

Integrated Development Plans and its Sectoral Plans in the optimisation of participatory and integrated spatial planning as transformation tools: A case study of Tlokwe Local Municipality

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PREFACE

This research was conducted at the North West University, Potchefstroom campus under the supervision of Professor C.B. Schoeman from the Faculty of Natural Sciences Department of Regional and Urban Planning. Immense gratitude is rendered to the institution for funding the entire research process.

The research was directed to Tlokwe Local Municipality, which is the local municipality in Potchefstroom. Tlokwe Local Municipality provided enormous assistance from the commencement of the research till the submission of the final product.

I declare that the research work is solely that of the author. On occasions where there was use of other writers, acknowledgements have been made. Furthermore, the research has been presented in the dissertation form following North West University Manual for Postgraduate Studies.

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“Give thanks to the Lord, for he is good, his love endures forever”.

Psalm 136:1

ABSTRACT

South African cities' fragmented spatial system can be traced back to apartheid 21 years ago. It was after democracy in 1994, that the central government which came into power instigated policies, guidelines and legislations with the major aim to rectify the disorientation of city systems. The legal frameworks focussed on achieving transformation through integration and participatory planning consequently producing quality service delivery. It is against this background that the IDP was formulated.

The IDP is a comprehensive strategic planning instrument which is used to effectuate service delivery. However, ever since the adoption of the IDP in local municipalities, the plan making process has been tendered to consultancy firms due to insufficient capacity. This has posed challenges as there has been creation of habitual documents which lack innovation. This questions the authenticity of the planning system as well as whether the missing links which aid total service delivery is worsening due to the plan making itself. In addition, the study observes that in as much as emphasis on quality service delivery has been placed in local municipalities, public protests have been increasing over the years. This raises questions with regard to the major role of public participation which is now modelled in the spirit of contestation and protestation. The major question is whether this strand of public participation is shaping cities for better or the worse? This particular research placed attention on Tlokwe Local Municipality (TLM) as the study area in order to review performance in achieving goals for integration in aiding spatial transformations using the scorecard method. The research came up with a scorecard which used ranking units to assess the quality of service provision and achievement of IDP goals. From the scorecard, the study concludes that TLM is generally performing better compared to municipalities such as Matlosana Local Municipality (MLM) though there has been a decline in performance to meet some other IDP goals and objectives. Furthermore, through interviews and questionnaires, the study exposed that with regard to structures that have been put in place for participation; the system is not effective enough in meeting the goals and objectives which address the needs of the people. Additionally, the research revealed that the institutional interface which exists amongst the three tiers of the government have been failing to a larger extent to ensure integration among sector plans and across the government entities. This has stifled development and has become time consuming for different role players in development.

Therefore the research recommends innovative measures in the plan making and implementation of the IDP if service delivery is to be effective and efficient. Moreover, the study suggests an overhaul of skills in municipalities so as to engage personnel with specialised skills

for the special entities in development. Furthermore, the study proposes effective use of scorecards to assess progress in achieving set target as per level of government.

Key words: Integrated Development Plan, performance measurement, public participation, spatial planning and sectoral plans.

OPSOMMING

Die gefragmenteerde aard van Suid Afrikaanse stede kan terug gespoor word na die Apartheid tydperk 21 jaar gelede. Na die demokratiese verkiesing van 1994 het die sentrale regering wat aan bewind gekom het, wetgewing, riglyne en regulasies in plek gestel om die wanorde in stedelike sisteme reg te stel. Die beleid, wetgewing en riglyne het gefokus op transformasie deur integrasie en deelnemende beplanning wat moes lei tot kwaliteit dienslewering. Teen hierdie agtergrond is die Ge-integreerde Ontwikkelingsplanne (GOP'e of IDPs) geformuleer.

Die GOP'e is 'n omvattende strategiese beplanningsinstrument wat gebruik word om dienslewering meer effektief te rig en te verseker. Alhoewel hierdie instrument ontwikkel is vir plaaslike munisipaliteite, word die beplanningsproses uitgekonnekteer aan konsultant firmas as gevolg van ontbrekende kapasiteit. Hierdie implementering het uitdagings tot gevolg in die vorm van generiese dokumente wat 'n gebrek aan innovasie vertoon. Dus word die oorspronklikheid van die beplanningsproses bevraagteken asook die ontbrekende komponente wat bydra tot totale verswakte dienslewering as gevolg van die gebrekkige beplanningsproses. Die studie het getoon dat baie klem geplaas word op diensleweringkwaliteit wat binne die plaaslike bestuursdomein val en dit het gelei tot 'n toename in openbare protes in bepaalde gemeenskappe. Daarom word die rol van gemeenskapsdeelname bevraagteken wat lei tot verhoë en optogte deur die gemeenskap en gerig teen munisipaliteite. Hierdie praktyk en/of verskynsel lei tot die vraag of publieke deelname stedelike omgewings verbeter of verswak? Hierdie spesifieke navorsing fokus op Tlokwe Plaaslike Munisipaliteit as studiegebied ter bereiking van doelwitte vir integrasie wat ruimtelike transformasie bevorder deur die toepassing van die telkaart metode en tegniek. Met die navorsing is 'n telkaartegniek ontwikkel wat rangorde en eenhede aanwend om kwaliteit van diensvoorsiening en bereiking van GOP doelwitte te assesser en te meet. Op grond van die telkaart word die afleiding gemaak dat Tlokwe Plaaslike Munisipaliteit beter vaar in vergelying met mededingende Munisipaliteite soos Matlosana, alhoewel daar 'n afname was in die aflewering van ander IDP doelwitte. Verder is daar vasgestel deur onderhoude en vraelyste dat die sisteem nie effektief genoeg funksioneer om die geformuleerde doelwitte te bereik nie desnieteenstaande dat talle strukture reeds in plek geplaas is. Verder het die navorsing bevind dat institusionele intervensie, wat bestaan in drie afdelings van munisipaliteite nie daarin slaag om integrasie in beplanning en binne die munisipaliteit as 'n entiteit te verseker, nie. As gevolg hiervan het ontwikkeling begin afneem en het dit ook baie tydrowend begin raak vir die verskillende rolspelers wat in die proses van ontwikkeling betrokke is.

Op grond van die navorsing word voorgestel dat innoverende maatstawwe in beplanning gebruik word en die implementering van die GOP sodanig te rig dat dit dienslewering sal

bevorder ten einde meer effektief en doelgerig te wees. Verder stel die studie voor dat 'n opknapping van vaardighede in munisipaliteite wat prosesse en beplanningsinstrumente betref ingestel word om personeel met gespesialiseerde vaardighede toe te rus ten einde meer effektiewe en gefokusde entiteite vir ontwikkeling daargestel word. Die navorsing het ook bevind dat die effektiewe gebruik van telkaarte om prestasie te assessee en te evalueer ingestel word om doelwitbereiking binne elke afdeling/departement van die studiegebied spesifiek en munisipaliteite in die algemeen te bevorder.

Sleutel woorde: Integreerende Ontwikkelings Plan (GOP), prestasie maatstawwe, publieke deelname, ruimtelike beplanning en sektor planne.

ACRONYMS

AHP	Analytical Hierarchy Process
ANC	African National Congress
BNG	Breaking New Ground
BNGCP	Breaking New Ground Comprehensive Plan
BSC	Balanced Scorecard
CBA	Cost Benefit Analysis
CBD	Central Business District
CEA	Cost Effective Analysis
CEMAT	Council of European Conference of Ministers Responsible for Spatial/ Regional Planning
COGTA	Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs
COSATU	Congress of the South African Trade Unions
CSIR	Council for Scientific Industrial Research
DBSA	Development Bank of Southern Africa
DFA	Development Facilitations Act
DoT	Department of Transport
DPLG	Department of Local Government
DRDLR	Department of Rural Development and Land Reform
EMF	Environmental Management Framework
EMP	Environmental Management Plan
GAM	Goal Assessment Matrix
HDA	Housing Development Agency
HSP	Housing Sector Plan
IDP	Integrated Development Plan
ITP	Integrated Transport Plan
IUDF	Integrated Urban Development Framework
KPI	Key Performance Indicator
LGTA	Local Government and Traditional Affairs

LSDF	Local Spatial Development Framework
MCA	Multi-Criteria Analysis
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MLM	Matlosana Local Municipality
MSA	Municipal Systems Act
MTSF	Medium Term Strategic Framework
NATMAP	National Transportation Master Plan
NDP	National Development Plan
NPC	National Planning Commission
NSDF	National Spatial Development Framework
NSDP	National Spatial Development Perspective
PGDS	Provincial Growth and Development Strategy
PSDF	Provincial Spatial Development Framework
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SDBIP	Service Delivery Budget and Implementation Plan
SDF	Spatial Development Framework
SPLUMA	Spatial Land Use Management Act
TLM	Tlokwe Local Municipality
TQM	Total Quality Management
UN	United Nations
WPD LG	White Paper Document on Local Government

GLOSSARY

Glossary	Description
Balanced Scorecard	Tool designed to assess performance of an organisation in achieving goals and objectives.
Breaking New Ground	Comprehensive plan for housing delivery. Its vision is to promote the achievement of non-racial integrated societies through quality housing provision.
Cost Benefit Analysis	Approach of weighing strengths and weaknesses of alternatives (usually conducted in monetary terms).
Cost Effectiveness Analysis	Compares the cost and outcomes of alternatives.
Dolomite	Carbon rock type which dissolves very slowly with water leading to subsurface cavities then sinkholes.
Environmental Management Framework	Legal instrument in terms of the Environmental Management Framework Regulations 2010.
Goal Assessment Matrix	Uses specific goals and demonstrates the progress towards achieving the goals.
Housing Sector Plan	5 year plan adopted by municipalities in relation to the IDP dealing with all housing issues.
Integrated Development Plan	Strategic 5 year plan developed by local municipalities to give overall framework for the development needs of the municipality.
Integrated Transport Planning	Comprehensive analysis of strategies employed to integrate land use and transport.
Integrated Urban Development Framework	It sets out a policy framework to guide development addressing the conditions and challenges being faced by SA towns and cities.
Key Performance Indicator	One of the performance measuring tools used to assess progress within an organisation.
Local Economic Development	Participatory process which brings out people from all sectors to work together to stimulate activity resulting in a resilient and sustainable economy.
Millennium Development Goals	Eight global goals which have time bound and quantified targets for guiding development. They were established in year 2000 after the United Nations Millennium Summit where all 191 UN member states agreed to achieve by 2015.
Multi-Criteria Analysis	Method used to address complex problems in decision making by identifying and choosing alternatives. It is based on alternative evaluations.

National Development Plan	A plan for the whole of SA to reduce poverty and inequality by 2030.
National Spatial Development Framework	Policy framework for sustainable and equitable planning around national priorities.
Provincial Spatial Development Framework	Framework in alignment with the (NSDP). It gives spatial interpretation of provincial growths to guide future land use and development.
Service Delivery Budget Implementation Plan	Gives details on the implementation of services and budget for a given financial year.
Spatial Development Framework	Framework illustrating spatial strategies for development. Gives detailed plan for future developments.
Spatial Land use Management Act	Provides a framework for spatial planning and land use. SPLUMA is a tool put forward to effectuate spatial transformations.
Spatial transformations	Major urban change.
Sustainable development	Development that meets the present needs without compromising the future.

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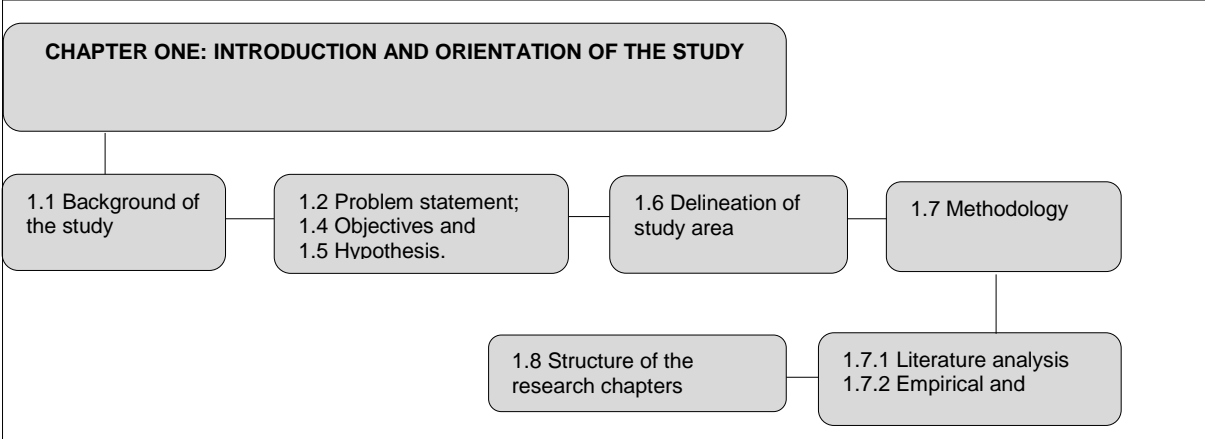
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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION AND ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

The content of chapter one is graphically as follows:



1.1 Background

The formation and development of South African cities has been shaped by apartheid planning which can be defined as a system of state enforced racial segregation and socio-economic discrimination (Davids, 2008:462). According to Todes (2008:9) apartheid planning left cities and towns racially unequal with regard to land ownership, wealth, income distribution, access to jobs, social services and utilities. However, during the transition phase from the white minority rule, in the early 1990s, it became a decree of the government to redress the colonial legacies (DeVisser, 2009:9). Subsequently, policies and legislation fragments with varying success stories related to human settlement and spatial planning have been sought in order to give South Africa a new face.

One of the predominant policies that the South African government embraced during the transition era in 1994 includes the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP). The RDP can be defined as an integrated programme which forms the basis of the political, social and economic transformation (O'Mailley, 1994). According to Wessels (1999:235) the RDP gives the platform for building the nation, linking reconstruction and development, and deepening democracy. The major aim of the policy is to initiate integration and sustainability through people driven processes, providing peace, security for all and also eliminating all historical divisions of society (African National Congress, 1994). It is upon the basis of the RDP that other policies were formed. The overall aims of the policies are the elimination of inequality, final eradication of apartheid and embracing of integration. It can be noted that the national priorities were mainly centred on promoting issues of democracy and a non-racial and non-sexist future.

It is upon the above mentioned major objectives that the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) was formulated. Integrated Development Planning is “a process by which a municipality establishes a plan for the short and medium term taking into account the current situation, community needs, setting of goals to meet the priority needs, implementation of programmes which meet the needs and lastly make provision for performance monitoring,” (Development Bank of Southern Africa, 1997:30). The IDP came into play as an efficient and effective instrument with the major thrust to integrate development and address all the spatial challenges and dynamics which other policies and legislations could not fully rectify.

In support, the White Paper Document on Local Government (WPDLG, 2002:5) purports that the IDP is a powerful tool to integrate planning, budgeting and performance management in such a way that each municipality has to operate with it. This in itself makes the plan cumbersome. As a result, the IDP has been divided into sectoral plans to enable easier prioritisation, transparency, efficiency, coordination and achievement of goals at departmental levels. The WPDLG (2002) further outlines the key performance management indicators for the IDP and its sectoral plans in which public participation is the dominant key performance gauge.

In each municipality in South Africa, the IDP and its sectoral plans provide participatory platforms in developmental aspects. Bass (2005:iv) defines public participation as a two-way process whereby there is an interactive exchange of proposals, agenda setting, agreed positions on proposals and impacts of each proposal between the proponent and the public. However, community attempts to engage in such constructive participation in these developmental initiatives, according to Buccus and Hicks (2007:98) has in most cases resulted in tension between the proposed structures and scope of committees over issues of inadequate representation and accountability.

Nevertheless, Pieterse (2007:17) has argued that in South Africa, tensions and misunderstandings of stakeholders accrue due to the fact that IDPs have been problematic for being mere shopping lists, instead of being frameworks and strategic long-term visions for spatial equity. This implies that the IDP and its sectoral plans are just theoretical documents which do not address the main aims and objectives of their existence. Harrison (2001:202) concurs with this view and comes up with numerous key areas of concern the main one being the participatory process which is rather minimal for the firm control over it by local council rather than the community as evidenced by the representative nature of the participatory structure of the IDP itself.

Theron (2005:60) gave the concept of the building block process of social learning which encompasses capacity building, empowerment, sustainability and self-reliance. The basis of the

argument authenticates that public engagement in the IDP has been placed as an instrument to stronghold the performance managements system of the IDP.

The Municipal Structures Act (117 of 1998) in Chapter 4, from sections 73-78, clearly states that the local municipalities should have ward committees, which are the machineries used as the voice of the voiceless in decision making. However, the IDP steering committees comprise only of officials and councillors, with the exclusion of the representatives of community structures, thereby not necessarily giving room for individual contributions in making decisions. Therefore, Theron (2005:45) opines that it is unclear whether the IDP and its sectoral plans' performance management systems interact with the community and listen, whether it is the fact that municipalities ignore the inputs of the communities during the implementation phases of the plans, or whether it is the plan making itself which needs to be revisited.

This came after the realisation that there is now a recurring form of participation shaped by protest and therefore not smart, thereby posing questions to the whole system. In the Majakanenge area of the North West Province, violent service delivery protests have been reported where about 400 protestors from the village complained viciously about water and electricity (Gallo, 2015). In 2014, it was also reported that residents demanded better service delivery and ended up torching a cement truck. Similar reports have been made in the Limpopo province in Malamulele where residents burnt down an administrative block because they demanded to have their own municipality (Zwane, 2015). The intensity of the protests has led to extremely violent attacks during the actions.

Clearly this means that residents are resorting to violent protests as the only way to be heard and obtain quality service delivery. Currently, it has proven to be effective as grievances and contributions are presented in the contests. This means that public participation today is identified with protestation and contestation for efficient service delivery. The major questions are: do the protests and contests shape cities for better or worse? Is this form of public participation in agreement with integrated development planning requirements of public participation and service delivery?

With reference to TLM, the IDP and sectoral plans, namely the ITP (Integrated Transport Plan), the SDF (Spatial Development Framework) and the HSP (Housing Sector Plan) have been adopted since the year 2000. The major operating system involves the integration and alignment of all the sectoral plans to achieve IDP goals and objectives. However, various performance management skills have been instigated in the municipality to measure achievement of goals in each sectoral plan. These include quarterly assessments, setting up of capital monitoring teams and operational plans. However, the extent to which the IDP and its sectoral plans have been integrated as well as informed and influenced by the community is

unclear. This follows from the apprehension arising out of the realisation that, in as much as the performance management indicators are set in achieving total participation to aid integration and full democracy, there are reflections of inefficiency and ineffective operation systems in the municipality. This is revealed through poor quality service delivery. With the establishment of the IDP as vehicles for service delivery, more questions arise as to whether the adoption of the IDP and its sectoral plans in municipalities is due to compliance.

Therefore, it is imperative to carry out the study on the relationship between IDPs and its sectoral plans, highlighting how fully integration and participatory planning processes can aid in assessing progress for the set targets, with a focus on what has been done in the field of spatial planning. Furthermore, the study is vital to evaluate the effectiveness of mechanisms and frameworks in participation that have been designed and used to facilitate local development through the IDP and its sectoral plans.

1.2 Problem statement and substantiation

Legislation and policies such as the RDP (1994), SPLUMA (2013), Municipal Structures Act (1998) and Municipal Systems Act (2000) have been put forward as empowering tools to provide for avenues to assist public involvement in municipal planning, budgeting, service delivery, and performance evaluation through the IDP (Theron, 2005:45). However, since the adoption of the IDP by TLM in the year 2000, the municipality has relied mostly on consultancy firms in the formulation and implementation of the strategic plans. Yet, consultancy alone is not effective in adequately engaging communities in integrated development planning. The Municipal Systems Act, (32 of 2000) advocates that participatory processes have to be community driven and fully capacitating for communities. However, it is observed that communities are not fully engaging in developmental issues. Furthermore, the formal participation provisions are not being effectively operational as public protests have increased in number and frequency over the years and have become the common way to contribute views on developmental issues. This raises questions as to the missing attributes in participatory planning, the gap between participatory approaches and frameworks and whether it is rather an issue of power, and politics in the plan making and implementation stages. Thus, the research attempts to give an analysis on the IDP and its sectoral plans focusing on how well the strategic plans are consolidating public knowledge and priorities to promote development and spatial transformations in TLM.

1.3 Research aim

The research aims to analyse public participation in line with the IDP and its sectoral plans highlighting the level of performance in achieving integration and spatial transformations in cities.

1.4 Objectives of the study

The specific objectives of this study are to;

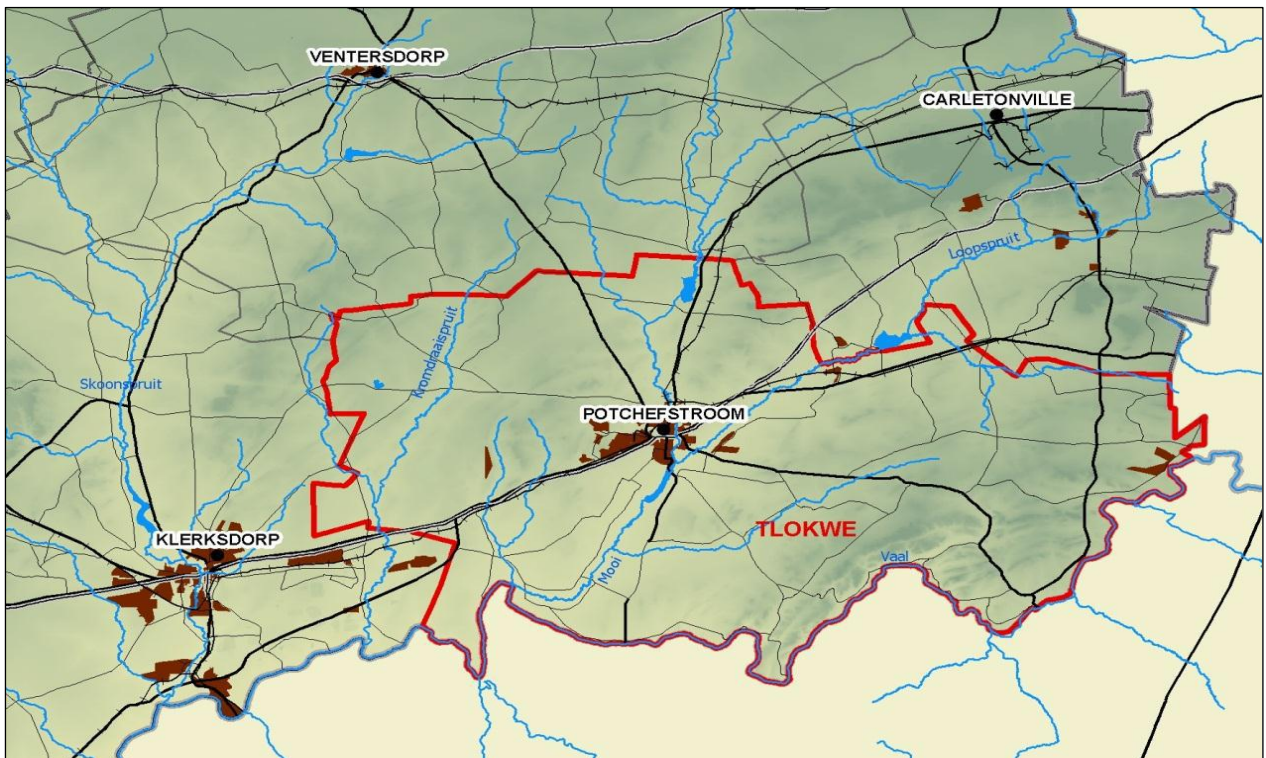
- (i) Examine policies and legislation applied in the IDP and its sectoral plans in Tlokwe Local Municipality.
- (ii) Evaluate sectoral plans highlighting how they support each other to encourage integrated development in Tlokwe Local Municipality.
- (iii) Assess the procedures, mechanisms and participatory structures adopted in engaging role players in the IDP and its sectoral plans.
- (iv) Develop a scorecard as a performance measurement tool.
- (v) Propose guideline/guidelines for optimal integration to aid spatial transformations in the Tlokwe Local Municipality.

1.5 Basic hypothesis

- The study is based on the hypothesis that; public participation is a basic need for development and quality service delivery; and therefore that:
- IDPs require involvement of all stakeholders in order to achieve their goals and objectives.

1.6 Delineation of the study area

According to the Local Government year book (2014:241) TLM is situated on the N12 route which connects Johannesburg and Cape Town via the city of Kimberley. The main railway route from Gauteng to the Northern and Western Cape also runs through the municipality's main city, Potchefstroom. The municipality covers an area of 2 674km². Between 2011 and 2012 the population was 162 762 with 52 537 households. During this period the population growth was rated at 2.38% per annum (Local Government year book, 2014). The municipality is divided into 24 wards with 10 residential areas.



Map 1.1: Location of Tlokwe Local Municipality

Source: Tlokwe Draft Integrated Development Plan (2014:3).

1.7 Research method of investigation

1.7.1 Literature analysis

The study constitutes of two phases, namely literature analysis and empirical study. Basically, the literature comprises of gathered data compiled from various sources necessitating an analysis of appropriate theories, concepts, and agendas, applicable to the research and focusing on applicable texts, journals, articles and internet sources germane to the subject matter.

This research comprehends different views of various academics and experts from various fields applicable to the study. Focus is mainly directed to spatial analysis as there are various academics who have given theories on different spatial forms and dynamics.

1.7.2 Empirical study

Various policy and legislative documents have also been referred to during the course of this research to provide the legal framework for the subject at hand. This includes documents from government departments such as the Department of Human Settlements (DoHS), the Department of Provincial and Local Government (DPLG) as well as legal instruments binding and guiding development.

The research design is a case study approach. According to Gerring (2004:341), a case study approach is an intensive study of a single unit for the purpose of understanding a larger class of (similar) units. In this context, TLM has been the area under study for the convenience of limiting research costs. Furthermore, TLM is also appropriate in terms of reviewing and coming up with accurate results for other municipalities with regards to successes and failures that the municipality has been engaging in different developmental projects. The figure below shows the particular data collection methods.

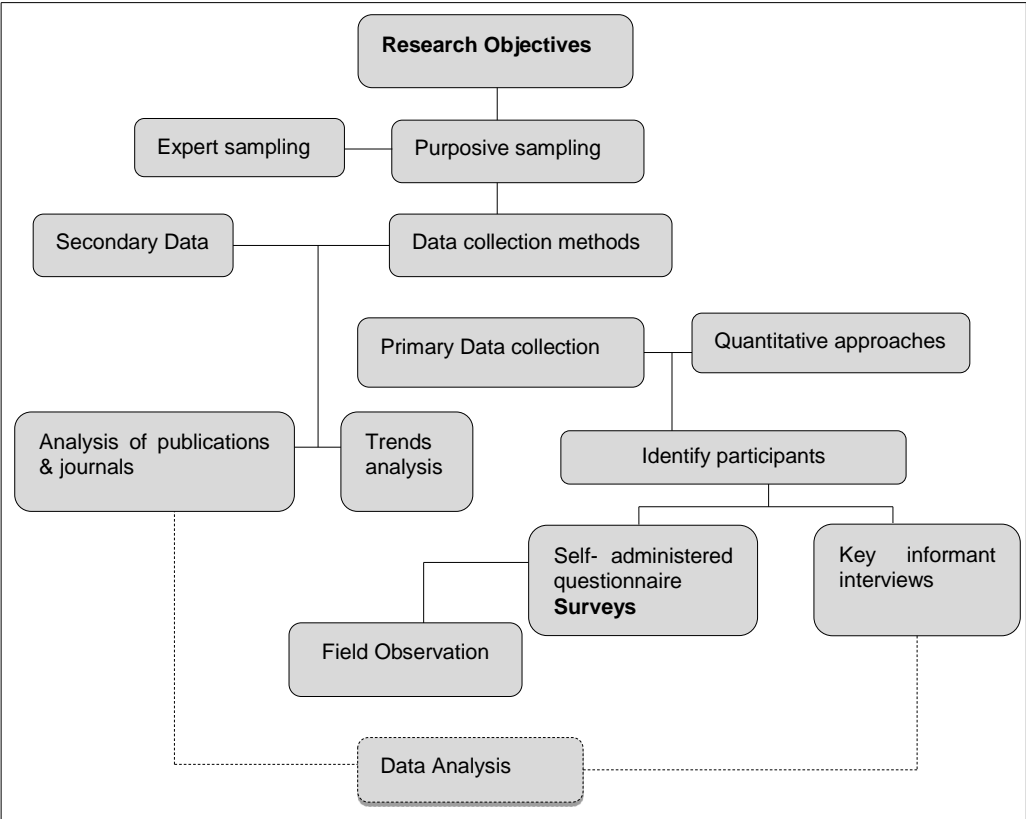


Figure 1.1: Data collection methods

Source: Own Construction (2015).

