnam's total foreign trade was with the Soviet Union (ibid: 364). The Soviet Union provided all of Vietnam's petroleum and lubricants, iron ore and cotton
and 95 per cent of its motor vehicles. Vietnam, in return, provided foodstuffs and industrial raw materials including coffee, tea, rubber and tin. The Labor Cooperation Agreement of 4 February 1981 created an organisational framework for Vietnamese workers to go to the Soviet Union, and in the period 1981-9 more than 60,000 left Vietnam to work in 250 Soviet state enterprises (ibid: 367).

The Soviet Union was the cradle of socialism, the first country in the world to apply Marxism-Leninism to the task of undertaking national construction. The Soviet Union was always the best example to be followed by other socialist countries, such as China, Bulgaria, Cuba, East Germany, and Vietnam.

The influence of Marxist-Leninist doctrine and Soviet urban planning theory was reflected very clearly in socialist construction programs undertaken in Vietnam and other socialist countries. The basic principle of socialist ideology is the creation of an equal society, with the abolition of exploitation of man by man by providing better living conditions for all the people. The ideology has manifested itself in the activities and policies of each socialist country. After a successful revolution, for the new regimes in China, Vietnam and other socialist countries, the first thing to do was to apply the slogan "land for the peasants, houses for the people". With that policy, these revolutionary regimes nationalised all land and enterprises, in effect taking land and properties from the Kulaks and landlords and sharing them out to the peasants. Other policies then followed, such as the setting up of a centralised planning system, housing construction programs, and countryside development, with a view to reducing the gap in living standards between rural and urban areas. In rural areas, many cooperatives, socialist farms and peasants' associations were established, consolidated by polices aimed at eliminating poverty, and creating a socialist cooperative model for building up Socialism and Communism.

China: As in other socialist countries, in China, the Communist Party is the highest level of authority. The country has built a model of socialism based upon Marxist-Leninist doctrine (teaching). All polices and strategies for development of the country are issued by the party, and it is the role of the government to realise them through laws, decrees, and decisions. The authority to adopt a national social and
economic development plan, particularly of a medium- or long-term nature, in theory resides with the National People's Congress. The Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party reserves the power to draft the guidelines and to direct alterations and revisions.

The power to adopt a city plan rests firstly with the city's own governing body. However, it is also required to be approved by the immediate upper tier of authority. For cities with a population of over one million, the city plans have to be approved by the State Council. For cities of national importance, such as the capital Beijing, the central Committee of the Communist Party sets the basic planning principles (Wang Y. P., 1992: 25).

This procedure for approval of planning is very similar to that operating in Vietnam. The plan making process involves all interested groups within the government and research and education institutions. But there is not a western-style public participation process, which would involve a greater number of individuals.

Social and economic plans provide the main guidelines for planning future development. These plans themselves have legal effect. Once adopted, all government departments and local communities must attempt to realise the target set by these plans. This is a fundamental characteristic of the socialist nature of the planned economy. However, there is no formal comprehensive legislation to guide this activity. Instead, speeches of government officials, circulars, reports, examples etc. are the main tools to regulate the performance of this comprehensive planning system.

City planning practice before 1980 was mainly guided by notes, informal instructions, and minutes of National City planning conferences. In 1980 a City Planning Ordinance was issued by State Council, and revised and approved by the National People's Congress as the first city planning legislation in 1989 (Wang Y. P., 1992: 29).
Since the Chinese administrative system is a very centralised one, local government at each level has an almost identical structural pattern to that of the central government, particularly at the provincial level. At lower tiers, less complex department structures and fewer departments are found. But economic planning institutions at all levels always play a key role. All local economic development plans are derived from and make their contribution to the higher level plans up to the national one. A large number of Chinese specialists in this field have been educated in the former Soviet Union and other socialist countries.

Like other socialist countries, China's socialist urban policy was initially based on state housing subsidies, urban planning based on Mykrorayon and Raionya planirovka, and a large number of living quarters were built along very similar lines to those found in the former Soviet Union or in Vietnam, with the emphasis on high density communal housing.

**Cuba:** The Cuban Communist Party (PCC) is the leading force in the community and the State, and organises and sets common goals. From analysis of socio-economic development levels, guidelines are established for future development and for the development of the productive and service sectors, in accordance with the aims fixed by the Party Program. These guidelines are discussed and approved by the National Assembly of the Popular Power.

The Council of Ministers organises the realisation of all activities and also coordinates and unifies the actions of the different Ministries and other institutions belonging to the Administration level (Lopez E. Garcia, 1992: 33).

### 3.3 Impact on Vietnamese planning approach

#### 3.3.1 Through the transfer of socialist ideals and goals:

The goals of the Soviet Union were to develop a strong socialist country, with the full conditions and potential to realise the model communist society. Communism
was regarded as the most civilised form of society, with the economic potential to meet the demands of the people, "who work[ing] according to ability, receive as required" (Hanoi University, 1970: 45). In the case of Vietnam, the concrete goals of socialism are to “bring a qualified living standard for peoples, to modernise, industrialise and build an equal and civilised society” (Decision of the Eighth Vietnam Communist Party Congress). So it is clear that, under the leadership of their communist governments, the former Soviet Union and Vietnam have identical objectives, to build an equal and civilised society based on socialism.

3.3.2 Through changes to organisational structure:

Influenced by the Soviet political example, Vietnam and the other socialist countries display several similar characteristics of State apparatus organisation. The country is a single-party state. The Vietnam Communist Party occupies the highest level in the power hierarchy. Then come the National Assembly, State and Government. With a centralised management mechanism, the party leads, while the State & people implement. The process of reform, beginning in 1986, has resulted in considerable progress in socio-economic and infrastructure development in Vietnam.

3.3.3 Through education and training:

The partition of the country in 1954 after the defeat of the French resulted in the creation of the Democratic Republic of Vietnam in the North. The Party and Government established close links with the Soviet Union and other socialist countries. Even during the war with the French, following President Ho Chi Minh's instructions, young party members were sent to the political institutes in the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe to study. A large number of Vietnamese students were also educated in the Science and technology colleges and Universities of the Soviet Union with the aim of securing the expertise in the form of qualified staff to develop the country. From 1956 to 1985, there were 1050 graduates in Soviet Construction Universities. This accounted for 80% of the total number of doctors, architects, town planners and engineers trained in socialist countries in that period. (Ministry of Training and Education, 1985: 4).
‘Almost all of our university teaching materials were translated Russian, especially in the field of architecture and construction (civil) engineering’ (Dr. Prof. Nguyen The Ba, Director, Postgraduate Faculty, Hanoi Institute of Architects). Foreign experts, especially from the Soviet Union, were also sent to Vietnam to consult and educate local specialists in aspects of construction, transportation, and industry. For instance, Soviet experts were involved in the preparation of the Hanoi master plan alongside their Vietnamese counterparts. Groups of Vietnamese specialists were also sent to the Soviet Union in order to gain experience in such areas as education, research, organisation and production. In foreign language programs, Russian and Chinese have been mainly taught in Vietnamese schools and universities. Russian language magazines and newspapers were also popular in bookshops, in a period that saw close cultural ties between Vietnam and the Soviet Union following the signing of the Economic and Technical Cooperation Agreement of 18 May 1955. In the field of planning, architecture and construction, almost all of the teaching material was translated from Russian. This influence also extends to the perspective aspect of this teaching program. The teacher would most certainly have been trained in the Soviet Union or one of the East European Socialist Countries, or, at the least, been following a Soviet training program.

All the Russian Construction and Planning Norms and Standards were translated and directly applied to design and research work in Vietnam, sometimes without modification to ensure their suitability for application to Vietnamese conditions. All forms of planning, such as regional planning, general planning or detailed planning were modelled on Soviet planning theory. Vietnamese urban planning, including that of Hanoi, was developed from the likes of the mikrorayon or Rayon model. Even now, the development of urban planning in Vietnam is still based on the Soviet (Russian) Standards and guidelines (Standard and Norm-Stroitelnye Snhip i Norma).

3.3.4 Through policy mechanisms:

The first act of the Soviet administration on coming to power after the October Revolution was nationalisation, to be followed by redistribution, of all land. Houses of the rich and bourgeoisie were seized and divided up into apartments and flats for
the proletariat in a decree issued on 20 August 1918, thus bringing about at least some immediate amelioration of the chronic housing problem for the poor.

In the cities, the Bolshevik authority nationalised all properties, factories and enterprises of the bourgeoisie and distributed them to people, implementing the policy "the workers have factories, the farmers have land". With the socialist management mechanism, the Soviet Union administration was responsible for investment in urban construction, in particular housing construction. Allocation of accommodation was made in order to provide people with housing to meet standards in floor space depending on salary level and number of family members, together with a series of other standards stipulated by the Administration. This subsidised form of housing allocation created a continuous shortage of housing, resulting in an ever-increasing waiting list.

The same can be said about Vietnam. After the DRV came into being in 1954, the Vietnamese Administration implemented a series of resolutions and policies for land reform, aimed at collecting land from the rich and redistributing it to the masses. Under the slogan “farmers have land”, agricultural production cooperatives were set up. In urban areas, similar actions were taken to nationalise landed property and enterprises of the bourgeoisie. The government invested heavily in urban construction and development. One of the measures undertaken was housing construction, in line with the standards stipulated in Decision 159/CP of the Government Council, 1977). In general, the mechanism set up and policies implemented in Vietnam after 1954 were very similar to those applied in the Soviet Union after 1917 and in other socialist countries in Eastern Europe and the world.

3.3.5 Through urban construction planning:

The socialist ideology of Marx and Lenin played a fundamental role in the Vietnamese Revolution and continued to guide government policies afterwards. Its effect is nowhere more clearly seen than in the fields of construction and urban planning. Architects, construction engineers and planners played a key role in the Soviet post-war reconstruction and development programs. Since the government
and Party were the sources of all work, architects were inevitably enlisted in the socialist cause. It should be said that, during the time of reconstructing the country, many absolutely believed in the viewpoints, directions and policies of the Soviet Union leadership (Logan 1995: 444). They were confident that with socialist principles to guide them, they were contributing to the achievement of a better life and society. Polyansky explains that 'since the formation of the new state the role of the architect in the USSR has been determined out of a desire to build a socialist society by work carried out during each stage of its development and by the actual means placed at his disposal. For the first time in history, an architect's work is directed towards the realisation of creative ideas and conceptions aimed at the harmonious development of all members of society' (Polyansky A.T, 1985: 5).

A similar pattern applied to architects and planners in Vietnam. Right from the liberation from colonialism and capitalism in 1954, extending to embrace the South in 1975, art, architecture and town planning became subservient to party policy (Logan 1995; 444): 'Learning from experience, our new architects must carry out the party's resolutions, developing in our country a national and modern socialist architecture' (Ngo Huy Quynh, 1985: 167). And so, starting with the high box-shaped platform covered with cloth, ribbons and banners, from which President Ho Chi Minh read the Vietnamese Declaration of Independence on 2 September 1945, new buildings and townscapes started to be created which demonstrated the brotherly links between Vietnam and Soviet bloc countries (Logan 1995: 444). This marked a new direction for Vietnamese planning and architecture. The starting point was the construction of temporary one-storey living quarters for civil servants such as Phuc Xa, Van Ho. This was followed by high-rise buildings in Kim Lien, Nguyen Cong Tru, designed and built in a Soviet architectural style and with Soviet construction technology.

This new cultural alliance had been developing for some time. Ngo Huy Quynh, in his socialist explanation of Vietnam's architectural history, mentions that at the time of the unsuccessful uprising of August 1930 the new Vietnamese Communist Party had drafted a 'Cultural Revolution' statement that 'made way for a new culture and the liberation of art and architecture from the feudal and colonial period' (Ngo Huy
But, according to Dang Thai Hoang, it was in fact only after the capital's liberation from French colonialism in October 1954 that Hanoi could truly become the 'social capital, taking a leading role in socialist construction' (Dang Thai Hoang, 1985: 33). President Ho Chi Minh in his speech also proclaimed to the people before the end of the war against the United States that: 'Hanoi and Hai Phong and other cities may be destroyed to the foundations, but the Vietnamese people would not be afraid. Nothing is more valuable than Liberty and Independence. When we have defeated the American aggressors, we will rebuild them - larger, more spacious, and more beautiful' (Hoang Nhu Tiep, 1982: 34-36). With the united spirit of socialist friendship, China, East Germany, Poland, and Bulgaria, headed by the Soviet Union, assisted with the design and construction of projects and helped to show how Hanoi's architecture could be 'suitable to a country which has not passed through the capitalist period' (Dang Thai Hoang 1985: 34). Other cities to benefit included Hai Phong, Nge An and Bac Ninh (Dam Trung Phuong 1986: 8).

So a new, socialist ideology took hold in Vietnam, gaining a real opportunity to put its mark on the cultural landscape after 1954 in the North and 1975 in the South (Logan 1995: 445). Dang Thai Hoang wrote that: 'the state realises the social importance of architecture. The number of architects is increasing day by day and the country gives priority to the capital. Some of the construction projects contribute to the process of creating new architecture' (Dang Thai Hoang 1985: 34).

Prikhodko wrote that 'new, hitherto unseen perspectives of development unfolded for the Architecture of the country' (Prikhodko P. 1965: 40). The Vietnamese Architects' Association was established and an Institute of Architecture was opened in Hanoi to train a new era of architects and planners. In their planning and construction activities, the socialist Vietnamese authorities and teachers rejected Western approaches that they associated with their colonial enemies and borrowed new ideals and concepts from the leader of world revolution, the Soviet Union. As with the Soviet Union, urban development was centrally controlled in Hanoi under the Party, the Government and President Ho Chi Minh. It was related closely to the country's five-year plans and, of course, with the course of the struggle for independence (A.D. Cao, 1978: 265). The plans for the 1955-1959 period concentrated on economic
rehabilitation and development both in Hanoi and in North Vietnam generally. The 1960-1965 period saw the start of long-term planning for Hanoi and the first major construction projects for accommodation, industrial and public building projects (Logan 1995: 445).

During the struggle against the United States and its allies, especially in the period 1965 - 1972, while planning for the reconstruction and extension of Hanoi continued, the threat of air strikes slowed actual construction. The people of the capital were evacuated to rural areas, and labour and materials were directed towards the war-effort. Many architectural projects and the planning of new districts that had been started in the late 1960s and early 1970s were not finished until the withdrawal of American troops. The report of the Fourth National Congress of the Vietnamese Communist Party in 1976 set out Hanoi's future urban development: 'Many more economic and cultural establishments should be rehabilitated and built. There should be more dwelling houses, and Hanoi must be turned into a more beautiful and comfortable city...all the creative talents of architects and workers must be exploited, their skills and intelligence must be utilised for the work of Hanoi's construction' (Quoted in Dang Thai Hoang, 1985: 34).

With the renewal of urban development after 1972, the influence of the Soviet Union increased again. In 1978. When America imposed an economic embargo on Vietnam, Western trade and investment were interrupted. The US refusal to normalise diplomatic and cultural relations with Vietnam made it inevitable that links with the Soviet Union continued to develop. Many of the large-scale planning, design and construction works continued to be done with 'brotherly and friendly countries', especially the Soviet Union (Ibid.).

The method of development after the war was summarised by Dao Van Tap, Vice-president of Vietnam's Committee for the Social Sciences, who explained that Vietnam had followed two simultaneous and interrelated policies based on the general strategy of building up the nation's urban infrastructure and urban way of life, these being seen as necessary for modern production (Dao Van Tap, 1980: 511). The first policy consisted of transforming and rebuilding existing towns; the second
involved implanting evenly distributed small towns in the various regions of the national territory. With regard to the reconstruction of cities damaged by bombs, such as Hanoi, Dao Van Tap indicated that 'the basic direction taken... is to increase their productive activities, while gradually eliminating their "consumer town" aspect.

However the scarcity of architects and planners was one of the many factors making the implementation of these policies difficult. Dang indicated that there were only ten qualified architects working in Hanoi in the early years of reunification. All were old and had been trained by the French in the Indochinese College des Beaux-Art and they were quite unable to come to terms with the government's demand for a 'socialist architectural project' (Dang Thai Hoang, 1985: 34). There was, of course, a shortage of all kinds of professionals and technicians in Vietnam after 1954, due to the educational policies of the French colonial administration, the interruption of training programs and the deaths of skilled personnel on the battlefields. Although partly serving the Soviet bloc's own political interests, nevertheless its effort to provide higher educational opportunities for Vietnamese men and women was one of the most beneficial elements of Soviet influence in Vietnam. During the 1955-90 period large numbers of students were educated in Soviet and East European universities. Buu Hoan estimates that more than 2,000 Vietnamese doctoral students, 3,400 other research students, 20,7000 undergraduates and 4,800 trainees were educated in the Soviet Union (Buu Hoan: 367). Russian, Polish, German, and Czech replaced French as the second languages of North Vietnam's intellectuals. Buu Hoan also estimates that 30 per cent of the professors and half of the Ph.D. and Masters degree holders in Hanoi's three largest universities had been educated in the Soviet Union alone (Ibid:368). In addition, under the SRV's second five-year plan (1976-80), more than 62,000 technicians were trained in the Soviet bloc, including 11,000 in the Soviet Union (Longmire 1989: 131).

From the middle of the 1960s a new generation of students graduated from the Soviet bloc universities and socialist colleges in Vietnam but their experience was limited and the assistance of foreigners was very helpful (Prikhodko 1966: 36-40; Dang Thai Hoang, 1985, part 3). Although Vietnam trained many of its own architects and engineers, a small and subsequently influential group was trained in the Soviet
Union, German Democratic Republic, Romania, Czechoslovakia, Poland and Cuba. There they learned 'much in theory as well as in practice' and brought back to Vietnam an architectural language that was suitable to the needs of a socialist state (Ibid: 49). Prikhodko describes the work done by the first group of Vietnamese graduates at the Kiev Institute of Architecture (Prikhodko, 'Pervyi otryad...'). The projects that they developed for their final examinations included typical Soviet structures: an air terminal and transport interchange in Hanoi, a Pioneers' Place in Hai Phong, a school complex to accommodate 2,800 pupils in suburban Hanoi, and, for locations in the Soviet Union itself, proposals for sports halls, swimming pools and a boarding house for 4,000 athletes. Prikhodko especially mentioned the way in which the Vietnamese students incorporated 'progressive features and traditions' of Vietnamese architecture into their designs, such as the use of the 'flying' roof which is characteristic of traditional Vietnamese architecture, and the fusion of architecture with the landscape, particularly the use of water surfaces and the creation of microclimates in the surrounding landscaping and parks.

3.3.6 Physical impact on Hanoi's Old Sector

According to the experiences of the Great October Revolution, the Vietnamese Party Politburo issued resolutions in September 1954 emphasising the rehabilitation of Hanoi and the stabilisation of the population influx from the surrounding rural areas. Hanoi, it proclaimed, 'must have an outstanding appearance' and this was translated into a slogan to guide architects' work: 'pragmatism, economy, solidity and an artistic appearance' (Dang Thai Hoang, 1985: 35-36). The principal Soviet-inspired icons are obvious to visitors to Vietnam, and particularly to Hanoi.

*Lenin Statue in Chi Lang Garden:* The French, in their time, had carved out a new pattern of streets and squares in Hanoi and gave them French names. But to give public recognition that the French overlords had gone and that Vietnam now came under a new ideology, the Vietnamese authorities followed socialist countries around the world by raising a statue to Vladimir I. Lenin (Logan, 1995: 447). The statue is located in Chi Lang Garden, west of the traditional city centre (Hoan Kiem Lake) and leading to the remains of the city's old citadel and the new political focus of the
city around Ba Dinh Square. The key location was the planners' way of reminding people that the Vietnamese Revolution originated in the Great October Revolution in Russia and that Ho Chi Minh was a discipline of Lenin. The statue is a symbol of the friendship between the Communist parties and governments of two brother countries - Vietnam and the Soviet Union. (Reciprocally, a Ho Chi Minh Square was established and his statue erected in Moscow.)

**Mausoleum of Ho Chi Minh:** The Vietnamese people have always referred to Ho Chi Minh affectionately as Uncle Ho, these words reflecting the respect, admiration, and esteem with which they have regarded him. The whole nation went into mourning at his death. Ho's wish was that his ashes be sprinkled over the country he loved, but, despite that, the party wanted to immortalise the Great Hero of the Nation by enshrining him in a mausoleum that would match Shchusev's mausoleum for Lenin on Moscow's Red Square. In selecting the design for Ho's Mausoleum, 38 proposals were short-listed by the Government from 120 alternatives. An exhibition was held to obtain public feedback. Then, based on Vietnamese suggestions, Soviet specialists such as B. Medensev, G. Isacovich and others completed the final design. This project was recognised as one of the greatest products of the cooperation and friendship between Vietnam and the Soviet Union.

**Ho Chi Minh Museum:** The Vietnamese Communist Party and Government, with the assistance of the Soviet Union, also built a museum dedicated to Ho Chi Minh in the Ba Dinh area. The museum was opened on 19 May 1990, on the 100th anniversary of Ho's birthday. It was designed and built between 1978 and 1990 with technical assistance from Soviet and Czech architects and engineers, again under the direction of Isakovich. It was intended to follow the same requirements of being 'Modern, Cultured, Dignified and Simple' (Nguyen Truc Luyen, 1990: 10). According to Guilbert, many thought that it might be the last gift from the Soviet Union to the Socialist Republic of Vietnam (Guilbert 1990: 272). In fact Soviet economic aid was cut off at the end of 1990 and the USSR itself disintegrated shortly afterwards.

**Soviet - Vietnamese Friendship Cultural Palace:** The Soviet-Vietnamese Friendship Palace was built with Soviet financial assistance. It is in the international modern
style, as interpreted by the Soviet team of architects, with a slight attempt to accommodate local building styles and artistic motifs. This building was built instead of Nha Hat Nhan Dan (The People's Theatre).

Hanoi Polytechnic Institute: This is the biggest institute of its kind in Vietnam, built mostly with Soviet construction material and equipment, and designed by Soviet architects. It is located in the southern part of Hanoi City, at the intersection of Nam Bo and Dai Co Viet Roads, two of Hanoi’s major arterial roads. The facade of the Polytechnic Institute faces the Lenin Park. The colour of the buildings and the design of the entrance, lecture theatres and laboratories create a very attractive atmosphere, appropriate to young people and in harmony with the surrounding vegetation (Ngo Huy Quynh, 1998: 325).

Thang Long Bridge: The Thang Long bridge over the Red River north of Hanoi is a key transportation link providing access to the northern part of Vietnam. It is also a symbol of friendship between Vietnam and the Soviet Union (Ngo Huy Quynh, 1998: 307). The bridge is located about 11km upstream from Long Bien Bridge in central Hanoi. With a total length of 5,503m (including approach routes), it is the longest bridge in Vietnam.

Hanoi People's Committee Building: As well as creating new buildings and monuments, each new regime wants to build structures that are regarded as symbolically significant and treasured as part of the city's 'heritage'. Consequently, the socialist authorities and Soviet-trained technocrats showed great disdain for the residential quarters, the villas and boulevards built by the French colonial regime (Logan, 1996: 453). The Hanoi People's Committee was once among the most beautiful buildings located in the heart of Hanoi, near Hoan Kiem Lake. Because the leaders and architects had a very limited knowledge of heritage preservation and wanted to create a modernised city, the Louis XV town hall was knocked down. It was replaced by the modern block that now towers over Hoan Kiem, contrasting sharply with the remaining colonial buildings nearby. This is one of the ugly new buildings, one of the worst examples in Hanoi of the failure to protect an import ant
old-style building. It demonstrates the effects of not ensuring harmonious architectural styles in the townscape of Hanoi City.

Other changes reflecting the ideological shift included the re-naming of streets and buildings to honour past and present revolutionary leaders. Near the town hall, Paul Bert Square became Indira Gandhi Square to acknowledge her pro-USSR leanings, and the Square’s old ornamental band stand was converted into a bird cage. Across the road, a State Government guesthouse was erected in the back garden of the former Resident’s place and the Hotel Metropole became the Thong Nhat (Re-unification) Hotel (Logan, 1996: 453).

Suburban Hanoi: After the liberation of North Vietnam in 1954, Party and government directives were issued requiring the construction of industrial and living quarters in Hanoi’s suburbs as part of the solution for the city’s economic and housing problems. During the colonial period, the French did not pay much attention to these peripheral areas and their functions in the urban fabric, and, as late as the mid-1960s, most industrial workers in Hanoi still lived in thatched huts on poorly maintained roads and alleys. In the period of 1955-90, by comparison, the suburbs were the sites of most of the construction activity in Hanoi.