Figure 1.1 above shows the graphical summary of the procedure, methods and techniques used to gather the data. The research structure entails triangulation, defined by Trochim (2006) as a mixture of different methods in data collection. This encompasses the use of both qualitative and quantitative techniques basing on expert and purposive sampling methods for the purposes of accuracy and relevancy. As such, the research is built upon previous researches, for purposes of analysing trends in the provision of services, public participation and municipality responses. The research developed a scorecard showing how well TLM has been performing in the implementation of developmental projects.

In order to achieve the research objectives, key informant interviews and field observation, were predominant, so as to obtain information for the assessment of delineating challenges and shortcomings. Additionally, self-administered questionnaires directed to the public, which comprised a series of open ended and closed questions to acquire additional information, were presented. The research findings were integrated for data analysis. Conclusions were drawn from the research findings and lastly, recommendations were also given based on improving integration in order to facilitate transformation.

During the course of data collection, the researcher faced language barriers due to lack of knowledge on the native languages. However, a translator was appointed in order to assist in delimiting the effect.

1.8 Chapter divisions of the study

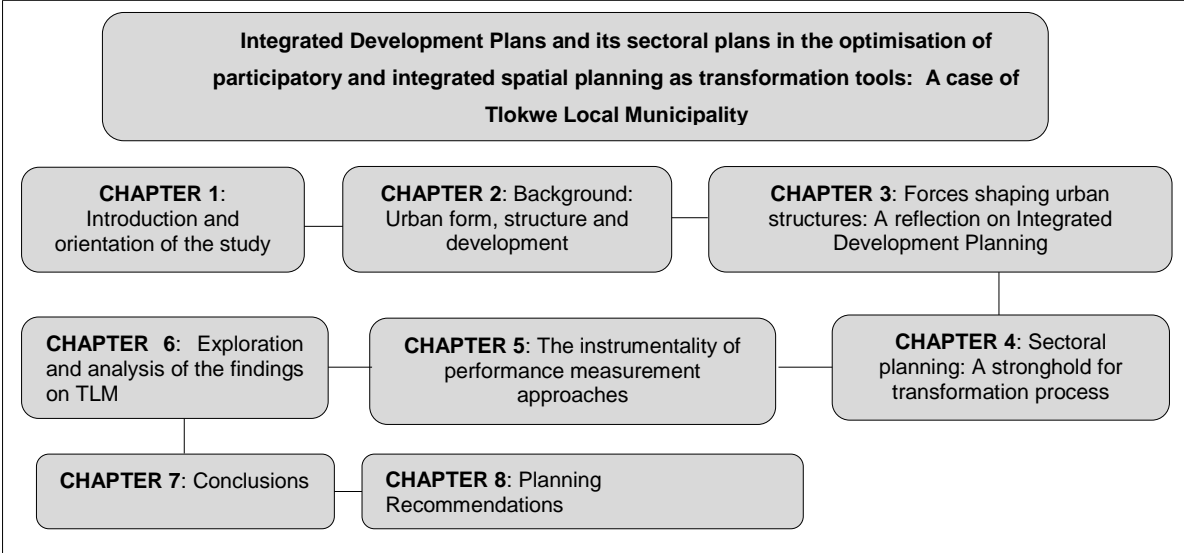


Figure 1.2: Chapter divisions

Source: Own Construction (2015).

Chapter 2 provides the background, which includes theories of urban form and structure in spatial planning. It is basically an analysis of cities growth and the models associated with different designs in city space.

Chapter 3 is an overview of the definitions of integrated development planning. Furthermore, the chapter addresses policy frameworks that have substantial contributions to integrated development. This chapter also provides a description of the current situation of the practicalities of integrated development in South Africa.

Chapter 4 focuses mainly on the HSP, ITP and SDF. It gives attention to spatial planning which is strongly linked with the IDP in the reshaping of cities. The relationship between spatial

transformations and each sectoral plan is established in this chapter to provide the basis for integrating development and promoting transformation by each sector in the IDP.

Chapter 5 provides and illustrates the performance instruments that can be used by local municipalities to measure progress in achieving municipal goals and objectives. This chapter also interprets how transformations and integrations have been used fully to aid development with a focus on previous reported performances.

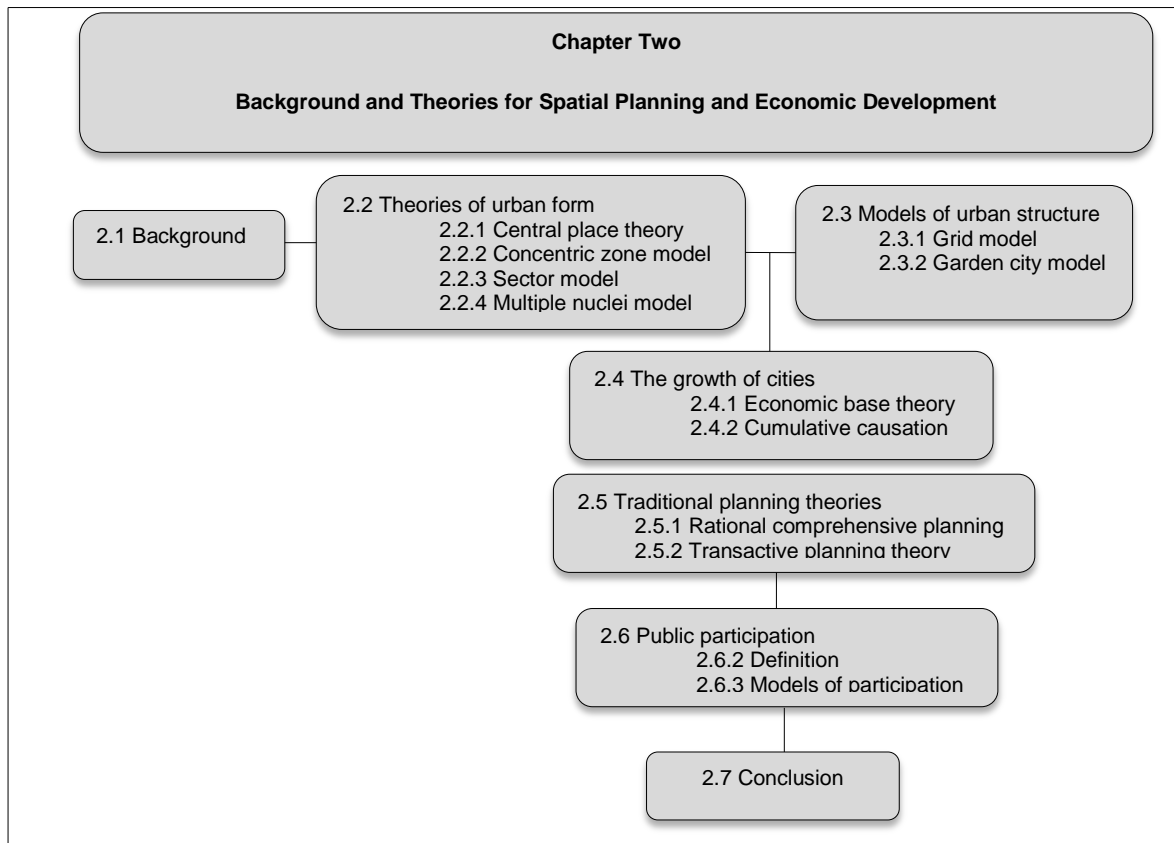
Chapter 6 constitutes the findings from TLM. It also encompasses an interpretation on how well public engagement has influenced decision making in the plan making and implementation of planning policies. The chapter also assesses the performance of TLM using the scorecard, followed by an analysis of the results.

In Chapter 7, conclusions are drawn bringing out a summary of the assessments and observations that were made throughout this research as well as the conclusions drawn from the empirical study.

Based on the results obtained after conducting the research, Chapter 8 provides the planning recommendations applicable to the research.

CHAPTER TWO: BACKGROUND: URBAN FORM, STRUCTURE AND DEVELOPMENT

The following is a graphical summary of the contents of Chapter two:



2.1 Background

The focus of this chapter is on urban form and structure. In order to explain the patterns of city growth and development, an understanding of the historical background of city systems is necessary. In most instances, the distribution of land use activities within urban boundaries is as a result of, or influenced by, historical developments in space. Numerous scholars have come up with different models of urban spaces which try to explain and give authentic reasoning for the growth and development of urban structures.

According to Gillen, (2006:477) urban form can be defined as the configuration and spatial characteristics of cities, their nature and density. Therefore, it can be deduced that urban form may be identified by the difference in sizes, shapes and intensity of the urban settlements and spatial organisation from the differences in the types of land (Bramely and Kirk, 2005:355). Different approaches can be used to understand urban form. In this context, theories and models will be used to investigate how cities develop and grow.

A model is used to provide a framework to understand action, in other words, it uses what has been done to create a new example of practise (Checkoway, 1986:46). Since models give and answer to the manner in which cities and towns come to be, it is necessary to analyse land use and space models that reflect on the early experiences of growth and development that are useful in finding options for steering development.

According to Cherry (2014) theory is also a mechanism for finding direction by informing and detecting what happens in practise thereby becoming necessary to analyse. Theory comes into play as a starting point for analysis.

2.2 Theories of urban form

2.2.1 Central place theory

One of the significant and early writers in city development was Walter Christaller (1966) who put forward the central place theory in explaining the emergence of towns. Basically, the central place theory is a geographical theory that seeks to explain the number, size and location of human settlements in an urban system (Rahman, 2014).

According to Preston (2009:7) in developing the central place theory, the following assumptions are made:

- An unbounded isotropic (all flat), homogeneous, limitless surface (abstract space);
- An evenly distributed population;
- All settlements are equidistant and exist in a triangular lattice pattern, are evenly distributed;
- Resources distance decay mechanism;
- Perfect competition and all sellers are economic people maximizing their profits;
- Consumers are of the same income level and same shopping behaviour;
- All consumers have a similar purchasing power and demand for goods and services;
- Consumers visit the nearest central places that provide the function which they demand, minimising the distance to be travelled.; and
- No provider of goods or services is able to earn excess profit (each supplier has a monopoly over a hinterland).

Referring to Harris (1970:126) the result of the consumer preferences is that a system of centres of various sizes emerges with each centre supplying particular types of goods forming levels of a hierarchy:

- The larger the settlements are in size, the fewer in number they will be, that is; there are many small villages, but few large cities.
- The larger the settlements grow in size, the greater the distance between them, that is; villages are usually found close together, while cities are spaced much further apart.
- As a settlement increases in size, the range and number of its functions will increase.
- As a settlement increases in size, the number of higher-order services will also increase, that is a greater degree of specialization occurs in the services.
- The higher the order of the goods and services (more durable, valuable and variable), the larger the ranges of the goods and services, the longer the distance people are willing to travel to acquire them (Preston, 1983:9).

This central place theory clearly gives a description and historical perspective of the spatial pattern of urbanization. Furthermore, it can be acknowledged that the theory explains the reasons behind a hierarchy of urban centres. According to Heilbrun (1979:497) a hierarchy is a systematic arrangement of classes found in a certain item. In this case the objects are economic centres, be they large and small. The central place hierarchy provides a description of the relationship between a central place which is referred to as a higher order place and its tributary areas known as lower order places (Quazi, 2011:45).

Putting it into context, at the base of the hierarchy pyramid is the local or municipal level where there is selling of low order goods. These goods and services include small retail shops or grocery stores. The centres are small and act as assemblies for local produce. Services which can be provided at the local level include for instance, primary and secondary schools. These services call for the need to plan and enhance service provision at different levels, through the even distribution of services over an area, during the designing of city plans. A study of the population base of the local area (threshold) can easily distinguish the number of primary schools or clinics needed to service the area.

Correspondingly, it can be deduced that the demographics that are made possible by the threshold population, are important, if, development is to be for the people. This implies that, where the threshold population and range, prediction and forecasting techniques can be employed to predict future infrastructure requirements for a specific locality. This is important if

all aspects of spatial planning are to be met, that is, promoting health, safety, order, convenience as well as efficiency in transportation.

An analysis of the Christaller model is also applicable when analysing growth and development in regional contexts. The definition of a region is complex because it depends on a preferred choice of its description or on the manner in which it is described. In this instance, regions are defined as centres that cater for more people and offer more specialised services that are the higher order goods (Shonkwiler, 1996:617). For instance, cities such as Johannesburg can be defined as regions because the high order goods are found at the core of the region, and, such centres grow progressively with their size determined by their degree of specialisation. This clearly links to the core periphery theory whereby the core develops more and intensively than the periphery and the developments at the core influence whatever happens at the periphery. People travel to obtain the goods, services and due to the larger sphere of influence the centre tends to grow faster than the smaller centres.

Furthermore, the central place theory gives the aspect of internal functional integration whereby labour, capital and commodity flows take place predominately at a central place, within a single point, node with a dominant role over the marginal or surrounding areas (Shonkwiler, 1996:625). This gives clear background for regional analysis and broadens the aspects of regional dependences.

According to Hoover and Giarratani (1985:234) the central place theory clearly describes the location of trade and service activity highlighting best consumer market oriented manufacturing. Small town community economic developers can secure quite specific, relevant information about the kind of trade or service enterprise that may work, and the kind of enterprise that may not work in a given small community.

Thus, the central place theory is a way to help predict how cities grow and develop through aspects of threshold and range, bearing in mind that the process that culminates in the final plans is strongly hinged on the study of existing conditions in the area to be planned for (Baskin, 2007).

However, after carefully studying and analysing these central places, it becomes apparent that central places or regions vary in terms of nature, complexity and magnitude of problems (Schaffer, 1999:23-28). An understanding that the world is a system over space and time, leads to an understanding of the reasons for the planning of central places as mutually related phenomena. This further suggests that if one central place is neglected then negative spill over effects will trickle down to nearby central places, making the effort of reducing imbalances irrelevant.

This is all the more so because of the local variability in natural conditions, the transport network and functions of central places, the sizes of regions and the services they offer that are different, and, through the concept of comparative advantage some tend to offer high order goods or services and some offer lower order goods or services (Duranton, 2002:534).

Of further interest is the phenomenon that, some central places have locations that are conducive for them to cater for more people and offer more specialised services than the others. Such settlements tend to grow progressively larger and, depending on the degree of specialisation, the central places will produce various types of sub centres with populations and zones of interest. Most countries have developed in this manner through inflator migratory trends (Quazi, 2010:47). Due to this, it becomes easier to identify vibrant regions and the manner in which they can induce growth in other sectors or regions through trickle down effects.

Skinner (1977:780) applied the central place theory to Sichuan Basin of China in 1977, and found that it was applicable to certain regions for explaining some rules of spatial allocation as observed within certain places. The research of spatial organization in China focused on the application of basic theories or techniques, and central place theory was applied successfully combined with other quantitative technology adopted in practice (Zhang, Chen and Fan 2005).

However, the application of the central place theory in practise has been criticised for being properly applicable in rural areas alone (Hottes, 1983:2). Therefore it cannot be applicable to all settlements as it does not take into account the random historical events which cause regional imbalances. Moreover, Curtis and Lipsey (1982:70) propound that the theory makes unrealistic assumptions about the information levels required to make rational economic decisions. The theory ignores the variety of individual circumstances. One of the major criticisms put forward by Bunge (1962:45) is that it assumes very little governmental influence on the business location and decisions, and it is a static formulation that relates to the distribution of service centres in one point in time.

In as much as the central place theory explains most of the cities' hierarchy and development, there are other models which have been put forward which also have a direct bearing to the history, and are used to inform decision making in the land use development of towns today.

2.2.2 Concentric zone model

The model was created by E.W Burgess, Robert Park and Roderick Mckenzie in 1923. The model shows the internal structure of cities whereby social groups are spatially arranged in rings. The model was originally developed in Chicago. Basically, the concentric zone model is about a set of concentric rings where each ring represents a different land use, as shown by Figure 2.1 below.

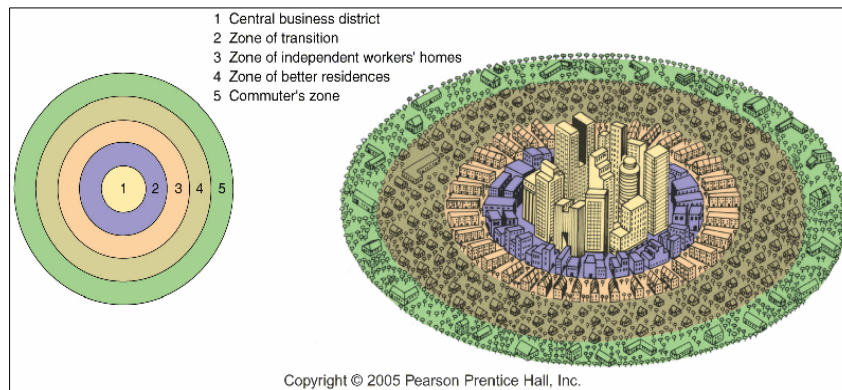


Figure 2.1: Concentric zone model

Source: Cities and Land Uses (2008).

The zones identified include:

1. The centre, that is, the CBD.
2. The transition zone of mixed residential and commercial uses.
3. Low-class residential homes (inner suburbs), in later decades called inner city.
4. Better quality middle-class homes (outer suburbs).
5. Commuters zone.

From the model, there is a correlation between the distance from the CBD and the level of incomes. Wealthier families tend to reside much further away from the CBD. As the city grows, the CBD tend to expand outwards, forcing the other rings to expand outwards as well.

The model is that of Chicago's spatial form with regards to the usage of zones around the city. These zones radiate from the centre of Chicago which is referred to as the loop, and moves concentrically outward (Lewinnek, 2010:198). Using the example of Chicago, there are five designated different zones that have separate functions spatially. The first zone is the loop, the second zone is the belt of factories that are directly outside of the loop, the third zone includes homes of labourers who work at the factories, the fourth zone contains middle-class residences, and the fifth and final zone hugs the first four zones and contains the homes of the suburban upper class (Lewinnek, 2010). However, the spatial form of Chicago no longer resembles the model of Burgess.

In reality, we find ring segments where different land uses and segmentations of population are determined by socio-economic factors. In most instances, high income groups are settled in the upwind side of the city while low income groups reside at the downwind direction where

industrial effects are experienced (Peterson, 2004:13). According to Bunyi (2010:1) today, Indianapolis is a good example illustrating the application of the concentric zone model because people tend to rent closer to the CBD than away.

However, according to Harvey (1996:5) for each concentric zone that exists, the concentric rings rarely link up to form a complete ring around the city centre in the real urban world. The model has been accused of overlooking the importance of topography and transport systems on urban spatial form (Torrens, 2000). For instance, intervening barriers, such as old industrial centres, may prevent completion of the arc.

According to Marshal (1998:140) the concentric zone model was the first model to give an explanation for the distribution of social groups within urban areas. However, Deak (1985:45) argues that Burgess was a sociologist whose emphasis was directed more to social class and ethnic factors in determining residential land use and not on other land uses.

Furthermore, it can be argued that no model is perfect since it is a simplification and generalisation of reality. Nevertheless, Burgess' model depicts the picture of North American cities, and looking in the recent past, clarifies some of the factors that determine the structure of these cities. Undeniably, social class and race are the major factors in the growth of many cities and continue to be major issues in certain cities.

According to Rodrigue (1998) the concentric model assumes a spatial separation of place of work and place of residence, while the Burgess model remains useful as a concept for explaining concentric urban development introducing the complexity of urban land use growth.

It is noted that the concentric zone model is directly related to the bid rent theory following from Burgess's work that is based on the bid rent curve which is shown in Figure 2.2.

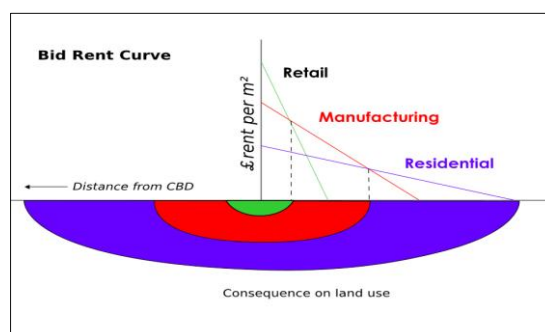


Figure 2.2: Bid rent model

Source: Cities and Land Uses (2008).

Galster (1977:149) states that the bid rent theory proposes that concentric circles are based on the amount that people are willing to pay for the land. The value is based on the profits that are

obtainable from maintaining a business on that land. The centre of the town will have the highest number of customers so it is profitable for retail activities. Manufacturing will pay slightly less for the land as it focuses more on the accessibility for workers, 'goods in' and 'goods out'. Residential land use will take the surrounding land where the high density suburbs are further away from the CBD where there is the least value of land.

According to Wheaton (1974:2) the bid rent theory has effects on the housing supply and demand in an area. The bid rent function in the theory explains the relationship which exists between urban land uses and urban land values. Put simply, households and companies make trade-offs among the land prices, transportation costs and the amount of land used (Koome, 2002:23). This results in a convex land price curve with the highest land prices near the city centre.

In simple terms, it can be deduced that there are two income groups, namely, the low and high income groups. The low income groups tend to live closer to the urban centre within the radius of " d_1 " from the centre while the high income groups live at a distance beyond " d_2 " from the centre. However, because of the preference of the high income groups not to live close to the low income group, there is an area of dereliction between " d_1 " and " d_2 ". In the area of dereliction, the economic prospects tend to be so low that even the market rents are at zero and investments in this area are not profitable. This resonates with Von Thunen's theory of agricultural or rural land values whose principle is centred on distance decay and land rent. According to Rodrigue (1998) many concordances of this model are found notably in North America.

At this juncture, it is important to note that there are a lot of spatial differences in terms of ethnic, social and occupational status, yet, there are minimum occurrences of the functional differences in land use patterns and hence the introduction of the sector model.

2.2.3 Sector model

The sector model was created by Homer Hoyt in 1939 to show that zones expand outward from transportation zones as shown by Figure 2.3 below.

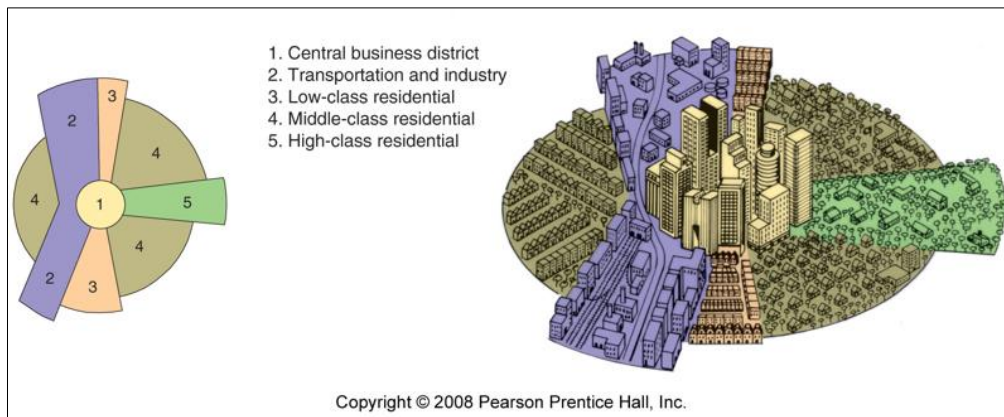


Figure 2.3: Sector model

Source: Cities and Land Uses (2008).

An important aspect of the model is that Hoyt observed that low-income households tend to be found in close proximity to railroad lines, while commercial establishments are found along business thoroughfares (Harrison and Campbell, 2001:184). For instance the locations of high density areas in Potchefstroom are in proximity to the railway line and manufacturing industries. Today, Hoyt's principles are highly applicable as they are the main source in issues of transformation in the transport sector.

According to Riley (1953:26) the application of the sector model can easily be seen in the transitional area which is described as a zone, where the industrial districts are associated closely with the railroad and the various districts are surrounded by low class residential areas. The high class residential areas are located on the more rolling topography while the middle class areas act as buffers between the two. The sector model can be described as the model that best explains Tulsa's intra-form.

However, it can be noted that the concentric model and the sector model both focus on the importance of accessibility. The centrally located CBD is the most accessible and its land value or rent-bid is the highest. Distance decay theory is applicable in both models where the land value and population density decline with distance from the central places. There are clear-cut boundaries between the land use zones in the models. Yet, even the early models show elements of residential segregation factors.

However, the sector model does not have a clearly structured demand that will support a high volume of public transport but rather provides chances for short distances between housing, non-motorised modes and other functions.

2.2.4 Multiple nuclei model

Harris and Ullman in 1954 proposed the multiple nuclei model. According to Rhind and Hudson (1980:191) the model which Ullman and Harris propose is essentially an amalgamation of the theories of Burgess and Hoyt together with the addition of multi nuclei which display functional specialisation. The presence of such nuclei reflects the internal differentiation of the city. Figure 2.4 shows the model;

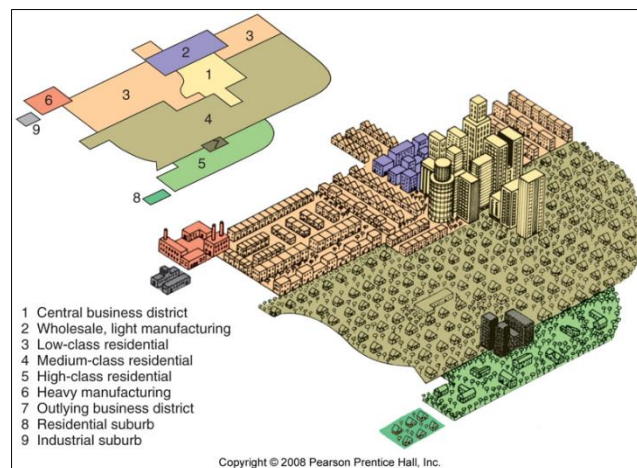


Figure 2.4: Multiple nuclei model

Source: Cities and Land Uses (2008).

According to Ruffin (2012:14) the model recognizes that different activities have varying accessibility requirements. Certain activities require specialized facilities, for example, higher order retail facilities require the most accessible location within the city, a location which may be radically different from the geometrical centre of the city (Aribigbola, 2007:4). According to Murdie (1974:110) the basic principle of the model is that urban land uses tend to concentrate around several nuclei rather than a single core. Some activities tend to group together because they reap benefits from each other in agglomeration and some activities repel one another, such as, industries and residential zones. Other activities are unable to afford the rents necessary to occupy the most accessible locations. In summation, it is basically the combination of Burgess and Hoyt's model with an addition of the multiple nuclei model. (Swanson, 1994:362) asserts that, the model moves away from the concentric model to give the complex nature of larger urban areas because of the view that people are highly mobile due to the increase of car ownership.

However, the multiple nuclei provide problems in the efficiency of public transport supply in that the distances may be too long for non-motorised trips. Other criticisms about the multiple nuclei model are posed by Torrens (2000:16) who argues that there is a high negligence of the height of buildings as well as the non-existence of abrupt divisions between zones. Each zone displays

a significant degree of internal heterogeneity and not homogeneity. In addition, the model is also unaware of inertia forces and does not consider the influence of physical relief and government policy (Atkinson, 2001:8). The whole concept may not be totally applicable to oriental cities with different cultural, economic and political backgrounds, though in most countries it is highly relevant.

However, a number of similarities can be denoted from the concentric zone model, sector model and the multiple nuclei model. All these models focus on the importance of accessibility. Moreover, another similarity in these models is the recognition of clear cut and abrupt boundaries between the land uses, which is not the case in reality. Above all, as noted earlier the issue of residential segregation is eminent. In most instances, it is the social and economic status which is a segregation indicator in residential areas. In reality, the lower income groups live in the inner city which suffers from urban decay or in areas near factory zones. Another aspect is that nearness to work places reduces the time and cost of transport and gives accessibility to various order goods of services. In contrast the higher income groups occupy the urban periphery with better living environment far away from the factory zone and far away from the lower income groups.

In as much as these models are similar, they tend to merge together when analysing cities. All the elements of the models can be present or applicable in a modern metropolitan city. However, over the years improvements in transportation and government policies has led to the alteration of some of the land use patterns in other countries.

Another dynamic process which needs to be defined and understood is the urban structure because it highly influences spatial interactions. According to the CSIR (2002:5) urban structure provides the foundation for the detailed design and planning of each element. Urban structure elements provide a framework to guide and influence development of individual buildings, spaces or infrastructure.

2.3 Models of urban structure

2.3.1 Grid model or the Hippodamian plan

The Hippodamian plan is the first model proposed to balance travel modes. It was introduced as a result of the pressure to accommodate the movement of carts and chariots (Grammenos et al, 2008:164). The Hippodamus' grid concept consists of a series of broad, straight streets, cutting one another at right angles. The Figure 2.5 shows the Hippodamian plan.



Figure 2.5: Hippodamian plan

Source: Car Free Times (2011).

According to Benton (2007:3) the plan imposes a rectangular street grid on urban space and dates back to antiquity. Some of the earliest cities were built using grids and it is the most common pattern found in numerous political societies. The grid provides an easy and rational format for allocating land by setting streets at right angles. However, in the 20th century more conflicts arose with the increase in traffic volumes where car per able driver had increased. Therefore, many attempts were proposed to resolve conflicts between foot and motorized travel. This led to a reformulation of the Hippodamian concept in an attempt to resolve the conflict in three ways.

First, abatements were introduced by making use of cul-de-sacs, T-junctions and roundabouts that complicate the motorist's movement. In this case the motorist movement is slowed down to an average speed that does not harm pedestrians. Secondly, separation that is, separating wheeled traffic from foot traffic was adopted. Thirdly, hierarchy of streets was developed with heavily-used intercity highways beginning, and permitting less traffic on progressively lower level streets (Mehaffy, 2010:22-23).

Benton (2007) further propounds that, despite the differences in geographies, topographies, altitudes and latitudes, grid plans are more common in North American cities than in Europe, where older cities tend to be built on streets that radiate out of a central square or a structure of cultural significance. Grid plans facilitate development because developers can subdivide and auction off large parcels of land. The geometry yields regular lots that maximise use and minimise boundary disputes. San Francisco which bears the Spanish imprint has imposed the grid on what must be considered among the most dramatic topographies in North America. However, adopting the grid plan has allowed the rapid subdivision of large parcels of land and as the cities of the United States have grown outwards the grid has become prevalent.

The Traditional Neighbourhood Design Code of Wisconsin (2015, 66:1027) actually advocates a return to a modified Hippodamus grid in which it does traffic abatement within neighbourhoods

and discourages through traffic by use of T-junctions and, in specific instances, narrow or one way streets. In some developing nations, these models have been adopted in order to solve these conflicts although their magnitude is less than those of developed nations.

The acceptance of the Hippodamian grid and its variation can redress the imbalance between vehicle and pedestrian traffic. This is attributed to the fact that it gives cities clear structure with comprehensible order, among other qualities. Moreover, it is conjectured that since current mobility devices have all but eclipsed the natural mode of travel on foot, a return to the grid could reinstate walking as a viable option (Ernst, 2004:11). It is clearly time for a fundamental re-evaluation of the Hippodamian idea in the context of the dominant automotive mobility and of the quest for walking as an alternative.

However, this pattern has got the major drawback of locking in traffic hence congestion and delays (Bruton, 1990:50). Furthermore, it does not give room for further expansions during city development. In spite of this, it has been adopted in many countries because it is the easiest way to resolve conflicts between vehicular and pedestrian traffics.

2.3.2 Garden city model

A garden city is a town designed for healthy living and industry; of a size that makes possible a full measure of social life, but not larger, surrounded by a rural belt. The whole land in public ownership or held in trust for the community (Ward, 2005:140-143). According to Howard (1902:12) the ideal type of a settlement is one that has all the advantages of both the urban and the rural lifestyles and that way would, naturally, avoid all the adverse qualities that make everyday life more difficult. Howard's vision of a social city was a city which is integrated with accessible transport systems, that is, a series of settlement linked by good transport network (Howard, 1902:16). From his perspective, emphasis was on stronger community engagement, ownership, long term private commitment which to a greater extent links to the IDP principles of integration and public engagement.

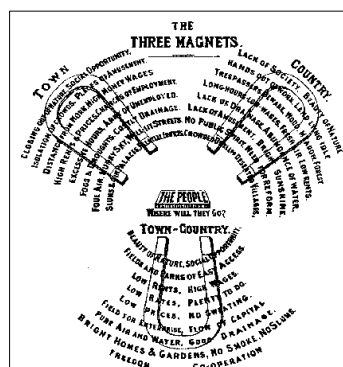


Figure 2.6: Garden city model

Source: Howard (1902:71).

From Howard's perspective, to represent the attraction of the city, he compared each city to a magnet, with individuals represented as needles drawn to the city thereby reintegrating people with the countryside and the city. However, Howard's concept does not realise the role of the central government. The closest that the model can be related to is a homeowners' association which is called a quasi-public body, which owns all the land of the city and leases it out to residents (Howard, 1902:72). Furthermore, the layout sketched by Howard for traffic was rather conceptual especially with regards to the human traffic flowing through the city. In addition, it seems from this model jobs follow people wherever they are rather not giving any cognisance to agglomeration of industries and economic factors.

However, all these theories are an indicator of how cities and towns can emerge and grow. It is necessary to analyse the models in order to integrate all the theories and come up with the most sustainable model in the designing and plan making processes.

2.4 The growth of cities

According to Duranton and Puga (2001:1455) urban economics play an important part in explaining and understanding why and how cities grow. It is important in this study to analyse cities' growth and the determinant factors to enable forecasting. In discussing the growth of cities, one of the important indicators is economic development. The (WEF) World Economic Forum report (2013:10) defines economic development as the coming together of different stakeholders, that is, the government, the community at large and the private sector, to improve the economy. According to the World Bank (2010:240) the major aim of economic development is to enhance competitiveness and thereby encouraging sustainable growth that is inclusive. In order to understand factors determining economic development, there is need to understand the spatial economic models that are effective in attracting internal and external investment opportunities.

2.4.1 Economic base theory

North (1955) propounds that the economic base theory is one of the relevant theories for economic growth in an area. The theory postulates that the local economy is divided into two categories, that is, the basic sector and the non-basic sector. The basic sector comprises industries that produce goods and services for the consumption outside the country. This sector is made up of local businesses that are entirely dependent upon external factors. Manufacturing and local resources oriented firms are usually considered to fall under the basic sector. The basic sector is identified as the "engine" of the local economy (Klosterman, 1993:14).

In the non-basic sector, on the other hand, goods are produced and consumed locally. Revenue that is brought in by the basic sector into the economy stimulates economic growth and

supports the non-basic sector. According to Dawkins (2003:140), the growth of a region depends upon the growth of its export industries, which implies that expansion in demand from external forces to the region is the crucial initiating determinant of growth for its application in practise with respect to economic issues in planning. The theory provides an analysis of the basic importance in the formulation of all kinds of policies and therefore establishing a link with the land use theories dwelt upon earlier, such as the central place theory and the concentric model.

Richardson (1976) goes on to give the presumption that for all the economic activities that are exports based, trade and service activities are mainly induced by expansion and decline of export industries. This is because the economic base theory gives certain techniques to be used to analyse economic growth, such as the shift share analysis and the base multiplier. However, the economic-base models focus on the demand side of the economy. They ignore the supply side, or the productive nature of investment, and are thus short-run in approach. In spite of this, the economic base theory provides an overall framework to understand and specify the tools that are used to analyse the local economy with a focus on the location of industries. Notwithstanding, these methods should only be used with a clear understanding of the information that is generated through an application of these techniques and the information that is not provided, in order to formulate polices that aid economic development.

2.4.2 Cumulative causation

Gunner Myrdal in 1957 propounded the circular and cumulative causation theory. Myrdal argued that there is an inherent tendency for a free play of market forces. This theory is an antithesis of the equilibrium model in that it states that social systems are not equilibrated. Once development starts in a particular centre that region develops its momentum of growth through the process of cumulative causation. Underdeveloped regions offer low wage labour through migration and lose their younger people and other resources to richer regions. Myrdal argues that continuous growth of a region is at the expense of the lagging region. The lagging region may benefit from the growth of the developed region through “spread effects” resulting from the diffusion of innovation into the lagging region. These benefits of innovation and growth of markets will tend to be offset by the “backwash effect” resulting from the flow of capital and labour from the lagging region into the developed region (Peterson, 2004:13).

Market forces by their nature, pull capital, skill and expertise to certain areas. These areas accumulate a large scale competitive advantage over the other. The “backwash effects” prevent low-income communities from developing regions with the requisite internal capacity for revitalization. However, the growth of prosperous regions tends to feed on itself if the growth-

inducing factors remain conducive. As a result, areas that are less well-off tend to send capital and labour supply to better places without any significant return (Dawkins, 2003:149).

Instead, there is a need to ensure the movement of jobs into the lagging regions rather than the movement of people away from their regions in search for work. This would be done through developing the lagging regions by way of establishing community retail, banks, supermarkets and other commercial establishments. Richardson (1976) notes that community development corporation and rural development centres are examples of recreating new institutional arrangements to rebuild lagging regions. In order to reduce the spread effects and maximize on the “backwash effects”, one strategy is by harnessing the innovation diffusion from the developed region to upgrade the lagging regions so as to ensure that migration and resources are not transferred only to the developed regions.

Furthermore, Myrdal argues that underdeveloped regions may benefit from growth in developed regions through “spread effects” resulting from the diffusion of innovations into a lagging region and the growing export markets for lagging region products. However, these benefits will tend to be offset by the “backwash effects” resulting from the flow of capital and labour from the lagging region into the developed region. Free trade results among regions only serve to reinforce this process of cumulative causation by further catalysing growth in developed regions at the expense of lagging regions.

Likewise, Perroux (1950:23) comes up with the growth pole concept. It describes a process of development in which urban centres being endowed with knowledge and information are able to support large firms that are “vehicles of dynamic change, fostering new technologies of production and organisation,” (Plummer and Taylor, 2001:323). Whereas, classical economists argue that growth would flow to less-costly locations, Perroux (1950) rejects this view arguing instead that growth poles are linked to other growth poles and not necessarily the periphery.

It is necessary to have a clear understanding of the models and theories of economic growth because the assumptions underlying the theories are informative indicators for decision making in addressing historical imbalances in growth and development. Furthermore, locational theorists provide a framework for understanding the role of transportation costs in regional growth and decline. Most early theories of regional economic growth were spatial extensions of neoclassical economic theories of international trade and national economic growth. Together, these early neoclassical theories predict that over time, there are differences in the price of labour and other factors across regions.

However, location theories, spatial theories, and cities’ growth theories can be used to explain the reasons for certain service location, economic decline or hierarchical levels in society. Over

the recent years there has been an acknowledgement in that most planning practices such as the Rational Comprehensive Model (RCM) which is one of the traditional planning theories which formed the basis of modernist planning.

2.5 Traditional planning theories

2.5.1 Rational Comprehensive Model (RCM)

The Rational Comprehensive Model (RCM) was established around the 1960s and is founded on principles of reasoning (Raine, 2005:1). The theory was built upon several conceptual adaptations from other fields, with the social policy formulation model as the central basis (Faludi, 1973:105). It is characterised by goals and objectives of action that can be identified and formally stated. From this theory identified problems are amenable to investigation and analysis. Solutions to those problems can be generated out of an understanding of the nature of these problems and subsequently measured or evaluated against the stated objectives. This theory has been widely used in preparing structure plans, policy formulation and implementation.

According to Bracken (1981:19) the analysis stage comprises of problem diagnosis and system modelling as well as other analytical and predictive methods by which an understanding of both present and future problems. The design stage includes such operations as the preparation of plans and the generation of alternative plans and policies. Policy includes the implementation of plans and evaluation criteria. Frameworks such as the RCM have, no doubt, contributed to the clearer understanding of the nature of regional and urban planning and its constituent processes (Sanyal, 2000:323). It is through applying the RCM that policies and plans are formulated, that help to curb problems such as in housing, transport, water services or waste management and environmental issues. It is, however, time and resource consuming and fairly difficult to gather all the information needed in all the various stages of this approach.

In spite of this, its logic can be found in the justification and methodological outlines given in the introduction of most plans. One of the interesting notions in the model is public interest, which is formulated as the goal of RCM. According to the model, public interest means the planning solutions that are of common benefit. This notion gained momentum resulting in the formulation of the transactive planning model.

2.5.2 Transactive planning theory

According to Doderio (2011:1) in most developing countries, planning techniques and methods which promote urban development have been based on top-down approaches. However, Lane (2005:293) is of the view that the transactive planning model is based on the communicative

rationality, which relies on interpersonal dialogue where ideas are validated through action. This type of rationality is based on human communication and dialogue between planners and the people affected by the planning.

Transactive planning has been known as the theory that closes the gap between the planning thought and practice. The fusion of action and planning into a single operation forms the basis of transactive planning so that the conceptual distinctions between planning; decision and implementation recycle are washed out (Larsen 2003:103). The central assumptions are that:

- There exist various interests within society.
- The interpersonal dialogue triggers a mutual learning process leading to an intensive communication. Planners act as supporters and participants among many (Mitchell, 2003:100).
- Equipped with technical knowledge, communicative and group-psychological skills, planners are able to reduce the disparities between the participants and reach consensus (Manor, 1998:6-7).
- Planners are the centre of systematic knowledge; they also mediate between different interests and communicate information between the actors in the planning process (Larsen 2003:45).

The role of the public in this context is to bring a central contribution to the planning process with their traditional knowledge and experiences (Gaventa and Valderrama 1999). The social knowledge held by the clients together with/combined with the technical knowledge held by the planners form the basis for planning and evaluation. The planning process, through transactive planning, transforms knowledge into action.

In addition, transactive planning has three levels of communication between the planner and the society as the planner seeks knowledge that forms the basis of all his planning actions, value judgements and decision making. These are: person centred with one person; group centred with a group: and subject matter where the planner discusses problems affecting society and criticisms of previous plans.

This is the background theory for public participation, which has become a topical issue over the years, because planning is considered a 'face-to-face' interaction between planners and the local population affected by plans as authenticated by the transactive theory.

2.5.3 Habermas communicative theory

The theory was built by Jurgen Habermas in 1929. Habermas theory is built upon communicative action which is focused upon communicative mind, communication and rationality as well as the communicative community (Habarnas 1984:74).

According to Habermas there are four forms of action namely; teleological action, norm-regulated action, dramaturgical action and communicative action. On each action type, various interests of the mind (theoretical interest, practical and emancipation) correspond to each degree of social development, a degree of understanding social facts (knowledge), moral justification (legitimacy) and legal norms (regulation). If the development of these dimensions is not mutually coordinated, the society is subjected to conflicts, crises and changes.

The theory's idea is based on actors in society that seeks to reach common understanding and to coordinate actions by reasoned argument, consensus and cooperation rather than strategic action strictly in pursuit of goals (Habermas, 1984:86)

Habermas gives communicative action principles. Furthermore, Habermas (1984:90) propounds that the conditions for free communication, problems of conflicts, crises and legitimacy can be solved in modern (capitalist and socialists) society.

Habermas theory gives foundation for the development of public participation. It provides a theoretical basis for a view of planning that emphasizes widespread public participation, sharing of information with the public, reaching consensus through public dialogue rather than exercise of power.

2.6 Public participation

2.6.1 Origins

The concept of public participation has a long lineage. The first written record of public participation came from the Greek city-states and one of its earliest expressions was in the Ecclesia of Athens. The Ecclesia was an assembly open to all free, male citizens, 18 years and older, for the purpose of debate, consensus seeking, and democratic decision making. Its policy making power was checked by the council of 500 (elected members who screened the agenda), and by a court, (members chosen by lot who ruled on the constitutionality of the measures that were passed), (Roberts 2003:3).

During the middle ages, after the decay and fragmentation of the Roman empire, urban artisans formed associations to control public matters central to their work. Guilds were formed guilds, which were an oligarchy with some voting rituals and limited citizen involvement. Voluntary

associations that provided charity, education, and other services also had limited participation (Cunningham, 1972). Eventually, direct citizen participation began to reassert itself in the city-states of Renaissance Italy, the popular assemblies of the ninth century English township, and in some Swiss cantons and communes in the thirteenth century (Roberts 2003: 3).

2.6.2 Defining public participation

According to Stoker (1997:1) participatory planning is the taking part of the public in any process of formulation, passage and implementation of public policies. The definition denotes that the public is actively engaged beyond developmental policies to decision making and implementation processes. This resonates with Gildenhuis and Knipe (2000:503) who propound that the public have a democratic right to participate in decision-making on issues that impact on their lives, including governance. Nanz and Dalferth (2010:3) sight participatory planning as a “deliberative process by which interested or affected public, civil society organisations, and government actors are involved in policy-making, before a political decision is taken”. From the definition it can be derived that, it is collaborative problem-solving approach whose goal is to achieve more legitimate policies. Mzimakwe (2010:502) clarifies that the participants actively partake in initiatives and actions that are fully enthused by own thinking and deliberation thereby exerting effective control. Thus Siphuma (2009:20) interprets that what creates participation is created through the collective effort of the partakers to pool efforts and resources for the attainment of the set goals.

2.6.3 Models of participation

The main focus will be on Arnstein (1969) who was the brainchild of community participation. The model recognises that there are different levels of participation. However, the main argument is centred on participation as a ladder with different levels of power and influence. The Figure 2.7 below shows Arnstein’s ladder of participation;

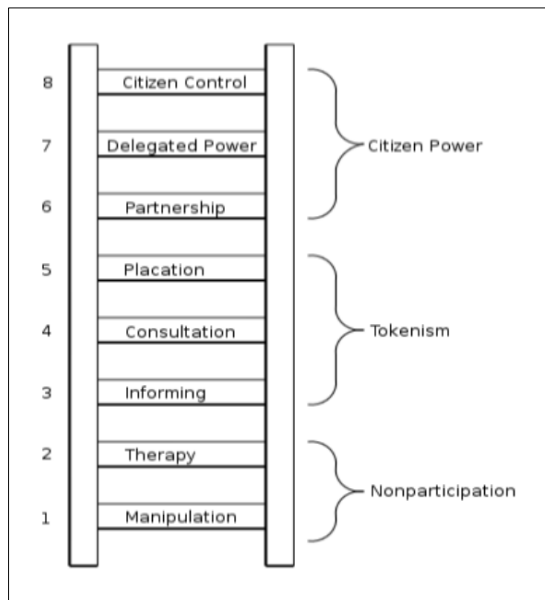


Figure 2.7: Arnstein's ladder of participation

Source: Arnstein (1969:216).

The ladder underlines the importance of power through its three categories which are: the non-participation level; the tokenism stage; and the citizen power. On the level of non-participation, Arnstein (1969) propounds that it is in the name of citizen participation that people are placed on rubberstamp advisory committees or advisory boards for the express purpose of enlightening them or engineering their support (Arnstein, 1969:218). As an alternative of genuine citizen participation, the bottom rung of the ladder signifies the distortion of participation into a public relations vehicle by power holders. This style of nonparticipation has since been applied to other programs encompassing the poor.

Arnstein (1969:220) asserts that participation on the level of manipulation occurs where participation is arranged from the outside by power holders to educate citizens for the purposes of persuading or rather manipulating citizens. Under this form, citizens do not only lack the power to influence decision making but they also lack the ability to attain goals. In most instances, power holders tend to achieve their own goals. In this case, participation is reduced to mere public relations. Arnstein further breaks down to the eight-rung ladder, a simplification which helps to illustrate the point that is often missed, that there are significant gradations of citizen participation.

According to Hasselaar (2011:13) knowing these gradations makes it possible to cut through the hyperbole, to understand the increasingly strident demands for participation from the have nots, as well as the gamut of confusing responses from the power holders.

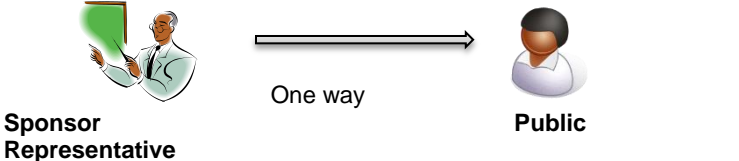
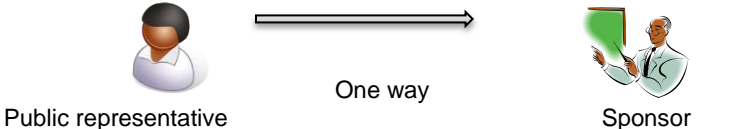
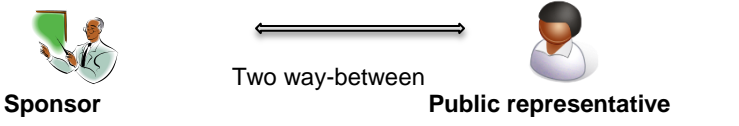
Participation on the level of tokenism is whereby participants get a chance to hear and to be heard. Informing citizens of their rights, responsibilities, and options can be the most important

first step toward legitimate citizen participation (Arnstein, 1971:217). However, too frequently the emphasis is placed on a one-way flow of information from officials to citizens, with no channel provided for feedback and no power for negotiation.

However, Collins (2001:4) states that the citizen participation on a ladder analogy does not suggest logical progression from one level to another, and one building to another. According to Connor (1988:12) citizen power is not distributed as neatly as the divisions used by Arnstein but, suggests that there are some significant road blocks that are omitted. These road blocks include: racism; paternalism and resistance of some power holders; and the ignorance and disorganization of many low-income communities. Therefore, instead of eight rungs, the real world of people and programs might require as many as one hundred and fifty to cover the range of actual citizen involvement levels.

Rowe and Frewer (2005:255) emerged with the ideas of public participation, which were central on public communication and consultation. Table 2.1 below illustrates the ideas put forward.

Table 2.1: Three levels of participation

LEVEL OF ENGAGEMENT	FLOW OF INFORMATION
Communication	 <p>Sponsor Representative One way Public</p>
Consultation	 <p>Public representative One way Sponsor</p>
Participation	 <p>Sponsor Two way-between Public representative</p>

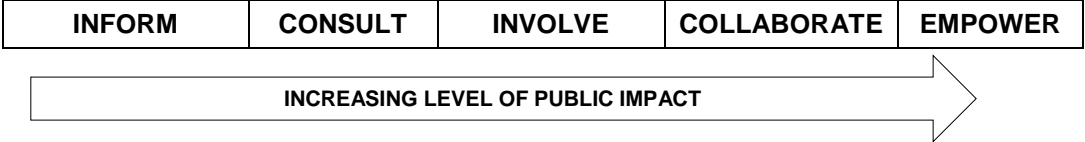
Source: Own Construction from Rowe and Frewer (2005).

According to Rowe and Frewer (2005:256) the two way process is recommended as it involves the engagement of people from agenda setting, to planning, decision-making, implementation and review. The general aims are to share decision-making power and responsibility for those decisions. This framework shows the best means of engaging the public in the formulation and implementation of plans.

2.6.4 Principles of public participation

A new framework was also developed by the International Association for Public Participation (IAPP). It is referred to as the public participation spectrum which can be used in approaching the notion of public participation. The categories in the framework include inform, consult, involve and empower (Sheedy, 2008:6). Table 2.2 below shows the scale;

Table 2.2: Public participation spectrum



Source: Own Construction from Sheedy (2008:7).

According to Sheedy (2008:7) informing means to provide the public with balanced and objective information to assist them in understanding the problem, alternatives and opportunities and or solutions. This is followed by consulting which is meant to obtain public feedback on analysis, alternatives and/or decisions. However, these first two categories cannot be viewed as public engagement for the absence of a two way flow of information.

The third category is to involve which means working directly with the public throughout the process to ensure that the public concerns and aspirations are consistently understood and considered. Collaborate, according to Lismore City Council (1997) collaborate means to partner with the public in each aspect of the decision, including the development of alternatives and the identification of the preferred solution. Last is the highest degree of participation, that is, to empower which means placing final decision-making in the hands of the public .This spectrum has received acknowledgment among scholars and theorists as it gives the true picture of the participatory levels.

2.7 Conclusion

Below shows the summary of the concepts gathered in chapter two.

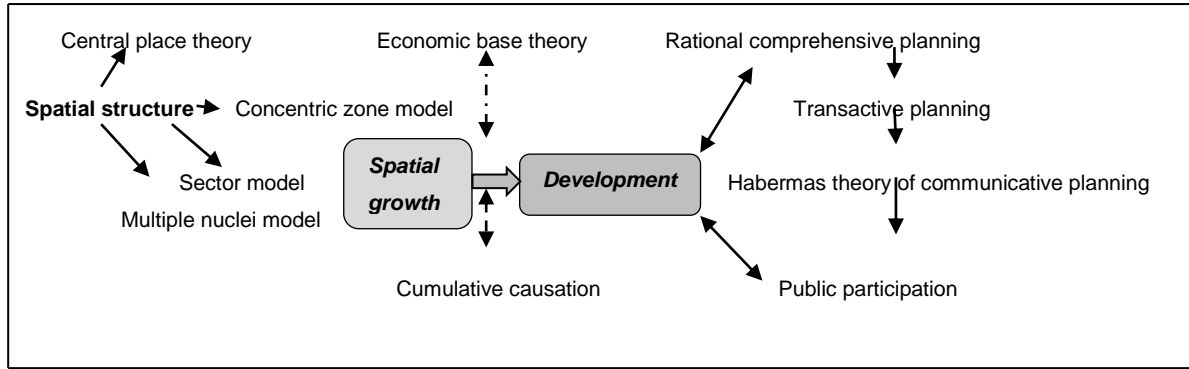


Figure 2.8: Summary of concepts

Source: Own Construction

Theories as stated by Checkoway (1986) provide a framework for practice. The theories outlined in this chapter are just part of the vast theories that have been propounded to deal with spatial and integrated planning issues. It is important to analyze the historical background through theories because space reflects or rather reinforces inequalities in an area and also assists to deal with changing or rather dynamic urban challenges that are being faced in this modern day.