This matched redevelopment priorities in the Soviet Union. The provision of good quality housing for all citizens was the most important responsibility Soviet architects had to uphold (Kudryavtsev and Krivov 1987: 57). In fact, looking back we are able to see that architecture in the USSR demonstrated the important connection between architectural and town planning activity on the one hand and the strengthening of the socialist economy and society on the other hand. It also demonstrated the importance of large-scale town planning projects (Logan, 1996: 453).

After World War II the work of alleviating the USSR’s dire housing shortage only started in earnest in the latter half of the 1950s. In his article, Ryabushin (1985: 13) described the progress of the housing construction program. It consisted of providing 'mass housing, cultural and other amenities for the main fabric of an area. Small
well-appointed flats constructed to standard plans using industrial methods on an ever-increasing scale. The early 1970s saw over 95 per cent of Soviet housing and 80 per cent of cultural and other amenities built to standard plans. Writing in the mid-1980s, Ryabushin also noted that 'there are now ten types of flats with a different number of rooms' and that some variation in the external appearance of blocks had occurred since the late 1970s. Nevertheless Ryabushin concluded that the policy of standardising and industrialising the construction of dwellings had, in the main, been successful and the important task of providing people with comfortable accommodation had been accomplished over a very short period of time. Following the example of the Soviet Union, the Vietnamese government set about quickly constructing new housing in the form of medium- and high-rise blocks provide for workers and government officers and minimising the use of land and infrastructure costs. These 'living quarters' (Russian mikro-raion or 'micro-regions) were built from prefabricated concrete slabs were constructed using Soviet technology. Similar examples of this kind could be found in Moscow, Beijing Sofia, Bulgaria, and cities in other socialist countries.

*Residential estates:* From 1954 to 1972 the major form of construction undertaken was residential accommodation. The prototypes used were based on models developed in the Soviet Union, usually low-rise walk-up apartments. Each block was divided into two by a staircase and on either side were apartments for four or five families. The floor space of each apartment was between 10 and 24 square metres, depending on the number of family members and the salary of the classified member. Kitchen, bathroom and toilet facilities were shared with other families. Apartments were built in the Ancient Quarter at Pho Hang Tre between 1955 and 1960, while the new and larger housing estates ('living quarters') were built at An Duong, Phuc Xa, Mai Huong and Dai La (Dang Thai Hoang, 1985: 37). Housing estates were also built at Nguyen Cong Tru and Van Ho. The result of this form of building was frequent conflict between residents over the use of amenities. The average space allocated by Housing and Land Management Department was 4 square metres per person. Over time, the reality was often half this. This problem led to a revision of the plan, where each unit consisted of two rooms, with its own kitchen and bathroom, again based upon a Soviet prototype.
Housing estates were also constructed at Kim Lien, a 40-hectare site in the southern suburbs. Here five prefabricated multi-story blocks of this type were erected. Originally designed for one family, the apartments were soon subdivided. With overcrowding, hygiene and privacy problems inevitably appeared.

Dang (1985) points out that, because the demand for housing was great, little attention was paid to the visual appeal of the buildings. He claims that at this time there were no specialists in this type of architecture in Hanoi. Nor were there good housing examples to copy. Even worse, inadequate attention was paid to issues such as ventilation and natural lighting. The building materials were of inferior quality and the workmanship was not well monitored. As a result maintenance problems quickly emerged.

A third housing model was used after this, with planning based upon the tube/terrace type of development and block subdivision. Originally proposed as low-scale two storey developments, what in reality occurred, due to lack of planning control, regulation and enforcement, was that wealthy families often expanded this structural base into multi-storey buildings. In 1971 Claude Palazzoli visited Hanoi for the first time and wrote about his impression of these housing estates in the book *Le Viet Nam entre deux mythes*. The tired spectacle of the public housing estates lined up in Beijing or Moscow style, he wrote, gave an idea of what the new Hanoi might become. Rising here and there out of the mud, they had ‘the praiseworthy goal of providing decent housing for the people but had been built with a total misunderstanding of the most elementary laws of architectonics and town planning’. Noone gave the horrible and dilapidated buildings a life of more than a few years.

The Vietnamese government and its architects had been proud initially of their achievements in constructing housing estates for the people. Prikhodko (1965: 40) commented in his article that:

Vietnamese architects, by their active work, have answered the call of the party and government to create a new popular real architecture, promoting the construction of socialism in the
country. The new successes of the Democratic Republic of Vietnam on its path to socialist construction oblige Vietnamese architects to increase their demands of their work, to create works which possess high artistic qualities, to struggle for realist qualities and ideology in art.

It was even thought that these new housing 'micro-regions' in Hanoi could serve as a useful model for the development of similar workers' housing estates in industrial Nam Dinh and other Vietnamese cities (Logan, 1995: 454-455). Today most of these housing estates survive, with some in a state of very poor maintenance and still overcrowded but with others, such as at Kim Ma, starting to show some signs of improvement as residents earn higher incomes.
Chapter 4

THE FORMATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF VIETNAMESE CITIES

4.1 Vietnamese cities before 1945

The formation and development of Vietnamese cities dates back more than 2,240 years. Loa Thanh, the first capital built in 225 BC, was a strong military fortress as well as an administrative centre of the whole kingdom of Au Lac. Vietnamese cities have been developed over different periods, from local feudalism, Chinese domination, colonialism and semi-feudalism, a neo-colonial version of American imperialism, to the first stage of the building of socialism.

During the period of Chinese domination, some cities, bearing the characteristics of both military strongholds and commercial hubs, such as the fortresses at Luy Lau, Long Bien (Bac Ninh), Tu Phu, Lạch Trường (Thanh Hòa), Thanh Khu Túc and La Thanh, were the strongest political and administrative centres.

Under the local feudal regime, several cities were formed, namely Hoa Lu (capital of the Dinh dynasty), Thang Long (the Lý dynasty), Thanh Tay Do (the Ho dynasty), Phu Xuan (the Nguyễn dynasty). Cities based on international trade, such as Pho Hien, Da Nang, Hoi An, Quy Nhon, Gia Dinh, capital of Thang Long, have become national and regional centres due to their political, military, economic and cultural significance to the whole country over several successive dynasties.

The cities under feudal lordships and the domination of the Chinese were shaped by the following factors:

- National defense required them to be built as strongholds located at strategically important positions;
• They were required to be political, administrative and cultural county towns for kings and court-mandarins and local mandarins.

• They became commercial centres for local and foreign tradesmen, including Chinese, Japanese, Indians and Europeans. As a rule, large commercial ports were present.

• There was a concentration of various handicraftsmen involved in silk making, fabric weaving, forging, metal casting, handicrafts, and so on.

Cities constitute economic centres of prosperous areas. Under French domination, due to the policy of colonial exploitation, our mineral resources were dramatically exploited and taken back to France. Some cities specialised in coal mining, such as Hon Gai, Uong Bi, Cam Pha, Cua Ong, and a number focused on commercial and industrial activities such as Hai Phong, Nam Dinh, Vinh, Da Nang, Sai Gon. During this period, Vietnamese industry and especially commerce had a marked impact on urban development. The most typical picture could be seen in Sai Gon, which became in 1861 the main commercial and industrial centre and military stronghold of the South after the French invasion of Cochinchina (South Vietnam). In 1913, Sai Gon-Cholon had a population of 248,000. After the First World War, Saigon became a major commercial centre of the South East Asian region. In 1926, the Saigon-Cholon population amounted to 346,000. After World War II, it reached 400,000.

4.2 Vietnamese cities from the August Revolution 1945 to 1986

The development of Vietnamese cities after the August revolution may be divided into the following periods:

Period 1945 – 1975

In the territories occupied by the French, cities became military bases and service centres for the French war of aggression. Industrial production was in decline; a lot of plants and factories were shut down, and the cities became commercial centres by
simply importing French consumer goods. Some cities, such as Saigon and Da Nang experienced rapid growth. In 1951 Sai Gon’s population amounted to 1.6 million.

Cities in the territories resisting the French and under the control of the Viet Minh, in contrast, had deteriorated and even been ruined due to French attacks. The urban inhabitants were evacuated to the countryside (report of Ho Chi Minh City Master Plan 1993).

After 1954, Vietnam’s territory was temporarily split in two. The North entered into a period of economic restoration and development. Cities destroyed in the resistance war, such as Vinh and Thanh Hoa, were restored and expanded, and a lot of new cities appeared as a result of the development of large industrial areas such as Viet Tri and Thai Nguyen. Old cities, such as Hanoi, Hai Phong and Nam Dinh, were expanded and converted from consumer cities into producer-cities, and became political, economic, cultural and technological centres either for the whole country or for their local region. Just as they were built in a rapid manner, so the cities in the North were quickly destroyed by the American air war. The industrial facilities had been moved into the midland and highland regions, but many industrial and residential areas, including those in cities such as Vinh, Dong Hoi and Phu Ly were totally devastated. After the Paris agreement on 27 January 1973, all these cities were restored and developed.

After 1954, in the context of an American neo-colonialist war, the South became a huge market for consumer goods, and its cities were transformed into military bases and service centres for the U.S troops in a war of aggression. Saigon, Da Nang, Can Tho, Nha Trang, Qui Nhon and Buon Me Thuot constituted major military bases for the U.S forces and strongholds for the vastly-inflated Vietnamese puppet government apparatus. Besides Saigon-Cholon, almost no Southern City had any significant industrial facilities until the early 1970s, when some industrial areas, such as Bien Hoa and Thu Duc, were set up. An outstanding contradiction is that the production establishments, especially industrial zones, were very small, while the urban population grew rapidly. In 1976 the number of people living in urban centres had
already reached 7,039,275, accounting for 29.7 per cent of the population of the South.

After the country's reunification in 1975, the urban population in the South declined, and many people returned to their native land in the countryside to live. In 1979, the Southern urban population dropped to 5,783,220, accounting for 22.83 per cent of the whole Southern population (Report of Ho Chi Minh City Master Plan, 1993).

Period 1975 – 1986

After the reunification of the whole country, Vietnam entered into a new stage of development. Under the policy of the Communist Party and the Vietnamese Government, the South underwent socialist reform, while the North continued its building of socialism. The Southern cities have gradually overcome the problems resulting from disorderly urbanisation, and have reinforced and developed their production base. The Northern cities restored their war-devastated facilities and promoted industrial production. Nevertheless, this period saw an economic recession, resulting from the excessive damage suffered during 20 years of warfare, a reduction of foreign aid and the trade and investment embargo imposed by the U.S government. In addition to these, the social and economic life of the country had been badly affected over a long time by bureaucratisation and the centralized planning approach. The economy was stagnant and had even contracted, suffering from lack of motivation. The amount of investment was very small, leading to an aggravated state of recession.

Period 1986 – 1996

In 1986, the Sixth Congress of the Communist Party of Vietnam set forth the renovation policy for development of a diversified economy, operating with the market mechanism but under state management and within a socialist orientation. With the promulgation of the open-door policy and the Law on Foreign Investment on 29 December 1987, the Vietnamese economy entered into a new stage of recovery and development. Life in the cities has become gradually more prosperous, and new
housing, public works and production bases have been developed and upgraded with intensive investment from local private and collective entities, and from overseas investors. Urban areas have been expanded and some industrial areas have been established, such as, in Hanoi, the Tan Thuan, Sai Dong, My Xuan, Tuy Ha and North Thang Long Bridge industrial areas. A number of new town areas have been formed around Hanoi such as Ciputra, Van Tri Lake and north-west of West Lake.

The most rapid rate of growth has been observed in the early 1990s (1986-1996), probably the most rapid urban development stage ever seen in Vietnam. This period witnessed a shift in both the content and the form of the urban centres. Especially in urban planning there were changes in the whole system of concepts and theory.

4.3 Hanoi in 1954 (at the start of the socialist period)

Upon the restoration of peace in the North in 1954, the capital city handed over to the Viet Minh administration was in poor condition in terms of infrastructure, but precious in terms of cultural heritage. From the beginning, the Vietnamesc Government has paid due attention to the restoration and development of the capital. The whole process of development planning for Hanoi Capital may be briefly outlined as follows.

4.4 Soviet Socialist impact on Hanoi since 1954

4.4.1 Period 1954 – 1959

This period of economic restoration after nine years of resistance war was dominated by the main objective to transform Hanoi from a city of consumption to a city of production. The number of planning professionals was very small, consisting only of some architects trained in previous years, with the rest consisting of some new graduates who had just left their upper-secondary schools. Under the guidance of foreign experts such as Su Khac Ninh (China), Zemjakovski (the former Soviet Union) and Zernumba (Poland), a study was made for Hanoi Capital’s Development, with a predicted population size ranging from 700,000 to 1,000,000 (Report of the
First Hanoi Master Plan, 1959). From the results of these investigations and guidance, Hanoi was given its first options for development under the new, revolutionary administration, with a newly trained planning staff.

4.4.2 Period 1960 – 1967

During this period of economic development within the framework of the first Five-Year Plan, Hanoi began to build some industrial areas and significant architectural projects, such as offices, schools and hospitals. The aim was to have a proper layout planned for the capital in order to control construction and guide urban management. The Soviet expert team headed by Anpherov, together with Vietnamese colleagues carried out a feasibility study for developing the capital with a population of one million over 20,000 ha of land. The direction of expansion was anticipated to be to the North of the Red River.

The plan also aimed to revitalise the Ancient Quarter as a commercial area but would promote development to the west of Ho Tay, to the south-west in Ba Vi and Son Tay and to the east in Gia Lam across the Red River. A new city centre would extend from Hoan Kiem around Ho Tay and incorporate the Ba Dinh area. A railway network around the river and two bridges to the south of the existing Long Bien bridge and two to the north were planned (Report of second Hanoi Master plan 1965).

Although the plan was not implemented, mainly due to the war and aerial blitzes between 1965 and 1972, it set a pattern for later plans, notably in seeing expansion of the commercial centre around Ho Tay (Logan, 1996: 457). The war in the South had become more severe and the U.S.A began the devastating war against the North. The capital Hanoi was threatened, and an alternative proposal was drafted, emphasising national defence. In this period Hanoi’s planning was readjusted with a view to developing to the south of the Red River, and in the western area along the National Road N21 where the hilly terrain provided a better military basis for the defence of the Capital.
4.4.3 Period 1968 – 1974

With the escalation of war and Hanoi's devastation reaching its peak, the situation was dire in terms of national defence, floods and disasters, especially the flood in 1971, which, in Hanoi, reached up to 14.6m (Report of Hanoi Water and irrigation Department, 1971). Hanoi was threatened by crucial problems that required a review of the city's development orientation. The planning process thus started to undergo significant changes.

At that time, a lot of Vietnamese graduates came back from socialist countries capable of carrying out planning investigations in a more elaborate manner than previously. The Government required feasibility studies for the capital's development, and a team of experts was sent to survey the neighbouring areas, namely Vinh Yen, Son Tay, Xuan Mai and others. The final option was to exercise control over the development of the old quarters of Hanoi, keeping the population below 400,000 and at the same time developing a city at Vinh Yen for a population of 600,000. The remaining areas such as Xuan Mai, Son Tay and Bac Ninh were to be satellite towns. From that time, Hanoi had two developing areas: the existing area and the new capital city in Vinh Yen, to be developed in parallel, according to instructions from the Ministry of Construction (Report of Feasibility Study of Hanoi 1972).

4.4.4 Period 1975 – 1976

The Government allowed Hanoi to develop up to a population size of 600,000-700,000 within its existing areas. The Soviet team led by Bordanov came to Hanoi on 25 March 1975 to assist the feasibility study. This was also the period when ten socialist countries came to assist Vietnam in carrying out feasibility studies for ten cities and towns in Vietnam, looking forward to investments at the implementation stage after the plan's completion.

In 1976, the feasibility report for Hanoi was completed and set forth two alternatives:

Option 1: Hanoi with a population of 700,000, Vinh Yen 600,000
Option 2: Hanoi with a population of 1 million, Vinh Yen 300,000.

In these options, 7000 ha of rice-fields were to be used, a problem that required thorough deliberation, because the preference of the Government at that time was to develop the hilly areas and to extend the railway far away from cities so as to reserve land for future development. This was the why the Vietnamese team headed by the Deputy Prime Minister, Huynh Tan Phat, set forth three options:

Option 1: A cluster of cities with Hanoi at its core.
Option 2: A cluster of cities with two main cores: Hanoi and Vinh Yen.

In the end, option 1 was chosen, in which Hanoi was to be the major centre, while Vinh Yen and Xuan Mai were to be the two sub-centres with populations ranging from 200,000 to 300,000 inhabitants, compared with Hanoi's projected population of 700,000-1,000,000. Hanoi thus has been recognised as the central city.

Based on the feasibility report by the Soviet team and the recommendation of its Vietnamese counterpart, the Council of Ministers issued the approval decision N163/CP on 17 July 1976. Under this Decision, Hanoi was to be developed to the size of up to 1.5 million inhabitants and the suburbs were to assist the capital in the following aspects: food supply, population regulation, rational structuring of the workforce, and allocation of infrastructure projects such as roads, power and water.

The capital city required a surrounding belt of agriculture and a system of satellite towns where industrial areas, service areas and tourism and resort areas were to be located: for example, Xuan Mai, Son Tay, Ba Vi, Vinh Yen, Tam Dao and Bac Ninh. Thus, the next orientation of Hanoi's development was mainly in the direction of Xuan Mai, Son Tay and Ba Vi.

4.4.5 Period 1976 – 1981
Chapter 4: THE FORMATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF VIETNAMESE CITIES

After the liberation of the South in 1975, the nation was reunited and many political, economic and social fluctuations were experienced. In 1979, a war with China along the northern frontier broke out, reinforcing the already well-defined concept of priority for national defence. This led to the realisation by the leadership that the orientation for Hanoi’s future development should be directed mainly to the South bank side of the Red River.

In view of the Decision No 163/ CP on 17 July 1976, the Soviet team led by S.I. Sokolov and the Vietnamese team led by Huynh Tan Phat joined their forces once again in the elaboration of a General Plan for Hanoi’s development as the national capital until the year 2000. This General Plan was completed and approved by the Government in the official Statement 100/ TTG dated 24 April 1981.

Under the terms of this project, the population size of the capital was to be 1.5 million (inner-city areas) within an area of 100 square kilometres. A new city centre was to be built on the southern and south-western banks of the West Lake (Ho Tay) with radial boulevards, green spaces, high-rise public buildings and pedestrian overpasses. Standard Soviet planning techniques were used, such as the planning of residential communities as mikrorayon (microregions); that is, planning units of residential and associated facilities theoretically based on fixed population formula and replicated around the city outskirts.

In Hanoi’s case, the size of mikrorayon was to be set by the number of people required to provide a viable base for a senior high school - 60,000 to 70,000. The suburban area expansion included 11 districts, where the northern area of HaTay province and south-east of Vinh Phu province belonged to Hanoi’s suburbs (Report of Hanoi Master Plan 1981).

A ring railway and a new airport at Noi Bai were planned but only the latter was constructed. A major highway planned to run from it to the city centre, cutting the historic old sector in two, was fortunately aborted.
Kucher described the planning of Hanoi as 'one more symbol of the indestructible Soviet/Vietnamese friendship'. However, even though Vietnamese planners were involved in the process, the results (as outlined by Sokolov) are fantastic, being based on a poor understanding of Hanoi's history and demography and totally divorced from both the local culture and the economic realities of an impoverished government (Logan, 1995: 458).

4.5 Hanoi in 1986

Due to difficult economic conditions and reservations expressed about the feasibility of the planning schemes, there were long delays in approving the Master Plan, so the chances of its realisation remained remote. In 1986, the Vietnamese Communist Party and the Government started to apply the Doi Moi policy. After being a closed country for so long, Vietnam started to open to the world, not only to countries of the socialist camp, but also to capitalist countries (Vu Tuan Anh, 1994: 22). These changes were welcomed by the Vietnamese people, who now had a strong belief in the new, prosperous future of the country. With this new open-door policy, all the people could contribute their resources and efforts to improving their life and the country. Even the overseas Vietnamese could join in. During this period the Government issued many new policies, decrees, ordinances and laws, such as the Land Law in 1993, and the Vietnam Foreign Investment Law in 1987. Before 1986 there was a serious shortage of everything, including rice and other basic foodstuffs, despite the fact that Vietnam was, and still is an agrarian country, with 80 per cent of the population earning their living as farmers. Today Vietnam is the third largest exporter of rice in the world, and the Vietnamese people are proud of their achievement in recent years. It is hoped that if the Government can lead the country in the right way, Vietnam could make further substantial changes.

The chairman of the Hanoi People's Committee, in his 1996 New Year Wishes, said that 'under the sound leadership of the Vietnamese Communist Party and the Hanoi municipality, we could reform, reconstruct and develop our country as well as Hanoi towards international standards'. The author supports this wish, believing that with
long traditions of culture, community solidarity and diligence, the Vietnamese people can achieve almost any goals.

After the collapse of the socialist camp, the Soviet Union terminated economic support to Vietnam in 1990. At the time the Vietnamese Government faced many difficulties, and it seemed that economically the country could not stand on its feet. However, the policies of the Vietnamese Government were successful in allowing the economic and social life of the Vietnamese people to improve day by day. With a series of new policies and laws, all economic sectors were given the impetus to participate in building up the country. Notably, during this period Vietnam attracted large amounts of foreign investments, concentrated mainly in Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City. This factor has had a major effect on the planning and urban management process.

With the Doi Moi policy, the country’s economy is improving markedly, making the people richer, and as a result the demand for better living conditions becomes more and more pronounced in urban areas. Hanoi, as a cradle of Vietnamese civilisation with nearly 1000 years of history, is now facing many difficulties, including the need for conservation of the ancient and the old quarters whilst trying to promote development.

During this period the inhabitants of Hanoi built many new houses in the ancient and the old quarters, some of which are good and harmonise with the surrounding urban landscape. But some others are so unsightly that they destroy the inherent beauty and charm in some parts of the city. It is possible to list a lot of aesthetically unsatisfactory buildings in the vicinity of Hoan Kiem Lake, the heart of the city, such as Hanoi People’s Committee headquarters, the Daewoo building, the Hanoi Golden Hotel and many mini-hotels with four to five, even seven storeys built recently in the Ancient Quarter.

It can be argued that a number of large-scale, high-rise hotel and office blocks that were built in recent years in old parts of Hanoi are in fact the most serious challenge to the idea of preserving the beauty and unique features of a city with a 1000-year old
history. Those development projects also have a major negative impact on the infrastructure network, in terms of the worsening of traffic, and strains on water supply, drainage, power supply, as well as on the social life of old Hanoi.

Solving these difficult problems is the duty of the Vietnamese people in general and of Hanoians in particular and especially the responsibility of town planners and architects during this important transitional period. It is fully agreed that Hanoi should develop and modernise, but how? and by what way? These are the questions which town planners and architects need to carefully consider in order to reach the best answers. It is appreciated by everyone in the Vietnamese planning profession that the Vietnamese Government has decided to give planners and architects the task of making amendments to the Hanoi Master Plan for the year 2020, and the development of the Hanoi New Town Project, which will be built on the northern bank of the Red River over an area of about 8,830 hectares. In this Hanoi New Town Project, a new, flexible methodology in planning is to be applied, for the purpose of meeting the demand of the potential developers. Not only that, but during the study stage of this Project, all planners and designers were required to pay much attention to the preservation of the historical, cultural heritage and to the participation of the communities, because it was clearly recognised that, since the city will be built for the people, they must participate in that process. In this way they will be the masters of their own living areas.
Chapter 5

THE TRANSITION PERIOD IN VIETNAM

5.1 The Causes of Change

After the liberation of Vietnam in 1975, there appeared new opportunities to build and develop a society and an economy based on the joint potential of both regions of Vietnam, the North and the South. It was hoped that the two regions would boost each other in the development process, in an environment of peace - the most valuable element that was missing for so long. Nevertheless, due to a number of factors, such as the low starting point of the economy, the serious consequences of war and the mistakes made in economic management, by 1985 Vietnam’s economy had fallen into a serious crisis.

During the period from 1976 to 1985, Vietnamese Gross Domestic Product (GDP) grew by only 38.8 per cent in total or by 3.7 per cent per annum. Agriculture has always been the key sector of the country's economy, making up around 50 per cent of GDP. However, during the period 1976 to 1985, total agricultural production grew by just 3.8 per cent per annum. Substantial attention had been paid to investment in industrial production, but the growth rate remained too low and unstable. The average annual growth rate of total industrial production from 1976 to 1985 was around 5.2 per cent.