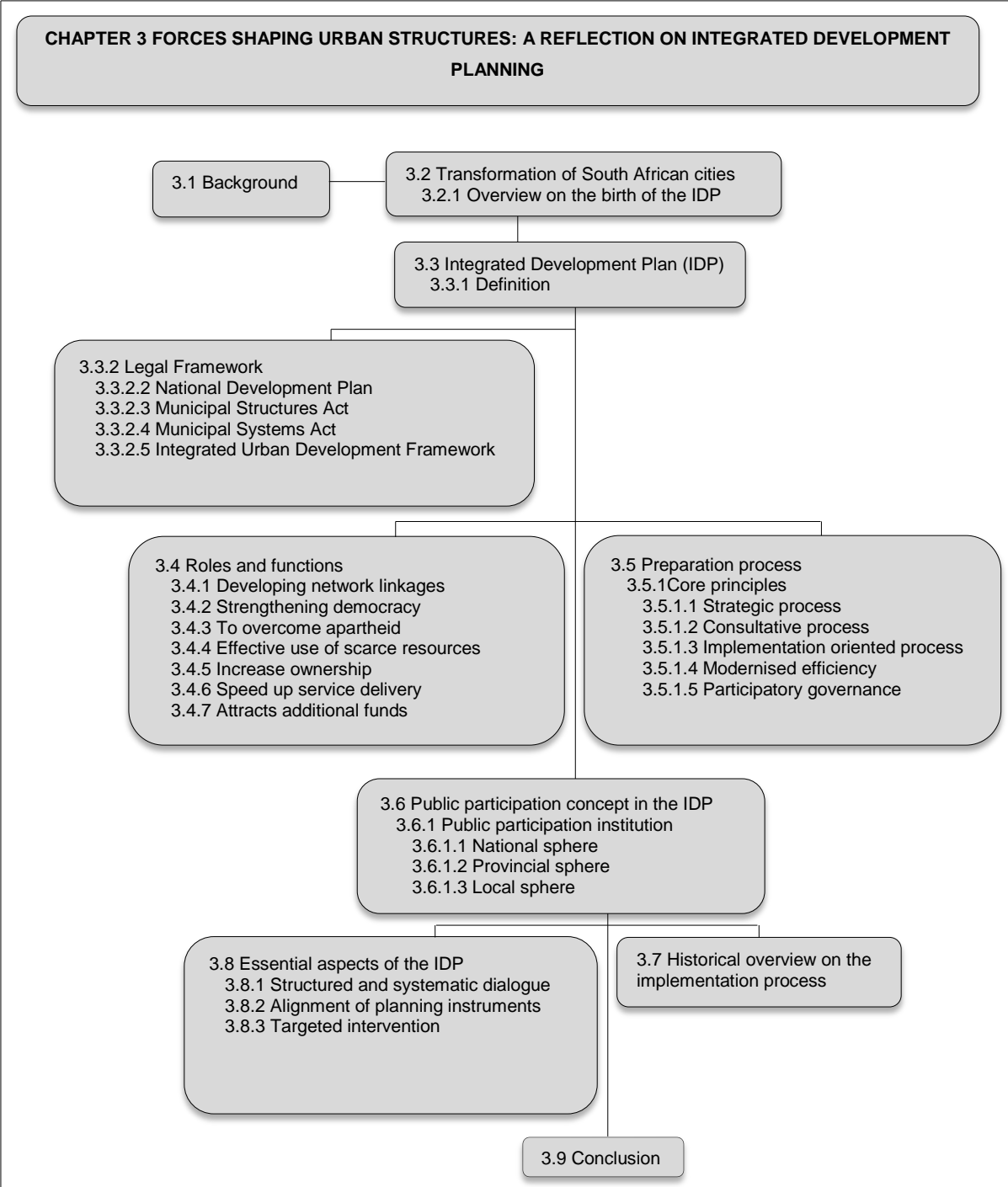
The base of chapter two is built upon the notion that physical manifestations in land uses are brought about different theories and models. The chapter presented various theories and models for land uses and urban growths. These theories and models are strongly interlinked and in some instances they are integrated together when analysing either urban form or structure.

The study also presented the economic theories which help in understanding the growth of cities. The analysis provided the background to understand city system and understand concepts of urban development.

However chapter three presents the growth of South African cities, the land uses and spatial patterns to have been greatly influenced by the historical background. Therefore, chapter assesses the model of planning used and how the central government came up with a home grown comprehensive plan, the IDP which is the major planning instruments for municipalities.

CHAPTER THREE: FORCES SHAPING URBAN STRUCTURES: A REFLECTION ON INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT PLANNING

The content of Chapter three is graphically as follows:



3.1 Background

Most countries in the world have experiences with the phenomenon of urban fragmentation phenomenon resulting from racial segregation or social inequalities found around cities. According to Marshal (1998) the avenues that spatial structure can take are systematically shaped by discrimination, that is, increase in residential segregation leading to ethnic concentrations in certain areas.

In American cities, prior to 1900, African Americans were generally integrated with whites as servants and labourers. The two racial groups regularly interacted in a common social world sharing cultural traits and values through personal and frequent interaction (Seitles, 1996). However, when the African Americans moved into industrial communities after World War 2, the picture of segregationist zoning ordinances emerged which divided streets by race. Racial segregation became a policy of local governments and a standard operating procedure which led to the emergence of urban ghettos. Therefore it can be noted that deliberate policies gave birth to urban ghettos which have had a lasting impact on America.

For most African countries, colonisation is one of the greatest encounters which has left a powerful and lasting effect. The implication is that one can never understand Africa without unravelling the continent's colonial past experiences. Zeleza (1992:35) asserts: "In some respect, the impact of colonialism was deep and certainly destined to affect future course of events, but in others it was not". This statement denotes that colonisation had diverse impacts in different communities depending on the extent to which it was practised.

In the case of Kenya, the colonial conquest led to loss of sovereignty as colonial rulers replaced indigenous leaders, genocide and forced migrations. The European colonists exercised power on legislative councils by formulating different policies which were mainly focused on land alienation for European settlers, African taxation and forced labour in the extraction of resources (Sorrenson, 1998:132). Consequently the post-colonial state has had to cope with income inequality and poverty which can be traced back to the rural-urban, regional and class differences in development, since the white minority received a fair share of the African resources and are better off compared to the destitute black African majority (Zeleza, 1992:45).

In spite of this, one of the major drawbacks which the country faces is its economy. This emanates from the fact that development activities in the colonial period were concentrated in a few urban areas, mainly: Nairobi, Mombasa, Nakuru, Kisumu, Eldoret and Naivasha (Ndege, 2009:6). Moreover, the limited numbers of activities were mainly centred on agriculture, making Kenya rely on a few primary commodities such as coffee and tea for foreign exchange, thereby lacking dynamism and highly dependent on fluctuations in world prices.

In the South African context, the formation and background of South African cities has been shaped by apartheid planning. Apartheid planning can be defined as a system of planning which enforced racial segregation, division, separation and socio-economic discrimination (Schensul and Heller; 2010:3). The apartheid planning system made massive efforts to dictate and restrict the pattern of black settlement in the urban environments.

During this era, unlike other colonial settlements, the layout of South African towns as established by white settlers who regarded the cities as their cultural domain did not make provision for ethnic groups (Lemon, 1991). Towns were conceived primarily as white places based on the spatial policies that segregated people on racial lines (Mabin and Smit, 1997). Figure 3.1 below shows the spatial plan of the manner in which South African cities were designed.

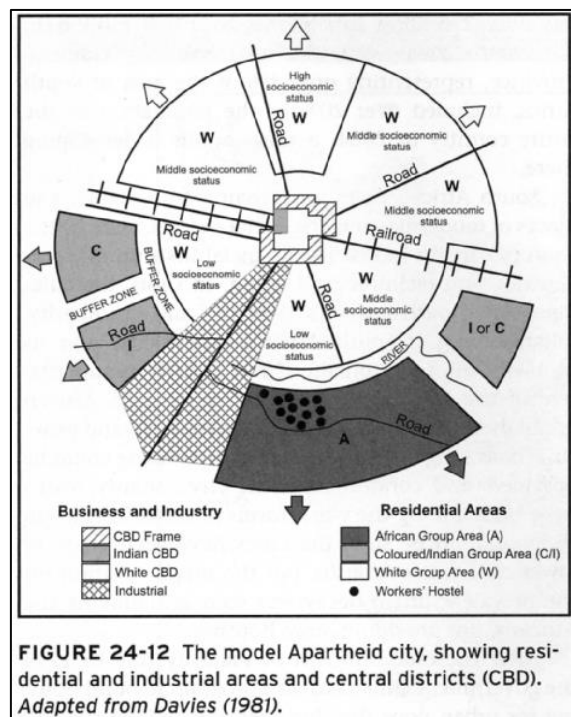


Figure 3.1: Apartheid spatial planning for South African cities

Source: World Bank Research Document (2007).

From the above diagram, spatial planning in South Africa was directly and indirectly influenced by the colonial and post-colonial periods of development. According to Schoeman (2003:98) the planning profession itself was during the post-colonial period used as an instrument to implement the practices that led to the separation of development based on racial lines. Therefore from the onset, the white areas were dominant in such a way that whatever that was planned or designed was racially skewed, leading to the settlement of the African majority at the outskirts of urban areas and in proximity to the industrial areas.

In addition, the whites' population had the largest portion of land than the black areas yet the highest population is black. Land ownership was highly for the whites despite their smaller population (Schensul and Heller, 2010:3). Due to this, the apartheid regime left towns and cities racially unequal with regards to distribution of resources, power, democracy, income and wealth.

Various features have been deduced from the apartheid planning regime and have been documented in various texts. Table 3.1 below shows the historical spatial planning and development practices in South Africa and the results obtained from the practice.

Table 3.1: Summary of spatial consequences of apartheid planning system

FEATURE OF URBAN STRUCTURE	SPATIAL CONSEQUENCES
Segregation of residential areas based on race	Creation of dormitory towns far from places of economic, cultural, recreational and educational opportunities
Layout planning provided for buffer zones between residential areas	Overcrowded rural areas depending on limited agricultural land leading to overutilization of natural resources
Segregation of amenities based on race	Wide disparities in the provision of infrastructure and services (Land use 2006: 6)
Separation of the poor from social facilities	Appearance of urban sprawl
Inefficient and ineffective land use management systems	Settlements without properly laid basic services
Differences in housing densities and standards depending on race	Informal settlement development on the urban fringes

Source: Own Construction from Schoeman (2003:98).

The table above identifies a number of factors that have created the cities that are present today as well as the implications brought about by the spatial policies. Schoeman (2003:98) explicates that not only did apartheid planning influence spatial planning but it also obstructed on South Africa socially, economically as well as politically. For instance, the whites needed black labour but were reluctant to accept that those who provided were fellow citizens. This led to controls on rural to urban migration and the segregation of those whose presence in the white cities was unavoidable (Maylam, 1990:20). As a result, people who worked in the CBD travelled long distances daily to go to work. It can be deduced that this geographic strategy encouraged circular migration, which is rather costly, in both monetary and non-monetary terms, for individuals providing cheap labour, and consequently increased the inequality gap.

It is realised that, the spatial structure of a country is determined by its historical experiences. Therefore, each country develops certain policies and legislation because of the different challenges it faces to transform the spatial negative impacts. Ultimately, the understanding of

planning policies and legislation can be marked out from human experiences and the strong desire not to make mistakes.

According to Wildasky (1979:15-16) policies emanate from problems, and are therefore designs of alternatives and prescriptions to guide against difficulties. As such, policies and legislations are adopted to rectify or alter the negative experiences largely built from challenges that arise. Furthermore, it is learnt that in as much as history influences the rectification methods, it is not wholly a panacea to redo the past, but rather a stepping stone towards the opportunities that are left to exploit and equally distribute wealth.

According to Daniel and Helle (1999:36) the South African transition period to democracy was marked by political and social reconciliation as the government undertook the mandate to quickly transform and promote true integrated development and democracy. The new democratically elected government decreed to eradicate the legacies of the past and address the injustices by restructuring the nation with the aid of policies and legislations.

3.2 Transformation of South African cities

Integration and transformation can be traced back earlier than in 1994. When South Africa achieved democracy, instantaneously, the post-apartheid South African government came into play with the main itinerary of addressing the adverse impacts of apartheid planning which left towns and cities fragmented and racially unequal (Spinks, 2001:6). The government had to conscript different related dimensions for urban integration which include sectoral development, spatial frameworks, integrated development planning and performance management systems with the core concepts of integration and transformation.

According to Huntington (1996:344) transformation is a process of change where the older is replaced by the new. In other words, it is a change in the direction of the greater social, economic and political equality of the nation. In South Africa, in order to redo the injustices of the past a number of policies and legislations have been put forward by the central government as tools to guide and transform human settlement and the spatial structures of cities (National Development Plan (NDP) 2030, 2012:24). These instruments relate to land and the integration of human settlements and spatial planning in order to facilitate restructuring and transformation. Since the nineties profound policies have been circling around the objectives of eradication of spatial injustices and inequality. The central theme that echoes is the final eradication of apartheid and the building of a democratic, non-racial and non-sexist future where the deep scars of inequality are emanate (ANC, 1999).

Table 3.2: Instruments for transformation of South African cities

LEGISLATION	PROVISIONS	IMPLICATIONS TO STUDY
South African Constitution (1996)	Section 7 Chapter 2, obligates the state to respect, promote and fulfil rights of people Section 152 lays out the aims of local government Municipalities must be able to manage the administration and budgeting planning processes Prioritisation should be based on the basic needs of the people Promotion of economic and social development Enhance participation in national programmes	The states violates its obligation when through the legislative conduct it fails or deprives people access to socio-economic rights such as housing
Municipal Systems Act (32 of 2000)	Each municipality should develop a single, inclusive and strategic document The document should link, integrate and coordinate plans Alignment of resources Compatible with the national and development plans Defines the legal status of municipalities Defines municipal powers and functions Provides community participation An enabling framework for performance management	The powers of the municipal manager from the Municipal System Act and Municipal Structure Act are highly liable to political or discriminatory interferences in the recruitment and appointment processes thereby undermining the frameworks
Municipal Structures Act (117of 1998)	Basically gives guidelines in establishing municipalities Gives information relating to categories and types of municipalities. States the categories as A, B and C and gives criteria to distinguish them Gives outline on the types of categories found in category A, B and C municipalities. Gives outline on municipal objectives. Establishment of councillors including their number and the communication system	Defines the roles and functions of ,municipalities Gives effect to stated developmental mandates It means there is allocation of service delivery Clearly outlines duties of municipal councils
POLICIES	PROVISIONS	IMPLICATION TO STUDY
National Development Plan (2012)	Aims to eliminate poverty and reduce inequality by 2030 Targeted at developing people’s capabilities Focuses on promoting gender equity and the needs of the youth	The NDP is to play a pivotal role in regional development Implications are surrounded on the notion of the economy, employment and positioning SA in the world.

Medium Term Strategic Framework 2014-2019	<p>It reflects on the commitments made in the election manifesto</p> <p>Sets out the actions for the Government and the targets to be achieved</p> <p>Provides a framework for other plans of national, provincial and local government</p> <p>Ensures policy coherence, alignment and coordination across government plans and the budgeting process</p>	<p>Guided by the NDP</p> <p>Point of reference of sustainable development</p> <p>Incorporation of the goals in national plans</p> <p>Good governance</p> <p>Elimination of trade barriers</p> <p>Removal of structural impediments</p>
Millennium Development Goals	<p>Gives the outline of the eight development priorities for 189 countries which are:</p> <p>Eradication of poverty and hunger</p> <p>Achieving universal primary education</p> <p>Promotion of gender equality and women empowerment</p> <p>Reduction in child mortality</p> <p>Improvement in maternal health</p> <p>Combating HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases</p> <p>Ensuring environmental sustainability</p> <p>Developing a global partnership</p>	<p>Embracing of the MDGs at other levels of the government</p> <p>Contextualisation of targets and indicators</p> <p>Considerations of the existing connectedness of the urban environment with other life determinant factors such as poverty and inequality</p> <p>Local government has a role to play in achieving the defined goals.</p> <p>Need for a joint effort for intersectoral effort</p> <p>Embracing of the goals through the NDP and different policies</p>
Integrated Urban Development Framework (IUDF) (2013)	<p>The strategic goals;</p> <p>Accessibility</p> <p>Growth</p> <p>Governance</p> <p>Spatial transformation</p>	<p>Municipalities should embrace settlement geography in order to address spatial challenges</p> <p>Provide key drivers to achieve goals for urban development</p> <p>Fulfilment of the transformation vision</p>

Source: Own Construction from quoted policies and legislation (2015).

3.2.1 Historical overview of the birth of the IDP

Internationally there has been a search for integrated planning premised on the understanding that improved integration contributes to more effective and efficient use of resource. Countries like Thailand have developed the Regional Cities Integrated Development Programme which is central to economic transformation (IDP Guide pack II: 10). Furthermore, there has been a formulation of the Integrated Development Plan of the Tibetan Refugee Community with its central objective of addressing issues of refugees and communities in exile. Ghana also adopted the Decentralised Integrated Development Planning Processes for growth and development. However in the South African case, birth of IDP was in terms of the heritage of inequitable growth and development (IDP Guide pack II: 11).

According to Yusuf (2004) the IDP in South Africa was a response to the international trends influenced by events such as the Rio World Summit of Sustainable Development, and World Bank and United Nations (UN) institutions. However, the institutions placed much emphasis on decentralized planning. According to Local Agenda 21, which came from the World Summit of Sustainable Development in Rio held in 1992, calls were made for more sustainable and compact cities. This indicated that the nature of land use and transport planning as well as the realisation of the roles local governments had to take a more proactive approach in the planning of and for municipalities (Taylor, 2012).

On the hand, it can be argued the IDP was also built upon the response to the New Public Management Discourse (NPM). According to Harrison (2001:188) there is a strong connection between NPM and IDPs because they all have implications for public policy in post-apartheid South Africa. The NPM promoted powerful development agencies with key approach elements including the introduction of competition in service delivery, and tendering as well as output based performance evaluations. These approaches correlate well with IDP concepts.

Furthermore, the IDP can be traced back to the “Third Way” approach of Tony Blair and Bill Clinton. The approach is a basic concept that states that neither of right nor the left side is the best approach but a new and different approach and it was a way to respond to social democratic demands of globalisation (Harrison, 2001). The focus of the “Third Way” was on performance management and participatory governance and it shaped the new approaches in planning internationally. This also shaped South African planning system as a new approach, which was neither a traditional nor contemporary approach but strategic approach to planning. However, one of the first means to achieve integration through policy framework was in the introduction of the RDP.

3.2.2 Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP, 1994)

At the heart of the transformation process, the South African government took the initiative to introduce the RDP which is termed the cornerstone of building a better life of opportunity, freedom and prosperity (South African year book, 1995:1). According to the National Planning Commission (NPC), (2011:34), the RDP is the mother policy of post-1994 as it forms the basis of the political, social and economic transformation of the South African community. The RDP is one of the most comprehensive and detailed plan of action ever to be written in respect of government transformation policies in South Africa. It is both a policy vision for the future and an institutional structure for change. Rendering to ANC (1994:6), the policy drive lies in a people-driven process that aims to involve and empower citizens, thereby deepening democracy and providing peace and security for all. The six basic principles of the RDP are:

- A people driven process;
- Peace and security to all;
- Nation building;
- Linking reconstruction and development
- Democratisation of South African cities (RDP, 1994).

The RDP was seen as a policy to transform the political, social and economic facets of the nation. Since the implementation of the RDP, the government has delivered running water to more than 3 000 000 people; connected more 2 000 000 to electricity, increased the number of households connected to 63%; has improved health care for the poor, with more than 500 new clinics and free medical care for children under 6 years and pregnant women; and has facilitated the housing of nearly 3 000 000 people, with 750 000 houses built or still under construction (ANC, 1999).

In spite of this, critics to the RDP have highlighted that an analysis of the social indicators of the plan point to poor housing quality as the chief problem in the failure of the RDP as a policy (Moolla, 2011:89). Furthermore, the opponents of the RDP argue that there has been partial fulfilment even to water and health care services in comparison to the set targets and objectives of the policy. In addition, reported occurrences of violent conflicts which emanated from housing delivery in some communities such as in Braamfischenville in Soweto (Kotze and Molle, 2011:143). Also the RDP programme has had no timeframe and unfulfilled targets due to numerous internal and external forces.

According to Donaldson and Marais (2002:144) in spite of the challenges it is important to note that, when the policy was tabled, the national government overestimated the capacity of the state. Moreover, during the course of implementation, the country did not anticipate the change in international conditions as a result of the Asian crisis in 1998, collapse of the Rand in 2000, the world financial crisis in 2008 and the shifting patterns of global trade and investment.

Additionally, it seems the RDP put emphasis on the racial inequality caused by apartheid forgetting that the central goal of apartheid was to drive a wedge between rural and urban areas through migratory labour. As a result, when the new government came into power, it inherited a large population residing in rural slums, remote resettlement camps, displaced urban settlements and hostels (Crankshaw and Parnell, 1996:233).

Moreover, there was also failure of coordination within the government itself, the supporting departments, private and public sectors and the civil society. A systematic consultation mechanism which was highly efficient was needed between the civil society, government and stakeholders (Carroll and Rosson, 2007:244).

However, since the RDP had no time frame, one can argue that it is still too premature to suggest that the RDP was a failure as a policy still under scope. Soon after the adoption of the RDP the central government came up with other policies in order to strengthen and emphasize the aims and objectives of the RDP. It was after the RDP that South Africa came up with the IDP.

3.3 Integrated Development Plan (IDP)

3.3.1 Definition

An Integrated Development Plan (IDP) is a strategic document that is used by all municipalities to guide the use of scarce resources in a nation (IDP Guide pack II). In terms of the Municipal System Act (Act 32 of 2000) an IDP is a legally binding document which all municipalities must adopt. The IDP is prepared by the local, district and metropolitan municipalities for a five-year period which coincides with the term of the elected council. Once the IDP has been adopted it becomes a binding policy document outlining key role players and procedures and highlighting key objectives and aims (IDP Guide pack II: 4). This is meant to ensure that municipalities conduct their affairs in a manner consistent to the IDP as the guiding document.

Cesar and Theron (1999:61) describe the IDP as a plan that supersedes all the other plans that guide development. This is because the IDP integrates all sectors of development within a certain jurisdiction incorporating all national and provincial goals and objectives in the process. However, these goals and objectives are informed by the NDP which gives the direction for

municipalities to pursue development. It becomes the mandate of the municipalities to pick out the different areas of focus which will develop the key objectives of the IDP.

On the other hand, IDP is an instrument used to ensure more effective and efficient resource allocation and utilisation. In other words the IDP is used to guide planning, budgeting, management and decision making (IDP Guide pack I: 2). This is because the IDP has a package of instruments which include performance management tools, participatory processes and service delivery partnerships (WPLG; 1998) which are used to assess the level of development and achievement of goals and objectives.

According to Maphunye and Mafunisa (2008:461) the IDP is a tool which combines all strategic plans in decision making from all angles of development to engineer progress. Furthermore, it enables municipalities to weigh up obligations and systematically prioritise programmes and resource allocation for instance, in context of great inequalities. IDPs also serve as frameworks for municipalities to prioritise their actions around meeting urgent needs while maintaining the overall economic, municipal and social infrastructure already in place (COGTA, 2010). This means the IDP arrives at decision making in prioritising issues of development and resource allocation but within the precincts of institutional capacities to evaluate if there is a definitive link between prioritisation, resource allocation and budgeting processes.

Madzivhandila and Asha (2012:372) define integrated development planning as a process by which municipalities prepare a five-year strategic development plan that is reviewed annually, in consultations with communities and all relevant stakeholders. In the definition, the IDP is viewed as a strategy which is used to integrate all aspects of development and all stakeholders to come up with people oriented achievements. This shows that the IDP is a plan which enables participatory planning from all stakeholders emphasising on different legislatures and policy documents that promote participatory planning in South Africa.

According to Orange (2007) IDPs are described as plans used to assist municipalities to focus on the environmental sustainability of their delivery and development strategies. This stems from South African legal policy which in terms of the Constitution actually states that everyone has a right for an environment which is not harmful to health.

According to TLM IDP draft (2011:13) TLM faces numerous challenges in terms of addressing the needs of the people and the past spatial disparities for sustainable development. Therefore for TLM to cope with its roles and functions, the IDP is the key instrument.

3.3.2 Legal framework supporting the IDP

3.3.2.1 SA Constitution 1996

According to SA Constitution 1996 municipalities can draft and implement the IDPs to promote, manage administration, budgeting and planning processes and to prioritise the basic needs of local communities. Section 153 of the Constitution provides that the municipalities are provided with developmental duties. In terms of the Constitution, local government as a distinct sphere of government is required to provide democratic and accountable government, ensure the provision of services to all communities in a sustainable way, promote social and economic development and encourage the involvement of local communities in local governance (Venter, 2007).

3.3.2.2 National Development Plan (2012)

According to National Development Plan (NDP) vision for 2030 (2012:2) the South African NDP is a plan for the country to:

- eliminate poverty;
- reduce inequality by 2030 through uniting South Africans;
- unleash the energies of its citizens;
- grow inclusive economy;
- build and enhance capabilities of the state and leaders working together to solve complex problems.

The NDP 2030 (2012) sets an average GDP growth rate target of 5,4 % per annum between 2011 and 2030, and argues that this would create an estimated 11 000 00 additional jobs by 2030 and reduce unemployment to about 6 %. At this rate, the plan forecasts that the proportion of the population with an income below the poverty measure of R418 per person per month will fall from 39 % in 2009 to zero in 2030. However, the main focus of the NDP is also on spatial transformation. Its Chapter 8 is specifically called 'Transforming Human Settlements' indicating the need to place significant focus on ways to change issues of human settlements as a priority option.

All dimensions come around to fulfil regional goals such as the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) which include to:

- Eradication of extreme hunger and poverty;

- Achieve universal primary education;
- Promote gender equality and empower women;
- Reduce child mortality rate;
- Improve on maternal health
- Combating HIV and Aids;

Thus, the goals and objectives of the IDP are informed by national and regional goals. For the national goals and objectives, integration and transformation have been the key emphasis for municipal aims to achieve world class city development (Nel and Binns, 2002).

Zarenda (2013:10) propounds that the NDP largely links to economic development and the skill of growth initiative broadening the socio-economic transformation in the country by 2030. This is meant to strengthen South Africa's agenda of establishing a substantial consumer base to attract foreign investment, employment, reduction in poverty and inequality and improving living standards for the bulk of the population.

According to COSATU (2013) the NDP makes unrealistic assumptions and problematic strategies which leave the economy highly unequal and the majority economically marginalised. This is noted by the dominance of certain assumptions which tend to relate to three major overlapping themes of employment strategies. These themes include focusing on Small Medium Enterprising (SME) with a vision of mass entrepreneurship; this means that the strategy is based on the creation of jobs through entrepreneurship which is a failure on its own as SME's tend to create fewer job opportunities. Therefore; it automatically means that, the country should have sufficient capital for the policy commencement and supports.

3.3.2.3 Municipal Structures Act (1998)

The Municipal Structures Act (117 of 1998) hammers the directive of the government to encourage public participation in planning issues. The councillors are the representatives of the public. In summary, the Act gives an outline of the composition local municipalities that is to; include ward committees as one of the specialized structures and to enhance participatory democracy in local government. After independence in 1994, the government initiated democracy and the Act as the foundation for the achievement of the objectives of the government.

According to Yusuf (2004:1) the Municipal Structures Act entrenches community participation by stating that the executive committee must report on the involvement of communities in municipal

affairs and, must ensure public participation and consultation and report the effects of decisions taken by council.

3.3.2.4 Municipal Systems Act (2000)

The Municipal Systems Act (32 of 2000) defines the legal nature of a municipality as including the community and clarifies the executive and legislative powers of municipalities. The Act in Chapter 4 provides for community participation. This Act also provides opportunity for participation illiterate people. Section 16(1) requires the municipality to develop a culture of municipal governance that complements formal representative government with a system of participatory governance. The Act also ensures that municipalities put in place service tariffs and credit control policies that take the needs of the poor into account.

Davids (2005:130) emphasises the importance of the Act in the context that it brings out the fact that IDPs have to be prepared by all municipalities. Section 36 of the Municipal Systems Act actually demands from all municipalities to conduct affairs in the manner which has been set by the IDP thereby making municipalities liable to IDP guidelines.