As industrial production was growing too slowly and no real development had been made, ‘underground’ inflation was increasing year by year. In 1985, a policy innovation called ‘price - salary – money’, which had a number of mistakes and shortcomings, finally pushed Vietnam’s economy into crisis. Hyper-inflation reached its peak in 1986 when the price index jumped to 774.7 per cent (Statistical Publishing House, 1996:32-33).
In 1986, the sixth National Congress of the Vietnamese Communist Party set forth a policy of economic renovation, known as *Doi Moi*, shifting the economy from centralised planning and bureaucracy to a market economy.

However, the serious economic problems were already having a negative effect on the socio-cultural life of the country. In order to solve the problems mentioned above, the Sixth Party Congress, held in December 1986, defined a new direction for economic policy, the main thrust of which was to develop production with the participation of different economic sectors, under Government management, and carried out through laws and other instruments with a socialist orientation.

The aim of *Doi Moi* in Vietnam is the transition from a centrally planned economy to a market economy with the recognition of all economic sectors, the private as well as state sector. This was the key element that fundamentally changed socialist planning, based as the latter was on a bureaucratic, subsidised economy. The implementation of policies by the state meant that it had to ensure equality among different economic sectors.

This point has led to changes in all other economic and social aspects of society. From a situation in which all staff were reliant on the state to survive, the situation has changed to one where people can now work where they want, either in state organisations or private companies, provided that they get paid. Previously the state had distributed consumer goods such as rice, meat, sugar, cloth and other necessities via ration tickets. Though not in need, many people hoarded consumer goods and foodstuffs, causing severe shortages. Without rationing, consumer goods have become more varied. One can buy whatever one wants, given that one has enough money. It is also possible to choose good and cheap goods without having to wait in long queues or put up with bad and unmarketable goods.

With this new model, the state needs to maintain control at the macro level and to propose policies and structures to ensure that all economic sectors operate equally and are equal before the law. These are the basic changes that improve the economic, cultural and social lives of contemporary Vietnamese.
The change is also expressed in the openness of everyday life. People have the right to participate in social activities and do their business within the framework of laws and rules. Generally speaking, *Doi Moi* has brought a fresh spirit into economic and social development. Each Vietnamese citizen can recognize this change. It must be admitted that it is very difficult to change from the way of thinking characteristic of a subsidised economy, to a new one. To make an imposed exchange rate suitable to the market price is a hard battle. In the subsidised period, all goods had two prices, the state price and the black market price. The fact that the expectation of automatically becoming a state employee after graduating from university has been erased shows how deep the changes are in society. It will require a few years for society to forget the old beliefs. A lot of examples of the success of *Doi Moi* can be presented, but the key element is that socialist ideology now recognises private sectors in the market economy. This element has comprehensive implications for the process of change for the Vietnamese economy and society.

In the former centrally-planned economy, urban development depended mainly on the plan for economic development and the distribution of investment capital for construction from the State. Since the change of direction to the market economy under the control of the State, Vietnamese cities have been developing rapidly. Production and services quickly expanded, based on the market's laws of supply and demand. Different economic sectors have also contributed to the common development of the city. The state is moving step by step toward the adoption of a government management function and avoiding direct participation in the business management of organisations. The Government has also paid attention to the establishment of economic laws (Report of Seventh Party Congress, 1991: 23).

Based on this background, people working in urban management as well as urban planning must commit themselves to changes, not only in the methodology but also in theory and in the search for planning and architectural solutions.
5.2 The Impact of Doi Moi on the context of Urban Planning in Vietnam

With the adoption of the Doi Moi policy, Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City and other cities are expanding in size and complexity as they are gradually modernised with the development of technical, social and urban infrastructure.

The migration flow from rural areas to cities has powerful effect on urban planning, putting more pressure on cities, degrading the technical, social and urban infrastructure in cities and destroying the street order. Illegal land occupation in squatter settlements is causing social evils such as drug addiction, prostitution, gambling and cheating. These issues certainly influence planning methodology and urban planning management.

After the Government introduced the Doi Moi policy, living conditions in urban and rural areas started to change very rapidly. In order to replace the old management system, in the period from 1987-1989 the government issued a series of directives and decrees to establish a new management system step by step. In the field of consumer goods circulation and distribution, the Government decided to float the prices for all commodities and materials and to stop subsidising prices and selling goods by rationing. From the end of 1988 the Government stopped granting finance to state enterprises from the state budget, and instead provided them with credit. State enterprises stopped contributing to the government budget through a special contribution system as before, and started to pay tax in the same way as those enterprises of other economic sectors. Offices and enterprises in urban areas, now operating under market conditions, tried to attract highly-skilled staff and specialists from different areas. These elements create the conditions for increased residential and occupational mobility, and that is why the migration flow from rural to urban areas is increasing day by day.

In conclusion, the factors causing the recent wave of migrations from rural to urban areas in Vietnam in general and in Hanoi in particular are economic (lack of jobs, low income in original place of residence) and to do with the rationalisation of family life and activities. Renovation of the management system and expansion of
the right to work, employment and place of residence create the basic conditions for migration flow, including migration for family reunion, training and education. Development policies, urbanisation and industrialisation of big cities like Hanoi are responsible for creating jobs and high income, attracting rural migrants to the city.

Table 5.1: Result of survey of migration flow from rural areas to Hanoi in the period 1986-1991 (Unit: 1000 people)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Population in 1986</th>
<th>Population in 1991</th>
<th>Average Population growth rate per year (%)</th>
<th>Migration Growth</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inner city</td>
<td>878.1</td>
<td>979.7</td>
<td>20.32</td>
<td>16.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suburb</td>
<td>955.4</td>
<td>1,145.7</td>
<td>38.06</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total City</td>
<td>1,833.5</td>
<td>2,125.4</td>
<td>58.38</td>
<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Economic factors (jobs, incomes) and family reunion are the most important reasons for migration from rural to urban areas in Vietnam. The renovation of the management system and expanding the right of people to find jobs and improved housing are also basic factors for migration (To Minh Thong, 1994: 52).

Social stratification (that is, the division between rich and poor) in both rural areas and urban areas has become a salient social phenomenon in recent years. This is closely linked to the significant transformation of economic and management structures during the process of renovation.

In the major urban centres, especially in Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City, social stratification is becoming more pronounced thanks to a number of factors, including diversification of career structures and urban employment opportunities and the social status attached to these. Social stratification has become a salient phenomenon, reflecting a number of significant transformations in economic life, management mechanisms and society; indeed, social stratification effects every field of social activity. It also directly influences the life chances of each individual and each group in society. In terms of production, social stratification is reflected in the
differentiation of income and allowances. In terms of culture and education it effects the literacy prospects of children, especially those who come from poor families. In the sphere of social services, the new demands for payment for health care and accommodation cannot be met by every class of citizen.

The effect of social stratification on spiritual life, belief systems, and the equality fostered by the former socialist model (especially for the old generation), and the dissatisfaction and job losses of many poor workers as a result of technological change may lead to an unstable society and body politic.

On the other hand, social stratification is now creating a society based on choice. People who succeed in this society will become future owners and contribute to economic growth. But this will also be a hard environment and not everyone will be able to make the choices that they want, especially the young generation. If this process is regarded as a result of economic reform, millions of people will not relinquish the dream of the former social system, which promised reward according to the formula: ‘Work according to his/her ability, receive in accordance with his/her demand’. They will remember fondly the former public property regime, which they thought was being realised. For that reason, there are two sides (negative and positive) to social stratification as well as the market mechanism in economic life. This is partially expressed through urban residents’ attitudes to and reaction against social stratification and differentiation between the rich and poor. About 70-75 per cent of them accept it as a normal phenomenon and are gradually getting used to it (To Minh Thong, 1994: 56).

From the viewpoint of theory and practice, it is unreasonable to say that social stratification was absent during the subsidisation regime. There were groups of persons who were privileged and getting benefit from that system, as well; they were present but not popular. However, at that time, egalitarianism, together with the concept of social equality in the community, reduced the chances of developing stratification in society.
Chapter 5: THE TRANSITION PERIOD IN VIETNAM

The shift to the market mechanism has created very strong pressures promoting social stratification among residents. In fact, socio-economic policies in the renovation period have created a lot of opportunities for every individual and family. But in the initial stage, not every individual and family can recognize and possess the means to exploit those opportunities. With favorable conditions, both subjective and objective, people who run their own businesses, in 50/50 joint-ventures with the government or other authorized persons are able, according to a Hanoi survey report, increase their living standards at different levels. Others (such as worker families, retired families, the elderly, low-level officials, the disabled and invalid soldiers) are not only incapable of exploiting those chances, but also suffer from difficulties caused by the transition to the new economic system. This will lead to tension in social relations between rich and poor and leads to further social stratification in urban areas.

The rich-poor differentiation causes many complicated problems in planning. Unlike the situation during the subsidized period, when planners depended on State planning data to produce urban plans, under the market mechanism wealthy customers are able to influence the planning process. In cities, a growing number of well-off has increased the demand for huge construction projects, with developers insisting on land for speculation and on the control of the design and choice of designer. As a result, they tend to deviate from the principles and standards of planning. By contrast, the poor groups in cities are not able to improve their housing, which is in very bad condition. They cannot get out of the slums in cities.

Before 1986 the gap between the rich and the poor was not very large and it was important that the Government subsidized houses for government staff and members of their families, based on Decision 150/CP of Council of Ministers. But now after wiping out all subsidized housing, the living conditions of Vietnamese people are changing very fast.

Rich people of around 40 years of age have a share of about 55 per cent of available floor space, with those aged over 60 having 17.6 per cent and with those aged over
50 having 20.28 per cent. For these groups, the distribution of average total floor area is:

- 100 square metre - about 56 per cent
- 100-200 square metre - about 35.20 per cent
- more than 200 square metre - about 8.8 per cent (To Minh Thong, 1994: 65)

About 55 per cent of poor people work in the private sector, 26.4 per cent are workers, 14.7 per cent are in retirement and 2.9 per cent are government officials. Their average income is about 56,000 to 100,000 VN Dong. Their living condition can be described as follows:

- Very poor living condition - (less than 2 square metres/person)- 8.82 per cent.
- Less than four square metres/person – 61.7 per cent
- Less than six square metres/person - 23.5 per cent
- More than six square metres/person - 5.88 per cent

Many families live in housing units with a shared kitchen, toilet and common areas (To Minh Thong 1994; 66-67).

With the advent of the market economy, the living conditions of Vietnamese people are improving day by day. People can build their houses by themselves, or work for state or private enterprises as they like (before that could not happen in urban areas). However these situations greatly influence social life and urban management. For example, more and more squatter settlements are created in big cities such as Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City. This means a lot of illegal house construction in the city, strongly influencing urban construction management and increasing the number of urban street children, prostitutes, drug abusers and petty criminals, who have often taken up such occupations in response to their desperate situations. Consequently, the incidence of HIV/AIDS is also increasing (Nathaniel von Einsiedel, 1996: 19).

The urban lifestyle also influences urban planning. Activities like working, living, communication and cultural activities have a strong influence on planning. For
example, the additional work undertaken at home for extra income has created a lot of commerce along street frontages. Under the market mechanism, people can build their own houses. Normally they build their own homes and forget all about the public interest, especially the environment. They even occupy pavements and passages and make the living environment and planning more chaotic.

In order to put some order into the urban system, there is no other way but to plan urban development and land use in a very practical way and to put in place appropriate regulations for managing construction and development in order to direct investments and confirm them with approved plans.

5.3 Impacts on urban development

The key element of Doi Mol is to develop different economic sectors that have an impact on urban development. Theoretically, urban planning during the subsidised period was aimed at making urban construction planning based on the only available source of capital, the state. As a result, plans tended to be idealised. Functional regions were divided and the basic unit (small housing section) of a city was established on the foundation of daily service patterns. The model for small housing sections was the establishment of a living quarter with a centre consisting of second class service structures. For a city, third class service structures for non-frequent use was required. For a large city, the third class service structure was equivalent to a "district" or a city quarter. The fourth class service structure was the city centre. Each city centre was identified by a reasonable service radius. Urban planning consisted of a general plan, a detailed plan and a construction plan. The normative standard of designing and urban planning was established according to a desirable standard concerning the amount of living space per person. In Vietnam it was initially six square metres per person, then it developed to nine square metres per person in 1981, and now it reaches 12 square metres per person. In other countries this residential area is from 9 to 15 square metres per person. The land use area standard per person in urban planning in Vietnam was 60 square metres per person in 1981, and is now reaching 100-150 square metres per person. From those standards were calculated the finance for the planning alternatives.
Under the market mechanism, the investment capital for urban construction comes not only from the state but also from other sectors, and consequently the foundation of urban planning has changed. It means that former planning theory is no longer suitable. However, a new theory of planning cannot be compiled immediately. First of all, due to the life of urban people, different economic sectors are now booming and this leads to a concentration of commerce along the streets. Under Doi Moi, you can see crowded streets, in most of which there are private commercial stalls on the street frontages. Under the market mechanism, the urban land and housing market has been shaped clearly and openly (Housing Development Strategy for Hanoi to the Year 2010, 199: 3). Houses facing the street are at a premium and planning has started to take into account the land value at different locations. Plans for key areas have also been developed.

It is impossible to develop the entire country at once. The State's strategy is to concentrate on developing the key economic areas. These areas are, in the north Hanoi – Hai Phong – Quang Ninh; in the south Ho Chi Minh City – Bien Hoa – Vung Tau, and in the central areas Lien Chieu – Da Nang – Dzung Quat (Ministry of Construction Report 1994: 8).

The planning method also shapes the orientation of development plans, plans for land use and detailed plans tying in with projects so that they are more feasible. Planning is also concerned with the restoration of the most significant ancient quarters, renovation of other old quarters and construction of new urban areas. Theoretically, the residential quarter is still kept as the basic unit, functional areas are still divided, and the urban central system is planned according to levels but not as rigidly as they used to be. In the current system most attention is paid to frontages (streetscapes). High buildings are built, but in the inner part of the blocks there can be lower buildings or villas. The harmonious combination of streetscape protection and provision of lower buildings helps meet social demands; that is, it meets the demands of the rich as well as helping to solve the housing demands of low-income groups.

However, the new theory has not yet been formed; urban planning still follows the old ways and has yet to make any solid step forward (Prof. Dr. Nguyen Tai - Senior
Export of Prime Minister’s Office). In fact, there has been a significant innovation in the *Doi Moi* period, in the way that the urban development-oriented plans and plans for urban land use are replacing the former general plans and detailed plans, and the way in which projects are now aimed at facilitating investment and the emphasis on implementation. Previously, the detailed plan did not have any investor in mind and was simply based on regulations in the designing process. Nowadays, the detailed plan is put forward based on projects with investors and implementers, and cities are planned in an integrated fashion rather than in separate sections.

### 5.3.1 Private/mixed/state sector

Under the Soviet planning system, plans were designed for Government to carry out and people did not participate in that process. As a result, no plans in Vietnam, especially in Hanoi, could be completed. Now, under *Doi Moi*, Vietnam’s Government has already accepted that many economic sectors will co-exist, including foreign developers, and that all of them have the right to participate in the urban development process. Privatisation of State enterprises and housing stock is starting in Vietnam now, meaning that the Government has recognised that all the people can own property, such as factories and private houses. Because of this recognition, planners should change their old style of urban planning so that their plans can meet the different demand of clients, whether these are private owners, cooperatives, shareholders or the state. Moreover, planning methodology and development control should be changed to meet the requirements of a market economy and to suit its development. Adding to these problems, the Vietnamese government was or is going to create or amend more laws, decrees and ordinances, such as the new *Land Law* amendment, which will be submitted to the National Assembly session at the end of 1998 for approval; the new *Foreign Investment Law* which was approved in March 1998; and a series of new regulations simplifying procedures to suit developers. All of those things have been approved because the Vietnamese Government wishes to simplify the administrative system and create a ‘one-stop-shop’ approach to the urban development process.
5.3.2 Negotiated rather than command planning

Under the old style of planning, planners prepared plans for the city or certain areas by the command of the national government or the city authorities, since they were the owners and implementers of the plans. In the process of planning, planners only reported or submitted plans to government leaders or local authorities without any attention being paid to community participation.

In the Doi Moi period, the role of individual citizens and the community is becoming important because without their comments plans could be very difficult to realise. Consequently, planners are now starting to include community participation in the planning process in order to improve investment conditions. According to this method, planning should be more appropriate to the demands of the developers.

Since completing the AusAID project: “Hanoi Planning and Development Control” in July 1997, the Chief Architect’s Office has used planning methods involving participation by the community. From the beginning it was found that people were very happy to take part, and as they know the plans of the city or their precinct very well, they are willing to follow them. When I made a survey during a district planning exhibition in 1995, all the people interviewed said: “If the Local Authority had done this before, we would not have made as many mistakes in our construction activities and would not have wasted public money. All of us would like our city to be better, more beautiful, and it is not only for us, but also for the future generation”. These views convinced the author that consultation should have been done much earlier. This provides another reason why we should change the ideological basis of planning practice as soon as possible.

5.3.3 Flexibility

Formerly it was usual for planning institutes from the national level to local level to do planning by order of the Government or the Local Authority. They did this from Master Plans to the Detailed Plans based on regulation planning standards. After that, when the plans were approved, the developers were required to follow that plan very
strictly. The plans were drawn by architects, and while they were very beautiful documents, they were often not feasible. At the present time the Ministry of Construction and the Chief Architect's Office has begun to carefully consider a new planning system, which will be more suitable for developers because of its greater flexibility.

5.3.4 Administration issues:

_Doi Moi_ is a renovation process, and also involves reform of many government functions. Vietnam pays much attention to the renovation of the urban development administration system because, recently, too many organisations have been involved in urban management, from central levels to local levels. Their functions and responsibilities are overlapping. For example, in Hanoi city there are five organisations participating in the urban management process. They are the Chief Architect's Office, the Construction Department, the Housing and Land Management Department, the Cadastral Department and Transportation and Public Works. But between them there is no coordination, making the development process too complicated. It creates confusion for developers and the community. Now Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City are going to reform the urban management system by amalgamating all related organisations which participate in urban development. To simplify the development control process, Hanoi is going to apply a new development approval process called the “one-stop-shop”.

5.3.5 Social content

The introduction of the _Doi Moi_ policy in Vietnam was met by all people with great enthusiasm; it seemed to people to be a revolution to save the country from poverty. The _Doi Moi_ policy in Vietnam is similar to _perestroika_ in the USSR, but it opened for Vietnamese people new horizons of development and prosperity. The _Doi Moi_ policy has already influenced all fields of social and cultural life of the Vietnamese people.
The centralised economic management system no longer exists since the introduction of the *Doi Moi* policy, which was aimed at creating a market economy. The market economy seemed to be like the stream which was hindered; now that the gates are opened, the water flow spurs out, effecting all the social elements of urban and rural areas in Vietnam (Trinh Duy Luan, 1996: 51). *Doi Moi* is a new engine for encouraging economic development, but also an engine that generates social evils such as drugs, prostitution and smuggling.

**Table 5.2: Survey data on living conditions in the transition period (%)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of living condition</th>
<th>Four Hanoi inner districts in 1992</th>
<th>One ward in Hanoi centre in 1992</th>
<th>One ward in Hon gai centre in 1993</th>
<th>Cam pha town in 1993</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very good</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>29.7</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normal</td>
<td>49.3</td>
<td>46.7</td>
<td>49.5</td>
<td>63.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very bad</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


*Doi Moi* made Vietnam a country of incredible change. It has had a very strong impact on all economic activities of the country, and especially on social life. *Doi Moi* is creating a new lifestyle that meets with the demands of the market economy. Social life is changing, bringing about a change in perception of social equality that is quite unlike that which existed during the subsidised period. In the *Doi Moi* environment, all people can decide by themselves what job they would like to have, where they would like to work and whether in the private or State sector. This new social life has created great opportunities for all people, bringing into play their talent and knowledge for building a good life, but it has also created a greater separation of the poor and the rich. It means that *Doi Moi* will create a regime of employers and employees, a situation that could not be accepted by the socialist system prior to 1986.

*Doi Moi* is concerned with stopping the system of subsidies, such as those on housing and the indexation for inflation in the salaries of government officers and in
compensation for losses by State enterprises. In order to solve a series of difficulties
relating to the system of subsidies, the Government issued a series of decisions and
regulations, such as Decision of the President of the Ministers Council, No.
227/HDBT dated at 29/12/1987, on the reduction of the number of State employees,
and Resolution of Ministers Council No. 109/HDBT, dated at 12/4/1991 on
rearrangement of officers in Government offices. With these decisions and
resolutions, even many State workers and officers have become unemployed, a term
that was not officially accepted by the Government before 1986.

With the advent of Doi Moi, there were other social problems, such as changing the
educational system, together with the increase in the number of illiterate children, the
creation of a big gap in living conditions between urban and rural areas, the increased
incidence of squatter settlements in urban and suburban areas of large cities like
Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City, and the deterioration of health care services. In this
period, phenomena such as bribery and corruption are increasing, so the Communist
Party and the Government are seeking the best measures to stop them.

All these problems have a powerful effect on the existing Vietnamese planning and
development system. There is an urgent need to renovate the system so that it can
come to terms with market economy conditions and meet international standards.

5.4 Changing Planning theory under Doi Moi

Prior to 1986 the old urban planning system functioned as follows. The State
organisations prepared plans for the city from the Regional Planning Scheme and
General Plan down to the Detailed Plan and the Plan for Construction. All those
plans would be submitted and receive approval from different relevant Authority
levels, according to the Regulations on the establishment of urban development
construction planning design No. 322-BXD/DT, dated 28 December 1993. All the
approved plans would be fixed and all development had to strictly conform to those
plans.
At present the Ministry of Construction, with assistance from the Australian Government, is working on Vietnam's Building Code. It issued the Construction Standards and Norms in 1997. All these offer strong support for construction and development activities in Vietnam.

During the Doi Moi period, in urban development all economic sectors can participate; however the urban planning system should be changed to meet the demands of the market economy, and to comply with developers' demands.

The Government has the policy of sending urban planners, architects and students to Western countries for training and retraining, in order to learn from urban planning systems.

Vietnam has been undergoing dramatic economic changes since the Sixth Party Congress in 1986, when the Doi Moi policies were introduced. The country is moving rapidly from a command economy with centralised planning to a more decentralised, flexible economy. It is expected that the urban planning process will also follow this path, becoming less highly centralised and more flexible and responsive to community needs. Planning decision-making will involve more 'interested parties'. More emphasis in the planning process will need to be placed on negotiation and less emphasis on technical and design matters (Logan, 1995: 1).

Planning is generally about creating a set of strategies, policies and regulations, which allow individual property owners to develop their properties as they see fit with minimum impact on their neighbors and wider community. In this way, planning seeks to minimise conflicts and achieve results which benefit both the individual and the community. In another words, planning is about allocation of resources and is, therefore, part of the political process. To some extent in all Western democracies the development of planning strategies, policies, regulations and guidelines becomes a process of consultation with the various groups involved - property owners, business interests, professional property developers, residents, heritage experts, architects, etc.
The planning strategies, policies, guidelines and regulations are then approved by the political authorities acting in the best interests of the citizenry as a whole. Once approved, the regulations have legitimacy and can be enforced. Importantly, the urban planners are able to use their negotiation skills and discretionary decision-making powers within a context of openly approved strategies, policies, regulations and guidelines.

The clear statement of approved strategies, policies, regulations and guidelines also provides certainty to owners, investors and developers, making it possible for them to make sound business decisions and to invest with confidence.

Vietnam is now in the process of renovation, so that many programs and plans of reform are being carried out by the Government. Hanoi recently paid much attention to the renovation of its Urban Planning and Management System.

The Ministry of Construction, the Hanoi Chief Architect's Office and the Ho Chi Minh Chief Architect's Office recently organised a 'Seminar on New Guidelines for the Urban Planning Process in Vietnam', especially related to big cities. All participants in this Seminar fully agreed to make reforms to the Planning Design Guideline and would like to base it on Western planning systems, because these systems are more appropriate to the market economy.

The Vietnamese Government has just approved the Vietnam Urban Development Strategy (VUDS), and according to the new planning guideline, all city and town development has to comply with this VUDS. As a new urban planning system is introduced, city and town planners will need to adhere to the following steps.

**City Master Plan:** This plan should consider the key elements:

1) How the city fits into the VUDS, regional plans and policies;
2) What kind of future each area in the city should have; and
3) How each area fits into the city as a whole.
A main output of this stage is the creation of a full picture of the future of the city, and policies, guidelines and instructions needed for directing the city towards the desired future. In this stage, the comments and opinions from the community should be sought. This could not happen before but is now regarded as the community’s right and is very important for planners and decision-makers. The master plan also needs to coordinate with the activities and policies of different relevant organisations responsible for transportation planning, infrastructure networks planning and environmental impacts.