3.3.2.5 Integrated Urban Development Framework, (IUDF, 2013)

The Integrated Urban Development Framework (IUDF) (2013) is a unique policy document which looks at transforming development through the maximisation of social and economic growth by way of integration (Draft Integrated Development Framework, 2013:10). According to COGTA (2013) the IUDF is a policy process and framework which is meant to clarify the reasons for the stubborn existence of urban divides while promoting effective instruments to change the legacy and promote resilient and inclusive urban settlements. IUDF provides policy levers which address all the structural drivers for urban development that include:

- integrated spatial planning;
- integrated transport and mobility;
- integrated and sustainable human settlements;
- integrated urban infrastructure;
- efficient land governance and management;
- inclusive economic development;

It is also a tool which has been realised for implementing the NDP as well as a supporting mechanism for municipalities in order for them to manage urbanisation (COGTA, 2013). The

major objective of the IUDF is to provide an interdepartmental, intergovernmental approach to integrated urban development.

It provides the road map to achieve spatial transformation. In order to fulfil the transformation vision, four strategic goals have been put in place which are, access, growth, governance and spatial transformation.

3.4 Goals of the IDP

The IDP as a strategic planning instrument is required to be undertaken by all district and local municipalities. This is because it sets out the development vision for the municipality. A number of functions can be deduced from its operations which help municipalities to day function effectively and efficiently.

3.4.1 Developing networks and linkages

Networking and linkages basically means forming formal and informal partnerships and ties with other organizations in different areas of mutual interest and or benefits (Harrison, Todes and Watson, 2004:84). In this context, according Oranje (2002:11-12) one of the major functions of the IDP is to advance networks and linkages, both formal and informal, within municipal structures, and between municipal structures and other agencies. It is noted that since the adoption of the IDP a range of contacts, both informal and formal, have been opened that did not exist long back (Mabin, 2002:62). Some of the linkages tend to be patchy but, in most cases, they are far more extensive and substantial than they would have been were the IDP been non-existent.

As Mabin puts it, "IDPs have opened new forms of conversation between different spheres of government and it is possible to build on this". These linkages and networks help to share ideas within municipalities and encourage their growth in terms of the ability and capacity to perform. Furthermore visibility is greatly increased and technology transfer is enabled. Replication of funding can be avoided and the grants can be used in a better managed and meaningful fashion. According to Davids (2005:135) the IDP is the foundation of intergovernmental relationships which currently exist in South Africa. This is because it establishes a strong linkage and communication system in the governmental system.

3.4.2 Strengthening democracy

Adam and Oranje (2002:68) referred to the IDP achieving more public participation in municipal planning than ever before in the history of South Africa as one of the most valuable outcomes of the IDP process. South African government system comprises of three spheres of government that must work together to bring effective and efficient services to the public. Furthermore, it

makes provision for municipal councils to be informed of the challenges facing their social partners. It is instrumental in facilitating and coordinating inter-governmental processes between the three spheres of government that is needed to deliver services to the public (Matzikama Municipality, 2013:4). Through the active participation of all the important stakeholders, decisions are made in a democratic and transparent manner. This can be attributed to the fact that the IDP is there to develop a more participatory form of municipal government.

3.4.3 To overcome the legacy of apartheid

Municipal resources in this context are used to integrate rural spatial patterns and to extend services to the poor. There is a strong orientation towards addressing the basic needs of deprived communities. IDPs assist in the shifting of expenditure patterns towards areas of real need. Instead of dwelling upon the injustices of the past, the IDP looks for the opportunities to address spatial challenges (Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (DRDLR), 2010:31).

3.4.4 Effective use of scarce resources

According to the plan, implementation of IDPs results in more equitable and efficient service delivery. The IDP helps local municipalities to focus on the most important needs of local communities taking into account the resources available at local level. For example; a municipality may decide to allocate resources to building a canal that will prevent homes from being damaged during the flood season. This will reduce the financial burden placed on the municipality's emergency services (COGTA, 2010).

3.4.5 Increase ownership

Rauch (2002) states that, the IDP has advanced from a consultant-driven data compilation exercise to a process in which the public are the drivers of the compilation process. This is because the plan making and implementation of the IDP increases ownership of the resources and plan itself to the municipality. However, on this note, it is vital to realise that consultants still play a significant supportive role, although the management and directions emanates mainly from the municipalities, with consultants being used more judiciously. Informed budgetary system

In addition to the above, the IDP provides for a platform for budgetary processes that are better informed by strategic objectives and negotiated priorities. IDPs are emerging as important frameworks for decision-making relating to capital expenditure, although the timing of the planning and budgeting processes to a great extent should be synchronised (IDP Guide pack III: 120).

3.4.6 It helps to speed up delivery

The IDP identifies the least serviced and most impoverished areas and points to where municipal funds should be spent. Implementation is made easier because the relevant stakeholders are part of the process. The IDP helps to develop realistic project proposals based on the availability of resources (Venter, 2007:95). In addition, the IDP provides deadlock-breaking mechanisms to ensure that projects and programmes are efficiently implemented.

3.4.7 It helps to attract additional funds

According to Tomilson (2006:93) government departments and private investors are willing to invest where municipalities have clear development plans. First, producing an IDP attracts funds from other spheres such as the government, donor organisations and investors, through, for example, defining and packaging attractive projects and programmes. Secondly in helping to create an environment that is conducive to private sector investment and the general promotion of local economic development (DPLG, 2000:25).

3.5 The IDP preparation process

According to IDP Guide pack (II: 3) it takes 6 to 9 months to develop an IDP while service delivery and development continues as shown by Table 3.3. The IDP has a lifespan of 5 years that is linked directly to the term of office for local councillors. After every local government elections, the new council has to decide on the future of the IDP. The council can adopt the existing IDP or develop a new IDP that takes into consideration existing plans (IDP Guide pack, IV).

The executive committee or executive mayors of the municipality have to manage the IDP. The committee may assign this responsibility to the municipal manager. In most municipalities, an IDP co-coordinator is appointed to oversee the process. The IDP co-coordinator reports directly to the municipal manager and the executive committee or the executive mayor (Tlokwe IDP Review, 2011:14). The IDP has to be drawn up in consultation with forums and stakeholders. The final IDP document has to be approved by the council.

Table 3.3: IDP preparation process

PLANNING ACTIVITY	WEEK																																																									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52						
PREPARATION																																																										
Process Plan Drafting and Approval District Framework Drafting and Approval																																																										
FIVE YEAR IDP PLANNING PROCESS																																																										
PHASE 1: ANALYSIS																																																										
(a) Community and Stakeholder Development Analysis (b) Municipal Technical Development Analysis (c) Institutional Analysis (d) Economic Analysis (e) Socio-Economic Analysis (f) Spatial Analysis (g) Environmental Analysis (h) Legal Framework Analysis (i) Leadership Guidelines (i) In depth analysis																																																										
PHASE 2: STRATEGIES																																																										
(a) Vision, Mission and Values (b) Gap Analysis and Strategies (c) Link KPA's and Objectives to Sectoral Functions																																																										
PHASE 3: PROJECTS																																																										

3.5.1 IDP core principles as a strategic instrument

IDPs are not only structured to inform municipal management for development, but also planned to guide the activities of any institution or agency operating in the municipal area. The core principles underpin the IDP process. Firstly,

3.5.1.1 Strategic process

The IDP stresses on integration and transformation thus this can be summarized as;

- combining of local knowledge and of the technical experts;
- service delivery challenges are solved by consensus building;
- causes and effects of service delivery are solved;
- efficient and effective use of scarce resources;
- planning and budgeting is not done in isolation but through integration with other complementary sectors.

3.5.1.2 Consultative process

One of the concepts which need to be grasped about the IDP is it involves all stakeholders that operate at the local level. The IDP approach stresses that appropriate forums should be established where local residents, government representatives, NGOs, civil society, and external sector specialists can come together (Pieterse 2007:56). In summary it:

- assesses problems of service delivery;
- helps in the prioritisation of issues depending on the order of urgency;
- establishes a common vision;
- articulates significant project proposals;
- gathers inventory of proposals and integrates them;
- it is there to assess, align and improve IDPs;

3.5.1.3 Implementation-oriented process

It is important to mention that IDP strategies, programmes and projects are not typically cast in stone, but are subject to continual change as conditions in either the internal or external

environment fluctuate. Accordingly, IDPs are reviewed annually in line with broader national planning and budgetary process, and evaluated every five years to understand the true impact on the ground. It is the tool for:

- better and faster service delivery;
- establishment and design of technically sound project proposals;
- planning-budget links with feasibility in mind;
- sufficient consensus among key stakeholders on planned projects.

3.5.1.4 Allows modernised efficient administration

The other concept which needs to be realised in local municipalities is that the IDP reforms and introduces creativity and innovation into the public sector. However, in as much as the IDP methodology is somehow given much attention subsequently causing the plan to be standardised, focus need to be emphasises on experimentations with the plan making process (Mzimakwe 2010).

3.5.1.5 Participatory governance

The IDP marries inclusiveness and participation with a technocratic managerialism and top down control with bottom up processes. It also mixes with performance management issues which are driven by targets and timeframes (Harrison, 2002).

3.6 Public Participation concept in the IDP

According to Section 59 of the South African Constitution of the communities are encouraged to participate in the committee structures. Community participation in local government uses ward committees (Tshabalala, 2006:5). The Municipal Structures Act (117 of 1998) provides for ward committees to be set up in municipalities. The primary function of a ward committee is to be a formal communication channel between the community and the municipal council. The ward committees are the structures that are constitutionally established for community participation. These elected representatives are expected to report back regularly to their voters, the community, in order to obtain ratification of their decisions on behalf of the community (Paradza 2010:15).

However, it is observed that the IDP is highly based on representations and technical approaches to decision making. To a greater extent it engages insufficiently with the people due to issues of power and politics such that in many instances ward committees have become

nothing more than extensions of political parties. This has made it to be subjected to manipulation (DeVilliers, 2008:87).

The elected council is the ultimate decision-making power on IDPs. The role of participatory democracy is to inform stakeholders and negotiate with them on issues. It is also to give stakeholders an opportunity to provide input on the decisions taken by the council.

In order to ensure public participation, the legislation requires municipalities to create appropriate conditions that will enable participation. This is a minimum requirement; however, it is not enough. Municipalities also have a responsibility to encourage its community and stakeholder groups to get involved. According to Davids, Theron and Maphunye (2005:19) public participation should be understood in the sense of decision making processes, implementation of developmental programs or projects, monitoring and evaluation of development programs and participation and the sharing of the benefits. This should be done in particular with regard to disadvantaged or marginalized groups in accordance with the conditions and capacities of a municipality.

However, Mkhehlane (2008:26) argues that even when consultations are undertaken the inputs from the stakeholders or beneficiaries are either forthcoming or when received are of poor quality so that it is difficult to take them into consideration. In contrast, it can be argued that the problem emanates from the failure of the public to comprehend the matters before them. Therefore it is the duty of the municipality to educate the people on certain issues so that they can make meaningful contributions which will influence the crafting of community projects.

There are strategic mechanisms that have been adopted by communities such as the Community Based Planning (CBP), which provides a mechanism for implementing pieces of legislation by entrenching participation in planning and management at ward level. The methodology was developed in a four country project with South Africa, Uganda, Zimbabwe and Ghana. Between 2003-5 CBP was refined in South Africa where it was tested and revised based on experience of 8 pilot municipalities.

CBP is a form of participatory planning designed to promote community action and to link with the IDP (Watson, 2002). CBP methodology provides municipalities with of means to strengthen the participatory aspects of their IDP giving effect to the requirements of the White Paper and the Systems Act. Municipalities are encouraged to undertake the CBP, in order for participation in the IDP to become a reality. There is a cycle of CBP and IDP, and the schedule for CBP and IDP that have been introduced so that there are activities all the year round between ward committees, officials and communities around the IDP. In as much as the CBP has been

created as a way to engage the public and create a link with the IDP, it is not a panacea to the challenges which are present between the public and the officials (Blair, 2000:22-25).

The IDP as an instrument for participation also has mixed results. It is unjustifiable to fail to recognise that it has achieved a higher level of participation within municipal planning than ever before in South African history (Adam and Oranje, 2002:59). However, there have been wide variations in the extent to which the success of the participation has reached. Participation in the IDP is combined with performance management which is driven by time frames, targets and indicators. However, participation is usually a time consuming process which is often unpredictable and not really amenable. As a result, in as much as the IDP tries to marry inclusiveness and participation, it may not prove to be satisfactory in achieving the set objective.

3.6.1 Public participation institutions

There are also institutional arrangements for public participation in the form of political roles and responsibilities such as political heads of institutions that bear the responsibility to adopt strategies, implement programs and constituency offices. Most importantly, the political office bearers play a critical role in communicating programmes of the government and also to hear concerns of the public to ensure public participation.

One of the encouraging aspects about the IDP is in its successful principle of interactions among the three tiers of government. The national and provincial legislatures have mechanisms which ensure that the public have the ability to: participate in the processes of planning through outreaches: disseminate information; freely comment or criticise and object on written or oral petitions and hearings respectively. These platforms promote public participation.

3.6.1.1 National sphere of the Government

The national sphere of the government is responsible for making policies and laws about the responsibilities and rights of citizens and the delivery of government services. Government provides services through revenue collected from taxes. According to Yusuf (2004:4) development planning at national level occurs through the Medium Term Strategic Framework (MTSF). The framework is approved by the Cabinet and its focus is on institutional preparedness. The Constitution sets the rules for the operation of the government in the three spheres, namely national, provincial and local government.

However, over the years, IDPs at the national sphere have not managed to draw consistency and high levels of participation from the provincial departments to the planning process. The local municipalities would present to the IDP panel but without receiving feedback from the national departments when approached for input. This is a demoralising move for the local

municipality as the national sphere is expected to actively participate in assisting district and provincial municipalities in developmental projects.

3.6.1.2 Provincial sphere of the Government

In terms of section 155(6) of the Constitution, provinces are responsible for the monitoring and support of municipalities, as well as the promotion of development of local government capacity, to enable municipalities to fulfil their mandate and manage their own affairs. Development planning occurs through the Provincial Growth Development Strategy (PGDS) and is adopted by Cabinet.

The Constitution gives authority for provinces to adopt provincial constitutions and pass legislation. According to Zarenda (2013).) Provincial planning is determined by the content of municipal planning. The determinant content of provincial planning is facilitated by the provision in Spatial Land Use Management Act (SPLUMA) that provincial planning comprises of the compilation, approval and review of a provincial spatial development framework, and the planning by a province for the efficient and sustainable execution of its legislative and executive powers. However, it is also the duty of the provincial governments to participate in local government issues and assist in developing IDPs. This is because of the need for high levels of integration and alignment in the three tiers of the government to ensure the success of local plans.

3.6.1.3 Local sphere of the Government

Key role players in the IDP a local level

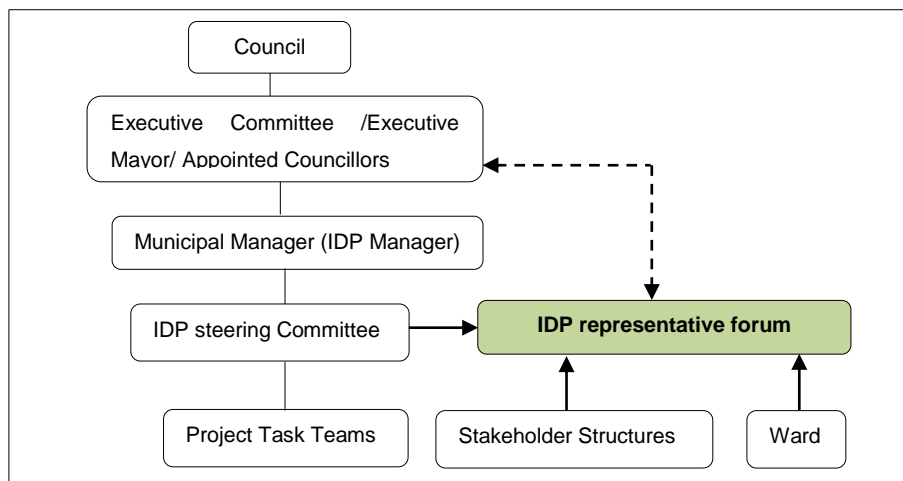


Figure 3.2: IDP hierarchy of people involved

Source: Own Construction from IDP Guide pack (II: 25).

In local government, both the national and provincial government exercise legislative competence. However, in order to ensure participation, there is need for intergovernmental integration. According to Rauch (2002) previously the effective alignment of the IDP and provincial and national planning process did not happen. There was more of “lip service” rather than substance on the part of provincial and national departments which was highly strenuous for municipalities.

According to Mabin (2002:63) one blockage could be the fact that provincial departments and national departments probably did not understand their roles in local municipalities nor the value that would be added to their own planning by regular interaction with local processes. The provincial IDP steering committees did not function effectively so that at meetings there was little contribution by provinces with mostly junior officials sent as representatives.

There are lessons that have been learnt from other arrangements of the systems of governments that bear similarities to those of South Africa. For instance in India, there is a top-down system of development planning with the NPC but since 1992 there has been a high percentage of devolution of planning functions to urban local bodies. The lesson of devolution may provide valuable experiences for South Africa.

3.7 Overview on the implementation of the IDP

According to Harrison (2001:183) the IDP has little in common with South Africa’s more traditional planning instruments such as the town planning schemes, guide plans and structure plans. Therefore, the first set of IDPs was prepared by planning consultants who were mainly rooted in physical planning. In the period of 1996-2000 most local municipalities came up with their first IDPs. The plans were prepared in very difficult environments because of insufficient guidance, inexperience of the new municipal officials and limited resources. This resulted in deficient IDPs.

In addition, there was difficulty in meaningful integration between sectors and spheres of the government. However, this was the commencement of a learning process and the foundation for more successful IDPs.

Certain interventions were then provided in order to support the new round of IDP such as the Decentralised Development Planning Programme (DDP) and the Municipal Demarcation Act for redrawing all municipal boundaries to resolve the relationship between the district and local municipalities. In addition, an IDP nerve centre was created; a website which allowed all municipal IDPs to be accessed and all the documents that could be of value to municipalities.

However, by the second round of IDPs in 2002 very few were in place. As the system of municipal planning was merging with the finalisation of a new round of IDPs a more comprehensive intergovernmental planning began to emerge which was being informed by the principle of integrated governance.

The preparation of IDPs in 2002 played a critical role in the sense that it created roles and responsibilities in municipalities and pointed to many deficiencies, which meant more transformation processes. The following have been the major contributions of the IDP:

- Development of network linkages;
- Development of a more participatory form of municipal governance;
- Strong principle for addressing the basic needs of deprived communities;
- Emphasis on local economic development;
- Increased municipal ownership on the planning process;
- Better informed budgetary process (Orange 2002:11).

From the above overview, it is clear that municipalities have been in the process of shaping their institutions to conduct everything in harmony with the IDP. According to Coetzee (2010:30) whilst municipalities compiled IDPs related to legislative requirements these IDPs are still a product of a mechanistic process and have demonstrated limited strategic engagements regarding:

- National and provincial goals priorities and challenges;
- Shared perspectives;
- Common understanding of developmental potential;
- Choices and trade-offs regarding infrastructure and investment spending priorities.

Instead IDPs are more focused on backlogs or needs, with little attention to the development potential and the long-term implications of investment and development spending. This has been worsened by the uncertainty regarding the roles and content of district and local IDPs and the functions of service providers. This is because the IDPs have failed to provide coherence or strategic guidance required for prioritisation and resource allocation by various role players.

Coetzee (2010) further points out that for, the prepared IDPs are an opportunity for guiding and coordinating the initiatives of development agendas, investment and spending of various local municipalities as well as national and provincial departments. The municipal financial plan is also part of the IDP which is also used by the municipal treasury and serves as a mid-term financial framework for managing municipal revenue and the resource frame or prioritisation and budgeting.

However, according to Adam and Orange (2002) there have been limited innovations in the IDP as far as the methodologies have been concerned especially from smaller municipalities. This is because the IDP process had become standardised because of the use of Guide packs. Orange (2002) propounds that the use of Guide packs has compromised the quality of IDPs. In the long run the standardisation of the IDP and lack of experimentation will depress the quality of planning and side-line the realisation of possibilities.

In many rural areas, municipalities have been struggling to finance basic operating expenditure and some have non-existent capital budgets. Capacity is insufficient in terms of planning and implementation although some have managed to come up with the IDP. According to Naidoo (2011), Mngquma municipality, for example, was in a state of institutional disarray but managed a community driven planning process because of dedicated people.

Even then, it is still very difficult to evaluate the success of IDP's and developmental outcomes. In spite of this, according to evaluations of IDP held by DPLG, German Technical Cooperation (GTZ) and provincial governments point to their success despite the numerous challenges and problems that persist (Adam and Orange, 2002; Rauch 2003 and Harrison 2003). Todes (2004:843) evaluated the IDP in terms of sustainability focusing on Ugu District Municipality in Kwazulu Natal. The outcome was despite the emphasis on integration and a multi sectoral approach to development, greater attention has to be placed on environmental aspects, and the forms of planning need to be adapted to the context of its social, economic and political dynamics.

There is a wide consensus that the IDPs have managed to contribute very well in the shifting of expenditure towards the historically disadvantaged areas. In spite of this, it is not clear whether this more equitable expenditure pattern is yielding the targeted impact on those enclaves of social and spatial patterns of inequality. Furthermore, Mabin (2002:14) postulates that the IDPs are failing to address the "thorniest issues" but are steering radical interventions that would be needed to alter deeply entrenched patterns. Moreover, Pieterse (2004:86) is of the idea that the integration is not taking into consideration the aspect of legacy and systems of power that reproduce the apartheid system. Instead, a more radical approach of planning intervention is necessary.

3.8 Essential aspects of the IDP in South Africa

3.8.1 Structured and systematic dialogue

Most local needs are inconsistent with the national priorities and interests. Therefore outside actors have to engage directly and frequently with the local representatives to deliberate on issues and develop a shared understanding on which objectives to bring attention to and determine the best strategies to achieve them;

- it entails local participation on all phases of the planning process;
- both the municipal officials and external agents should contribute and have responsibility on the developments.

3.8.2 Alignment of planning instruments

There are broad provisions regarding alignment and it is not indicated how at what levels alignment should be achieved. However the processes of alignment should occur from the first stages of the planning process. There has to be;

- alignment of the three types of intergovernmental planning instruments so as to ensure unity of efforts in the planning process, monitoring and budgeting cycles;
- specific programmes aligned with the provincial and national ones;
- diverse monitoring and evaluation schemes;
- alignment of time frames of national development on budget cycles in the spheres of the government.

3.8.3 Targeted intervention

Decisions should be informed by the concept of development potential (areas of impact in IDP parlance). High potential areas serve as the basic units that drive sectoral planning and budgeting between various spheres and sectors.

3.9 Conclusion

South Africa's IDP was launched for strategic development interventions. This provided opportunities for municipal, provincial and national representatives and well as other major players to agree on strategies through effective and efficient engagements. The goals brought about by the planning process include;

- restructuring the apartheid spatial form;
- transform local government structures so as to promote human centred development;
- establishment of a democratic and transparent planning;
- cooperative governance and the development of sectoral planning.

The chapter laid out the IDP concepts that strongly reflect on the aim of the plan. It gave the historical background of the development of the IDP. The legal framework was presented in order to assess the instruments empowering the use of IDPs in local municipalities. The study identified the IDP as the strategic planning instrument which has been tabled for local municipalities to address the spatial injustices. Below is graphical summary illustrating the IDP components.

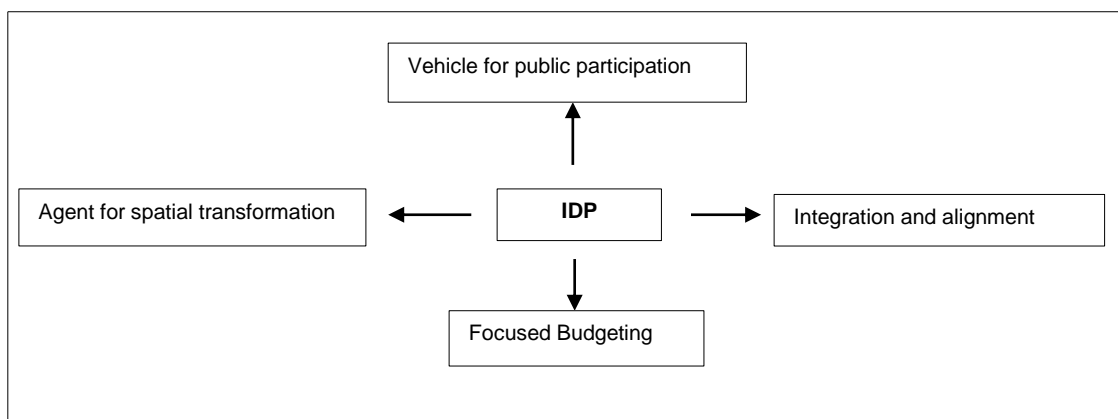


Figure 3.3: Arms of the IDP

Source: Own Construction (2015).

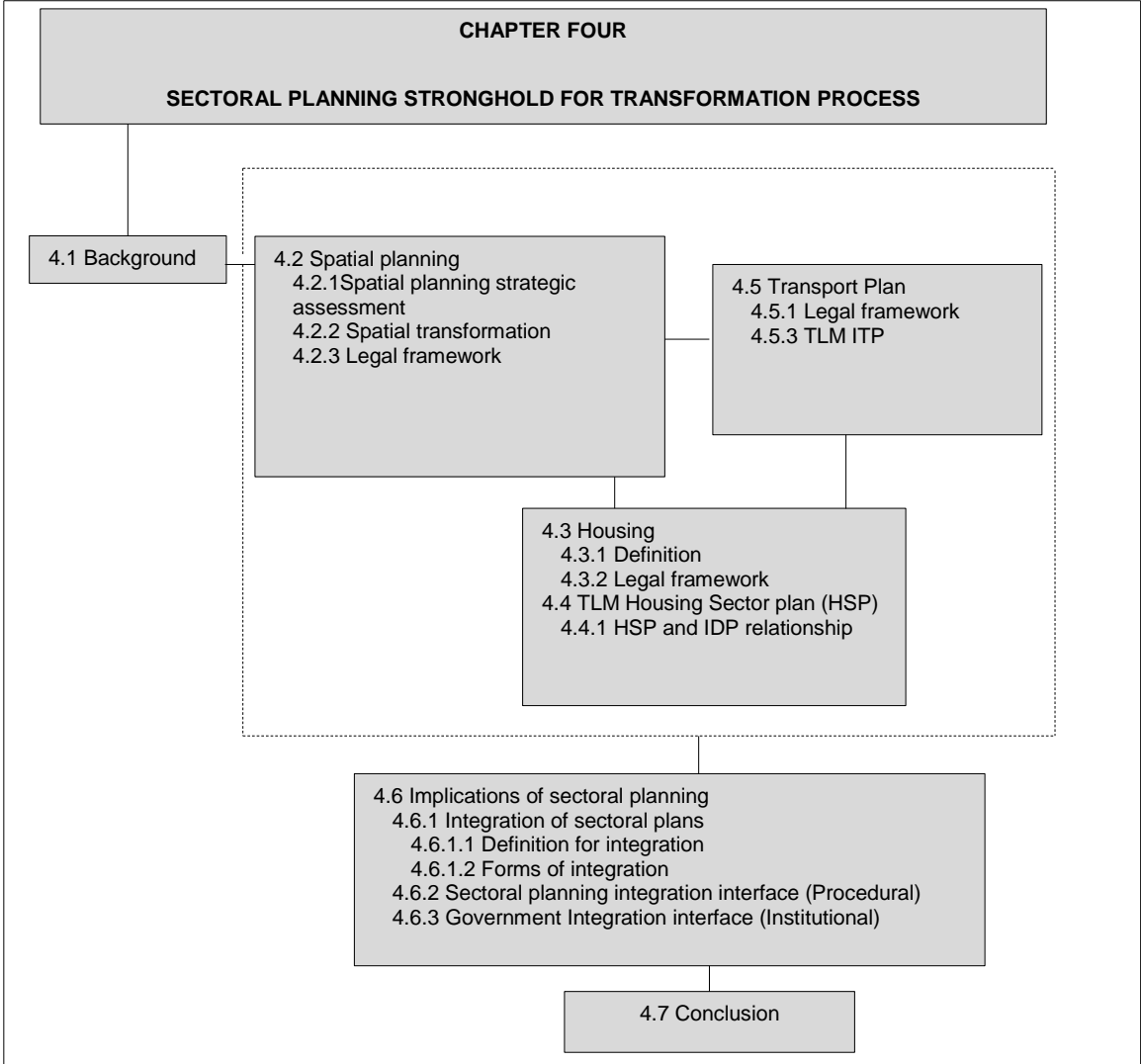
The study gave a description on the adoption of the IDP since 2000 to assess its building blocks in local municipalities. On the other hand the chapter presented the preparation process of the plan. One important aspect propounded by the research is that of public participation which is made a reality by the IDP. The chapter highlights the importance of public participation in the IDP.