After receiving approval from relevant authorities, the master plan will be the legal document for the main developments.

**Local Structure Plan:** The city should be divided into many geographical or administrative areas for a Local Structure Plan. The purpose of a Local Structure Plan is to translate the policies and objectives of Government for future development of cities or towns into more detailed planning proposals for designated parts of those cities or towns. The Local Structure Plan sets out the objectives for the future of an area, taking into account the particular characteristics of that area and the role it will play in the future development of a town or a city, in order to meet the broader Government policies and objectives for future economic and social development of urban areas in Vietnam.

In the past, after preparing the Detailed Plan (Local Structure Plan), planners also had to prepare the Construction Detail Plan. This kind of plan is more detailed than the Detailed Plan because it is concerned with the arrangement of buildings and dimensions of infrastructure networks, even if it is not meeting the demand of either State or cooperative developers. It is now suggested that, after completing the Local Structure Plan, planners should also prepare a Local Planning Scheme. Thus, the Local Structure Plan sits between Master Plan of towns or cities and the processes of dealing with individual development proposals on specific sites.
Chapter 6

THE IMPACT OF DOI MÔI ON THE PLANNING OF HANOI

6.1 Adjustment 1981 – 1992

During this period, the country was facing many difficulties in the development of an efficient bureaucracy, and as a result, the cities were in a serious state of degradation. In 1986, the Sixth National Congress of the Vietnam Communist Party set forth the policy of economic renovation, shifting the economy from a system characterised by centralised planning and bureaucracy, into a form of market economy under state management.

As the Law on Foreign Investment (29 December 1987) was being introduced, the economy of Hanoi started its first steps towards a development boom. In urban areas a number of new factors appeared which required changes in the planning system, and the Government issued directives for adjustment of the Master Plan of the Capital. There have been two subsequent adjustments, as follows:

6.2 Adjustment 1981 – 1986

The General Plan made by the Soviet team and approved in 1981 turned out to be very difficult to implement with the country suffering from the consequences of a long war and a resultant poor and backward economy. Thus, in 1984, the Vietnamese government decided to readjust the General Plan of Hanoi, to make it more viable and practical. However, the indexes used in the feasibility study remained almost unchanged and the economic conditions at that time meant that there were very limited resources available to implement the plan. In addition, the standards used in the adjustment continued to be based on Soviet standards that proved to be inappropriate to conditions in Hanoi. Ultimately, the adjusted plan became the background for implementation of Hanoi's development in the period up to 1992.
6.3 Adjustment 1986 – 1992

The General Plan of Hanoi Capital was again adjusted under Government directive in 1992. The project’s implementation was co-ordinated between the City People’s Committee and the Ministry of Construction, and was approved on 18 April 1992 by the President of the Council of Ministers under the Decision N° 132/ CT. Thus, in more than 10 years since 1981, the General Plan of Hanoi Capital Development has been substantially changed.

Under this plan the size of the population was projected to grow from an estimated 1.5 or 1.7 million to two million by the year 2010. In addition, the total area of urban land was calculated to be approximately 7,600 – 9,000 hectares, with the expected growth resulting in a total urban land area for Hanoi of approximately 12,000 hectares. The City centre was reaffirmed as the Hoan Kiem Lake and Ba Dinh area, with some expansion anticipated in the West Lake area (Report of Hanoi Master Plan 1992).

This planning alternative differs from that of 1981 in such a way that it was now decided not to use the West Lake as the centre for the layout of the master plan, and to make the best use of the radial road system in association with the green-belt system. The main orientation for new urban development chiefly remains at the northern side of the Red River. On the southern side of the River the areas adjacent to the main city-bound roads were only partly developed, and it is forecast that there will be a large amount of investment in these areas, so that overall the urban space of the existing urban area of Hanoi will expand to the North.

6.4 The General Plan 1992

Development planning of Hanoi Capital to the year 2010 is based on the strategy for economic stability and development, as set out by the Seventh Party Congress: ‘A multi-sector economy with various forms of ownership and business is operated in
accordance with the market mechanism and oriented by the state. The open economic policy, supported by the Law on Foreign Investment, is creating opportunities for cooperation with a large number of overseas individual investors and countries. It is necessary to make full use of the existing capital, to create assets and technical foundations of the city, together with the mobilisation of the various capital sources from the state, public or private ownership, to build, rehabilitate and develop the Capital, based on the principle of “urban development based on urban resources”.

To implement this strategic target, the General Plan proposed that Hanoi would need to reduce its rate of population growth to 1.5 per cent per annum. This was to be achieved by family planning policies, controls on rural-urban migration, and enforcement of qualifications for new residents. By the year 2010, it was estimated that the city’s population would be approximately 1.5 million people and, if the immigration controls were not successful, this figure would be between 1.7 and 2 million. By that time, 61 per cent of Hanoi’s population would be of working age. The total area for urban development in Hanoi would be slightly over 10,000 hectares.

The 1992 General Plan for Hanoi provided for the urban area to be developed mainly to the north side, and partly to the south side of Red River adjacent to the existing urban area. However, in the longer term it was anticipated that more concentrated development would occur on the north side. The urban development areas were proposed as follows:

- The West and Northwest along Road No. 32.
- The Southwest along Road No. 6
- The South along Road No. 1
- The East along Nguyen Van Cu Road, Road No. 1 and No. 5
Figure 7: The Hanoi General Plan 1992
Figure 8: The Hanoi Adjustment Master Plan to the Year 2020
* The North-west of West Lake and along the Thang Long-Noi Bai road.
* The Dong Anh and Soc Son areas were also considered suitable for urban development.

Hoan Kiem and Ba Dinh districts were still considered the centre for developing the radial routes such as highway No. 1, No. 6, No. 32, Nguyen Van Cu road and South Thang Long – Ba Dinh Road, which will be linked with such ring roads as La Thanh-Dai Co Viet-Tran Khat Chan; Lang-Ton Duc Thang-Minh Khai; Thanh Xuan-Phap Van-Thanh Tri.

The basic concept of the 1992 General Plan was that the City would be developed into a star-shaped form with the main routes interacting with green spaces and water surfaces. Agro-ecological areas and rivers such as To Lich, Lu and Kim Nguu were to be utilised as significant landscape elements for improving the urban environment. It was envisaged that the city would keep developing and expanding continuously, while its historic, cultural heritage and architectural assets were to be protected and preserved.

The 36 old streets area, commonly referred to as the ‘Ancient Quarter’, contained within an area of approximately 100 hectares, was perceived in the General Plan as an area where the traditional urban character was to be retained. The General Plan recognised that the Ancient Quarter needed to be rehabilitated, while its particular heritage qualities, such as its historic character, traffic network, street names and residential function, should be saved.

To improve living standards and the environment in the Ancient Quarter, the General Plan recognised that the infrastructure system would need to be gradually renovated, and that both the construction and population density minimised. While parts of the area were proposed to be renovated in accordance with its original character and form, some others were proposed to be re-developed with green space, new public amenities, and an upgrade of the internal infrastructure system so as to maximise the use of space and to highlight the particular architectural style of the area. The General Plan proposed that future studies would be focused on the reorganisation of
the traffic system in line with the short narrow streets, to create rational traffic routes for motorcycles and pedestrians, thus assuring protection of normal activities in the Ancient Quarter.

The General Plan also proposed control of development in the former French colonial area, known as the ‘Old Quarter’, which was developed in the late Nineteenth and early Twentieth Centuries, and which includes Hai Ba Trung, Ly Thuong Kiet, Tran Hung Dao Streets. It is located in the south of Hoan Kiem Lake and occupies some streets in Ba Dinh District. Along these roads, the General Plan required that the French colonial era villas, with their architectural style conforming to the requirements of a tropical climate, were to be protected properly in terms of both architectural form and landscaping. The General Plan also recognised that, at intervals and wherever possible, there may be high-rise buildings of appropriate scale, that would harmonise with the surroundings, creating perfect streets for a more and more beautiful Hanoi. The arrangement of main streets was to be maintained, including landscaping, gardening and green spaces, and was to be closely combined with measures for improving local technical infrastructure.

However, the General Plan did not propose the mechanisms necessary to realise the conservation objectives, due to a lack of understanding of the market forces that were affecting the development of the area. The 1992 General Plan was still based on the assumption that mechanisms appropriate to the former centralised land management system would still be applicable in a market economy. As such the implementation of the Plan by the Government authorities was only partially successful.

In the Hoan Kiem central area, beside protecting the historic frontages and buildings of high architectural standard, the General Plan proposed that some buildings could be erected, provided they were within reasonable height limits and appropriate architectural style that would not spoil the nature of the lake. This would enable the gradual restoration of such valuable old features as flower gardens and grass lawns in public recreation areas, and by doing so ensure that Hoan Kiem Lake would forever remain the centre of Hanoi.
For the West Lake area, which is endowed with magnificent sights, the General Plan proposed that priority would be given to the development of business centres, hotels, cultural facilities, and tourist villages. Roads in this area are arranged into three types: ring road, inter-section road and pavement around the lake. The Plan envisaged that the Lake would be prevented from being filled illegally and polluted, as the area was suitable for the development of facilities for gymnastics sports and recreation. In order to preserve the natural environment of the lake, the Plan proscribed a range of activities, such as cutting trees and construction of unacceptable buildings that did not conform to the nature of the lake or that caused pollution. Many green spaces and suitable buildings would be developed around the lake and the bank of the lake would be reinforced.

Along with the protection and rehabilitation of the Old and Ancient Quarters and the city centre, the General Plan anticipated that Hanoi would grow in size by expanding the areas next to the main roads, where green spaces and water surfaces will be combined with the existing rivers and ponds for the purpose of improving the urban environment.

The 1992 General Plan further envisaged that a number of new modern living quarters with adequate infrastructure, meeting demand for residential space, recreation, tourism and trade will be developed outside the Old and Ancient Quarters. These new modern living quarters will attract various kinds of investment, helping to reduce construction pressure and population density in the Old and Ancient Quarters. By doing so, it would be possible to preserve the ancient features of Hanoi while modernising it at the same time.

The industrial ring of the Capital is planned to develop in accordance with National Industrial Development Planning and Hanoi’s industrialisation and modernisation strategy. Industrial works will be gradually moved outside Hanoi to protect the urban environment.
Technical infrastructure will be developed in new residential areas. The existing network in the inner city will be renovated into a complete and modern system meeting the diversified demands of the people.

Besides upgrading the living environment in urban areas, the General Plan recognised the need to pay attention to improving the quality of the housing stock built since 1954, and that rural areas will be urbanised with the rehabilitation of technical infrastructure whilst maintaining traditions rooted in the Vietnamese villages.

Some trends for housing development in the coming years can also be identified. These include the development of a complete infrastructure system in each residential quarter and the attraction of various financial sources for establishing a housing fund. In these quarters, housing will be built in various arrangements for leasing and/or sale. A similar form is proposed in areas like Nghia Do, Yen Hoa, Trung Hoa and Dinh Cong. Existing water surfaces and green spaces are to be kept, and be expanded if possible, so as to reach the target of 4 square metres per capita by the year 2010.

The General Plan proposed that the transportation system would be upgraded and improved so as to satisfy all traffic demands within the shortest time. While preserving the original nature of the old and ancient quarters' transportation system, new roads will be built in the expanded area, promoting the development of transport vehicles in the coming years. In the future, the number of public transport vehicles will be increased and the number of bicycles and motorcycles will decrease. By the year 2010, public transport will be the dominant means of transport. Noi Bai airport will be rehabilitated and expanded, while Gia Lam airport is to be renovated for domestic flights. Giap Bat and Gia Lam railway stations will be developed into the city's two principal stations, Pha Den port will be renovated and Khuyen Luong port will be expanded, with the establishment of regulations on types of goods loaded at each port. Waterway transportation possibilities will be studied for the Red River.
By the year 2010, the target for water supply is 160 litres of potable water per person per day. The drainage system is to be improved to end the frequent flooding after heavy rains. Meanwhile, a number of pumping stations will be built to pump water from inner city rivers to the Red River whenever the water level in the inner city rivers is too high.

Research and application of the energy and telecommunication networks will be carried out, focusing on the growing demands of the people.

The 1992 General Plan, approved by the President of the Council of Ministers in 1992, was designed specifically to help improve the living conditions and aesthetic qualities for the community, marking a significant change in the approach to planning principles and policy. The preceding General Plan, which had been established in the early eighties in collaboration with the Leningrad Planning Institute, was based on the principle of unique social class relations and relied exclusively on public financing and implementation. By comparison, the present documents have integrated new factors: the plurality of actors, the introduction of private land use rights, the recognition of private business activities, and the opening to foreign capital.

The integration of new factors into the planning options has required the definition of new planning principles:

- the return to a land division system based on individual lots - and the rejection of mono-functional zones - as a response to a certain form of land privatisation;
- the return to the alignment along streets, as a response to individual commercial activity;
- respect for existing layouts, on the one hand for economical reasons, and on the other hand, as a response to the plurality of actors which leads to the taking into account of the reality of existing ground occupation and property.
General objectives of the 1992 General Plan

The general objectives of the master plan are:

- Bettering the circulation network and developing infrastructure;
- Developing existing industrial zones and creating new ones;
- Creating new residential quarters and restructuring old ones (housing estates);
- Classifying villages in order to preserve those with traditional activities for tourist development, and to restructure the others for identified urbanisation;
- Organising a ‘green system’;
- Developing tourist zones around particular sites or historical monuments of the metropolitan area;
- Developing foreign investment zones.

The development principles of the 1992 General Plan

The proposed urban structure for Hanoi is based on three principles:

1. In the agglomerated part of Hanoi (centre and first ring road), the objectives are to modernise the existing structure and achieve a reduction in population density.
2. Three complementary peripheral growth corridors (Giap Bat on the southern road, Gia Lam on the east bank of the Red River and Xuan La on the western side of West Lake) are to become the localities for Hanoi’s urban expansion.
3. The outer periphery is to be available for satellite development at the same scale as the metropolitan area, with an emphasis on economic, industrial and tourist development.

The graphic documents of Master Plan and the exhibition of August 1994

The Master Plan, along with public and private projects, was exhibited to the public for the first time in August 1994 in Hanoi. This was a very new idea for the planning process in Vietnam and its success was such that there was considerable congestion of visitors trying to see the exhibited documents.
The interest of the population in urban development showed very clearly on this occasion. People were trying to discover if a road was planned to pass over their houses (in which case the house should be sold as soon as possible) or whether roads were going to pass near their lots (which meant the house value would then increase).

Previously there was considerable uncertainty regarding the capacity of the government to finance the realisation of projects and therefore it was difficult to forecast which ones would actually be built. But the impact of the August 1994 exhibition reveals an unexpected aspect of town planning documents. Anticipating the city’s growth, the documents gave expression to a possible urban future and, as a consequence, spurred speculation.

*Objectives developed and compared with the existing structure*

The 1992 General Plan pays much attention to improvement of the existing infrastructure network, such as transportation, water supply, sewerage and drainage. The General Plan is an ambitious and global project, based on the expectation of rapid economic development of Hanoi. It envisages the resolution of the city’s problems, which are: undeveloped and badly maintained infrastructure, an inadequate housing capacity compared with the population’s needs, and an obsolete industrial structure. Faced with the lack of sufficient national revenue, it integrates a strategy for financing urbanisation that relies on foreign capital investment to realise its spatial organisation.

The General Plan is based on an existing physical layout; it intends to take advantage of key features like the West Lake or the mountains in Soc Son district and it does not interfere with the natural tendencies of Hanoi’s growth. Proceeding by defining its objectives at successive scales, it is a document able to evolve and withstand local adaptations without being compromised at an overall level; and, moreover, its realisation can be phased according to financial opportunities.
6.5 1992 to the present

Since the General Plan of Hanoi City was approved in 1992, there have been many changes and fluctuations. The GDP growth rate of the Capital City is nearly 12.5 per cent, which raises the GDP per capita three-fold compared to the average of the whole country. By 1996 about 300 foreign-invested projects in Hanoi had been licensed, with a total investment of three billion U.S dollars. In particular, large projects of strategic importance are in the process of implementation, such as: building Cai Lan seaport, upgrading Noi Bai international airport, National Roads № 5 and № 18, High ways Thang Long-Noi Bai 2 and Hanoi-Hoa Lac. Industrial areas and export processing zones such as Sai Dong, Soc Son, North Thang Long have been licensed and their construction started. A number of new urban areas are being processed for approval or have been licensed for investment such, as North Bridge, Ciputra, Song Hong City.

Until 1992 there was no regional economic planning. Now there are some regional plans available, for areas such as the Northern economic zone, which is of prime importance. Plans for the development triangle Hanoi - Haiphong - Quang Ninh, and the Red River Delta, and the main targets for development have been identified.

The Eighth Party Congress set forth the strategy for socio-economic development of the whole country up to the year 2020 during the new period of industrialisation and modernisation.

The urban area is undergoing rapid change with regard to the development of service businesses, tourism, trade, and especially housing. The housing and land market is booming because of the change to a market economy, and because of shortcomings in the 1992 General Plan, the control of land and construction projects is very much harder than under the former centralised system of land management. Some of the problems that have been experienced are:
- The 1992 General Plan has many problems, such as the population estimates were inaccurate;
- insufficient land has been allocated for urban expansion;
- planning standards, based on Soviet requirements, were inappropriate;
- proposed population distribution to urban quarters was inaccurate;
- selection of new urban development areas was inappropriate;
- lack of regard given to built form and spatial planning;
- lack of control of urban architecture;
- insufficient planning for infrastructure provision and coordination;
- lack of identification of high priority projects;

In particular the 1992 General Plan lacked specific policies and measures for General Plan upgrading and construction of the capital city, converting it into a civilised and modern city, giving it a deserved place as the capital city of a nation of 100 million people by the turn of the 21st century, a period when the country will enter a new development stage.

Recognising these shortcomings in the 1992 General Plan and having regard to the need for a firm policy of sustainable development and the changing requirements of the future population, the government once again ordered the adjustment of the Master Plan of Hanoi City. On 24 April 1996, the Chairman of Hanoi People’s Committee and the Construction Minister submitted the formal letter of request for adjustment to the Master Plan for approval by the Prime Minister and the Political Bureau of the Central Committee of the Vietnam Communist Party. On 20 October 1996, the Political Bureau approved the new urbanisation orientation by the Notice N° 10/TB/ Central Committee and on 4 October 1996, the Prime Minister also ratified the planning orientation by the Notice N° 78/TB.
After receiving instructions from the Party's Central Committee and the Prime Minister for Hanoi Master Plan adjustment, experts from Hanoi cooperated with Ministry of Construction experts to form the Master Plan Adjustment Group, based on the Decision No 29/BXD-UBTP, issued by the Minister of Construction and the Chairman of the Hanoi People's Committee.

During the study process of Hanoi Master Plan, based on Statement of Standing Committee of Hanoi Communist Party No 57-TB/TU, dated at 28 July 1997, Hanoi People's Committee and Ministry of Construction invited Daewoo Corporation, which in turn commissioned Bechtel, SOM and other International consultant companies to assist the Vietnamese side to prepare a Master Plan for Hanoi city and Hanoi New Town to the year 2020.

The Decision No. 108/1998/TTg (20 June 1998) approved the adjusted Master Plan in the following terms:

Hanoi Master Plan to the year 2020 confirms the special role and position of Hanoi in the orientation of Vietnam's urban development in accordance with the direction and purpose of socio-economic development and the policy of further industrialisation and modernisation in close combination with security and defence requirements. It assures improvement and new construction in order to make Hanoi a national and modern city in harmony with its nature and traditions, being a political, cultural, scientific, technical and economic centre as well as an international transaction centre of the whole country: deserving the place of the capital of a nation with one hundred million population, and having an appropriate position in South East Asia and in the world.
The space planning in the 'Hanoi Master Plan to the year 2020' includes the existing Hanoi urban area together with the centre of the neighbouring urban areas of Ha Tay, Vinh Phuc, Bac Ninh and Hung Yen provinces with an effective radius of 30 to 50 kilometres.

The Master Plan proposes that the existing Hanoi urban area development direction is mainly to the west, establishing the urban chain linking Mieu Mon-Xuan Mai-Hoa Lac-Son Tay. In the north it covers the urban areas of Soc Son-Xuan Mai-Dai Lai-Phuc Yen, and other urban areas to take advantage of geographical location, natural conditions, transportation and infrastructure.

In the short to medium term, it is planned to develop Hanoi City centre to the north of the Red River; a Hanoi 'New Town' will be established in the North Thang Long-Van Tri-Dong Anh-Co Loa-Gia Lam-Yen Vien areas, and the city will continue to develop in the South Thang Long area. To the year 2020, the urban population of Hanoi and neighbouring urban areas will be around 4.5-5 million inhabitants, in which the inner city population will be about 2.5 million inhabitants. The average land use standard is 100 square metres per person, the standard for traffic land use is 25 square metre per person, the standard of land use for green space, parks, sports is 18 square metres per person, and for public construction five square metres per person.

6.6 The Soviet planning model and the plan of Hanoi City

6.6.1 Urban planning on a social foundation

In Soviet planning philosophy the City is inherently the mirror reflecting, in a rather living manner, the development of a nation or a region. It is a concentration of public life in terms of politics, economy, culture, science and technology, local and international relations.
The comprehensive development of society takes place together with:

- Economic development
- Social development
- Spatial development

Urban spatial development is based on socio-economic development. These three factors have a mutual interaction and close relationship.

Spatial development is expressed in two ways:

- Contents
- Urban form

The history of each city's development always reflects the periods of development of the country, its political and social system (feudal, capitalist or socialist). From the design concepts and principles, layout planning, spatial structuring, land-use, system of economic and technical standards, project design, up to management rules, all of these completely reflect the existing social structure and ideology. Urban planning, in other words, has political, economic, scientific technological and aesthetic aspects.

The Soviet science of urbanism gives birth to the theoretical system of socialist urban planning, so the Soviet planning model means a model of socialist planning. As Vietnam was a country building socialism under Marxism-Leninism and the former Soviet Union was a cradle of socialism, this was clearly reflected in the planning of Vietnamese cities, especially Hanoi (which was perhaps archetypal of Soviet planning models until 1986 -- that is, before Dai Moi).

The substantial features of socialism, which the plan reflects, are:

- Common ownership of capital goods
• Centralised planning and bureaucracy and full support by the State

• One-component economy (Socialist component)

6.6.2. Planning model of Soviet Union and the Planning Model of Hanoi City

In the initial stages of the planning for the capital city, Vietnam received advice from experts from socialist countries, especially the Soviet Union. Vietnamese architects and engineers were mostly graduates from socialist countries and the former Soviet Union, who had returned to Vietnam to work in the field of urban planning (almost all socialist countries have been influenced more or less by the socialist planning model of the Soviet Union). Textbooks and manuals used by local students (trained in Vietnam) are all translated from those of the Soviet Union and other socialist countries, and the codes and standards for urban planning and construction were applied in strict conformity with Soviet standards. Some amendments were made but they basically referred to the standard Soviet system.

From 1961 to 1974 Soviet experts were directly involved in producing feasibility reports and setting forth the General Plan of Hanoi City with Vietnamese experts' collaboration. The main features of the Plan may be summarised as follows:

Design concepts:

Building a city in accordance with the orientation principles:
• Serving production, serving working people.
• Development of national economy, taking agriculture as a basis and industry as primary sector of production.
• Economising land and materials.
• Focus on building small and medium cities, avoiding overly large cities.
• Infrastructure: starting from reality and practice, combining short-term and long-term interests.
• Applying the motto: suitable and cost-saving and taking into account aesthetics wherever possible.

**Technical and economic standards:**

Using modern standard system:

- Land: 100 square metre per person,
- Greenery: 20 - 25 per cent of urban land
- Main urban road: 60 - 100 metre wide
- With a view to creating maximum welfare for working people in terms of their dwelling, working and relaxation

**Layout:**

Using a self-contained and comprehensive structure.

Self-contained in terms of

- Land use
- Spatial organisation
- Systems of service.

This is reflected in a balanced arrangement of land uses and in an emphasis on the development of a pattern of self-contained areas with a full range of services, this pattern being seen at various levels (city, district, quarter and block). There is also a separation of administrative management from the planning area.

**Land Management:**

All land belongs to the State, so land utilisation is dictated by the plan, without the requirement to know whether the land is suitable for the purpose or not, with the result that the use is imposed on a locality without regard to the views and attitudes of the local population. That is why the construction of many industrial areas leads to complete destruction of villages; there have been some cases of roads going through existing residential areas.
Under this Soviet planning system, by not recognising private sector involvement in construction, there is a tendency to build high-rise buildings with communal facilities as a result of political interference and subjectiveness and a lack of scientific background. The results suggest that planning experts never considered whether these concepts were feasible or not for Vietnam, and no consideration was given to how to implement the plans.