In a nutshell numerous legislation and policies influence the nature of planning in South Africa. The discussed policies provide the legal basis of the IDP and make it a binding instrument to restructure cities in South Africa. The IDP is presented as the strategic plan that supersedes all the other plans. In essence, the IDP is the plan intended to assist local municipalities in the achievements of the developmental mandates and to lead the activities of any institution operating in a municipal area.

However, the IDP is built by sectoral plans which are entities of development. Therefore, the next chapter provides an analysis of the sectoral plans and how well they are integrated in the IDP to facilitate transformation. The chapter presents the sectoral plans as crucial components which local municipalities need to take cognisance of in order to achieve municipal goals and objectives.

CHAPTER FOUR: SECTORAL PLANNING A STRONGHOLD FOR TRANSFORMATION PROCESS

Below is a graphical presentation of the content of Chapter four;



4.1 Background

The broader perspective of the IDP explores the interrelated dimensions which exist in all sector departments on developmental issues. It is necessary to give an overview of the sector plans which make up the IDP. This study will mainly focus on the SDF, ITP and the HSP as complementary plans that guide city regions.

According to Pieterse (2004:84) an IDP is an essential strategic planning framework that allows municipalities to establish a holistic but prioritised development plan from the territory under jurisdiction. This means IDPs provide a roadmap of how municipalities are to address social, political and cultural needs. To aid such reflections, different parts of the urban zones have to

be disaggregated for a more dynamic understanding of the necessary interrelated actions on a region or a city. This means that there are categorised as sectors.

According to the Presidency, in the Sector Planning Guidelines (2003:1) a sectoral plan can be defined as a plan which provides a detailed statement of sector performance, issues and opportunities, and sector development objectives, policies and strategies. According to the United Nations (1999:5) sectors are groupings of economic, social and administrative activities based on the type of goods and services produced. From the two definitions, it can be deduced that sectoral plans provide a detailed analysis of sector performances, issues and opportunities within sectoral development objectives, policies and strategies that support the IDP. Sectors can be grouped under broad sectoral headings such as the economic sector, social sectors and infrastructure sectors.

In terms of the IDP process in South Africa, sectoral plans are being prepared as a forward planning mechanism to integrate land use, transportation planning and service delivery (DRDLG, 2010: 120). The sectoral plan is partly related to the priority issues arising from the IDP process and they include; housing sector plan; integrated transport plan; spatial development framework; water; local economic development; environmental management framework; public safety; and corporate services. These sectoral plans are prepared for each department for easier management, analysis and prioritisation (IDP Guide pack III:19).

The mentioned sectoral plans provide the framework for the identification of public policy initiatives and projects in the private and public sectors (the Presidency Sectoral Planning Guidelines, 2003:4). Certain government agencies and departments have responsibilities regarding the preparation of sectoral plans (see Table 4.7) through a process of stakeholder consultation and participation. However, the research only focuses on the SDF, HSP and ITP.

4.1.1 Summary of the legal guiding frameworks in South Africa

Table 4.1 below shows a summary of the legal framework guiding the sectoral plans. This will be followed by a discussion of each sectoral plan

Table 4.1: Summary of legal framework of sectoral plans

Spatial planning	Transportation planning	Environmental management	Housing
<p>Legislation</p> <p>White Paper on Water and Sanitation (1997)</p> <p>White Paper on Local Government (1998)</p> <p>Green Paper on Development</p> <p>White Paper on Spatial Planning and Land Use Management (2001)</p> <p>Removal of Restrictions Act 84 of 1967</p> <p>The Less Formal Township Establishment Act, Act 113 of 1991</p> <p>The Physical Planning Act, 88 of 1967 (Sec 6, 8 and 11)</p> <p>National Building Regulations and Building Standards Act (103 of 1977)</p> <p>Town Planning and Township Ordinance, Ordinance 15 of 1986</p> <p>Land Use Ordinance (Cape of Good Hope), Ordinance 15 of (1985)</p> <p>Development Facilitation Act, Act No. 67 of 1995 (DFA)</p> <p>Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (108 of 1996)</p> <p>Bill of Human Rights (1996)</p> <p>Physical Planning Act (88 of 1967)</p> <p>Municipal Structures Act (117 of 1998)</p> <p>Restitution of Land Rights Act (22 of 1993)</p> <p>Interim Protection of Informal Rights Act (76 of 1995)</p> <p>Prevention of Illegal Eviction from Unlawful Occupation of Land Act (19 of 1998)</p>	<p>Policy</p> <p>White Paper on National Transport Policy (1996)</p> <p>Moving South Africa (1996)</p> <p>Rural Transport Strategy for South Africa (2003)</p> <p>Draft minimum requirements for the preparation of integrated transport plans (ITP) (2007)</p> <p>NDOT: Public Transport Strategy (2007)</p> <p>NDOT: Public Transport Action Plan (2007-2010)</p> <p>National Land Transport Strategic Framework (2006-2011) (2002) (Draft)</p> <p>NDOT: Road Infrastructure Strategic Framework for South Africa (2006)</p> <p>NDOT: Rural Transport Strategy for South Africa (2007)</p> <p>NDOT: Implementation Strategy to Guide the Provision of Accessible Transport in South Africa. (2009)</p> <p>NDOT: Final Draft National Scholar Transport Policy (2009)</p> <p>NDOT: Transport Action Plan (2010)</p> <p>NDOT: National Transport Master Plan 2050 (NATMAP) (2010)</p> <p>NDOT: Road Freight Strategy for South Africa (2011)</p> <p>NDOT: Non-Motorized Transport (NMT) Policy (2012)</p> <p>NDOT: Department of Transport Strategic Plan (2012-2014)</p> <p>TRANSNET: Long Term Planning</p>	<p>Strategies</p> <p>Global Biodiversity Strategy: Guidelines for action to save, study and use earth's biotic wealth sustainably and equitably (Published by the WRI; IUCN and UNEP in 1992)</p> <p>Balancing the Scales: Guidelines for increasing Biodiversity's Chances through Bioregional Management, (Published by the World Resources Institute in 1996).</p> <p>Minimum requirements for the Classification, Handling and Disposal of Hazardous Waste (Second Edition (1998) (DWAF)</p> <p>Integrated Environmental Management Guidelines Series (1992)</p> <p>Policies</p> <p>DEAT: An Environmental Policy for South Africa (Green Paper) (1996)</p> <p>White Paper on Integrated Pollution and Waste Management for South Africa (2000)</p> <p>Strategic Environmental Assessment in South Africa (2000)</p> <p>DEAT (2002a) <i>Screening, Information Series 1</i>, Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT), Pretoria.</p> <p>DEAT (2002b) <i>Scoping, Integrated Environmental Management, Information Series 2</i>, Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT), Pretoria.</p>	<p>Policies</p> <p>National Housing Forum (1992-1994)</p> <p>White Paper on Housing (1994)</p> <p>Breaking New Ground (BNG) - Human Settlement (PHP)People Housing Processes(1998)</p> <p>Legislation</p> <p>Housing Act (107 of 1999)</p> <p>Social Housing Act (2008)</p> <p>Rental Housing Act (43 of 2007)</p> <p>The National Housing Code (2009) Plans</p> <p>National Development Plan (2012)</p> <p>Housing Atlas (2006)</p> <p>Sustainable Human Settlement Planning: Resource Book (2008) (NDoH)</p>

<p>Reconstruction and Development Programme Act (79 of 1998)</p> <p>Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000</p> <p>Development Facilitation Act 67 of 1995 (DFA)</p> <p>Physical Planning Act 125 of 1991</p> <p>Less Formal Township Establishment Act 113 of 1991 (LEFTEA)</p> <p>Subdivision of Agricultural Land Act 70 of 1970 (SALA)</p> <p>Removal of Restrictions Act 84 of 1967</p> <p>Community Land Reform Act 28 of 1996 (CLARA)</p> <p>Housing Act (107 of 1997)</p> <p>National Land Use Management Bill (Draft 2008)</p> <p>Local Government: Municipal Integrated Development Planning Regulations, (2001).</p> <p>Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act (SPLUMA) (Act 16 of 2013)</p> <p>SPLUMA Regulations (23 March 2015)</p> <p>Policies</p> <p>White Paper on South African Land Policy (1997)</p> <p>Urban Development Framework (1997)</p> <p>Rural Development Framework (1997)</p> <p>Draft Integrated Urban Development Framework (2015)</p> <p>National Spatial Development Perspective (2003)</p> <p>King Report II on Corporate Governance for South Africa (2002)</p> <p>Mining Charter (2003)</p> <p>Construction Charter (2005)</p> <p>ASGISA, 2006</p>	<p>Framework (2012)</p> <p>PRASA: PRASA National Strategic Plan (2012)</p> <p>NDOT: Draft National Land Transport Strategic Framework (NLSF) (2014)</p> <p>NDOT: NATMAP Synopsis Report (Draft) (2015)</p> <p>Legislation</p> <p>Advertising on Roads and Ribbon Development Act (21 of 1940)</p> <p>Fencing Act (31 of 1963)</p> <p>National Land Transport Transition Act (Act 22 of 2000)</p> <p>Urban Transport Act (Act 78 of 1977)</p> <p>National Transport Interim Arrangements Act (Act 45 of 1998)</p> <p>Transport Appeal Tribunal Act (At 39 of 1998)</p> <p>Cross Border road Transport Act (Act 4 of 1998)</p> <p>Road Traffic Act (Act 29 of 1989)</p> <p>National Road Traffic Act (Act 93 of 1996)</p> <p>The South African National Roads Agency Limited and National Roads Act (7 of 1998)</p> <p>National Land Transport Act, 2009 (Act 5 of 2009) and Regulations (R.1208, 2009)</p> <p>R. 877 National Land Transport Act (5/2009): National Land Transport Regulations on Contracting for Public Transport Services.</p>	<p>DEAT (2002c) <i>Specialist Studies, Information Series 4</i>, Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT), Pretoria.</p> <p>DEAT (2002d) <i>Impact Significance</i>, Integrated Environmental Management, Information Series 5, Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT), Pretoria.</p> <p>DEAT (2004a) <i>Overview of Integrated Environmental Management</i>, Integrated Environmental Management, Information Series 0, Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT), Pretoria.</p> <p>DEAT (2004c) <i>Environmental Impact Reporting</i>, Integrated Environmental Management, Information Series 15, Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT), Pretoria.</p> <p>Strengthening Sustainability in the Integrated Development Planning Process (2001)</p> <p>State of the Environment Reporting: Draft Guidelines for Local Municipalities (2005)</p> <p>DEAT Information Series (2004-2009)</p> <p>National Framework for Sustainable Development (2008)</p> <p>Legislation</p> <p>Health Act (63 of 1977)</p> <p>Water Act (54 of 1956)</p> <p>National Water Act (36 of 1991)</p> <p>Water Services Act (108 of 1997)</p> <p>National Environmental Management Act 107 of 1998 (NEMA)</p> <p>National Environmental Management: Air Quality Act (39 of 2004)</p> <p>National Environmental Management:</p>	
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<p>National Spatial Development Perspective (2006)</p> <p>Housing Atlas (2006)</p> <p>Sustainable Human Settlement Planning: Resource Book (2008) (NDoH)</p> <p>Area Based Planning. Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (2008/2009)</p> <p>NPC: A Guide to the National Planning Framework (2009)</p> <p>NPC: Green Paper. National Strategic Planning (2009)</p> <p>Comprehensive Rural Development Programme. Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (2009)</p> <p>Plans</p> <p>National Planning Commission Diagnostic Overview (2011)</p> <p>National Development Plan (2012)</p> <p>Reconstruction and Development Plan (1994)</p> <p>Strategies</p> <p>Growth, Economic and Redistribution Strategy (1996)</p> <p>National Integrated Rural Development Strategy (2000)</p>		<p>Waste Act 59 of 2009</p> <p>National Environmental Management: Biodiversity Act 10 of 2004 (NEMBA)</p> <p>National Environmental Management: Protected Areas Act 57 of 2003 (NEMPAA)</p> <p>National Heritage Resources Act 25 of 1999 (NHRA)</p> <p>Mineral and Petroleum Resources Development Act 28 of 2002 (MPRDA)</p> <p>World Heritage Convention Act 49 of 1999</p> <p>Biodiversity Act 10 of 2004</p> <p>R.543: National Environmental Management Act (107/1998): Environmental Impact Assessment Regulations, 2010 (33306)</p> <p>R.544: Listing Notice 1: List of activities and competent authorities identified in terms of sections 24 (2) and 24D (33306)</p> <p>R.545: Listing Notice 2: List of activities and competent authorities identified in terms of sections 24 (2) and 24D (33306)</p> <p>R.546: Listing Notice 3: List of activities and competent authorities identified in terms of sections 24 (2) and 24D (33306)</p> <p>R.547: Environmental Management Framework Regulations, 2010</p>	
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Source: Schoeman (2015:8).

4.2 Spatial planning

Growth of cities creates intense pressures on the economic and spatial structure of an urban system (see section The growth of cities). This is because of the need to consider not only housing but service facilities, transport, telecommunication systems and energy supply as well. Therefore, this requires adequate spatial planning.

Various definitions of spatial planning exist. According to Turok (2004:24) spatial planning is a method used largely by the public sector to influence all future distribution of activities in space. It further states that spatial planning is done with the aim of creating a more rational territorial organisation of land uses and linkages between them to balance demands for development with the need to protect the environment and to achieve economic development.

Spatial planning goes beyond the traditional land use planning methods, to integrate policies for the development and use of land with the other policies and programmes that influence both the nature and function of a place (see section Traditional planning theories). This includes policies that can impact on land (United Kingdom Office of the Deputy Prime Minister, 2005).

According to the Spatial Planning Act (2002) of Slovenia, spatial planning is defined as an interdisciplinary activity involving land use planning, determining the conditions for the development and locations of activities, identifying measures for improving the existing physical structures and determining the conditions for the location and execution of planned physical structures (Slovenian Ministry of the environmental Spatial Planning and Energy, 2002).

The notion of spatial planning has been recognised in different policy documents over the years. In 1976, the Vancouver Declaration of Human Settlements adopted the United Nations Conference on Human Settlements and identified the roles of spatial planning for future urban development. In addition, the European Regional Spatial Planning Charter (The Torremolinos Charter) was adopted in 1983 by the European Conference of Ministers responsible for Regional planning. It identified the coordination between different policy sectors, cooperation between various levels of decision making and the promotion of public participation.

Furthermore the Agenda 21 Action Plan adopted by more than 178 governments at the UN Conference on Environmental and Development in 1992 in its chapter 10 directly addresses planning and management of land resources. This Chapter recognises that human requirements and economic activities are ever increasing pressures on land resources, thereby creating competition and conflicts that results in the suboptimal use of land and resources (UN, 1992). Therefore the action plan encourages the more effective and efficient use of land and natural resources, that is, sustainable development.

4.2.1 Spatial planning strategic assessment

SWOT analysis originated by Albert Humphrey in 1960. The instrument helps to uncover opportunities that can be exploited. It also assists understanding the weaknesses an organisation can manage and eliminate threats. Below is a SWOT analysis for spatial planning.

Table 4.2: SWOT analysis

Benefit	Threats	Weakness	Strengths	
			X	Flexible tool which is strategy based
X				More informed decision making which more efficient and consistence
X				Delivers spatial shape form and structure
	X			Cost of delivery
		X		Focus on process rather than delivering output
		X		Implementation process
			X	Delivering similar agenda with sectoral planning
	X		X	Greater chances of misunderstanding (coordination and alignment)
			X	Well shaped policies, regulation, guidelines and framework
	X			Urban challenges (urbanisation)
	X			Requires proper management
				Environmental analysis
X				Promote of environmental quality & favourable condition for investment and development
			X	Promotes sustainability
	X			Conflicts on monetary benefits
				Social analysis
X				Considerations on the needs of the people
X				Improves accessibility in locational considerations
	X			Involvement of government spheres
	X			Political interference sand collisions

		X		Reliance on political will
		X		Monitoring and evaluation to adherence to the plans

Source: Own Construction (2015).

According to Orange (2008:6) measures to regulate the use of land in South Africa dates back to the 1830s. However, with the advent of democracy in 1994 and the subsequent meshing of separated spaces into new policies, the first democratic government was confronted with complicated legal frameworks for spatial planning (Berrisford, 2011; Orange 2002). One of the earliest statutes prescribed in South Africa proactive spatial planning functions can be traced to guide plans, introduced by the physical planning and utilization of resources act. It was created due to the uncoordinated developments that created a state of confusion within the spatial planning arena (Kihato, 2013:22). The intention was a broad-scale, statutory organisational frameworks with a coordinative function for policies for land use, transportation and infrastructure of regions or sub-regions for a period of up to twenty five years.

In South Africa today, legislation providing for proactive spatial planning includes the Municipal Systems Act (2000) which provides for instruments for transformation such as IDPs and Spatial Development Frameworks (SDFs). Other legislation include the Spatial Planning Land Use Management Act (SPLUMA, 2013) as well as the Physical Planning Act (1967) which still remains in the statute books, to provide for urban structure plans that serve as guidelines for the future physical development of urban areas.

4.2.2 Spatial transformation in relation to spatial planning legislation

According to Turok (2014:74) there is no clear cut definition for spatial transformation because it depends on varying contexts. It can be viewed as a major urban restructuring or change. Bickford (2014:107) described spatial transformation as a “tension riddled planning in motion”. This means that it is contentious, continuous and needs reinvention, reimagination and exploration. Spatial transformation in South Africa evolved to redress the outcome of the past (see section Transformation of South African cities). According to the IUDF draft (2014: 23) spatial transformation is one of the major goals which should enable new forms of settlement, transport, social and economic environments. It acknowledges and further stipulates that transformation should be experienced in the levers it puts forward.

In the South African context, spatial transformation comes in to address the challenges of spatial structure of development (see section Transformation of South African cities). According to the NDP (2012) there are numerous contests in relation to the current spatial structure of settlements. In addition, the State of Cities Report (2014) queries the nature and pace of spatial, social and economic transformation in South African cities. It questions whether cities are tied

into a narrow, exclusionary and unsustainable growth path as well as if there is any progress being experienced to the causes of poverty, inequality as well as spatial segregation. The answers to all the urban dynamic and challenges lie in the levers of a number of empowering legislations including SPLUMA (South African Cities Network, 2015:23-24).

4.2.3 Legal framework

4.2.3.1 Spatial Land Use Management Act (2013)-Instrument for spatial transformation

SPLUMA (2013) is a legal framework for all spatial planning and land use management legislation in South Africa. It is a new spatial policy whose objectives are to:

- provide for a uniform, effective and comprehensive system of spatial planning and land use management for the Republic;
- ensure that the system of spatial planning and land use management promotes social and economic inclusion;
- provide for development principles and norms and standards; provide for the sustainable and efficient use of land;
- provide for cooperative government and intergovernmental relations amongst the national, provincial and local spheres of government; and
- redress the imbalances of the past and to ensure that there is equity in the application of spatial development planning and land use management systems.

This Act is a defining legislative framework for the future of South Africa. It is a tool which will influence the transformation root of the spatial structure of towns and cities. However, the foreseen challenge of the document is the ability of small municipalities with person lacking the necessary skills to grasp the plan and effectuate it in their spaces. Nonetheless, since it is a new policy on the block workshops on capacity building will be the most convenient to enable its functionality.

Spatial planning system of South Africa consists of SDFs, development principles, management and facilitation of land uses, procedures and processes for the preparation. The pact incorporates the factors given below:

- Spatial justice:

The principles of spatial justice can be traced back to the “just city”. Basically, the organisation of space is a crucial dimension of human societies. It reflects social facts and influences social relations. Lefebvr, (1972) states that spatial justice is there to link social justice and space. This follows from the realization that many city fathers tend to come up with policies which do not favour or encourage issues of democracy and equity. In most instances; democracy is pseudo as a result of a non-conducive environment for practising full democratic rights. While the just city concept is informative in structuring and planning cities, 100% equality cannot be achieved. SPLUMA (2013) emerges as the vehicle to enable spatial justice and sets hope for equality among people.

- Spatial sustainability:

Spatial sustainability is largely the acknowledgement that city structure product has a direct bearing on its interaction with environmental, economic and social factors, that is, between the three principal domains of sustainability (Hillier, 2008:25). Basically, spatial sustainability is developing or planning space with principles of sustainability in mind as for instance during the planning for a road network there is need to focus on a pattern of development that encourages the use of sustainable modes of transport, minimises journey lengths for employment, shopping, education and other activities, and promotes accessibility for all.

SPLUMA (2013) provides opportunities to contribute to the environmental aims. Municipalities are given the break to achieve sustainability thereby reducing the cost to the economy of the environmental, business and social costs associated with unsustainable use of resources. This highly relates to technological advances since sustainability implies additional technological methods in planning. The challenge is the ability of the municipalities to adopt sustainable methods in the application of SPLUMA (2013) principles.

- Spatial resilience:

Spatial resilience focuses on the influence of spatial variation. This includes, elements such as spatial location; context, connectivity, and dispersal. These roles of spatial resilience and self-organisation play a significant role in spatial variation. Essentially in planning there are risks and uncertainties, but, there are models to depict the future so as to reduce vulnerabilities (Turok, 2014:5). Therefore SPLUMA provides for spatial resilience which is a platform to aggregate into single characterisations but also fundamentally assesses variation over space to enable planning for potential management actions which that also vary over space.

- Spatial quality:

Spatial quality is about strategies, policies; design and effective creation in the use of spaces. It applies to buildings, landscapes and infrastructure. Spatial quality evaluates the significance of a certain location, place and or area (Bickford, 2014). This also extends to issues of improving access to important services that would facilitate development. In other words it takes cognisance of strategic planning to give plausible results in terms of infrastructure development giving recognition to aesthetics.

- Spatial efficiency:

The term spatial efficiency has its origins in neoclassical economics through use of land where the most output possible is produced. Spatial efficiency has been used somewhat differently in other fields. In the public sector context, spatial efficiency has been used as a framework to evaluate location decisions of public infrastructure or services (Rasheed, 1986). Thus, spatial efficiency is the geographic arrangement of businesses and residences, the physical infrastructure that connects the region such as transportation, communication, green space and the orientation of each towards the other that minimizes the time, effort, or cost required to conduct economic activities for the entire metropolitan region.

Spatial efficiency is the clear reflection of the IDP aims and objectives which is central on integration of spatial spaces. It is also in alignment with the Draft Green Paper on Development Planning which emphasizes on the establishment of a shared vision and consistent direction for spatial development (NPC, 1999:2). This links with the preceding principles laid out in the White Paper on Spatial Planning (2001) which clearly propounds that there is need for a relationship between the built and natural environments that is the integrated management of land resources so as to provide the greatest sustainable benefits.

Comprehensive analyses of all the spatial dimensions of SPLUMA (2013) have to be put into consideration when dealing with spatial transformations. In particular reference is made of the national and provincial spatial development frameworks and perspectives. These are proactive spatial plans at national and provincial scale, the latter replicated in the country's provinces.

Despite the potential and relevance that SPLUMA and municipal SDFs (see section 4.2.8) have in contributing towards achieving social justice and sustainability, it remains to be seen how local government will address the challenges to be faced during implementation. This includes the articulation of SPLUMA in the different sectors in ways which are coordinative and applied so as to enhance planning development and delivery in an integrated fashion (Schoeman, 2015:1).

In summary, according to South African Cities Network (2015:7) SPLUMA is the key contributor to spatial transformations. Its success factor is due to the degree of seriousness over

intergovernmental cooperation and at the levels to which all the spheres and sectors contribute to strategic spatial planning and transformation. The impact of SPLUMA on achieving transformation is highly dependent on the quality of mechanisms, processes and systems established by the various spheres of the government, and the way the development principles are to be translated into spatial outcomes.

4.2.4 Spatial Development Framework (SDF)

An SDF can be defined as an indicative plan showing the desired patterns of land use, direction of growth; special development areas and conservation (TLM Spatial Development Framework, 2014). Municipalities have been adopting SDFs in terms of the Municipal Systems Act since 2000. The notion of SDF emerged as a future plan guiding, directing or regulating all land development activities in a defined area, in order to determine or influence the spatial consequences of such land development activities (NSDF, 2003).

The SDF background can be linked to regional development economic theories which have been illustrated in the theoretical background of the study such as the cumulative causation theory where regional strategies and policies are formulated in order to transform lagging regions. This is because an SDF has been introduced to identify potential areas of growth and induce development.

In detail, the historical background of an SDF can be traced back to the approaches and attempts of national spatial development planning which include the NSDF (2003), which was commissioned after the (RDP) followed by the Spatial Development Initiative (SDI) which focused on areas of economic potential and assisted the notion of development corridors. The last of the preceding instruments is the NSDP (2006) which established a vision and a framework to steer detailed policies and investment opportunities (Orange and Merrifield, 2010:37). These instruments were created to promote a top down approach to spatial development planning.

The SDF is a framework which gives room to assess development in a given boundary and provide for strategic measures through, for example, nodal development for investment and tourism opportunities. It provides an overview of the future spatial form of a municipality, and is the primary tool used to decide on changes in land use rights. SPLUMA (2013) specifically states that the SDF must:

- Determine the purpose, desired impact and structures of land use management scheme to be applied;

- Propose a list of amendments to land use schemes that are necessary to achieve SDF aims;
- Propose geographical area where normal processes and procedures of changing land rights might shorten.

4.2.5 National Spatial Development Framework (NSDF)

The NSDF (2011) takes into account policies and programmes of both the public and private bodies that impact on spatial planning, land development and land use management from the national perspective. It also gives effect to development principles, norms and standards. Furthermore it gives effect to relevant national policies, priorities, plans and legislation (National Spatial Development Perspective, 2006:70).

Of significance to the contribution of development of the NSDF are the guiding principles by the DFA (67 of 1995) which became the vehicle for change and transformation (Schoeman 2015:4). The, NPC (2011), NDP (2012) and eventually SPLUMA (2013) were introduced following one another as empowering frameworks and have contributed immensely to the national spatial development planning in South Africa.

The NSDF helps to coordinate and integrate provincial and municipal SDFs. It enhances spatial coordination and indicates the desired patterns of land uses (DRDLG, 2014). The framework also takes into consideration the environmental management outcomes.

In summary the NSDF is the highest and broadest level of land use guide and it plays a coordinating role to the other frameworks.

National SDF roles;

- give effect to the development norms and standards;
- give effect to the relevant national policies, priorities, plans and legislation;
- coordinate and integrate provincial and municipal SDFs;
- direct the desired patterns of deployment in South Africa;
- take into consideration the environmental management instruments as per relevant environmental management authority (South African Cities Network, 2015:35).

4.2.6 Provincial Spatial Development Framework (PSDF)

The PSDF must be consistent with the NSDF. It must be able to coordinate, integrated and align provincial plans and development strategies with policies of national government, provincial departments and municipalities.

South African Cities Network (2014:35) states that the (PSDF) is designed to act as planning tool for all spheres of government to ensure that collaboration and maximum impact are obtained in a sustainable manner in the efforts on development. It must be consistent with the national SDF.

Provincial SDF roles

- give spatial representation of land development policies, strategies, objectives of the province as well as the PDGS;
- show the desires and intended patterns of land use development in the province;
- coordinate and integrate the spatial expression of sectoral plans of provincial departments;
- provide frameworks for coordinating municipal SDFs;
- include any spatial concepts of important national development strategies and programmes as they apply in the province (South African Cities Network, 2015:35).

The PSDF is the informing plan for all local municipalities in a province. This elucidates that all municipal SDFs should be in conjunction and alignment with the aims and objectives of the PSDF.

However, according to Healey (2000:518) the spatial frameworks have not paid much attention to the socio-spatial dynamics of cities. In as much as the frameworks take into consideration nodes and corridors, densification and infill, not much is understood about different groups of people locating at any given place and moving within the city. It does not clearly state out the choices and implications of these patterns, yet, these are the settlement patterns that determine good location and accessibility of various groups of people (Bickford; 2014:11). Therefore there is need to understand the socio-spatial and economic dynamics of settlements to be able to come up with frameworks.

4.2.7 Regional Spatial Development Framework (RSDF)

The RSDF guides the spatial planning, land development and land use management of any region of the country. It is reviewed at least once every five years. However, it is the duty of the

responsible Minister to declare any geographical area of the Republic to be a region. The framework gives effect to the development principles and applicable norms and standards (City of Johannesburg RSDF, 2010). Thus, it is for a specific geographical (spatial system) entity.

4.2.8 Municipal Spatial Development Framework (MSDF)

The MSDF gives effect to the developmental principles and applicable norms and standards which are set out at a municipal level. The MSDF is also responsible for identifying, quantifying and providing locational requirements of engineering infrastructure and service provision for existing and future development needs for the next five years (Rauch, 2002: 387). The MSDF also provides the spatial expression of the coordination, alignment and integration of sectoral policies of all municipal departments.

In terms of Section 26(e) of the Municipal Systems Act (32 of 2000) an SDF must be included in a local authority's IDP and comply with the requirements of NEMA (107 of 1998). Municipal SDF implementation is based on or in alignment with the principles set out by the DFA (1995). However, SPLUMA (2013) and its regulations currently provides clearer opportunities for alignment and strategic integration. SPLUMA (2013) directly refers to the transformation role of SDFs and addresses the preparation of SDFs by all spheres of the government unlike preceding legislative and policy frameworks.

Through SPLUMA (2013) the Municipal SDF is framed as the central direction giving and coordination mechanism as a sectoral plan that is part of the IDP. However no emphasis is made in the direction-giving and coordination aspects (South African cities network, 2015:35).

illustrates the SDF of TLM.

The major objective of the SDF shown by

is to achieve the desired spatial form of the municipality based on the vision for the development of the area with available resources (DRDLR, 2010:2). TLM vision is to have, a transformed leading competitive and preferred "World Class City" (TLM SDF 2014:11).

Municipal SDF roles:

- strong alignment and integration role;
- spatial planning and sectoral alignment in the IDP process plan;
- coordination of investment through spatial development programmes/restructuring areas;
- prioritisation of projects guided by the SDF;

- Implementation, monitoring and evaluation systems linked with the SDF and spatial outcomes.

According to section 20 of SPLUMA (2013): “the municipal spatial development framework must be prepared as part of a municipality’s integrated development plan in accordance with the provisions of the Municipal Systems Act”. Section 26 of the Municipal Systems Act (2000) states that an IDP, should reflect the SDF at an equivalent spatial scale, as other components of the plan.

The thrust of the SDF is to be specific and precise in cases of enforcements or prevention of certain types of land uses. An SDF preparation is based on using the IDP framework. The SDF needs to be informed by the vision of the municipal area, the development objectives, as well as the strategies and outputs identified by the IDP. There is however no clarity on the stage at which the relationship between the IDP and the SDF should be realised. However, according to the contents of the SDFs in terms with SPLUMA it is the clear that there is direction giving and coordinating roles (South African Cities Network, 2014:40).

The SDF seems to be more of a direction-giving instrument with components similar to the IDP. However, there is need for a linkage between the SDF and IDP. From the contents of SPLUMA it is clear that there should be clear emphasis on the relationships.

4.3 Housing

4.3.1 Definition and brief overview

According to Jiboye (2011:23) housing is any type of permanent shelter which gives man identity. Listokin and Burchill (2007:44) concurs and defines housing as a permanent structure for human habitation. However, in argument, housing in all its ramifications is more than a mere shelter because it embraces all the social services and utilities that make a community or neighbourhood a live-able environment (Federal Government of Nigeria (FGN), 1991:169). Housing has become a critical component in the social, economic and health fabric of every nation (Listokin, 2007:45). The UN (2012:3) with similar reasoning further elucidates that housing is one of the basic social conditions that influence the quality of life of the people. Housing weaves on sustainable development. The major element of sustainable development in housing centres on the designs. These designs built upon the environmental aspects, social and economic entities which create liveable communities.

In as much as the challenge of obtaining sustainable and affordable housing for most countries is acute, the need for decent housing is particularly intense in developing countries. Amidst the increase in population growth, rapid and continuing urbanisation trends, the demand for land for various uses has become increased and diverse. The provision of services has been slower

than that of the growth of urban population, creating a wide margin between the demand and supply of urban infrastructural facilities and services. Consequently, this has led to unregulated acquisition and development of land. The challenge encompasses the outcropping of informal settlements and the building of slums which lack basic infrastructure and sanitation.

Today, 1.3 billion people in Sub-Saharan Africa still live without access to electricity, half the population in the developing world depend on solid fuels for cooking WHO (2011). In South Africa, 1994, the NDoH faced numerous challenges over the housing issue, with an estimation of 84% of households that could not afford housing, even with subsidies. The availability of end user finances was also limited. According to Stats SA (2014:13) midyear population studies, for the North-West province, reported an in-migration of 247 157 and an out migration of 179 748 people. The net migration was 67 409 people. These calculations are streams from the 2006-2011 censuses. This implies that more people were in need of services as the population continued to skyrocket.

According to the DoHS between 1994 and 1995 departments provided almost 2.800 000 housing units (Guidelines and factsheets, 2014). Housing delivery peaked in 1998 and 1999 when approximately 23 5000 housing units were delivered. Since then the delivery process fluctuated to about 140 000. However, in 1996, national census revealed that 1 400 000 informal dwelling remained in the country. In 2011, the census showed that the informal dwellings increased to approximately 1 900 000 (Stats SA, 2011). Due to increases in urbanisation and migration trends, housing backlogs have increased, consequently increasing the number of informal settlements.

However, it can be noted that since democratisation, there have been multiple policy documents and legislation, which have been put in place by the NDoH as part of its mandate to frame national housing.

4.3.2 Legal framework for housing

4.3.2.1 Republic of South Africa Constitution (1996)

Section 26(1) of the South African Constitution, states that everyone has a right to adequate housing. Adequate housing can however be defined in the context of circumstances per household or individuals, focusing on their needs and priorities. Adequate housing also incorporates issues of access to socio-economic goods, basic amenities and access to other cultural and recreational amenities. In support, the RDP (1994) considers that housing as a minimum, “must provide protection from weather, durable structure, and reasonable living space and privacy. A house must include sanitary facilities, storm water drainage, a household energy supply and convenient access to clean water. Moreover it must provide for secure tenure in a

variety of forms” (RDP, 1994). The issue of housing rights was formalised in the new constitution by the South African government in 1996.

Moreso, housing encompasses more than just the four walls of a room and a roof over one’s head. Instead, adequate housing fulfills deep-seated psychological needs for privacy and personal space; physical needs for security and protection from inclement weather; and social needs for basic gathering points where important relationships are forged and nurtured (Knight, 2001:56).

Furthermore, in section 26(2) of the Constitution the responsibility of the state is to realise the right and the available resources for its provision. The above Constitutional provisions place huge demands on the state to deliver housing. The government department tasked with providing housing was known as the NDoH until mid-2009, after which the name was changed to the “National Department of Human Settlements”, (NDoHS, 2009c:1).

4.3.2.2 White Paper on Housing (1994)

The origins of the housing policy are to be found in the work of the NHF (National Housing Forum), and in the Reconstruction and Development Programme (ANC, 1994) which was adopted as a White Paper (Lupton and Murphy, 1995:162). The housing policy is based on the housing capital subsidy as its instrument. The programme enables home ownership as well as access to basic services (DoHS, 2014:268).

It can be noted that critics of the housing policy have placed emphasis on institutional shortcomings, government’s failure to accurately understand housing scale dynamics, the top down character of the policy and delivering process. Instead, Bond (1997:20) perceived that the extreme problems of the housing policy are related to the various market-centred features and that an alternative based on the RDP would have solved the problems.

In reality the housing policy had the following mishaps:

- The withdrawal of the government from housing provision and leaving it to the private sector;
- Limited consumer affordability;
- Joint venture delivery mechanism putting the corporate developers as the leading role players;
- Absence of protection against low income subsidy beneficiaries;

- Lack of creativity to access state owned land;
- No effort to intervene in the construction and building materials markets (Bond, 1997:20).

Altogether the above factors help to explain the failures of the market-centred housing programme to this day. It is necessary to consider forms of housing finance when regarding a housing policy and the fiscal constraints associated (White Paper on Housing, 1994). The argument that subsidies are the key step to an incremental housing system is unrealistic given the lack of appropriate and affordable credit. The poor seldom can afford bank loans or meet bank lending conditions because, for example, they have no secure or regular employment. The other forms of less formal credit simply failed to materialise. During this period mid-1994 to mid-1996 only 18% of houses built under the subsidy scheme were linked to credit. In other words 70% of the poor could not secure bank loans (Bond and Tait, 1997:26).

In summary, the White Paper on Housing (1994) identified the following:

- Inequitable allocation of funding between different low income groups;
- Low rate of delivery;
- Community disempowerment;
- Reluctance on the part of the private sector developers in conflict ridden areas where the need of housing was the greatest;
- The reproduction of apartheid style ghettos (Tissington, 2010:33).

4.3.2.3 Breaking New Ground (BNG)- Human Settlement (2004)

The housing policy was a learning process which led to the release of the revised policy in 2004 known as Breaking New Ground (BNG). BNG is a comprehensive plan for housing delivery. The plan reinforces the vision of the NDoHS to promote the achievement of a non-racial, integrated society through quality housing provision. Its objectives include:

- Acceleration of housing delivery as a strategy for poverty alleviation;
- Provision of housing as a strategy for job opportunities;
- Ensuring accessibility of property to all;
- Growth leverage;
- Improving quality of lives for the poor;

- Encouraging single residential property market to reduce duality.

At the time of the launching of the BNG plan it was believed that the new plan would eradicate all informal settlements within 10 years (by 2014). According to the DoHS (2010c:1), the prime objective of the BNG plan is the eradication and upgrading of all informal settlements by 2014 or 2015. Yet, even though the greater part of the housing policy framework has been in place by 2004, the foreseen target is questionable because, 11 years have passed and municipalities are still battling with informal settlements. The national perspective, national level housing demand 1996 census showed 1 500 000 households lived in informal settlements; 2001 census estimated housing backlog of 3 000 000 households; 2011 census estimates a national backlog of 2 000 000 households.

This shows that the BNG policy implemented since 2004 has not yet adequately realised the intended outcome. Despite the growing backlogs, the last 5 years have seen the decrease in the delivery of housing units particular in certain provinces. The statistics indicate that the national housing supply is much lesser than the demand, thus the increase in backlogs. It is noted that the practicability of the plan requires more coordination between developments. However, the central principles of policies and pieces of legislation put forward were meant to contribute to the improvement of accessibility, functionality, efficiency and sustainability.

4.3.2.4 Housing Act (107 of 1997)

The Housing Act is mainly concerned about housing development, which it defines as the establishment and maintenance of habitable, stable and sustainable public and private residential environments to ensure viable households and communities (NDP, 2012:45). Housing development in the Act allows convenient access to economic opportunities and to health, education and social amenities in which all citizens and permanent residents of the country will on a progressive basis have access to:

- Permanent residential structures with secure tenure, ensuring internal and external privacy and providing adequate protection against the elements.
- Potable water, adequate sanitary facilities and domestic energy supply.

Basically, the Housing Act provides a framework for housing development that guides the nation to future sustainable developments and allows access to reasonable houses with an acceptable infrastructure. The Housing Act is strongly related to the National Housing Policy and the Constitution. However, the success of the Act highly depends on the ability of provincial and local governments to rise to the challenge of meeting an ever-increasing demand for housing on limited budgets (Cohen, 1997:139).

According to section 9(1)(a)(1) of the Act all municipalities must take all the necessary steps within the framework of national and provincial housing legislation and policy to ensure that the inhabitants of its area of jurisdiction have access to adequate housing on a progressive basis (Tissington, 2010:37). This policy shift, according to Charlton and Kihato (2006) was a move towards the creation of a strong local state whereby the councillors gained greater influence over aspects of service delivery. However, this move has been criticised because of the local councillors that have gained control over housing developments, leading to clientelism and patronage, and undermining the development and allocation of housing. On the other hand, it can also be viewed as a good move which eliminates the interests of the private sector thereby allowing oriented development to local government.

4.3.2.5 Rental Housing Act (50 of 1999)

The Rental Housing Act (50 of 1999) identifies rental housing as a key component in the housing sector. The Act places a responsibility on the government to promote rental housing. The Act provides for rights of tenants and landlords. According to Section 7, there is provision for the establishment of provincial Rental Housing Tribunals to assist in disputes between parties and to ensure that minimal costs are borne by the parties (Rental Housing Act 50 of 1999).

According to Tait (1997:22) the notion that the government came up with the state rental housing policy is extremely misleading given the methods and parameters that are being applied. In reality the policy merely appears to have been placed into existence primarily as a response to the delivery crisis.

4.3.2.6 The National Housing Code (2009)

According to section 4 of the Housing Act 107 of 1997, the Minister is required to publish a National Housing Code. The contents of the Code should be a national housing policy and administrative or procedural guidelines with respect to implementation or other matters relevant to housing. The purpose of the Housing Code is to compress all housing issues into a single document. The intention with the publication of the Housing Code is to have a single document setting out the overall vision of housing in South Africa and the implementation of that vision. (NDoHS, 2000a:1).

In general the chapter contains the policy principles, guidelines and norms and standards which are applicable to government's various housing assistance programs (NDoHS, 2010). It is mandatory to apply the housing chapter within the municipality IDP where certain considerations of the needs of municipal housing are analysed.

4.3.2.7 Social Housing Act (2008)

Social housing is one of the strategies which the government has initiated (Housing Development Agency (HDA), 2001:23). It has been credited as a significant contributor/contribution to urban regeneration and to urban efficiency. The accreditation of this strategy is marked by the Social Housing Act (16 of 2008). The Act defines the functions of the three tiers of government regarding social housing; it establishes the Social Housing Regulatory Authority (SHRA) which regulates the use of public funds by social housing institutions; it also allows approved projects to be undertaken with public money by other delivery agents; and gives statutory recognition to social housing institutions (Social Housing Act 16 of 2008).

It is observed that, social promotes the effective and efficient management of rental and or collective forms of accommodation thereby contributing to social integration. Social housing is not only able to contribute to the objectives of the DoH, but also to the government's macro objectives of promoting citizenship, democracy and good governance.

4.4 TLM Housing Sector Plan (HSP)

According to the Housing Chapter (2007:5) an HSP is a summary of the housing plan undertaken by a municipality that is used in conjunction with the IDP. Like the IDP, the HSP is a 5-year plan which needs to be reviewed annually. This should be done with the review of the IDP which is also a legislative requirement (BNGCP for Housing Delivery, 2007:12). It is not a comprehensive, stand-alone plan resulting from a separate planning process, even if the IDP and Housing sectoral planning were to be undertaken at different times. The HDA (2001:10) notes that this planning should include a plan of the local housing strategy and delivery targets called the Housing Chapter .This implies that there is need for a clearly outlined plan which shows the programmes and projects for housing. Such an established plan will help to review performance with regards to housing processes and output.

According to TLM HSP (2007:20-21) the major housing objectives include:

- eradication of housing backlog;
- housing delivery which reflects community level concerns about housing demands;
- promotion of demand for affordable housing (middle income groups);
- creation of a favourable climate for real estate investments;
- ensuring conditions which are conducive to the health and safety of the inhabitants by preventing and removing flood areas and or dolomite areas;

- discouraging illegal occupation of land.

However according to South African Cities Network (2015:47) at municipal level all HSPs should be in accordance with Housing Code (2009) which sets out the requirements.

Roles of the Housing Chapter

- identify areas of densification as well as areas with inadequate land;
- identify and prioritise informal settlements;
- provide linkages between housing and urban renewal;
- integration of housing, planning and transport sectors;
- identify well located places to housing.

4.4.1 HSP and IDP relationship

The Housing Act states in section 9(1)(f) that “Every municipality must, as part of the municipalities process of integrated development planning, take all reasonable and necessary steps within the framework of national and provincial housing legislation and policy to initiate, plan, coordinate, facilitate, promote and enable appropriate housing development in its area of jurisdiction”. Knight (2001:23) propounds that, integration in housing and the IDP manifests through certain planning considerations which also includes integration with other sectors. The end product will be a summary of the confirmed priority housing projects and their relationship to the IDP objectives and strategies.

4.5 Transport Planning

In 1994, South Africa inherited the best transportation systems in Africa (Schoeman, 2013:4). However, the realities, looking at former homeland areas, indicate extreme disparities between the former South Africa white man’s enclaves and areas predominantly occupied by historically disadvantaged individuals. Due to this, the South African government inadvertently inherited lowly transportation planning, management, and operational problems.

According to World Bank Group Infrastructure Strategy Update (2011:45.) the most crucial matters of development in transport planning include:

- Connectivity and networks;
- Transportation patterns (volumes, demand of mobility, trips);

- Modes of transport (mass transit);
- Maintenance, renewing and modernisation of existing infrastructure facilities.

The central aspect of integrated planning in the transport planning policy framework is underlined in the general principle for transport planning and its relationship with land development (Wilkinson, 2002:1). This emanates from the local government legislation that transport must give structure to all the other factions of municipal planning.

4.5.1 Legal framework for transport planning

South African transportation policies are best described as cumbersome and counterproductive. The transport planning legislation before democracy favoured the white population and provided sub-standard planning controls in the former homelands. This led to the advent of new guiding frameworks for transport planning.

4.5.1.1 The White Paper on National Transport Policy (1996)

The White Paper on National Transport Policy (1996) is the key transport policy document in South Africa which guides all transport legislation and planning. According to the Department of Transport (DoT), (1996) the broad goal for transport is a smooth and efficient interaction of transport that allows society and the economy to assume their preferred form. The transport policy is divided into two key areas which are infrastructure, and operations and control. Public transport is nested within these broad areas of operations and control. These areas provide an indication of the importance of both public transport improvements in terms of operations as well transformed urban spatial outcomes. The policy objectives are broadly outlined below:

- Spatial development principles must support passenger transport policy;
- The principle of devolution of public passenger transport functions to the lowest appropriate level of government;
- Public passenger transport must be provided efficiently so that public resources are used in an optimal manner;
- The application of funds to transport improvements should be self-sustaining and replicable;
- To encourage this, the users of urban transport facilities should pay for all or most of the costs incurred within the limits of affordability.

According to the policy document, in terms of infrastructure, there should be an efficient road infrastructure network provision which is fully maintained and fully operational. Furthermore it

stipulates the provision and maintenance of the lowest order roads, both in rural and in urban areas. Rail infrastructure for commuter transport will be determined by a combination of market needs and social considerations.

4.5.1.2 The National Transport Master Plan (NATMAP) 2050 for South Africa

NATMAP was approved by the government in 2011 with the main issue directed to the needs of freight and passenger customers. The major objectives are centred on, accessibility, affordability, safety, frequency, quality, reliability, efficiency and seamless operations, adequate provision, and development of infrastructure.

NATMAP forms a change in the formulation of provincial and local transport strategies and the implementation. NATMAP aims to:

- Facilitate long-term and sustainable socio-economic growth;
- Encourage comprehensive and integrated development;
- Be the action plan for projects of the country.

The NATMAP goals include;

- Maximise on the use of the existing infrastructure;
- Develop new infrastructural facilities;
- Come up with a technologically advanced transportation data base.

The only limitation of the plan is stakeholder participation during the project formalisation. The success of the project is strongly hinged on the enthusiasm and open handed participation of all provincial and municipal stakeholders. However, the post 1994 legislation and policies are over ambitious and unrealistic. For example, there is the National Land Transport Transition Act (2000) which is difficult to comprehend and explain, yet it took so long to prepare. In spite of this it was then promulgated in 2000 without some sections.

4.5.2 Integrated Transport Planning (ITP)

An ITP is a tool that is used for establishing a comprehensive analysis of the existing and future transport system within an area (Taylor, 2012:1). Ahmed (1999:23) denotes that it provides an overall framework for a holistic planning approach to resolving any emerging transport issues. It can be used at regional, sub-regional and local levels. The ITP creates a continuous mid-term to long term framework for programming and budgeting measures that will be implemented at 5-

year intervals. However large infrastructure like building freeways and railway tracks often takes more than 15-20 years from the first design to the final implementation, making it difficult to complete them within the timeframe for an ITP.

The major aim for the adoption of an ITP is to ensure that there is suitable, safe and interconnected transport infrastructure and different transport modes (UN Habitat, 2006). The transport system is one of the key instruments in city infrastructure. Different strategies can be adopted in order to plan for the future in the transport sector. For instance, modelling and simulations are crucial in development of ITP because they focus on different land uses and traffic patterns, making it easy for the provision of infrastructure to address future demand and needs (Kane and Behevenes, 2002).

In preparation of an ITP, each jurisdiction has to apply the prescribed principles and processes which reflect the specific needs, priorities and community aspirations to enable the provision of a sustainable transport system (Western Australian planning commission, 2001:147). In this case, TLM is under the southern Dr Kenneth Kaunda District which is under North West Province. It is important to take note of this because there are connector roads and transport networks within provinces.

4.5.3 TLM Integrated Transport Plan (2007)

The ITP for TLM gives much attention to the following items:

- Traffic parking around North-West University;
- Effectiveness of using the four way stops;
- Alignment of transport plans with other plans;
- Transport challenges during major events;
- None motorised transportation issues giving attention to cycling;
- Inclusiveness of the N12;
- Traffic calming measures;
- Provision of paved routes in townships;
- Synchronisation and signals on intersections on the N12;
- Freight routes and truck stop issues in the CBD;

- Mooi Rivier Mall traffic impact;
- Implementation of one ways;
- Bridge maintenance issues.

The ITP forms the basis of planning of private transport in Potchefstroom. The local Integrated Transport Plan for Potchefstroom informs the District Integrated Transport Plan for the SDF which in turn informs the IDP. These are submitted to provincial and national government institutions for the allocation of grants.

TLM is responsible for the urban roads and streets within Potchefstroom. The major transport links within the Potchefstroom Municipal area are road based infrastructure such as the N12 linking major cities.

TLM appointed Aganang Consulting Engineers in 2007 to perform detailed Transport Plans for Potchefstroom in support of the Southern District (ITP). The focus of the Transport Plans was on the road network within Tlokwe City Council municipal boundary with specific emphasis on private and freight transport (TLM ITP, 2007:12).

ITP and IDP relationship

With respect to the IDP, the ITP is required to be in alignment with the IDP and indirectly with the SDF. NLTA (5 of 2009) came up with regulations regarding the relationship between SDFs and ITPs. ITPs must indicate the specific measures proposed in the SDFs. There is a two way relationship between the ITP and the SDF, where the ITP serves to give direction to the SDF, while at the same time the SDF gives guidance to the ITP.

4.6 Implications for sectoral plans

4.6.1 Integration of sectoral plans (IDPs, SDFs and ITPs)

According to Schoeman (2015:2) integration refers to processes and methodological approaches and procedures followed in planning processes through the application of specific instruments and or planning tools.

4.6.1.1 Definition framework for integration

Integration and alignment can be used interchangeably in municipal planning. There are five forms of integration, substantive, methodological, procedural institutional and political. Approaches of integration have been practiced in countries such as Denmark, New Zealand and Great Britain although the aspect has been in the bounds of substantive.

4.6.1.2 Forms of integration

<p><u>Substantive integration</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The integration of physical issues with social and economic issues; • The integration of emerging issues such as health, climate change and so on; • The (appropriate) integration of global and local issues. <p><u>Procedural integration</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The integration of environmental, social, economic planning/assessment, spatial planning and EIA; • The integration of sector approval/licensing processes, spatial planning; • The adoption of co-ordination, co-operation and subsidiarity as guiding principles for (governmental) planning at different levels of decision making; • The integration of affected stakeholders (public, private, NGO (non-governmental organisation)) in the decision-making process; • The integration of professionals in a truly interdisciplinary team. <p><u>Policy integration</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The integration of 'sustainable development' as overall guiding principle in planning; • The integration of sectoral regulations; • The integration of sectoral strategies; • The timing and provisions for political interventions; • Accountability of government. 	<p><u>Methodological integration</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The integration of environmental, economic and social (impact) assessment approaches such as cumulative; • Assessment, risk assessment, technological; • Assessment, cost/benefit analysis, multi-criteria analysis; • The integration of the different applications, and experiences with the use of particular tools such as GIS (geographical information system) • The integration and clarification of (sector) terminologies (including the element of 'strategic'). <p><u>Institutional integration</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The provision of capacities to cope with the emerging issues and duties; • The definition of a governmental organisation to ensure integration; • The exchange of information and possibilities of interventions between different sectors; • The definition of leading and participating agencies and their respective duties and responsibilities.
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Source: Own Construction from Pieterse (2007).

According to DPLG (2010:320), there must be integration and coordination between the IDP and each sectoral plan, if not it is unlikely that municipal infrastructure projects will be successful. Integration is to be realised if the local government assumes lead in using its resources and power to shape the urban system (Pieterse, 2007:3).

Historically, the functions of local government were exercised hierarchically with bureaucracies within departments which acted in silos in order to deliver services such as water, electricity and housing, are categorised now as sectors (Pieterse, 2007:12). However, the challenge of urban integration is moving from effective sectoral efforts to effective multi-sectoral efforts where there are clear spatial objectives. This is because such dimensions require political institutional support systems to facilitate the join up of each of the entity discussed above.

However, it means that having effective sectoral actions that are clearly defined. Below is a clearly defined table showing the urban dimensions for integration policies. The sectoral dimension is the fundamental building block for municipal governments in the provision of services.

Table 4.3: Integration dimensions

Sectoral	Housing and land	Infrastructure	Transport	Education	Community Services:
Multi sectoral	Agenda 21	Local economic development	Spatial Development Framework	Service Delivery Framework	Social development planning framework
Spatial	Compact city development(sustainable development)		Spatial design models on: nodes, corridors, urban edge		
Political institution	Integrated Development Plan (IDP)	City Development Strategy	Integrated Transport Planning	Human Capital and capacity Building	

Source: Own Construction from Pieterse (2004:95).