Each planning project is influenced by the features of the period in which it is drafted. The Soviet experts established their planning project on the assumption that our nation had just been liberated, facing many difficulties, with an economy in recession, a unified territorial structure and a self-contained economy. Theoretically, it looked perfect, but in reality it was very difficult to implement, so shortly after the approval it had to be adjusted, and even though the General Plan of 1984 was closer to reality, after ten years the level of implementation remained minimal. Even the General Plan approved in 1992 remained heavily influenced by the period of recession. Overall, all the plans established by the Soviet experts for Hanoi were both optimistic and subjective.

It should be noted, however, that although the General Plan previously drawn up by the Soviet planners did not reflect the actual situation of Vietnam at that time, there were some points that seemed to conform relatively well with the physical situation, if a lot of amendments and corrections were still required. Some of these points are identified below:

**Suitable layout**

The layout is good, using West Lake as the centre for the city layout. The central axis is nicely laid out, in a clear manner, which is perpendicular to the West Lake and runs along the direction South West-North East, splitting Hanoi into two symmetrical parts spreading like butterfly's wings. The Eastern part is old Hanoi, where there is
the Hoan Kiem traditional centre and Ba Dinh political centre, and the western part constitutes the new urban area of Hanoi. The idea of a central axis as the transition from old to new is quite reasonable.

It is regrettable that Hanoi concentrated its effort on developing the western part, however. After ten years, the new Hanoi was constructed in a patchy and inappropriate manner as a result of the very poor economic conditions. As a result, it was recognised that the 1984 Plan required considerable readjustment, and therefore the 1992 General Plan was proposed.

**Orientation of development**

There are two relevant concepts here, as follows:

- Selection of north-west direction for urban expansion: this had a scientific foundation in terms of hydro-geology, capacity of development and spatial structuring.
- Selection of provisional land for future urban development on the north side of the Red River.

The most important point of the spatial structuring was that the natural landscape of the West Lake was to be used in the best way for the purposes of culture, relaxation, tourism and landscape amenity for the central area. The landscape along both sides of the Nhue River would also be used in association with the central axis, as would the landscape of the lakes, land on both sides of the To Lich and other small rivers and the monuments and cultural areas shared by the many religions in Hanoi.

**Land use standards:**
The proportion of land for roads, green spaces, water surface, road sections, and standards of urban land use would be increased so that the amount of public space per capita would approximate that found in modern cities in developed countries.

**Pattern of housing blocks**

The housing block can be used as an organisational unit in urban areas to ensure a good living environment. The block can include a combination of residential activities, handicraft production and other small-scale commercial activities.

**Hierarchy of Services:**

Recognising the influence of the market economy, the hierarchy of services should be flexible rather than rigidly decreed. The stereotype formerly used to establish the hierarchy of centres on the basis of a standard radius seems to be inappropriate because people will want to come to a place which is convenient and where good quality services exist, even if this place is slightly more distant.

The system of kindergarten, nursery and school involves different economic components, so that formula-driven organisation is no longer suitable. More investigation is needed to determine the best lay out in terms of position, quantity, size and the influences of the market economy.

**Land utilisation**

The *Land Law, Investment Law* and other Statutes were introduced, thus opening an abundant and diversified market for real estate. Investment by the State in housing remains small. Essentially, houses are built by the people and the diversity of housing is remarkable: there is housing for all classes of people and even for
expatriates. There has been a relative decline in public works with the cessation of State-subsidisation. Public works must now serve both for public services and private businesses. Industrial projects are no longer dictated by the State but by investors, and plans should be of a guiding and controlling nature.

*Investment in Development:*

Investment in development now comes not only from the State. The State merely takes part in important projects with regard to strategy, establishing priorities, defence, security and other factors of specific significance.

Other economic entities will be involved in investing in urban development, including joint-ventures with foreigners, under reduced State control.

The policy of providing land in exchange for funds to develop urban infrastructure has brought income to the State, thus making cities expand with a speed never seen before.

*Procedures of planning:*

To avoid the rigid procedures previously used, the Decision N° 322 BXD/DT dated 28 December 1993 and issued by the President of the Ministers' Council, has 'renovated' or revised the process of planning to make them more flexible and responsive to needs:

* General Plan (orientation and land utilisation)
* Detailed plans (plans at scale 1/2000 and plans split into lots) for construction and management.
As a result, the planning process sets forth programs and projects for construction investment. This is an important result of the current improvement of planning, with available investors, clear objectives for investment, specified investment volume and even planning solutions and financial efficiencies. This has brought planning to life, with the result that the official Construction Plans are no longer just a nice picture to be displayed on the wall.

*Control and management*

There have been a lot of statutory documents prepared to guide urban management. Associated with the official Construction Plan is the statute for controlling construction. This is a legal instrument ensuring the construction project complies with the Plan.

It is recognised that the Soviet (socialist) planning model has many points suitable for continued application, but many points have to be amended to be practicable and suitable to the comprehensively renovated socio-economic system.

The 1993 Land Law recognised the rights to utilisation, succession, mortgage and transfer. Laws on local and foreign investment, law on environment, law on natural and mineral resources and others have produced a lot of changes in contents and methods, including principles of urban planning.

### 6.7 The Hanoi Adjustment Master Plan 1998

Recognising the demand for long term planning for development of the Capital City during the period of strengthening industrialisation and modernisation, on April 24th 1996 the Hanoi People's Committee and the Ministry of Construction submitted the *Submission Paper No 26/UBTP-BXD* requesting approval to re-adjust the content of the Hanoi General Plan to the year 2020. This request to adjust the content of the
Hanoi General Plan was adopted by the Prime Minister and the Standing Committee of the Political Bureau at Notice No. 78/TB dated October 4th, 1996 and Notice No. 10/TB-TW dated October 20th, 1996.

As a result the Hanoi People's Committee and Ministry of Construction proposed to coordinate with various ministries, branches and related localities, together with domestic and appropriate international planning experts selected from America, South Korea, Holland, Japan, and Australia to undertake the adjustment of the Hanoi General Plan (Submission Paper No 01/UBTP-BXD dated at 06 January 1998, p. 1).

In response to this proposal, and with the agreement of the Prime Minister, Daewoo Corporation assembled a team of international experts from Bechtel and SOM (America), Nikken Sekkei (Japan) and Dutch Consulting Companies to propose adjustments to the General Plan to the year 2020, and to study and prepare detailed planning for the new urban areas to the north of the Red River (Dong Anh) and west of West Lake, with a total area of about 8830ha.

The resulting plan, now known as the "Hanoi Master Plan Adjustment to the year 2020" is intended to guide the building of a modern capital city appropriate for a nation with a hundred million people. The Plan also recognises the development of satellite cities in the adjoining provinces. Together with Hanoi they are planned to accommodate a population of 4.5 - 5.0 million. Hanoi is the core area, with a population size of 2.5 million, while the south side of the Red River will be developed up to 1.5 million people and the "Hanoi New Town" on the north side of the Red River will accommodate one million.
View points and targets

Hanoi Master Plan Adjustment to the year 2020 has determined the special role and position of the Capital in the planning directions of Vietnamese urban development in accordance with the objectives and targets of socio-economic development and the industrialisation and modernisation policy. The Master Plan provides for coordination between construction and national security, improvement and new development in order to make Hanoi a modern city, but while retaining traditional features of a thousand-year old country. Hanoi will be the political, cultural, scientific, technical and economic centre of the country as well as a centre of international transaction activities, with a status appropriate to the Capital of a nation of one hundred million population, and a deserved position in South East Asia and the world.

Planning area and spatial development directions

The spatial planning structure includes Hanoi Capital as the centre, and neighboring satellite urban areas of Ha Tay, Vinh Phuc, Bac Ninh and Hung Yen provinces within a radius of 30 to 50 kilometres.

The long-term directions of Hanoi urban expansion will be mainly to the West and North, establishing the urban chain Mieu Mon - Xuan Mai - Hoa Lac - Son Tay (Ha Tay) to the west, and to the North the urban cluster Soc Son (Hanoi) - Xuan Hoa - Dai Lai - Phuc Yen (Vinh Phuc), and other urban areas in order to take advantage of the geographical-natural conditions, transportation and infrastructure. In the short and medium term, the direction of development of Hanoi City is to the Northwest, Southwest and North, in which the priority is given to develop the area north of the Red River. Here the proposed "Hanoi New Town" will be established, including areas of North Thang Long - Van Tri, Dong Anh - Co Loa, Gia Lam - Sai Dong - Yen Vien, together with continuing investment projects in the South Thang Long area.
Land use planning and urban landscape

Land use standards

The average standard of land use is 100 square metres per person, of which land for transport is 25 square metres per person, land for green area, parks, sports is 18 square metres per person and the land for public utilities is 5 square metres per person.

Zoning

- Residential development within the existing urban area inside the ring road No. 2 (Vinh Tuy - Nga Tu Vong - Nga Tu So - Cau Giay - Nhat Tan) will be strictly controlled. The population will be limited at about 800,000 persons. Residential development will be promoted mainly in suburban regions outside of the ring road No. 2 with the population of 700,000 persons in the South of the Red River and 1,000,000 persons in the North of the Red River.

- The existing industrial zones will be improved and rearranged in accordance with the Master Plan, and new industrial zones such as Soc Son, North Thang Long, South Thang Long, Sai Dong A, Sai Dong B, Dong Anh developed at the same time. The existing industrial zones at Cau Dien, Cau Buou, Phap Van, Duc Giang will also be improved. In addition, small, high-tech and clean factories can be located within residential areas.

- The land area for industrial zone development is about 3000 hectares.

- A national administrative-political centre in the Ba Dinh District, the administrative-political centre of the City at Hoan Kiem Lake area, and other new cultural, commercial, financial, and service centres in West Ho Tay, South Thang Long (Xuan La, Xuan Dinh, Nghia Do), Phuong Trach (Nam Van Tri), Gia Lam, and the Cultural - Sport - Service Centre in Coloa.
• To complement the above-mentioned centres, there are district centres and centres of the neighbourhoods and residential areas.

Specialized centres:

• The State offices at different levels are located at the administrative centre of the city, district, and ward. Offices of foreign companies, organisations and representative are located in main streets.

• Training schools are concentrated at large areas near Giai Phong Road, Nguyen Trai Road, Road 32, Trau Quy, Me Tri and other places.

• Science research institutions are mainly located at the districts of the old city and Nghia Do area, including the existing agencies. In these locations, science research institutions and service centres will be improved and developed into scientific urban areas.

• Medical centres, including general and specialised hospitals, will be located at Bach Mai, Tran Khanh Du, Trang Thi, Quan Su, Xuan La, Nhat Tan, and Van Tri areas and at other places.

• Specialised hospitals will be constructed at Gia Lam, Soc Son areas and other suitable places.

• The National and City Sport Complex is located at My Dinh. Other sport centres are located in the city such as Hang Day, Quan Ngua, Nhon, Van Tri, Co Loa, Trieu Khuc.

• The improvement of the existing parks and gardens combined with the development of the green parks at Yen So Lake, Linh Dam, Trieu Khuc, Me Tri, Song Nhuc, Phu Thuong, Van Tri, Co Loa, Gia Lam, Sai Dong area, etc. to form separator green belts that preserve the landscape of To Lich river, Lu river, Set river, Kim Nguu river, Red river, Nhue river, Ca Lo river, Duong river and the infrastructure corridor.
• A green belt from 1 to 4 km wide at the outskirts of the city will be developed as a frame to protect the natural environment and keep the City’s ecological balance;

• The existing and new security and military bases should be planned and arranged suitably to assure the land use and management as determined by the plans and regulation.

Architecture and urban landscape

In the existing urban area, the cultural and historical heritage, landmarks, and valuable architectural works should be preserved and improved; some national monuments will be set up; the infrastructure will be improved, the living and working conditions will be upgraded, and more entertainment places will be created. Plans should preserve the Old streets, upgrade the public utilities, limit the height of new construction in the old streets and locate high-rise buildings on suitable sites.

Construction in the new development areas (including new construction in existing villages to be preserved and upgraded) will need to be integrated with traditional colours and infrastructure, making Hanoi’s environment clean, green and beautiful. The raising of average building heights and exploitation of under and above ground space should be controlled.

Transportation and infrastructure planning

A - Transportation

General principles:

• Transportation infrastructure should be developed with high priority given to integrating with other technical infrastructure to establish the city’s complete planning structure in order to effectively provide for the Capital’s social and economic activities.
Transportation infrastructure will require 25 per cent of urban land.

Public passenger transportation is a core feature of the capital’s transportation development, assuring the public-private passenger transportation ratio will be 30 per cent by the year 2010 and 50 per cent by the year 2020.

*Roads*

- Improve and develop the highways to the city: Highway No. 1, No. 2, No. 3, No. 5, No. 6, No. 18 and No. 32; and complete the highway Lang - Hoa Lac.
- Complete the ring road No. 1, No. 2, and No. 3; and carry out a study of ring road No. 4.
- Improve and upgrade the existing transport network of the city, especially the traffic corridors and junctions such as Tay Son road, Nga Tu So junction, Le Duan road, Nga Tu Vong junction, Kim Lien junction, Trung Hien junction, Hoang Hoa Tham road, Thuy Khue and Nga Tu Buoi junction, Lang Trung road - Nguyen Chi Thanh road - Lieu Giai - Hoang Hoa Tham, and the street lines of the ancient and old quarters.
- To supplement new streets where the current street density is inadequate. Complete and improve the transport network and integrate it with the other technical infrastructure in the new development areas. Pay particular attention to arranging parking areas, with the starting, stopping and ending points of the bus lines established to assure the average distance of 500-600m from functional zones to the parking and public transport stops. Develop inter-city bus terminals like Gia Lam, Giap Bat, Mai Dich, and Dong Anh.
- To carry out the upgrading of Long Bien bridge and start new construction of Thanh Tri bridge as well as the other bridges over the Red river to satisfy development demands of the capital at both sides of the Red river.

*Railways*

- To maintain the West intersection of the national railway system and set up the Van Dien - Co Bi length (over the proposed Thanh Tri Bridge) and across the
Duong River at the Bot Vang pumping station and proceeding to Bac Hong station, carefully avoiding the Co Loa relic.

- Complete the railway station system including Phu Dien, Ha Dong, Viet Hung, Giap Bat, Gia Lam, Yen Vien, Bac Hong, Van Tri, Co Loa stations; in which Co Bi, Yen Vien, Viet Hung, Bac Hong stations are the cargo stations and Giap Bat, Gia Lam, Phu Dien are the passenger stations.

- To give priority for developing the urban railway system to make it the main system for urban public passenger transportation, including both above-ground and underground lines. The first phase is to up-grade the existing Hang Co - Van Dien - Gia Lam - Yen Vien line.

- The next phase provides for the integrated service consisting of four lines, being:
  - the Ha Dong - Nga Tu So - Hang Co line.
  - Hang Co - Cat Linh - Kim ma - Thu Le - Nghia Do - Phu Dien - Minh Khai line;
  - Giap Bat - the ring road No. 3 line;
  - Thang Long bridge - Noi Bai and Kim Ma - Lang Trung - Hoa Lac.

The focus will be on organising and developing modern passenger transfer interchanges at planned high capacity locations such as Hang Co, and Noi Bai stations.

**Airlines**

- To enlarge and complete the Noi Bai Airport as approved by the Prime Minister Decision NO 152/TTg dated 04 Apr 1994. The airports like Gia Lam, Bach Mai, Hoa Lac are designated for domestic proposes. A new international airport will be developed at Mieu Mon (Ha Tay) in the future.

**River routes**

- To actively dredge and formalise the banks of the Red River, upgrade Pha Den and Khuyen Luong ports and open the new ports at Van Kiep and Thuong Cat.
B - Land preparation:

- To develop the storm-water system including pumping stations and drainage conduit network assuring the provision of 0.6-0.8 kilometre of pipeline per square kilometre;
- To improve and establish the regulator lake system in combination with creating landscaped areas around the lakes with the surface equivalent to five to seven per cent of the regional area;
- Consolidate the dyke system of the Red River and Day River for preventing flooding of the Central City area;
- Develop the paths surrounding the river and the lakes in coordination with the dyke system.

Water supply

- The water supply standard to the year 2010 is 150-180 litre per person/day for 90 -95 per cent of the urban population and to the year 2020 is 180-200 litre per person/day for 95-100 per cent the urban population.
- It is intended to carefully exploit underground water sources and endeavour to exploit the surface water from the Red River, Da River, Cau River, Cong River.

Power supply

- Set up the other three stations of 220KV at Da Phuc, Northwest Dam Van Tri and Thanh Cong, increasing the capacity of the head station to 2.500MVA, and set up another 16 new stations of lower category.
- Improve and set up the lines of 220 kV, 110 kV and 22KV with quality and safety.

Drainage, sanitation and environment

- Improve and upgrade the existing drainage in the urban area and develop a new drainage system in the new areas separate from the storm water system.
• To assure 100 percent of the city’s solid wastes will be collected, transported, and treated by suitable technology by the year 2020.
• Improve existing cemeteries and set up new ones in combination with small cemeteries located in the outer localities.

The first phase of plan implementation

The major urban management and development program to the year 2005 is as follows:

• Projects to commemorate the 1000-year Thang Long Capital.
• Programs for developing economic and technical training centres to stimulate urban development and create jobs.
• Program for improvement, upgrading and development of the urban traffic system and infrastructure.
• Program for environment protection, formation of the protective framework for urban nature conservation and ecology balance.
• Program for the new towns, housing development and resettlement, with population growth control in the existing urban districts.
• Program for strengthening the capacity and effectiveness of urban management.

The Hanoi Master Planning Adjustment to the year 2020 received very strong support and was valued highly by the Communist Party and the government leaders. Under instruction from the Politburo and Prime Minister, the Hanoi People’s Committee and Ministry of Construction cooperated with relevant ministries, authorities and international consultants to prepare detailed plans for Hanoi New Town.

The primary difference between the 1992 General Plan and the Hanoi Master Plan Adjustment for the year 2020 is that the Master Plan is designed to accord with the requirements of a market economy, which means that the plan will now be realised and implemented by all sectors of the economy.
6.8 The General Plan and its shortcomings: lessons to be learnt

After many adjustments to the General Plan of Hanoi city, some limitations and shortcomings can be summarised:

1. The study area has been confined within too small an area of the inner-city and suburbs. A larger vision, which has regard to the full impact of various factors on the study of urban development and socioeconomic development of the city would have been more appropriate.

2. Limited forecasting of socioeconomic development, and investment.

3. Lack of experiences of urbanisation in a market economy.

4. Restricted experience and understanding by planners from a very poor country, which cannot enable them to imagine exactly what constitutes a modern city.

The General Plan is the main map controlling construction activity in urban areas. The General Plan is prepared on the urban base map with the scale of 1/10,000 for the first and second class cities and 1/5,000 for third-class cities (in accordance with the requirements of planning design of the Ministry of Construction and of city classification of the Prime Minister). The General Plan expresses the main urban traffic network, functional areas, the central urban system and technical infrastructure components such as water supply, drainage, electricity supply, telecommunications and hygiene, and urban technical and economic standards. The General Plan is the main map to identify "marks and red lines" (reservations, land-use boundaries and building setbacks) for the entire city, and is therefore the "soul" of future urban development.

According to the regulations, the General Plan of first- and second-class cities is approved by the Prime Minister after being examined by the Ministry of Construction. General Plans of other cities are approved by chairmen of People's Committees of Provinces or Cities placed directly under the authority of central government, after being examined by the Ministry of Construction. The approved urban General Plan is the legal basis for applying urban building controls that
implement the Plan. In practice, however, particularly in the "subsidised" period, planning only partially met the building demands as there were only limited funds made available in the state budget for planning purposes.

Today, under the conditions of the state-managed market economy, General Plan creation, particularly the preparation of the existing conditions map – which identifies the existing buildings – is very difficult, as people are building and changing their environments every day. In addition, the rate of new building construction - mainly by private persons - is increasing rapidly and difficult to control. In this case it is recognised that the General Plan provides the framework or orientation only. It does not provide enough information to meet people's building demands even where there are detailed construction plans; all people's demands cannot be met. It does not matter how thorough the General Plan is, it has shortcomings. Therefore, it is primarily used as the framework or orientation for the treatment of the major planning issues and problems in cities.

In regard to the organisation of planning, the Cadastral Department, the Land and Housing Department and Construction Department have the function of controlling the General Plan in most cities. In Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City, the Architect-in-Chief Office was created as a pilot system, although there still remains a lot of cumbersome overlapping of responsibility with functions and tasks of other institutions such as Cadastral Department, the Land and Housing Department, Construction Department and Department for Transportation and Public Affairs. There needs to be considerable change to the existing system of building management and development control to bring about the proper realisation of the General Plan.

Although there are state regulations for undertaking general urban plans (General Construction Plan and Detailed Construction Plan), they are applied differently by consultant agencies so that each General Plan is different in its details. There are examples where foreign consultants have prepared plans oriented to develop new cities, such as the urban planning for South Saigon, that have a clear idea and purpose but which do not conform to the regulations for the preparation of a General
Plan. Therefore, when preparing a detailed construction plan to implement new urban development projects, it becomes necessary to again design the project from the beginning in conformity with the regulations.

On the other hand, there are many examples where detailed construction plans for urban development prepared in strict accordance with the existing regulations are not implemented because they do not have sufficient regard to the financial feasibility of the project.

From the practice of planning and implementing the plan for Hanoi City, some lessons can be drawn as follows:

1. It must always rely upon the basic situation of society and economy, especially economic factors, to establish the motivation for development.

2. In planning, the forecasts should be accurate to be able to attract investment.

Carefully prepared and clearly presented General Plans are very important, and the most important aspect is to set forth the detailed investment programs and projects for attracting domestic and overseas investors.

4. The vision for Hanoi as the national Capital must be always managed in the best possible way, to the best of national capabilities and in line with advanced countries.

5. It is not appropriate to ignore the need for preservation of the historical and cultural tradition of old Hanoi, but it is also necessary to build a modern Hanoi.

Hanoi cannot be isolated from neighbouring areas, the surrounding provinces or the entire country during the study; otherwise serious errors could be made.
Hanoi must be put into a sustainable developing environment, well organised for people's living and recreation on a very long-term basis.

6.9 Foreign Investment Influences

Since the promulgation of Vietnam's Law on Foreign Investment, there have been more and more countries investing in industries, hotels, offices and apartments for rent in cities, especially in Ho Chi Minh City and Hanoi. Many high rise hotels have been built in the cities of Vietnam. In order to invest in Vietnamese cities, investors have to study the city's planning, work with Vietnamese partners to compile documentation and follow procedures to apply for investment licenses. The file should be sent to the Ministry of Planning and Investment for the approval of the investment license. According to the law, the procedures are not complicated but there seem to be problems in passing through local and central authorities.

There are two forms of foreign investment in industrial zones in cities. First is investment in building the infrastructure of the industrial zone. The investor will have a land lease period of 50 years. After finishing building the technical infrastructure, he can attract other investors to re-rent the land to build factories for industrial production, or the investor can build the factory and have it leased for industrial production. Investment in building and technical infrastructure in the industrial zone can be 100 per cent foreign capital, or in the form of joint ventures to develop a concentrated industrial zone or processing zone. The state controls the industrial zone according to the "one-door" system through the Management Board for Provincial Industrial Zone. The financial system determines different trading taxes, etc. Many industrial zones have been established in Hanoi, Ho Chi Minh City, Dong Nai province, and Binh Duong province and in other cities, resulting in changes to their economic structures. Joint venture projects investing in hotels and commercial centres have been established in various cities. High rise hotels in Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City have changed the appearance of these cities. Normally, the contributed capital of the Vietnamese side is about 30 per cent by land lease income; the remaining 70 per cent is contributed by the foreign investor for construction. The joint venture period is about 30-40 years. In general, the total number of beds in
hotels in Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City has reached saturation and consequently the building of hotels is no longer encouraged.

A new investment field is in the integrated development of new urban areas in Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City. The Ministry of Planning and Investment has granted investment licenses for two projects for building new urban areas, namely "Ciputra" and "Red River City". This new foreign investment opportunity is having a marked influence on the planning of cities.

6.10 Land issues

Land Ownership:

In Vietnam, land ownership means the right of land use. The state transfers and leases land to investors for construction projects. For local investors, the state transfers land to implement the project. For the area used for public service construction, the land is transferred by the state and the use of land is free of charge. For the area used for housing industry, the state will collect the money for land use. After building the technical infrastructure, investors can transfer the right of land use to each household to build houses for themselves or transfer land with technical infrastructure to secondary enterprises to build houses for sale or for rent.

For the area used for building hotels, the state leases land. For the area used for construction and infrastructure in industrial zones, the state leases land for 50 years. After building technical infrastructure, investors may lease the land to other investors to build factories. For foreign investment construction in Vietnam the state leases land for 30-50 years depending on the project.

In fact the holder of a right of land use in Vietnam can transfer a mortgage equivalent to the capital invested in land development. Until now, there has been a land and housing market in the cities but land possession is identified only when the authority issues the land use certificate and house possession certificate to individuals. According to the land law, land is possessed by the state; each individual has the
right of land use. The concept of land ownership is understood as the right of land use. For farmers land is used for agricultural purposes.

In order to encourage the development of the market economy and regularise and tax the growing trade in land use rights, a major revision to the 1988 Land Law was enacted in July 1993. The 1993 Land Law created a role for the State in land management similar to that in market economies, with continued ownership by the State seen as essentially a legal basis for regulating and taxing land use. The 1993 Land Law addressed some of the problems mentioned above. Important provisions include:

- Procedures for the allocation of land by the State;
- Right to transfer, sell or lease land use rights;
- The right to mortgage land use rights;
- The right to inherit land use rights;
- The right to receive compensation in the case of expropriation; and
- Provision for the leasing of land to non-Vietnamese organisations and individuals.

However, when transferring/changing the purpose of land use, the user must pay fees for land use and land transfer tax to the state. For urban land, there are still certain entanglements in the right of land use as there are many controlling authorities concerned with building investment in urban land.

### Table 6.1 Detailed Regulations Issued to Guide Implementation of 1993 Land Law

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic of detailed regulation</th>
<th>Law/Decree/Ordinance/Circular/instruction</th>
<th>Contents</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. Taxation on Transfer of Land Use Rights | Law on the Tax on the Transfer of Land Use Rights, 7-94; and Gov’t. Decree No.114/CP, 9-94 | Law and Decree establish rates for the transfer of land use rights:  
- Where land use levy has not been paid (no | Very high rates will tend to discourage the reporting of transfers; confusion in |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Where non-agricultural land is transferred to agricultural use: 0%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Other agricultural land for construction of industrial projects: 20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Rice growing to land for construction of industrial projects: 30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Rice growing to non-agriculture purpose: 40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Other agricultural land for non-agriculture purpose: 50%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Where land use levy (no changes in use) has already been paid: 5% (no distinction between agricultural and non-agricultural land)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Rice growing to land for construction of industrial projects: 20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Other agricultural land for construction of industrial projects: 30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Rice growing to non-agriculture purpose: 40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Other agricultural land for non-agriculture purpose: 50%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Law/Decree change in use:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Agricultural, forestry category (i.e., 10% a specific transfer would apply)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Resident construction and other land: 20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Implementing Land Use Right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Land Valuation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Management and Use of Urban Land</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Land Use Levy and Land Administrative Fees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Compensation for Taking Land and Buildings for Public Purpose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Ordinance No.37-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic Organisations Granted Land Use Rights by the State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Conversions of Rice Growing Land to Other Uses</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Land Management and Markets**

The enactment of the 1993 Land Law was a significant first step in the creation of a legal framework for a land management system and functioning market in Vietnam. This legal framework relies on a leasehold system in which land remains under state ownership. The 1993 law establishes a number of market mechanisms that were missing from previous laws:

- leasing of land by the State to private organisations and individuals;
- Right to transfer, sell, mortgage or lease land use rights; and
- Right to lease land to foreign organisations and individuals.

The subsequent issuance of a number of regulations in the form of decrees, ordinances, instructions and circulars during the second half of 1994 and early 1995
was to facilitate the successful operationalisation and implementation of the 1993 Land law.

The current situation regarding land and real estate in Vietnam is chaotic, with estimates that as much as 80 percent of all transactions and small-scale building is taking place outside of the formal Government structure. There is much anecdotal information to suggest that most land transfers are occurring without Government sanction, recording or payment of the transfer tax (Urban Sector Strategy, ADB and UNDP project report, 1995). Land use right certificates cannot be issued because sufficient cadastral mapping and survey do not exist to identify the boundaries of most land parcels. Rice paddy land on fringe of urban areas continues to be converted to non-agricultural uses without formal approval of the Prime Minister.

Certain of these issues can be traced to immediate problems associated with the regulations that have been issued to implement the 1993 Land Law. An article, “Serious Infringements of Land Law”, in August 17, 1995 edition of Vietnam News lists several problems with the recently adopted regulations. However, there are more fundamental problems with Vietnam’s system of land management that will delay the creation of fully functioning land and real estate markets for the foreseeable future.

The main elements of these problems related to land management can be summarised as follows:

- Lack of operational system and procedures to implement the 1993 Land Law and the series of decrees, ordinances, instructions and circulars;
- Inappropriate and overlapping allocation of institutional responsibilities for land management; and
- Lack of capacity (hard and soft) in institutions responsible for land management.

6.11 Housing issues

Housing is an issue of prime importance. The housing situation has a great influence on health, capacity for labor, personality, and family wellbeing. The quality of
housing reflects the economic strength and the level of a nation's civilization. Therefore, housing policy is always one of the major policy issues in all countries of the world, including Vietnam.

*The Housing supply system in Vietnam*

1. 1958-1986 Period

In this period, the State implemented the subsidy regime of housing supply for public sector workers. In essence the State took responsibility for housing construction through the State budget (Central and Local) in order to provide housing at a very cheap rent. This regime was based on the idea that housing is vital for social well being and that the State has responsibility for its staff. Housing is not an economic category, and should not belong to the consumption fund of the staff. Expenditure on housing construction was supplied by the State. So housing was considered as an income outside of salary, which was implemented by material distribution of housing.

The essence of the subsidy system of housing for staff was the subsidy of housing rent through very low rents. It was estimated at about one per cent of salary (while in the market economy, the expenditure for housing rent accounts for about 20-30 per cent of income).

**Table 6.2: Scheme of salary-based housing expenditure**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Other expense</th>
<th>Housing expense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>99%</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Other expense</th>
<th>Housing Expense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>70-80%</td>
<td>20-30%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a) In the centralized planning economy

b) In the market economy
The housing subsidy regime for staff was implemented through the system of housing space standards (m$^2$) of the staff based on their salary level and rank. In concrete terms this worked out as follows.

**From 1958**

- Minister and equivalent level: 3-4 rooms with the maximum area 100 m$^2$.
- Deputy Minister and equivalent level: 2-3 rooms with the maximum area 75 m$^2$.
- Director of Department or Central Institute: Max 30 m$^2$.
- Lower level
- staff: The average area 3.5 m$^2$ per person (in their family)

**In the early 1970s**

The standard was applied by distribution of apartment (the average area 24 m$^2$ per apartment):

- Minister and equivalent level: 3 apartments
- Deputy Minister and equivalent level: 2 apartments
- Director of Department or Central Institute: 1 apartment

**From 1977**

The housing distribution regime was applied by the decision 150-CP of the Government Council. By this decision, distributed area depended on the salary level of cadres and the number of people in their family.
Table 6.3: Case 1: Apartment housing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of people in the family</th>
<th>Allocated apartment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number of rooms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2-3-4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2-3-4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-3-4</td>
<td>5-6-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-6-7</td>
<td>8-9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8-9</td>
<td>10 and above</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 and above</td>
<td>4-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 and above</td>
<td>5-6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-6</td>
<td>75-85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.4: Case 2: Non-apartment housing, the distribution standard based on family size.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classified member</th>
<th>Standard of residential area (m² per person)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>For one member of the State staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 A</td>
<td>55-60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 B</td>
<td>35-40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 C</td>
<td>18-21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 D</td>
<td>10-12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 E</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A, B, C, D, E classified by the salary level of the State staff:

A: For Minister and above
B: For deputy Minister and above.
C: For leader of Department (Director and Deputy Director)
and above
D: For leader of division and above
E: For lower cadres

The housing subsidy system for State staff had the following characteristics:

Construction investment

With a policy of low salary and housing as a social right, the State was responsible for every aspect of housing construction (supplying capital, design, construction, and distribution).

Estimating housing rent:

The State provided housing virtually rent-free. Housing did not take more than 1 percent of the salary.

Analysing housing requirement:

Housing requirements were not decided by users (the State staff), but were planned by the Government.

Principle of housing distribution:

Housing was distributed according to a system of regulation based on a scale (the salary level, rank, and and.) with some priority policies. State staff would be theoretically entitled to housing, but in reality what they actually received depended on the State’s housing resources and the distribution capability of particular institutions.

Housing conception

Housing was not considered something that people needed to pay for from their income. It was considered a social right, and State property to be distributed by policies and regulations of Government.
After 30 years of experimenting with the housing subsidy system for State staff with the above characteristics there are now a number of consequences.

For Government

In order to provide enough housing for State staff, the government set up impracticable housing development plans without taking into account the capability to pay for it. Ultimately, only 30 per cent of State staff enjoyed the housing subsidy regime. The remaining 70 per cent came to realise that their hopes were likely to remain unsatisfied.

For Staff

As Staff believed that they would eventually benefit from State provision of housing, motivation for housing development was lost.

For housing fund

The low rent regime has led to inadequate funds for maintenance, with grave ramifications for many housing projects. In addition, housing occupiers who do not own their houses are reluctant to invest in maintenance and repair.

For social morality

Due to the inability to provide housing for all staff, the distribution of housing has been subject to corruption, including bribery.

Thus the housing subsidy regime of this period only applied to State staff and a small number of people targeted by special policies (such as families of war invalids, revolutionary martyrs, and those who provided distinguished services for revolution). Other sectors of the urban population didn’t enjoy this regime. They had to arrange their shelter through buying or building their own houses, leasing State or private houses before 1960 or depending on other people.

2. Period 1986-1992
In this period, Government still maintained the housing subsidy regime for State staff, but, realising its inability to meet demand, it decided to introduce a new mechanism, under the precept "the State and people's combination in housing construction". The reality of this precept was a change from State provision of housing to the State creating the conditions for housing development. The new tendency saw a decrease in the State's investment in housing construction and distribution for State staff and the introduction of new methods to encourage housing development, such as land supply, preparation of construction plans, advance construction of technical infrastructure, followed by division of land plots for staff to build their own houses, or lending money for staff to improve their own housing.

In 1989, the Government began to gradually phase out the subsidy mechanism for housing rent through a program of housing privatisation. This involved increasing housing rent ten-fold, and at the same time selling State-owned houses to occupiers. This would achieve a double purpose: the State benefits from the sale of housing and no longer has to subsidise rents.

3. Period from 1992 until now

The initial results of this program have showed considerable enthusiasm from staff, a considerable proportion of whom have demonstrated a financial capacity for private housing. Moreover the State's budget outlays on housing have fallen as a result of not having to provide tens of million square meters of housing to those on the State housing waiting list. So in November-1992 the Government decided emphatically to abolish housing distribution for State staff and increased the average housing rent 54-fold in comparison with the old rent (from VND 25 to 1,350 per metre).
Table 6.5: Changes in rent levels: pre-November 1992 and post-November 1992

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The classification</th>
<th>The rent before Nov.-1992 (VN dong per m2)</th>
<th>The rent since Nov.-1992 (VN dong per m2)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Class I</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>1,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Class II</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>1,400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Class III</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1,350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Class IV</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1,350</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With this new rent, the housing expenditure of State staff accounts for about 8 per cent of their salary. However, the system still does not conform to business principles, because it doesn't account for the elements of taxation (housing tax, land use tax, business tax, income tax), expense for land use and other. These elements are still subsidised by the State. In order to abolish this subsidy, Government continues to push forward the program of housing privatisation that has been carried out since 1989.

The new economic direction and housing distribution policies now face a new problem, the existence of a number of low income State workers who were not distributed housing during the subsidy period, as well as other urban low-income people who face a serious problem in improving their housing because of the massive increase in housing costs and low level of savings.

Prior to 1992, although the housing of non-State workers was not subsidised, it was still relatively easy to meet housing needs because of the cheap supply of land. Now, thanks to the changes of land law in 1993, land prices have increased rapidly while the urban population has grown quickly too leading to speculation and commercialisation of the urban land market. As a result land for housing has become more and more scarce. Urban social differences have become more distinct, and housing for urban low-income people has become more problematic.

The national strategy for shelter to the year 2010, which will be issued soon, will be tailored to meet the situation described above. The State will act strategically to mobilise all potential for housing development. In particular, the State will attach much importance to the creation of favourable conditions by policies relating to land
release mechanisms, finance, income and urban planning in order to allow low-income people to establish their own shelter with State and community support.

**Existing Housing condition in Hanoi:**

At present, there is about 12 million square metres of housing in Hanoi, representing 11% of the country's housing stock. Housing ownership in Vietnam in general and in Hanoi in particular is very complicated and diverse. In Hanoi, ownership can be divided into the following categories:

- State-owned houses
- Collective houses (owned by enterprises or cooperatives)
- Private houses

The housing situation in Hanoi is diverse because of the variety of ownership types, inconsistent building standards and levels of maintenance and rehabilitation, and destruction caused by war. Approximately 29.5 million square metres of housing can be classified as in poor condition. Included in this are about 300,000 square metres (2.5% of the total housing stock) in dangerous condition; 600,000 square metres (7.4%) in such poor condition that it should be demolished; and 7.4 million square metres (62%) which needs rehabilitation.

Some of the infrastructure of the residential areas is very old and outdated and in some cases has not been completed, leading to environmental stress: this is the case, for example, in the 36 ancient streets in Hoan Kiem district. The complexity of housing management in Hanoi, caused by the diversity of responsible authorities and ownership, leads to numerous difficulties for local administration and for people who wish to repair, rehabilitate, buy and sell houses.

**Housing supply in Hanoi in the period 1954-1986**

In this period, housing supply and distribution took place according to the following principles:
• Housing was regarded as a form of state welfare provision, invested in by the state and supplied to state officials, police, soldiers etc. House rental prices were very low, accounting for only 1% of the salary.
• Those people not employed in the state sector needed to provided their own housing.

The period from 1986 to 1991

According to the Doi Moi mechanism, Vietnam has implemented market-based reforms, with Government regulation. During this period housing policy sought to mobilise state and private means to provide housing. Subsidies to state housing were still provided in several forms, including the supply of land and providing money for house building. Despite government efforts to increase funding for housing construction, there was still a reduction in the amount of housing per capita because of the strong growth in urban population. In this period, the commercialisation of housing was still not accepted, leading to considerable difficulties in the sale and assignment of housing.

The period from 1991 to the present

In this period, housing has been viewed as a commodity, with all economic sectors encouraged to invest in it. At the same time, housing subsidies have been ended. In the earliest period, subsidy policy was aimed at providing housing as a form of technical infrastructure investment. With the ending of the subsidy policy, a housing market has formed and now extends across the nation. It is now government policy to sell state-owned houses for redevelopment or rehabilitation. Housing provision is now strongly developed and diversified, although state funds for investment in housing are diminishing. Nevertheless, this is being compensated for by strong private sector investment in housing. Hanoi and other large cities, such as Ho Chi Minh City, Danang and Hai Phong, still retain state-owned construction and trading companies.

Hanoi housing development strategy until 2010
The national housing development strategy to 2010 is to improve housing conditions so that one family will have one house or an independent apartment, with an average floor space of 6.5 square metres per person in 2000 and 8 square metres per person in 2010.

In Hanoi, the goal for 2000 is 5.5 square metres per person and for 2010 8 square metres per person. Each apartment will have at least two rooms, and the average area of each will be 40 to 60 square metres.

To meet these targets, the main housing construction needs will be:

- approximately 2.13 million square metres of housing space up to 2000, and 13.87 million square metres by the year 2010.
- 1,835 billion VND to the year 2000 and about 20,584 billion VND to the year 2010.

### Housing funds in urban areas

Table 6.6: Housing funds in the whole country and in Hanoi
(Data of Land and Housing Management Department MOC, Report on Housing development strategy to the year 2010)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Housing fund</th>
<th>In the whole country (1000m2)</th>
<th>In Hanoi</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1000 m2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>107,000</td>
<td>12,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Height basis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low building</td>
<td>86,000</td>
<td>10,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High building</td>
<td>21,000</td>
<td>2,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Based on ownership</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State owned house</td>
<td>29,000</td>
<td>5,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other types of ownership</td>
<td>78,000</td>
<td>7,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Based on Quality</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>49,000</td>
<td>7,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need to be repaired</td>
<td>55,000</td>
<td>400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need to be demolished</td>
<td>3,000</td>
<td>600</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Tables 6.7: Residential area per capita (m²/person) (Source: Land and Housing Management Department, Ministry of Construction, Report on Housing Development Strategy to the Year 2010).

Table 6.7.1: Urban areas in the whole country

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Residential area (1000 m²)</th>
<th>Urban population</th>
<th>Residential area per capita (m²/person)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>49,327</td>
<td>10,301,000</td>
<td>4.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>52,408</td>
<td>11,817,000</td>
<td>4.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>54,441</td>
<td>12,500,000</td>
<td>4.35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.7.2: Hanoi urban area

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Population (1000 people)</th>
<th>Residential area per capita (m²/person)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1954</td>
<td>370</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>840</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>876</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>966.3</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>2,155</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>2,315</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>2,364</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.7.3: Investment capital for urban housing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Investment capital for basic construction (million dong)</th>
<th>Of which investment capital for residential housing (million dong)</th>
<th>Ratio (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1981-1995</td>
<td>114,749</td>
<td>4,909</td>
<td>4.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986-1990</td>
<td>4,526,000</td>
<td>6,168</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6.7.4: Ratio of housing self built by the people

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total area of housing built (m²)</th>
<th>Of which area self built by people (m²)</th>
<th>Ratio (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>140,771</td>
<td>96,147</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>169,378</td>
<td>110,000</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993</td>
<td>220,078</td>
<td>149,000</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>224,331</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>251,548</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.8: Housing development plan of Hanoi until 2000 and 2010 (Source: Land and Housing Management Department, Ministry of Construction, Report on Housing Development Strategy to the Year 2010).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>By 2000</th>
<th>In which</th>
<th>2010</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1997</td>
<td>1998</td>
<td>1999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estimated population (million people)</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing area per capita (m²/person)</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing demand (thousand m²)</td>
<td>14,135</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing area to be supplemented (thousand m²)</td>
<td>2,135</td>
<td>410</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In which:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self rehabilitated by the people (approx. 12% increase of private house)</td>
<td>1,400</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State managed housing to be rehabilitated</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction of new residential zones</td>
<td>635</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing area built for preferentially treated people</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6.9: Social structure categorized on the basis of living standards (Source: Land and Housing Management Department, Ministry of Construction, *Report on Housing Development Strategy to the Year 2010*).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>1992 %</th>
<th>1996 %</th>
<th>2000 %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wealthy</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rather wealthy</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>33.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>46.3</td>
<td>49.3</td>
<td>52.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under average</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

During the *Doi Moi* period the housing subsidisation policy has been eliminated. Since then, people have started to build their own houses. The state has adopted a policy of selling state housing to occupants. Housing sales have been carried out throughout the country, with housing privatisation as the first step. A housing industry, land sales and purchases have started. The housing industry has changed urban planning. Investors have commenced housing development projects in integrated residential areas, including technical and social infrastructure.

*Doi Moi*, together with the elimination of the subsidised policy on housing distribution, has enabled the solution of most of the urgent demands of the urban population.

6.12 Infrastructure

*Doi Moi* hastens socio-economic development, including the building of urban technical infrastructure. The street system in cities is expanded and upgraded, the water supply system is improved both in quality and quantity, the drainage system and hygienic environment are upgraded, electricity supply and telecommunications
systems are strongly developed. Eighty percent of Vietnam's cities and towns are now covered by MobiFone (Source: Report 1997 of MobiFone Company).

The State invests in technical infrastructure in general and in the system of urban technical infrastructure in particular using its budget source, ODA loan capital sources from other countries, and from the World Bank and the Asian Development Bank. The state, with the support of the Finnish government, has upgraded the water supply system, with loan capital from the Japanese OECF has started to renovate the city's drainage system, and has also started to implement a project to develop infrastructure in the north. The establishment of the high and from Noi Bai Airport to Hanoi makes international exchange more convenient. The construction of technical infrastructure in Ho Chi Minh City and other cities are being invested in. Urban technical infrastructure helps to speed up the country's socioeconomic development and improve facilities for the urban population. This has clearly been seen in Hanoi during the last several years.

**Table 6.10: Ratio of road area and road density in Hanoi urban area (Source: Hanoi People's Committee, Report of Transportation and Public Works Department)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of district</th>
<th>Area (km²)</th>
<th>Populat. In 1994</th>
<th>Length of road (km²)</th>
<th>Road area (km²)</th>
<th>Ratio area (%)</th>
<th>Road density</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hoan Kiem</td>
<td>4,500</td>
<td>117,594</td>
<td>61,388</td>
<td>1.029</td>
<td>22.87</td>
<td>2.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dong Da</td>
<td>14,500</td>
<td>349,997</td>
<td>32,243</td>
<td>0.441</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>0.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hai Ba Trung</td>
<td>10,500</td>
<td>318,750</td>
<td>41,893</td>
<td>0.894</td>
<td>7.72</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ba Dinh</td>
<td>40,000</td>
<td>215,436</td>
<td>53,540</td>
<td>0.743</td>
<td>7.08</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hanoi urban area</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,061,777</td>
<td>189,062</td>
<td>3.062</td>
<td>7.65</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6.11: Invested Capital for Infrastructure from State Budget In Comparison to Total Invested Capital in Hanoi

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Invested Capital</td>
<td>467.4</td>
<td>649.4</td>
<td>690</td>
<td>480.7</td>
<td>638</td>
<td>990.5</td>
<td>3,916</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(million dong)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation;</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>134.5</td>
<td>135.3</td>
<td>113.5</td>
<td>205.2</td>
<td>306</td>
<td>987.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telecommunication Density</td>
<td>16.6%</td>
<td>20.7%</td>
<td>19.6%</td>
<td>23.6%</td>
<td>32.2%</td>
<td>30.9%</td>
<td>25.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water,</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>28.0</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>56.8</td>
<td>95.0</td>
<td>263.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power production and</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
<td>8.9%</td>
<td>9.6%</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>distribution Density</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Activity Density</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>59.8</td>
<td>29.7</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>211.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Density</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
<td>8.7%</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
<td>5.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total of Infrastructure</td>
<td>125.3</td>
<td>198.1</td>
<td>225.1</td>
<td>172.5</td>
<td>294.5</td>
<td>441.0</td>
<td>1462.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sector Density</td>
<td>26.8%</td>
<td>30.5%</td>
<td>32.6%</td>
<td>35.9%</td>
<td>46.2%</td>
<td>44.55%</td>
<td>37.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: - Hanoi yearbook statistic in 1991-1995
- Hanoi yearbook statistic in 1996

6.13 Investment Approval Process in Vietnam and Hanoi

During the *Doi Moi* period there has been considerable building investment. Investment projects, depending on investment scale and sectors, are divided into three groups: Group A, Group B, Group C (according to the Law on Foreign Investment in Vietnam).

Big projects belong to group A. Investors that use budget capital have to ask for approval in 2 steps: Report on Pre-Feasible Project and Report on Feasibility Study.
of Project. Both steps are presented to the Prime Minister for approval. After getting 
the note of examination from the Ministry of Planning and Investment, the Prime 
Minister will consider and approve.

For private enterprises and limited companies, after getting the agreement from the 
Prime Minister, the Ministry of Planning and Investment will grant the investment 
license.

For projects that belong to group B, the approval authorities are ministries, central 
branches and Chairmen of People's Committees of Provinces and Cities placed 
directly under the authority of central government, after getting the agreement of the 
Ministry of Planning and Investment.

For group C projects, the approval authorities are general corporations or People's 
Committees of Districts if they are authorised by People's Committees of Provinces 
and Cities placed directly under the authority of central government.

Projects in industrial zones, processing zones and high-tech zones should be 
presented to the Prime Minister to be determined according to Regulations of 
industrial zone, processing zone and high-tech zone.

For new urban areas those above-mentioned steps must be followed as well.

For foreign investment projects in Vietnam, investors have to apply to the Ministry 
of Planning and Investment for the investment license. For group A projects, the 
Ministry of Planning and Investment presents the strategy to the Prime Minister. 
After getting the agreement note from the Prime Minister, the Minister of Planning 
and Investment grants the license.

For group B and C projects, the Ministry of Planning and Investment or People's 
Committees of Provinces or Cities placed directly under the authority of central 
government are organisations authorised to grant licenses according to the state 
arrangement.
The Management Boards of industrial zones and processing zones at provincial level are also in authority to grant licenses in industrial zones and processing zones according to the state arrangement and "one-door" policy.

6.14 Investment conditions and opportunities in Hanoi City

Following the promulgation of the Law on Foreign Investment in Vietnam in December 1987 and the application of a series of polices to the open economy, many foreign companies have come to Vietnam seeking opportunities for investment and business in Vietnamese markets which are viewed by foreign experts as having considerable potential.

In 1995, in Hanoi, 220 projects were granted licenses with total capital of $US 3.6 billion. Additionally, the average investment for projects was also larger than in previous years. In 1989, 1990 and 1991, the investment capital for a project was usually around $US5-7 million. But in 1992, 1993, 1994 and 1995, many projects had capital of more then $US30 million. Up to now the biggest investment project in Hanoi, for production of TV picture tubes in the Sai Dong Industrial Zone, covering an area of 12.5ha, amounted to $US170 million.

At present there are three kinds of cooperation in investment: first, those using 100 per cent foreign investment (12 projects); second, those entering into joint-ventures (126 projects); third, those using trade cooperation (11 projects). The number of 100 per cent foreign investment projects has been increasing. Hanoi will soon have a new form of cooperation, the build-operate-transfer (BOT) technique, which will be mainly used for infrastructure development (Data from Hanoi Planning and Investment Department, 1996).

Attracting foreign investment capital is very important for industrialisation, modernisation and development of Hanoi. The realisation of foreign investment will give Hanoi more capital resources, enable the replacement of equipment, help in the assimilation of new technologies, improve mechanisms of economic management and broaden the market for the consumption of products. At the same time Hanoi
will become the political, cultural, economic, scientific and technical centre of the whole country and the centre of Northern and international interactions. Hanoi provides a large market and has a broad potential, which creates favourable conditions for foreign investors to do their business on the basis of mutual benefit.

The fields calling for investment capital and cooperation include economy, culture, health care and society. In the economic field, foreign investors can find opportunities for investment in all production branches such as heavy industry (engineering, electronics, chemistry and high-tech), light industry (garment, leather and shoe-making and home utensils).

In the field of culture, education, health care and society, foreign investors can enter into joint ventures with Vietnamese partners to build hospitals, schools and sports facilities.

Increasing Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) in Hanoi City leads to many changes in all aspects of city life. On one side FDI supported the socioeconomic development of the city, increased GDP, and sped up the process of institutional change associated with the market economy. On the other side FDI creates many difficulties for urban management and development, such as overloading of the infrastructure network and demolishing the existing urban form of the Old Quarter and Ancient Quarter.

6.15 Difficulties in the Transitional Period

*Doi Moi* has changed the face of Hanoi and left behind a number of difficulties. The difficulties arise from the shift from the planned to the market economy, and mainly have to do with controlling the development of different economic sectors. In planning, it is impossible to predict the investment capability of private households, and it is therefore difficult for planning to meet demand. Even living standards and purchasing power, as well as lifestyles, have changed, new demands have arisen, goods are more expensive, competition from cheap imported goods is strong and the smuggling of goods is rife. All these facts have changed life and made urban planning difficult.
Together with these developments, the market mechanism leads to the development of social evils such as drug addiction, prostitution, gambling, corruption, and bribery. When society becomes more dependent on money, social problems become more complicated. That causes more difficulties in planning and controlling urban development.

The old theory of urban planning has become obsolete, but the new one is not yet established in the transitional period. It is still evolving. In fact there is no fully acceptable urban planning system now in effect. Difficulties now being faced are caused by rapid development, with planning being almost entirely development-oriented. Planners are finding it increasingly difficult to control urban development. Cities are developing chaotically and spontaneously. Market methods are inappropriate to control newly arising social evils.

6.13.1 Examples Relating to Current Development

In the *Doi Moi* period, Vietnam has achieved a high rate of economic and urban growth. In urban development, the first expression of this growth is the development of industrial zones. In Hanoi there have been development projects in industrial zones such as Sai Dong A - Sai Dong B, Dai Tu, North Thang Long - Sumitomo, South Thang Long, Soc Son; high-tech zone in Xuan Mai - Hoa Lac. Industrial zones have also been established around Hanoi in Me Linh, My Van (Hung Yen); in Hai Phong: Nomura Industrial zone in Vat Cach, the Road 14, Minh Duc, Dinh Vu; in Dong Nai: Bien Hoa 1, Bien Hoa 2, Bangsayong, Tuy Ha - Long Binh; in Binh Duong: Singapore, Dong An, Miraculous Wave 1 and 2, Viet Huong, Tan Hiep. Plans for the development of more industrial zones in places such as Dzung Quat, Can Tho, 50 mean that industrial zones have been established in the entire country.

Together with this industrial development, the development of new urban areas is being implemented. In Hanoi, three new districts have been established: Tay Ho, Thanh Xuan, Cau Giay, and five in Ho Chi Minh City. Projects on high rise hotels in Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City have changed the cities' faces. Housing in particular, has been rapidly developed, through self-building, with positive and negative effects.
Technical infrastructure is better maintained. Newly opened roads, such as the highway to Noi Bai Airport, the road Thang Long - Cau Giay - Kim Ma - Hung Vuong, Lieu Giai, Dai Co Viet streets, are a great improvement.

Urban planning in the transitional period facilitates development but does not forget the maintenance of cultural and historical relics, such as the ancient quarters of Hanoi, Hoi An and Hue. However, because development cannot be easily controlled, streetscapes are often disordered, and construction projects often do not harmonise with the surrounding setting. However, there are good projects, such as the Daeha Business Centre near Thu Le Park, and the construction projects in the centre of Ho Chi Minh City. There is a combination of modern and traditional character in planning and architecture as there are many forms of co-operation between foreign and Vietnamese architects. Moreover, building materials become more diversified. The consultancy knowledge, professional skills and management level of Vietnamese workers and experts have been greatly improved during this period.

6.15.2 Changing Relationships in the Urban Development sector

In a centrally planned economy, the only participant in the city's planning process is the state, whereas in a market economy all sectors are involved. Those interested in urban development and planning are those people who have capital to invest in construction in the city, from the state to the collective, and even to the individual levels. Planning has to meet all building demands in the city. Interest in construction has increased with the increase in land value during the Doi Moi period. Because of the improvement in living standards, the number of people who can invest in building houses for themselves increases. There appears a kind of land fever, with land prices in cities multiplying many times. The housing and land market becomes more thoroughly established. The rich rush to buy land as investments, especially in areas surrounding the West Lake.
Chapter 7

XUAN HOA AND HANOI NEW TOWN: A COMPARISON

7.1 Xuan Hoa New Town

7.1.1 Reasons for Xuan Hoa New Town Development

On 5 August 1964, the US launched its destructive air war against North Vietnam. In the context of an ever-fiercer escalation of the war, it was the policy of the Communist Party and Government of Vietnam to evacuate the people to safe areas. In 1967, under state guidance, the Ministry of Construction commenced a study for the planning of the new capital city in Vinh Yen Township. The area of Xuan Hoa then became a “buffer zone” for the future capital with the following considerations:

- As the US was escalating its destructive war efforts, the city of Hanoi, which was below the water level of the Red river, might be badly flooded if the US intentionally bombed the river dikes.
- Hanoi was built on weak soil, which might create difficulties and high costs for the development of technical infrastructure. It was also not suitable for tunnels.
- An implementation of Decree 50/CP of the Prime Minister on preservation of arable land and fields.
- Xuan Hoa, near Vinh Yen, was situated on a hilly area with favorable meteorological advantages that would facilitate the development of high rise buildings and urban infrastructure.
- The selected area was adjacent to the territory of a brotherly Socialist country, with the then very close Sino-Vietnamese friendship, known as 'the lip and the tongue'.
- This was a good case study for the state construction industry to plan and implement a uniform design along Soviet socialist lines.

7.1.2 Size of Xuan Hoa New Town
Xuan Hoa New Town was, as mentioned above, a trial run for the investment and construction of the new capital city in Vinh Yen township, which was about 25 kilometres from Xuan Hoa and 60 kilometres from Hanoi. It also served as the basis for Vietnam's New Capital Planning and Development Program.

Xuan Hoa, 45 kilometre from Hanoi, was a new urban area sitting on hilly land on which agricultural production and cultivation did not seem to be appropriate. The then planning objective was to build high rise residential quarters (of four to five storeys) and some small scale industrial zones at the rear edge for new investment and development. Upon completion of the new capital in Vinh Yen, Xuan Hoa would then form a part of it and would include vocational schools to help facilitate investment and development.

The Xuan Hoa New Urban Area was planned to comprise 400 hectares of land with a proposed population of 30,000 people. The area would include centres for public services, commerce, special vocations such as education, training, medical care, sports and entertainment. All these facilities were to be created not only for the residents of the city, but also for the people living in the adjacent areas and the passers-by. It has been 30 years now since the construction of Xuan Hoa, but not much has changed in reality. By 1998, the population in Xuan Hoa was only 10,000 residents. The infrastructure has since been degraded and the idea of Vietnam's new urban area development is no longer mentioned in the media.

7.1.3 Xuan Hoa New Town in market economy conditions

Xuan Hoa New Town has been a characteristic example of the kinds of development that took place during the period of state subsidies before 1986. Without those subsidies, Xuan Hoa seriously deteriorated during the period between 1986 and 1994. As a result, industrial enterprises at Xuan Hoa, such as the bicycle plant and battery factory could not compete with imported goods (mainly smuggled from China and Thailand) and it was difficult for them to retain customers. The factories had to lay off workers, some of whom had to go back to their homes in the
countryside to earn a living. The vocational schools were also facing a great deal of difficulties because graduates could not find a job locally.

According to Xuan Hoa People's Committee statistics, 1,500 people have left the township because of unemployment and poor living conditions. Some four and five storey buildings have seriously been degraded. Other areas even remain empty when the residents vacate their dwelling units. Infrastructure systems were not serviced or maintained. In short, although the local authorities have tried many measures to encourage development in Xuan Hoa, economic growth remains very low. In the present planning package for Hanoi, Xuan Hoa is considered a satellite city for future industrial and service developments. According to the plan, its population is expected to grow to 35,000 by 2020.

7.1.4 Why Xuan Hoa New Town remained undeveloped

It is argued that the Xuan Hoa New Town has failed to develop because of the following reasons:

- The selection of the location was not optimal in terms of geographical suitability and traffic convenience. It was not appropriate for the country's socio-economic situation. There seemed to be no driving force for development.
- Its planning was driven by theory and compulsory measures.
- Its planning was a typical example of the centrally planned, State subsidised economy without careful consideration of cultural and socio-economic characteristics.
- In addition to the offices to which the Government moved in Xuan Hoa, the Government also set up factories, housing estates, and service works. They were, however, not particularly attractive and very few people wanted to settle there.
- The lessons of new urban development learnt from the former Soviet model did not work under Vietnam's specific circumstances.
- Vietnam's economy was at that time too weak to implement the planning ideas and accomplish the investment projects.
7.2 Hanoi New Town Project:

7.2.1 Brief Introduction

The Hanoi People's Committee prepared a General Plan for the Hanoi City to the year 2010 and received the Prime Minister's approval in 1992. However, due to the rapid growth of the national economy as well as changes in the international market, Hanoi's People's Committee in 1996 thought it an appropriate time to adjust the existing general plan into the General Master Plan of the Hanoi Metropolitan Area. The Committee envisaged an expanded role of the capital city in the twenty-first century, when Vietnam would have a population of over 100 million and when Hanoi will also play an important role on the international stage.

In order to fulfill these future roles of the city, the Hanoi People's Committee and the Ministry of Construction concluded that the transformation of the existing historic city into a new modern capital through gradual improvement would be nearly impossible physically as well as being economically unviable. Thus it was considered that the most desirable way forward would be to develop a new town equipped with state-of-the-art functions and facilities, while the existing city would be improved and become the historic heart of the Hanoi Metropolitan Area. The North bank of the Red River was considered as the most suitable candidate for the location of a new town.

As the Hanoi People's Committee and the Ministry of Construction did not possess sufficient experience in new town development, they invited the Daewoo Corporation as a core foreign partner and other international consultant companies to provide them with the necessary expertise, urban engineering technologies, and advice on legal and administrative innovations and suitable instruments to attract foreign investments.

7.2.2 Vision of Hanoi as Capital City
Figure 9: The Hanoi New Town Conceptual Land Use Plan
The vision of Hanoi New Town as a Capital City is seen in the documentation for the New Town Project as follows:

- Hanoi will be developed as a political, cultural, scientific-technological, financial, commercial and economic centre, as determined in Resolution 08 of the Politburo, and into a proud capital of a country of one hundred million people heading into the 21 century.

- To develop the Hanoi New Town (HNT) as a modern and beautiful part of the capital and to elevate Hanoi City to the level of other capital cities in the region and in the world.

- To develop for Hanoi City the initiatives to lead in the reform process, in successful industrialisation, and in modernisation which are the cause of the Party and the State.

- To develop a new town to mitigate the burdens of the existing old city in terms of housing supply, infrastructure and urban environment as well as to preserve the heritage of the ancient and the old quarter, and to maintain Hanoi’s cultural traditions.

- To devise new development strategies and apply them to Hanoi New Town, which can be seen as a pilot model for administrative mechanisms, policies, legal frameworks, investment and construction management, etc. Lessons learnt through the process will serve other new town developments in the future.

- To exploit the future urban land stock at an advantageous location for transportation and beautiful scenery, and build a New Town as a centre of modernity and international activities.

7.2.3 Objectives of Hanoi New Town Development

- To create a modern and comprehensive new town to maintain Hanoi City as an everlasting capital, being the leading centre of political, economic, financial, cultural and international business activities in Vietnam.
• To set up a new and sustainable development model with diversified forms of investments, which will create new jobs, enhance living standards and the quality of cultural life, recreation and relaxation of Hanoi people.

• To set up bases for absorbing high-technology investment, and transfer of technologies to Vietnam.

• To provide a mechanism for regulating expanded population, to protect the natural environment, to improve flood control, to exploit water-surfaces and landscapes created by the Red River.

• To build modern features of the capital city, while preserving the architecture and cultural heritage of the existing Hanoi.

• To provide Hanoi City with appropriate means and capacities for integration into the world community, and to develop Hanoi as the international business centre in the region and in the world.

7.2.4 Location and Physical Land Use Plan of Hanoi New Town

Hanoi New Town will be an integral part of Hanoi City with the specific functions and goals as displayed in the Hanoi Master Plan Adjustment by the year 2020. The Hanoi New Town Project is divided into two areas: North of the Red River at Dong Anh, Gia Lam districts and West of West Lake at Tu Liem district, with a total area of 8,830 hectares.

a. New town to the North of Red River:

Laid down in the North bank of the Red river, about 12 kilometres from Hoan Kiem centre, near Noi Bai international airport in Dong Anh district, the Hanoi New Town’s Area (excluding existing villages) is approximately 7,200 hectares.

• The south edge is formed by the Red and Duong rivers
• The north is bordered by the Hanoi railway belt
• The east is bordered by Highway No. 3
• The west is bordered by Thang Long - Noi Bai high-speed road
Existing physical conditions:
The terrain is flat with an average altitude of about 7.5 – 8 metres above sea level. It is mostly agricultural land (rice fields). The Van Tri pond and the Thiep River connect with the Co Loa area, and the dike systems of the Red and Duong rivers give a unique character to the Hanoi New Town area.

Existing social conditions:
Within the area there are many old villages, where the main agricultural production is a combination of rice planting and vegetable farming for the supply of Hanoi City.

The Co Loa historical site is one of the most ancient recorded historical relics of Vietnam, located in the new town area (in the northeast). It shall be considered as an important factor in formation and development of Hanoi New Town.

Technical infrastructure:
Some investment in the main routes and the power supply network for domestic use has been made, but both the scale and the capacity is not enough. Drinking water is mostly self-supplied and little investment has been put into it as yet.

b. New Town 2 west of West lake:

This new town is located in Tu Liem district with about 640 hectares of area limited by:  South Thang Long new town (Ciputra) in the North
Hoang Quoc Viet Road in the South
The West lake area and Lac Long Quan road in the East
The Ring road No 3 and South Thang Long road in the East

Existing physical conditions:

Almost all the land used to be the rice fields of Tu Liem district. The terrain is flat with an average height of about 6.8–7 metres and there is a number of canals serving agricultural needs.
Existing social conditions:
There are still many villages with pronounced features of the traditional Vietnamese farmer’s lifestyle, such as: Co Nhue, Nghia Do, Xuan La and Xuan Dinh. In the southern part of New Town 2, along Hoang Quoc Viet road, there are some houses built about 80 years ago. They are of small scale and served by poor infrastructure systems as a result of lack of investment for many years. Hanoi is now in the process of re-making a comprehensive planning scheme for this area.

c. General assessment of location for new town development:

Despite some difficulties in the selection of the two mentioned locations, such as the river crossing, agricultural land, high density of population and villages, the two above-mentioned locations still have the following unique advantages for new town development:

- Proximity to the Hanoi old city, where there are opportunities to utilise existing services and manpower.
- The proximity of the river, railways, roadways and Noi Bai international airport make it a hub for domestic and international transport.
- Abundant land resources for new town development at low costs.
- Tourism potential such as a beautiful and attractive natural landscape and historical relics (Van Tri pond, Co Loa town).
- Convenient hydrological and geological factors.
- Hanoi New Town planning is based upon a projected population of 750,000 people for the period 2030-2040, a household size of 4.5 persons and an average urban land use of 120 square metres per person.

7.2.5 Hanoi New Town Planning

There are three basic principles, on which planning for the Hanoi urban land use is based:

- To create convenient spatial linkages between residential areas and industrial areas, commercial, service areas and office areas;
• To give priority to the development of public transport, aimed at minimising the use of private transport; and
• To identify the orientation of the next phase of new town development, and plan and implement a green belt in order to strengthen development control.

**Table 7.1: Hanoi New Town land use distribution**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Land area (ha)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Residential area</td>
<td>1,343</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Educational area</td>
<td>660</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Public works</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Commercial area</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Industrial area</td>
<td>1,485</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Transport</td>
<td>1,862</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Park and green tree corridor</td>
<td>2,113</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Water surface</td>
<td>955</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>8,830</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(From *Hanoi New Town Master Plan Report*, prepared by Bechtel, 1997)

The Hanoi New Town Master Plan (HNT) is divided into nine districts of which district No. 8 will be Hanoi New Town's commercial business district (CBD). District No.9 shall be outside the existing dyke. As proposed, there will be a public, cultural and sport complex after 2040.

Hanoi New Town investment and development programs will be as follows:

1. **Development program for residential area:**

   Residential areas will be arranged inside the belt system and separated by water and green space systems. A variety of buildings will be constructed in each precinct. A number of old villages will be preserved and improved in urban low-density residential areas. Middle-density areas shall be composed of 6-12 storey buildings. High-density areas will include 12-24 storey buildings and will be concentrated in Hanoi New Town CBD, in the centres of districts and nearby areas.
2. Educational development program:

A primary school (PS) for 950 students (standard: 7 square metres per student) will be arranged for each neighbourhood. Secondary schools (SS), high schools (HS) and training schools will be calculated according to a formula 18,000-24,000 students per school (standard: 10-12 square metres per student). As proposed one SS shall be constructed for two precincts, two HS and two training schools for one district. Two international schools are scheduled for Hanoi New Town in order to meet the demands of foreign specialists working in the New Town area. In addition, Hanoi New Town proposes to construct a university for 20,000 students, a post-graduate research centre of 2,000 researchers and a training centre for 10,000 students.

3. Program for public works:

Hanoi New Town area will provide the following public services:

- Health system
- Commercial works including retail selling system
- Cultural works: library, theatre, museum, and exhibition centre
- Information, post and telecommunication services
- Recreation centres such as precinct playground, district park, Central Park of the city, athletics competition ground and stadium.
- Public works such as power supply, sewage treatment, drainage and maintenance equipment

Public works in Hanoi New Town area are described in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Facility</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Health facilities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>District hospital</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Special hospital</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Long-term treatment hospital</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Clinic</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Cultural facilities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----</td>
<td>----------------------------------------</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Hanoi New Town central library</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Branch library</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>District library</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Religious facilities</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>District conference hall/Public centre</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Art performance centre</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Art museum</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Museum of national history</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Museum of nature</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>C</th>
<th>District public facilities</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>District administrative office</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Police station</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Fire station</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Car parking system (Government centre)</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Cemetery</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. **Program for retail system development:**

The retail system will be developed according to the demand for commodities and services in Hanoi New Town. Commercial development programs will include:

- A retail centre in the CBD and Tu Liem district
- A commercial area in each district centre
- A commercial area in each living quarter
- A commercial area in each precinct

5. **Retail store system:**

Retail stores shall be arranged in the district centres, centres of living quarters and precincts:

- District centre: Shops will be large enough to provide stocks of goods suitable to weekly and daily consumption and other personal services. They will include restaurants, hotels, and catering services.
• Centre of living quarter: including shops, supermarkets for people's weekly needs. They will be located in the centre of living quarters and closely linked to the transportation system.

• Centre of neighbourhood: Shops in the centre of the neighbourhood will meet the daily consumption demands of local inhabitants. Other services, such as gasoline stations, technical service shops, laundrettes, car and motorbike repairing stations, family utensils, etc. will also be provided.

6. Program for office building development:

Office buildings will be arranged close to the centre of the new town, the district centres and the centres of living quarters.

7. Program for hotel service development:

High-class hotel and commercial services (including retail and office) shall be arranged in the CBD. Commercial business centres at the district level should be retail centres for approximately 100,000 people.

8. Program for industrial development:

About 1,411 ha will be used for the development of high-tech industries and clean, light industries. Polluting industries will not be constructed in the new town area. The criteria for selecting the location of industrial development are:

• Convenient transport and communication: industrial zones should be arranged near inter-provincial transport routes.

• Land resources must be large enough for the construction of storage space and workshops.

• Low land rent.

On this basis, the new town plan determines the industrial zones as:
- The Dong Anh area (based upon the existing Dong Anh industrial zone) in the northern pole of Hanoi New Town, located near Highway No. 3 and the Hanoi railway belt.
- The South Van Tri area (district 2) in the west of Hanoi New Town, located near Thang Long - Noi Bai high-speed road.
- Trung Thôn area (district 8) on the eastern border of Hanoi New Town, located near Highway 3 and Yen Vien railway interchange.

Total area of the Hanoi New Town industrial zones is 1,411 hectares, about 16 per cent of the total Hanoi New Town area.
Program for transport development:

The Hanoi New Town internal transport system will include roads, railways and waterways, of which roads are the most important. The waterways are the rivers and canal systems of Van Tri reservoir. The railway will be a public transport system of high capacity.

**Rods:**

Roads are divided into the following categories:

- The central arterial routes
- The arterial routes
- The internal roads

The central arterial routes and the arterial routes will make up ten per cent of the districts' land resources, and internal roads about 11 per cent.

**Public transport system:**

The public transport system in Hanoi New Town will include:

- Mass transit for the areas with large passenger flows and a loading capability of approximately 30,000 -60,000 passengers per one direction per hour in one direction.
- Light transit (tramways) for belt roads with middle passenger flow of about 12,000 - 18,000 passengers per hour per direction of travel.
- A bus system providing a balanced service in all residential areas.

**Organization of administrative units**

**Neighbourhood:**

This is a basic unit with a population of 7,500 people and services ensuring the daily needs of inhabitants are met. The distance between dwelling and service should be reached in five minutes of walking. In each neighbourhood there will be one primary
school. In addition, there will be one high school, one commercial centre and one hospital to be arranged for every two neighbourhoods. In the neighbourhood there will be also a small park for children that provides a green space for living quarters.

**Living quarter:**
This is an organisation that consists of five neighbourhoods and one centre of the living quarter. It is the place of almost all public service activities such as library, police station, fire station, commercial service and a market. High schools and training schools can be provided, depending on the demand. The location of the living quarter shall ensure convenient access to transport.

**District and district centre:**

**Figure 10: Community Structure – Districts and District Centres**

Each district will include the centre of the district and two living quarters comprising residential neighbourhoods. The administrative border of a district is limited by an open space including water surfaces and greenery. The centre of a district will include district administrative office buildings, trade services and high-rise buildings. In each district there will be at least one big passenger transportation station to link the centre with the neighbouring districts and the old area of Hanoi. High schools and
vocational centres in the district will be located near public railway stations or regional arterial roads.

7.2.6 Hanoi New Town’s first phase of construction

Based on the above-mentioned planning orientations of spatial development and on the land use plan, the first phase of the program of the Hanoi New Town is estimated to proceed in the way set out in the following table:

**Table 7.3: Land Use Plan for first phase and for whole Hanoi New Town**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Land Use Plan</th>
<th>Total area of Hanoi New Town (000 square metres)</th>
<th>Total area of Phase I development (000 square metres)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Residential Area</td>
<td>1,343</td>
<td>75.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Facilities</td>
<td>660</td>
<td>104.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Facilities</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>8.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercial &amp; Office Area</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>15.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial Area</td>
<td>1,485</td>
<td>190.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport and Infrastructure</td>
<td>1,862</td>
<td>237.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open Space, Trees and Parks</td>
<td>2,113</td>
<td>458.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water Surface</td>
<td>955</td>
<td>104.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Area</strong></td>
<td><strong>8,830</strong></td>
<td><strong>1,193.90</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Phase 1 will be developed the commercial centre, central boulevard, and some housing within Tu Liem (District1). Within Hanoi New Town, the principal arterial connecting the regional highway on the west side of the project to existing Highway No. 3 will be constructed, as well as all development south of this arterial within District 2. The adjacent CBD will also be included in Phase 1. The creation of a critical mass in District 2 is of great importance to the proposed development approach. The initial street network is considered part of Phase 1, although it will be completed prior to the official groundbreaking of Phase 1 in the year 2001.

7.2.4 Hanoi New Town Implementation

The Hanoi Master Plan and Hanoi New Town Plan 2020 was approved by the Prime Minister in Decision No.108/1998/QS-TTg dated 20/6/1998. The plans were
prepared in a process of cooperation between Vietnamese and international experts, including Bechtel, SOM (America), OMA (Netherlands), Nikken Sekkei (Japan) and Daewoo (Korea). The essence of the plan is the following:

- The plan is based on market principles, with the participation of all sectors of society.
- The plan is not merely an idealised scheme to be implemented by the Government, but facilitates the participation of every economic sector.
- The approved plan is not purely a land use plan but includes careful consideration of population growth, economic forecasts, investment budget attraction ability, development programs etc, and reasonable dispersion of construction phases.

In short, this Master Plan is a much more flexible and feasible project than those which preceded it.

The Hanoi New Town project is a super project, of a kind not previously attempted in the urban development history of Vietnam. With an area of 8,830 hectares, and an implementation framework of 20 to 30 years, the project has made many politicians and professionals hesitant about its feasibility. Learning from the experience of new town development in other countries, such as England, France, Korea, China, Singapore, and Malaysia, we think that in order to implement the project successfully, besides a flexible, appropriate plan, we should have the following basic conditions:

- There should be a high-level government authority to direct the development of the project. Presently this role is carried out by The Steering Committee for Hanoi Planning and Development (established by Decision No. 209/1998/QD-ttg dated 27/10/1998) which provides guidance to implement the Master Plan of Hanoi and especially the Hanoi New Town development.
- Close and sustainable cooperation between the Vietnamese Government, the Hanoi city government and the private sector. State-owned companies should collaborate with domestic and international private companies to implement the project.
• A special policy for Hanoi New Town development which marries Vietnamese law and international practice. In this regard, a Special Decree for Hanoi New Town has been proposed. The main content of the Decree will relate to investment policy, land policy, tax policy, financial policy and investment inducement policy.

• A development investment management apparatus suitable to the project to set up a "one-stop-shop" management mechanism to simplify procedures as well as facilitate investment promotion.

How to attract investment and inhabitants to Hanoi New Town

At present, the existing Hanoi urban area is overcrowded, with inadequate infrastructure which cannot meet the demands of inhabitants, especially in the Ancient and Old Quarters, where the living environment is seriously polluted. According to the survey data census of the Hanoi Land and Housing Management Department in October 1999, 85% of the surveyed households would like to move to the New Town if the Government has some priority policies and better housing and living conditions are provided.

The key elements needed to attract investment and inhabitants to the Hanoi New Town are:

• the Government should demonstrate its commitment to the New Town by prompt approval of decisions on detailed planning, feasibility studies and notices related to it.

• the Government should establish a fund for provision of the main technical infrastructure network in Hanoi New Town as the basis for investment projects. Funds can be mobilised through the sale of Hanoi New Town coupons, the establishment of a housing fund and a technical infrastructure development fund, or land could be exchanged for the provision of infrastructure.

• In the immediate future, some Government organisations will be moved to Hanoi New Town, creating confidence for private investment and showing Hanoians the Government's determination to implement the project. The organisations that
Chapter 7: XUAN HOA AND HANOI NEW TOWNS: A COMPARISON

will move to the new town, are Ministry-level ones, and universities that are currently having difficulties in finding sufficient space in the existing urban area.

- The construction of industrial zones, creating jobs for new inhabitants (according to the Master Plan, Hanoi New Town will create about 400,000 jobs). In the immediate future, some industrial zones, such as Dong Anh, Sumitomo and some high-tech areas will be intermingled with residential development.

- A good policy and strategy for housing development. Land prices need to be low, housing should be diversified and suitable to different income levels, with special priority given to households who move from the Ancient streets to the New Town. Implementing instructions of Hanoi People's Committee, Hanoi Housing Development Corporation were officially established in 1999 to guide the housing development strategy of the city until 2020.

- Facilitation of technical and social infrastructure, public services, jobs and working places in new town at a better standard than the ones in the existing town. Circulation between new town and the existing town will be easy and safe, and public services such as schools, hospitals and shops will be convenient.

7.3 Comparison of the planning processes for Xuan Hoa and Hanoi New Town

A comparison of the two quite different planning approaches used in the cases of Xuan Hoa and the Hanoi New Town can be usefully made under the following:

- Economic basis
- Physical planning
- Technology
- Hanoi General Plan content
- Approval process
Table 7.4: Planning approaches under command economy and Doi Moi compared

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of factor</th>
<th>Command economy (Soviet style planning approach)</th>
<th>Market-based (Post-Doi Moi planning approach)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Economic</td>
<td>Centrally led economy</td>
<td>Market based economy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Government funding</td>
<td>Minimal Government funding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Relatively limited foreign investment</td>
<td>Need to attract strong foreign investment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Moderate economic growth</td>
<td>Rapid economic growth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical planning</td>
<td>Formal process and vision 'Classical' planning principles</td>
<td>Dynamic process and vision Opportunity for variety of urban form within context of general principles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Detailed land uses</td>
<td>Flexibility within planning framework</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology</td>
<td>Manually prepared exhibits</td>
<td>Electronic drawing format</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Limited use of CAD technology</td>
<td>Ease of revisions and correction with CAD format</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Detailed information in one exhibit</td>
<td>Flexibility with CAD format</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fixed scales very large drawing</td>
<td>Variable scales</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Plan Content</td>
<td>Detailed General plan drawings</td>
<td>Detailed area plans for new development to be prepared later</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Limited distinction between existing and new areas</td>
<td>Clarified distinction between existing and new areas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approval process</td>
<td>Highest level approval required for all changes</td>
<td>Phased approval of general plan and detailed plans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>'Perfect' plan required, formal mechanism for periodic amendments</td>
<td>Flexible amendment process with ongoing review</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Possible schedule constraints for development of detailed plans</td>
<td>Recognition of changing conditions (no final Master Plan ongoing process)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Regulation may be confusing to foreign investors</td>
<td>Clear and simple regulatory environment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 8

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

8.1 Over-urbanisation and 'foreign social evils'

Despite some success in solving problems caused by the development process during the last several years of the transition from a centrally planned economy to the socialist-oriented market economy, there have been some trends that challenge the State's macro-regulatory ability and demand that the State seeks suitable resolutions. A number of serious social and economic problems have appeared in cities, including:

- the growing differentiation between rich and poor;
- spatial segregation;
- more and more serious shortages of basic services and utilities in different parts of the city;
- the increasing incidence of social evils (such as drug addiction and prostitution) in parallel with the development of street gangs brought about by the migration of the rural population into cities in search of income;
- the development of slums and illegal settlements with concomitant environmental problems (air and water resources, pollution noise, etc.) and especially the weakness and shortcomings of the existing urban technical infrastructure.

Most cities in Vietnam were established and shaped mainly according to administrative, cultural, social, commercial and service priorities. The increase in urban population is not the result of a rapid development in the industrial labour force, but mainly due to natural increase and to a lesser extent migration from rural areas to urban centres such as Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City. This creates imbalances in the development poles with big gaps between different regions.

During the years of reform (Doi Moi), urban Vietnam has prospered. The speed of house building is increasing, especially by inhabitants themselves who can solve
their own housing problems. While people do not have to wait for subsidised distribution by the State, this has led to increasingly unplanned building within cities.

The transfer from a centrally planned economy to a market economy has caused a qualitative change in urban development, especially in the source of investment capital, which has gone from State capital only to capital from different economic sectors and individuals. These new sources participate in housing investment in urban areas and create strong impetus for further development.

The first obvious change is the rich-poor differentiation that has been more and more clearly expressed in the social landscape and from which arise urgent social problems needing proper solutions. There is a need therefore to:

- provide inhabitants with housing that is relatively satisfactory in terms of material and social standards;
- eliminate hunger and poverty;
- create jobs for people;
- create favourable conditions for people to go to school;
- ensure essential health care services;
- develop transportation and communications;
- ensure that administrative organisations collect enough tax for the expenditure of programs serving cities.

This change is also expressed in the change of social structure, such as flows of migration into cities, and the transfer of labour from the state-owned economic sector to the private sector. These are factors that improve social flexibility and mobility, especially for those in different professions. In cities, this expression can be seen in the stratification and the day-to-day increase in the gap between rich and poor. It should be recognised, however, that in the Doi Moi period even the poor have better living conditions than before.

It can be argued that a visible contrast between slums and luxury hotels and palaces is inescapable as social stratification and rich-poor differentiation are inevitable under the market mechanism.
Another pronounced expression of the changes in cities is the increasing number of people migrating from rural areas to cities due to the big gap between living conditions in the countryside and in urban areas. This social phenomenon is widespread in big urban centres such as Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City. Migrants, consisting mainly of the unemployed and the low-waged in rural areas, are expecting to obtain jobs and higher wages in urban areas. However, it is very difficult for those who are roaming the streets in search of casual jobs, because there is a shortage of urban unskilled jobs.

During the subsidised period, the gap between rich and poor was not large, the houses of most of the population were mainly state-owned, and there was little difference in floor space provision. Thanks to the transition to the market economy, there now exist more favourable conditions for housing improvement. Nevertheless, there is still some risk, mostly in terms of finance, for the poor seeking to improve their housing. Moreover, the rich build their houses with high construction quality and extensive floor space, but not always according to accepted standards. The most conspicuous expression of urban change is the change in architectural, planning and traffic aspects, and also in the rhythm of urban life.

8.2 The acceptance of change

Many things have changed in cities during the last few years. Although urban living conditions have been improved, poverty is still a major issue. Most of the urban population accepts the changes made in the process of transition from the centrally planned to the market economy, and although there are many conflicts of interests, life is now much better than it was in the subsidised period. Different aspects of daily life, such as eating, living, studying, although involving stiff competition, are far more comfortable than before and in general cease to be sources of worry. There is no longer the need to queue for ration tickets and goods to be hoarded: if necessary, one can buy immediately to satisfy one's consumption needs. Even such an important issue as housing can be dealt with more effectively.
The rhythm of urban life is more and more vibrant; traffic is faster and faster. But there are matters for concern: for instance money appears to now be considered the most important factor. This has led to changes in the social perception of the population, for whom material benefit has become more important under the impact of the market mechanism. That change has differentiated the old generation from the younger. Although there are differences in the acceptance of change, everybody agrees that the subsidised, bureaucratic and centralised mechanism was overly rigid, whereas the market one is seen as dynamic and suitable for achieving an attractive urban lifestyle.

During the last five years, the Vietnamese economy has attained quite encouraging growth rates. The most common measurement of economic growth is GDP. In the period of the 1986-1990 five-year plan GDP grew by 21.2 per cent or by 3.9 per cent per annum (in 1986 it increased by 0.3 per cent; in 1987 by 3.6 per cent; in 1988 by 6 per cent; in 1989 by 4.7 per cent and in 1990 by 5.1 per cent) (“Impetus and present situation of Vietnam society and economy after ten years of Doi Moi”, Statistical Publishing House, 1996, pp. 36). If compared to the world's average growth rate and the rapid decrease in growth in the planned and centralised economies of Eastern Europe and the former USSR, as they underwent market reforms, Vietnam’s economic growth rate was impressive. Food production underwent remarkable progress. It increased from under 18 million tones of rice and rice equivalent per year from 1984 to 1987 to 21.5 million tones in 1989 and 1990. On the whole, in the five years from 1986 to 1990, food production increased by 13.5 million tones over the period 1981 to 1985. Vietnam moved from the position of an inefficient producer to a large rice exporter. In 1989 it exported 1.4 million tonnes and in 1990 1.5 million tones (“Impetus and present situation of Vietnam society and economy after ten years of Doi Moi”, Statistical Publishing House - 1996, pp. 36).

In the five years from 1991 to 1995, Vietnam's GDP increased 48.3 per cent, or by 8.2 per cent annually. In 1991 it grew 6 per cent; in 1992 8.6 per cent, in 1993 8.1 per cent, in 1994 8.8 per cent; and in 1995 it is estimated to reach a growth rate of 9.5 per cent.
8.3 Suggested improvements for urban planning in the late 1990s Vietnamese context

Since Vietnam moved to a new stage of market economics, with the relative stability of the government, many problems have appeared in the urban planning and development management process. Recognising the important role of urban planning and construction in market economic conditions, the Communist Party and government of Vietnam issued many policies and instructions concerning the study and renovation of planning methodology and planning management in order to integrate all construction activities into the planning process. New regulations, policies and decrees were issued, such as the guideline for preparing urban planning documents, and the guideline on urban planning project contents.

Continuing the renovation of the content and methodology in the plan making and planning approval process, the Government gives a high priority to Master Plan and Structure Plan creation for all cities from level I to level V. The Master Plan and Structure Plan will be attached to the urban planning management guidelines to control the urban development process. This will extend from the stage of site identification to other stages in the process, such as the creation of an investment project, the issuing of the planning certificate, the allocation of land and the issuing of the construction permit. Based on these stages, the participation of the community in the planning and control process can be organised, with the publication of planning and construction details and administrative procedures for planning management (Nguyen Manh Kiem 1/1998: 14).

Within the framework of this thesis, I would like to contribute in small way to the undertaking of national renovation of the planning ideology to meet market economy conditions and to ensure that all urban plans are realisable.

8.3.1 Plan-making issues

The socialist urban planning profession was first established in Vietnam in 1956. After operating for more than 40 years, plan making has been carried out in most big
cities, provinces and residential areas. Members of the planning staff are being trained step by step and becoming capable of making their own master plans and detail plans. These are remarkable new achievements. However, we should also have an objective assessment of the results of past plan making.

_a - Achievements_

The nation's planners have matured enough to perform the tasks given by the Party and State. These specialists were formally trained in the former socialist countries and now are being retrained in many countries in the world with the aim of learning and building plans to meet the development demand of our present multi-sector economy.

Master plans have been compiled for almost every city, province and residential area in the nation and these are being gradually converted into detailed plans. These plans play key roles in urban development management as well as in the organisation of residential areas.

_b- Notable issues in plan making_

Urban planning under the previous system did not take account of basic economic, social, and economic factors. In most planning projects, the expected growth rate was too high, the scale was too modern and/or not in conformity with the investment capital mobilisation capability.

Urban planning still pays too much attention to long-term studies, while basic research is under-funded, and long-term plans and socioeconomic, and technical-scientific strategies have not been worked out yet. Research on the first phase of construction planning and the five-year plan for the construction industry is too simple and incomplete, without the planning documentation to support urban development investment projects.
Urban planning pays very little attention to research on sociological issues and the problems of urban ecology and environment. Urban planning frequently copies foreign concepts and solutions in a mechanical manner, without any analysis, or criticisms of the methodology, content, and normative standard. It often cannot elaborate on the specific rules necessary for Vietnam.

The lack of methods to calculate population size makes it difficult for plans to accord with actual conditions – those of a country that was recently war-torn and faces many difficulties, with a low level of planning.

Although it is well known that a large number of houses are built by citizens themselves, the plan making process tends to only consider the construction of high-rise buildings by the State. That is a serious mistake.

The subdivision of urban areas is still not given careful consideration, thus creating cramped conditions, with new forms of tube house and inadequate green open spaces. On the other hand, urban planning does not pay enough attention to urban spatial planning issues and urban design issues, leading to many difficulties in the implementation stage.

Plans often lack attention to proposals for the redevelopment of degraded urban areas, and there is a lack of participation by the community in the planning process (Dam Trung Phuong, 1996).

In short, during the past decades, we have created a number of beautiful urban visions, but all of them suffered from lack of feasibility and guidelines on development management and control. The majority of planning experts thinks that the plans were set up for the State to implement, not for all economic sectors to take part in. These visions were too optimistic, lacking economic analysis and possibilities for implementation.
There is a need to set up an urban planning framework meeting the State and Party’s objectives, creating favourable conditions for all economic sectors to participate in its implementation and at the same time attracting investors.

Planning divisions as well as an implementation plan must be considered carefully to accord with socioeconomic conditions in the urban areas. After the master plan is drawn, the planning area should be divided for detailed planning research to correspond to natural, socioeconomic development conditions as well as investment attraction capability.

During the planning study process, it is necessary to have public announcements to provide people with information and enable them to discuss and monitor development.

c- Hanoi Master Plans

The Hanoi Master Plan is actually a vision of Hanoi’s future. It is very useful because it shows us the geographical distribution of the development projects and the key traffic lines at present as well as in the future. It also shows the city structure in two-dimensions; but the land use model is very general. Thus, Hanoi Master plan does not help people to fully understand the city’s development and cannot help estimate urban environmental quality in the future.

The Master plan is very useful for planners and other urban planning experts. However, many other people find it difficult to understand and would find it more useful if the map is enclosed with pictures and clear explanations about the expected future of Hanoi.

d - Detailed planning for urban areas

For many years efforts have been made to produce a number of detailed planning drawings for wards, districts, and special areas such as Hoan Kiem Lake, West Lake and streetscapes. All these detailed planning drawings are beautiful pictures for the
city’s future development but will be difficult to implement if not carried out under a centrally planned management mechanism in a country with a powerful economy. It means that despite efforts made in producing detailed planning drawings, they are not in accordance with the present socioeconomic and political conditions of our country, especially in the renovation process. Therefore, planning drawings cannot provide enough information for investors.

If we want to implement these detailed plans, we need to change our view, our way of thinking and doing research and design to make them more suitable, more realistic in the present multi-sector economic mechanism.

The Government will work out urban development policies and strategies and invest in some parts; it is the investors’ task to finish the remaining parts. The main task of planners is to use their planning to transmit the Party and State’s lines and policies into reality and at the same time make it in accordance with investors’ interests.

8.3.2 Urban development management and control issues

In our country, approved planning drawings are usually transferred to local authorities for management and implementation. In reality, State bodies and authorities are responsible for the implementation of approved planning drawings, and this leads to a lack of participation from people and the community in the process. For this reason the urban development management and control issue was not given enough attention in previous decades. It meant that the urban vision was drawn for the State’s benefit, for it to invest in, carry out and implement, and people had to wait for subsidies from the State. In general, there have only been a few approved urban plans implemented, the construction situation is very confused and there are many shortcomings in management.

There are not enough tools for urban development management and control (detailed planning, suitable design models, guidelines, regulations and standard scale, etc.). There is no construction and planning approval process in accordance with the present urban development conditions. There is a shortage of information about
planning and land to help all members of the community understand and follow planning designs. In brief, to make urban development management and control effective and methodical, it is necessary to carry out the following tasks:

- Establish suitable rules to produce planning documentation, especially the detailed planning documents to provide information for investment in urban development.
- Establish a planning staff able to work out high quality and feasible planning documents.
- Together with detailed planning designs, it is important to have a formula system for urban development management and control.
- Establish a simple, clear construction and planning approval process to attract and promote investment in urban development and construction.
- It is necessary to establish strong planning machinery from central to local to meet the demand of urban development and management.

Through this report it is hoped that the authorities from central to local levels will pay more attention to urban development management control issues.

8.3.3 Urban construction management machinery

Many organisations take part in the urban management process but there is no coordinator, leading to overlapping and complex issues in urban development management. The urban management machinery is not uniform from central to local, the staff cannot meet the demands on them, and some organisations are simply not functioning. The evils of red tape, wastage and corruption have become serious and democratic centralism is underdeveloped. There remains overlapping between ministries, branches and departments, and the assignment of missions is not clear.

8.4 Key challenges: a summary

Vietnam has already made substantial steps on the path of Doi Moi and the subsidies of the centralised economic management system no longer exist. A market economy with many economic sectors is in place and being accepted in Vietnam, so that the
old planning methodology, in which only the government can implement development projects, is no longer applicable.

Hanoi is the capital city of Vietnam, a country with a population of 100 million in the 21st century. Hanoi is also the economic, cultural, political, commercial, scientific-technological centre of the nation and will be modernised, meeting the standards of international capital cities. As a capital, Hanoi always receives great attention from the Communist Party, the Government and Vietnamese people and also from friends all over the world, who follow the progress and development of the city. In its planning and urban development, Hanoi over the past 12 years has met with many difficulties and challenges, of which the most notable are set out below.

**Challenges in planning**

Working out of the appropriate planning (Master Planning, Detail Planning and Construction Planning) is nearly impossible. There is little theoretical base and the guidelines have been set up to subdivide planning into small projects and consequently no concrete policy was devised for implementation.

**Challenges in urban finance**

There is a lack of investment capital, particularly for primary infrastructure and infrastructure outside the individual projects boundaries. The most important share of capital was mobilised from the State budget and distributed inadequately, which caused long delays in implementation. Other capital sources, such as private and foreign ones, have not been tapped yet.

**Challenges in mechanisms and policies**

The bureaucratic administrative mechanism cannot meet the demand of urban investment and development in market economy conditions. There is a lack of openness and suitability of policies pertaining to the current investment situation. Policies on compensation, site clearance and resettlement do not meet requirements,
and regulations on mortgage financing and registration of pledged property have not yet been effectively implemented, which is one of the main causes of the loss of foreign investment interest. Current property policies rooted in the old system should be adjusted and transformed into more effective policies directed towards the market mechanism in order to tap the available investment resources for property development.

**Organisational Structure and Administrative formalities**

There are too many state organisations participating in urban development management. Administrative formalities are very complicated at all levels and the apparatus is cumbersome and ineffective, so much as to cause private investors to waste time and to question government policies.

**Challenges in staff capability and capacity**

Limitations in the capabilities of experts (due to the lack of professional training and retraining) in the field of planning and projects management causes difficulties in planning and project implementation.

**Challenges in Population growth**

The population growth rate is high due to uncontrolled migration, and this causes a great deal of pressure on socioeconomic development and living standards in urban areas.
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Annex: Additional Maps
Figure 11. Hanoi Historical Key Map
KIM LIEN MIKRORAYON
(Designed by Vietnamese experts with assistant of Former Soviet Union experts 1957)

Thành phố Hà Nội
TIỂU KHU KIM LIÊN
Tiểu khu nhà ở XHCN đầu tiên
Ứng dụng thiết kế XD ở Việt nam
có sự công tác với chuyên gia Liên xô.
(1957)

1. Trường học Cấp 1
2. Nhà trẻ Mẫu giáo
3. Nhà ăn công cộng
4. Bến xe.
5. Cửa hàng tổng hợp.
6. CLB công cộng
7. Công viên tiểu khu.
8. Nhà cho người già có đơn.

1. Primary school
2. Kindergarten
3. Public restaurant
4. Medicine service point
5. Department store
6. Public Club
7. Park of mikrorayon level
8. Asylum for the aged
Một ví dụ về quy hoạch "duy ý chỉ" "bắt khả thi"
Bộ phận nhóm rộng của Thủ đô Hà Nội được xác định tại Vĩnh Yên cách Thành phố chính (Hà Nội) trên 40 km.
Nguyên : Viện Quy hoạch DT-NT Bộ Xây dựng

Figure 13. General Plan of Hanoi with Extension to Xuan Hoa New Town
- Khu Hà Nội mở rộng
- DƯỠNG PHỐ XUÂN HÒA
- Tiểu khu Quy hoạch thực nghiệm
- XD nhà ở lắp ghép tấm lớn, đầu tư
- đồng bộ, thi công cốt giao hào.


Figure 14. Xuan Hoa New Town – Central Microrayon
Figure 17. Approved Projects in Hanoi (2000)