It is crucial that these services are provided in the most effective and efficient manner but in the absence integration, the goal cannot be achieved. However, according to Pieterse, there is the danger that municipalities might get caught up in the web of integration and lose track of the basics. Therefore, there is need for coordination and inter-linkages between sectoral strategies and multi sectoral policy frameworks. The neighbourhood level ensures that there is coordination and inter-linkage between the sectoral investments and interventions. Multi sectoral strategies are put in place in order to save costs, build social capital and improve efficiencies of a locality. An example is engaging in a RDP housing scheme and completing without any water pipes and electricity connections. There is need for better coordination between disparate services especially in poor communities.

One other crucial aspect in the integration puzzle, are spatial plans in combination with other regulatory frameworks that are useful in remaking patterns of urban fragmentation (SPLUMA, 2014). Furthermore, urban integration entails interventions in various scales ranging from local going upwards to regional and national. This requires strong institutional frameworks which ensure information flows and organisational alignment between departments, local and other

spheres of the government, between government and civil society and also the private sector. Therefore, for this reason it is necessary to look at the national, provincial, and municipal roles and functions to assess the institutional effectiveness in achieving the success of local governments.

Table 4.4: Vertical and horizontal integration among levels of government

NATIONAL	Develop sector policies and set the norms and standards	Monitor the performance of municipalities		Ensuring alignment between regional/provincial sector plans and the municipality's sector departments within IDP
PROVINCIAL	Ensure proper coordination between municipal and sector department	Monitor performance of municipalities	Ensures IDPs properly addresses the requirements	Support municipalities to develop their capacity effectively
REGIONAL	Support municipal sectoral planning	Provide technical advice through feasibility, planning and design		
LOCAL	Sectoral provisions		Sectoral planning feeds into IDP	

Source: Own Construction from DPLG, (2000).

Each sphere has principles and underlying principles for intergovernmental relations. In terms of the Constitution in section 4(1) each sphere must:

- respect the constitutional status, institutions, powers and functions of the government in each sphere;
- exercise power and perform functions in a manner that does not encroach geographically, functionally and on institutional integrity;
- cooperation of one another through;
 - assistance and support;
 - consultations on matters of common interests;
 - coordination;
 - adherence to guidelines and procedures.

This means that there is need for a common approach in order to integrate plans among the three sphere of the government. In order to institutionalise a collaborative approach to achieve

sector goals, coordination, monitoring and overall support, inter-sectoral structures have to be established.

Integration between levels of the government (jurisdiction) helps to create complementary and to mutually reinforce policies and actions. Integration across policy sectors will also mutually reinforce positive benefits and create policy coherence across administrative boundaries (Stead 2004).

During the first rounds of the IDP and sectoral plans most municipalities were overwhelmed by the idea of inter-sectoral coordination. In some municipalities, for instance, Water Service Plans were produced but not linked to the IDP. The links between the IDP and most transport plans were difficult in the sense that Transport Plans are not produced within the period of duration of IDPs. However, some municipalities regarded sectoral planning as a singular entity such that they refused to prepare them. There were also insufficient guidelines for the preparation processes and major blockages were experienced.

Table 4.5: Sectoral legal framework and sphere responsible (Policy integration)

	National	Provincial	Local
Transportation Planning			
NATMAP 2050	Enact		
NLTF (2015) (Draft)	Enact		
Public Transport Plans (PTP's)		Input	Implement
Transportation Sector Plans (TSP's)		Input	Implement
Transportation Infrastructure Plans (TIP's)	Enact	Align	Implement
Traffic Impact Assessments (TIA's)			Enact
Transportation Impact Studies (TIS)		Input	Enact
Provincial Land Transport Frameworks (PLTF's)	Enact	Apply	
National Land Transport Strategic Framework (NLSTF) (2014)	Enact	Apply	
Integrated Transport Plans (ITP's)		Input	Implement
Spatial Planning			
National Spatial Development Plan (NDP)	Enact		
National Spatial Development Framework (NSDF)	Enact		
Provincial Spatial Development Perspective (PSDP)	Enact	Apply	
Regional Spatial Development Framework (RSDF)		Align	Align
Municipal Spatial Development Frameworks (MSDF's)			Implement
Land Use Management Systems (LUMS)			Align
Land Development Management Plans (LDMP's)			Implement
Municipal Regeneration Plans (Urban Renewal etc.) (MRP's)			Implement
Precinct Plans (PP's)			Implement

Site Development Plans (S.Dev.P's)			Implement
Integrated Development Plans (IDP's)		Input	Implement
Integrated Urban Development Framework (IUDF)		Apply	Align
Statutory Planning Processes (SPP's)			Align
Spatial Development Plans (SDP's)		Enact	Implement
Environmental Management			
Strategic Environmental Assessments (SEA's)		Enact	Align
Integrated Environmental Management Plan (IEMP's)		Enact	
Environmental Management Plans (EMP's)		Enact	Implement
Environmental Impact Assessments (EIA's)		Enact	Apply
Environmental Authorizations (EA's)		Enact	
Mine Closure Plans (MCP's)	Enact	Implement	
Environmental Implementation Plans (EIP's)		Enact	Implement
Environmental Management Programme (EMProg.)		Enact	Align
Monitoring and Performance Assessment Plans (MPAP's)		Enact	Align
Housing Sector planning			
Breaking New Ground (BNG) - Human Settlement	Enact	Input	Implement
Housing Sector plan		Input	Implementation
The National Housing Code 2009	Enact	Align	
(PHP)People Housing Processes(1998)			Align
Housing Atlas (2006)	Enact		
Sustainable Human Settlement Planning:	Enact	Align	Implement

Source: Schoeman (2015:15).

4.6.2 Sectoral planning integration interface (Procedural integration)

While the Housing Code directs attention to the development of houses, the SDF requires facilitation and the formation of a broader built environment where housing is only a component. In this case SPLUMA is the best to achieve the outcomes of the BNG together with the priorities, plans and budgets of the other sectors and tools of the housing chapter. The relationship between the provisions of SDFs as outlined in SPLUMA and the Housing Chapter speaks specifically to the IDP and it has to be clearly pronounced. During implementation, the human settlements sector has various programmes. The detriment is at spatial level, to identify the appropriate programmes in response to the local situation and to be applied realising the normative principles both in the Housing Act and SPLUMA. (South African Cities Network 2015: 46).

On the other hand, a complex relationship exists between spatial patterns, mobility and access across South African cities. Understanding any spatial challenge requires the coordination of both transport and land use responses. Due to the economic growth in South Africa, it has been accompanied by increase in private ownership. Research highlights that motorised

transportation is the second highest contributor to global CO₂ emissions. CO₂ emissions are a leading contributor to global warming and climate change. As a result, regulatory actions that lead in the increase the cost of oil, travel and mobility must be implemented (UNEP, 2009:45).

The formulation of a functional ITP is highly dependent on the SDF. The ITP is a plan designed to bridge the impact of transport within the land use planning function. According to Schoeman, (2015: 10), the NDoT began with the revision and adaptation of NATMAP 2050 to address the issues of alignment and integration of transport, and land uses focusing on the interface of the NDP (2012), SPLUMA (2013) and NATMAP 2050.

According to South African Cities Network (2013:12) integration with land use planning is highly influenced by land use patterns and urban form, and so is sustainability of transport systems. Currently, one of the important aims and objectives of development is limiting mobility through decreasing distances travelled for proper and sustainable linkages as well as other impacts of land use activities.

The private vehicle has detrimental effects on urban form as it encourages sprawling and consumes vast amounts of land and results in long travel distances. Through integration strategies the concept of compact city development has been brought out as a solution to restructure the socio-economic and spatial segregation that exist in South African cities. However, the implementation of these strategies has not been successful due to limited transport land use integration (DRDLR, 2001:25).

The City of Cape Town has attempted to come up with a densification policy whose main aim is to deal with more compact urban forms and identify opportunities for development around public transport infrastructure. However the plan remains silent in aspects of aligning transport planning and urban planning processes in achieving densification. Though there is notable improvement on transport-land use integration, the way in which the solutions are portrayed remains disintegrated indicating that the interface of integration of transport and land uses is not yet achieved to its best (City of Cape Town Spatial Development Framework, 2012:16).

Integration can also be experienced through Transit Oriented Developments (TOD) which is in association with compact cities. The major aspect about TOD is that it provides for non-motorised transport nodes such as walking to become more attractive. The urban environments also provide higher volumes of potential public transport passengers and are critical for financial sustainability. Thus sustainable finances in terms of public transport, travel demand and dense urban environments cannot be dealt in isolation (Ndebele and Ogra, 2014:454-455).

More so, the Integrated Environmental Management (IEM) (1998) singled the commencement of the approach to environmental management. The term was chosen rather to direct focus to

the approaches that integrates environmental aspects on all stages of planning and development cycle. The environmental policies and legislation guide environmental planning with a strong emphasis on environmental protection. However, there is no mention of integration of land use rights or the spheres of the government. In other words there is no relationship with other policies or with other sectors given in the guidelines, thus no integration.

However, according to Schoeman (2015:10) there is minimum provision for formal integration on the interface between spatial planning; transportation planning and environmental management. This is because of the policy frameworks (illustrated by Table 4.1) that lack provisions for integrated planning and implementation (policy integration). However, SPLUMA is the provisional act which supports and shows the alignment of spatial planning land use and development.

4.6.3 Government levers interface in sectoral planning (Institutional integration).

There is need for a common approach in order to integrate plans among the three sphere of the government. In order to institutionalise a collaborative approach to achieve sectoral goals, coordination, monitoring and overall support intersectoral structures have to be established and each sphere should be aware of their responsibilities.

Integration between levels of the government jurisdiction helps to create complementary and mutually reinforce policies and actions. Integration across policy sectors will also mutually strengthen positive benefits and across administrative boundaries creates policy coherence (Stead, 2004).

Table 4.6: Roles and functions as per sphere of government in integration

Powers, Functions and/or Activities			
Functional areas of concurrent National and Provincial Legislation			
Function/activity	National	Provincial	Local
Environment	Enact	Apply	
Nature conservation	Enact	Apply	
Pollution control	Enact	Align	
Provincial public enterprises	Input	Implement	
Public transport	Enact	Align	
Public works	Enact	Align	
Regional planning and development	Input	Enact	
Road traffic regulation	Enact	Align	
Urban and rural development	Enact	Align	
Vehicle licensing	Enact	Align	
Functional areas of concurrent Local and Provincial Legislation			
Municipal planning			Enact

Municipal public transport		Input	Enact
Municipal public works		Input	Enact
Municipal housing		Engage/input	Implement
Functional areas of exclusive Provincial Legislation			
Provincial planning		Enact	
Provincial roads and traffic		Enact	
Functional areas of exclusive Provincial Legislation			
Municipal roads			Enact
Infill developments			Enact
Noise pollution		Align	
Street trading			Implement
Street lighting			Implement
Traffic and parking			Implement

Source: Schoeman (2015:14).

According to Kotzee (2011) the formal plans made by government departments must align across spheres of the government. South African intergovernmental system is based on the principles of cooperation among the three spheres of the government. Roles, responsibilities, functions have been allocated to a specific sphere, while other functions are shared (see Table 4.7).

The process starts during each new electoral cycle when a new government produces a new programme of action. The same happens at provincial level where strategic plans must be aligned with provincial and national programmes. Plans must also be aligned with local IDPs. However, sector alignment tended to be very difficult during the first round of IDPs. In most instances, the plans that were prepared had no indication of the objectives, priorities and technical parameter.

The IDP sets a framework for alignment of sectoral goals with the municipality and national objectives. The IDP itself is a tool which ensures alignment of goals and objectives from the national level to the local level (Tlokwe Spatial Development Framework Draft, 2014:8).

Table 4.7: Roles of each sphere in the implementation of development plans (Policy integration).

	Sphere of Government				
	National	Provincial	Metros	DM's	LM's
Provisions					
Spatial development frameworks					
• Preparation of spatial development					

frameworks	Enacted	Apply	Apply	Apply	Apply
• Preparation and content of national spatial development frameworks	Apply	Engage	Engage	Engage	Engage
• Preparation and content of provincial spatial development framework	Coordinate	Implement	Input	Input	Input
• Preparation and content of regional spatial development framework	Enacted	Coordinate	Implement	Implement	Input
• Preparation and content of municipal spatial development framework	Enacted	Coordinate	Implement	Implement	Implement
• National support and monitoring	Apply	Coordinate	Align	Align	Implement
• Provincial support and monitoring	Engage	Implement	Align	Engage	Engage
• Application of development principles	Monitor	Integrate	Implement	Implement	Implement
• Development principles	Enacted	Integrate/Apply	Apply	Apply	Apply
• Norms and standards	Enacted	Integrate	Apply	Apply	Apply
Integrated transport plan					
• Preparation of transport plans	Enacted	Apply	Apply	Apply	Apply
• Preparation and content of transport plans	Apply	Engage	Engage	Engage	Engage
• Preparation and content of provincial transport plan	Coordinate	Implement	Input	Input	Input
• Preparation and content of regional transport plan	Enacted	Coordinate	Implement	Implement	Input
• Preparation and content of municipal transport plan	Enacted	Coordinate	Implement	Implement	Implement
• National support and monitoring	Apply	Coordinate	Align	Align	Implement
• Provincial support and monitoring	Engage	Implement	Align	Engage	Engage
• Application of development principles	Monitor	Integrate	Implement	Implement	Implement
• Development principles	Enacted	Integrate/Apply	Apply	Apply	Apply
• Norms and standards	Enacted	Integrate	Apply	Apply	Apply
Housing sector plans					
• Preparation of housing sector plans	Monitor	Input	Engage	Engage	Engage
• Preparation and content of housing sector plans	Monitor	Engage	Engage	Engage	Engage
• National support and monitoring	Apply	Engage	Align	Apply	Apply
• Provincial support and monitoring	Monitor	Integrate	Implement	Implement	Implement
• Application of development principles	Enacted	Integrate/Apply	Apply	Apply	Apply
• Development principles	Enacted	Integrate	Apply	Apply	Apply
• Norms and standards	Enacted	Integrate	Apply	Apply	Apply

Source: Schoeman (2015:55).

Each sphere of the government has statutory commitments to the implementation of planning instruments such as the SDFs, HSP and the ITP. The formalisation of the roles within the spheres of the government emphasises the role of coordination and cooperation. The relationships and roles need to be clearly determined because they influence the processes and outcomes of each stage of development. Therefore the establishment of the institutional roles and functions' interface need to be facilitated in a coordinative approach.

4.7 Conclusion

The chapter revealed that there is a relationship between each sectoral plan and the IDP which needs to be realised by local municipalities. Thus it is a legal requirement for each sectoral plan to be included in the IDP in an integrated fashion.

Based on the analysis of sectoral planning in Chapter four there is need for effective and efficient integration in order to achieve spatial transformation. The key drivers in achieving the goals are through policy integration of the set frameworks, guidelines and principles. However,

the chapter offered SPLUMA (2013) as the overriding Act which is the centre-piece among the empowering legislation the answers to spatial transformation. Moreover, the chapter established the roles and functions on each sphere of the government as well as per sectoral plan. These obligations are of great importance as they help in coordinating and facilitating the implementation of development plans.

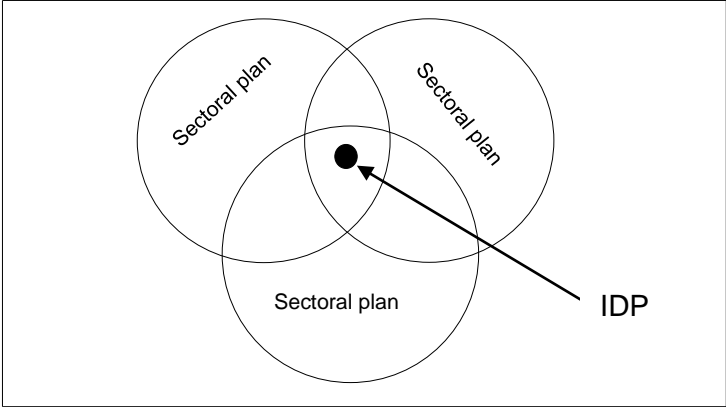


Figure 4.1: IDP and sectoral plan relationship

Source: Own Construction (2015).

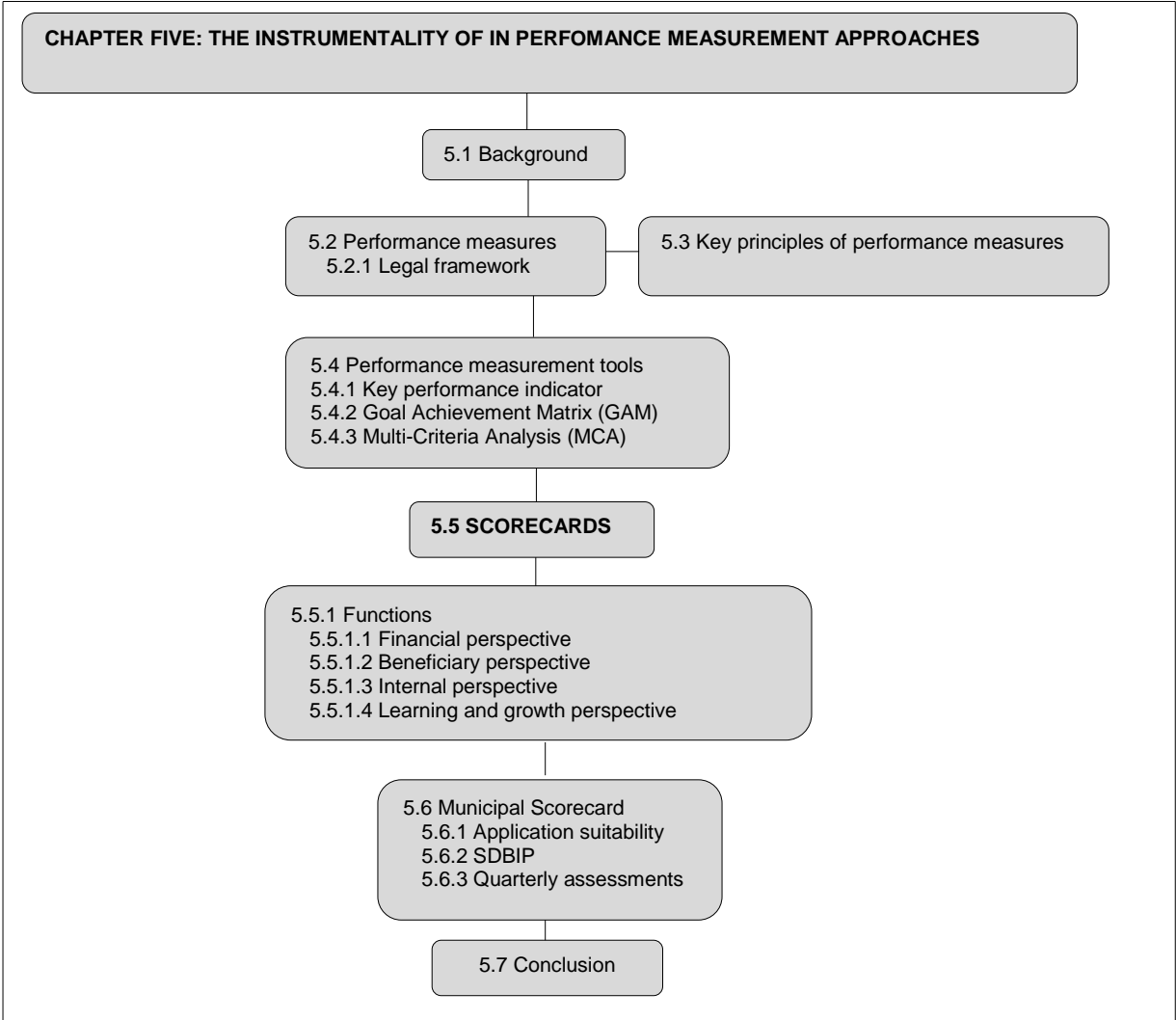
Furthermore the chapter identified different policies, guidelines and frameworks to empower the sectoral planning instruments in achieving spatial transformation. The development of the guidelines was identified in order to view integration among the sectoral plans in promoting transformation. In order to effectuate the objectives of the sector concepts on integration unfold giving different dimensions that need to be embraced.

In particular the chapter illustrated the roles, functions and responsibilities amongst the three spheres of the government which mainly revolve around integration, alignment, implementation, enact and apply. These roles and functions are crucial in order to achieve coordination since the intergovernmental system in South Africa is based on effective synchronisation and participation. This is also the important level for institutional integration.

Chapter four provides the base to assess the level of integration in the IDPs of local municipalities paving way for the next chapter. Chapter five gives an introduction on methods of scientific methods which can be engaged to assess progress in the achievement of policy goals and objectives for IDPs as well as evaluating integration of the sectoral plans in local municipalities.

CHAPTER FIVE: THE INSTRUMENTALITY OF PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT APPROACHES

The content of Chapter five graphically as follows;



5.1 Background

Most organisations achieve goals and expectations when certain performance measures have been instigated during the whole planning and implementation process. This emanates from Kaplan and Norton (1992:72) who propound that a performance measurement system is one aspect an organisation cannot exclude because what an organisation measures is what it is going to get. This statement elucidates that when organisations quantifies goals, there is a deep understanding of what needs to be achieved, how it is going to be achieved and the progress expected in achieving. This literally means that when an organisation fails to quantify goals and objectives, it has a direct bearing on the desired outcome. With this line of thinking, most

organisations have taken up performance measurements in order to achieve organisational visions.

In this chapter, only the basic literature on performance measurements and its tools such as the goal assessment matrix and scorecards will be given. However, the main focus will be directed to the scorecard since as one of the major instruments used by local municipalities in South Africa to assess progress and evaluate projects. Furthermore, public participation as a performance measure will also be analysed.

5.2 Performance measures

Performance measures may be considered to be standards used to evaluate and communicate performance against expected results (Niven, 2003:186). Ammons (2007:4) concurs and adds that performance measure is the strictest process of quantifying the efficiency and effectiveness of an action. This is because it requires the identification of individual measures that quantifies every factor affecting positively and negatively on each decision of every deed. The definitions of Ammon and Niven are almost similar as both words “standard” and “strict” point to the issue of outcomes. This means that the major distinct character of performance measurement is that it is meant to produce quality and customary outcomes.

However, Kaplan and Norton (2001:151) broaden the definition to include that it is a strategic development to take an action. With these definitions, it can be deduced that performance measurements are a strategy which ensures that actions done or taken produce the desired outcomes. According to Bititci (1997:1) performance measurements enable information integration within organisations. This means it allows information system from all sectors of the organisation to be collected, making it easy to evaluate and assess performance of organisations.

According to Kennerly and Neely (1994:21) organisations which generally make efficient use of performance measurements are able to monitor productivity. One of the key elements in monitoring productivity is a meaningful methodology of measurements in order to evaluate and monitor the performances (Wilfredo, 1994:45). To clarify, different methodologies can be used in performance measuring depending on that which suits an organisation.

A survey held in USA indicated that when performance measures are used for employees within an organisation sales tend to increase, profits escalate and costs are reduced to approximately 25% (Hotel, 2007). This is because the use of measurements demonstrates the transparency of an organisation in utilising its resources to produce quality goods (Pearson, 2011:8-9). From this perspective, it means that with efficient application of performance measurements, organisations eventually increase quality of service at minimum costs.

Performance measures can be divided into three different categories namely output, efficiency and outcome measures.

- Output measures;

Output measures are those qualitative or quantitative measures, which are simple and do not give reference to the quality or efficiency of the services, such as, tracking output figures per year (Bergdahl, 2007:6). The metrics track the numbers of people served, services provided, or units produced by a program or service. Sometimes output services are referred to as activity measures (Behn, 2008). Output measures are highly depended on the nature of the programme or service. However; the output measures provide information on whether the results are being achieved

- Efficiency measures:

Perez (2013:106) states that efficiency measures report on the relationship between resources and the services provided or given. Sometimes the relationship is shown in terms of costs.

- Outcome measures:

Outcome measures gauge the quality of services and the extent to which a project’s objectives are being achieved. An example is of the percentage of citizens who are satisfied or not satisfied with a local project (Harrell, 1994:3). This measure’s attention is focused on whether the improvement is leading to the increasing value of beneficiaries or to the service providers. Table 5.1 below shows a modest example of categories of performance measures during a town establishment.

Table 5.1: Performance measures for town establishment

	Year 1:Measure (actual)	Year 2: Measure (actual)	Measure Objective
Output indicators			
Number of schools	2	2	4
Number of transport routes	7	8	1
Kilometres of roads	400km	450km	600km
Efficiency indicators			
Actual demand for schools	65%	69%	20%
Cost per kilometre of road	R5000	N/A	< 10000

Outcome indicators			
Cost in relation to distance travelled to school	10km	7km	5km
Cost in relation to number of accidents	12	10	5
Cost in relation to reduced time of travel	15.3min	12min	5min

Source: Own Construction from Ammons (2007:5).

The table above shows outcome, output and efficiency performance indicators. On each interval it shows the performance of an organisation in terms of output, efficiency and outcome. For example as illustrated, the cost in relation to distance travelled to school have been reducing over the year that is from 10km to 5km and this is similar to all the other efficiency and outcome indicators. Therefore the performance measures allow easy performance assessments.

Ammons further clarifies that, according to a recent legislation in Denmark, goals have to be expressed and followed up after every two years in terms of selected performance measures. Therefore, several municipalities and regional authorities have prepared formal codes of civil rights for many local services.

However, communities in France rarely have, at their disposal, instruments to measure the performance of local municipalities and service delivery. In spite of this, some municipalities have come up with accounting methods for recording the full costs of services. For instance, the town of Asnieres uses performance charts with forty nine indicators to record costs and assess whether there is a positive impact on the budget allocated and the services received (European Commission, 1997:17).

In contrast, in Germany the development of performance indicators has reached high levels. In member towns of the Bertlesman Foundation Group performance measures are established in all fields and measurement have been done in most areas. For example in Sawbruecken, the municipality uses the Total Quality Management (TQM) approach where the aspects of quality are the main focus (European Foundation for Quality Management, 1999:1) unlike budgetary factors.

In, South Africa, the central government initiated a performance measurement legal framework in order to ensure quality service delivery. According to the Department of Performance Monitoring and Evaluation (2011:167) the department was created in response to the need for an effective and efficient service delivery. Therefore, the department was established to facilitate the outcomes approaches of service delivery and to carry out institutional performance monitoring and evaluation of frontline service delivery. The mandate covers the whole

government, 34 national departments, 120 provincial departments and 283 municipalities (SALGA, 2008:49).

The establishment of monitoring and evaluation as referred by the national government shows that there is a thrust for greater transparency and accountability. The central government has introduced programmes and policies to ensure that more is achieved with the limited resources that are available (Public Service Commission (PSC), 2012:14). Similarly, provincial planning frameworks have been developed in order to contribute to outcome with certain targets and metrics. The national and provincial institutions when developing the strategic plans, annual performance plans, quarterly and annual reports set out timeframes and core programme indicators. This indicates that is being done to ensure effectiveness and efficiency improving quality of services (The Presidency, 2013:7).

Performance measurements have been a popular concept in local municipalities. This is because the issue of service delivery in municipalities has over the years attracted the attention of the media (Pretorius and Schurink, 2007:19). Citizens generally want to be reassured that they obtain services. Most of the detailed facts and figures of the service delivery are not of their concern but they rightfully expect that the elected and appointed officials collect and monitor the facts and figures and ensure that the quality of services is provided at a fair price.

However, since the inceptions of the monitoring and evaluation system, performance reports have been done; and changes have been made to provide sector specific performance reports (National Treasury, 2010:7). During the review process it was tabled that the three tiers of the government faced challenges in coming up with performance reports for the following reasons:

- Compliance bias

The system mainly focused on issues of compliance instead of striving to achieve a balance between service delivery and governance.

- Standardised methodology

The methodology was not robust. In addition, the monitoring team relied on responses from departmental managers only without analysing the planning process which should have produced the alignment.

- Data limitation and implications of data reliance

Departmental data bases, other administrative records and statistics generally have to be used frequently during the process but this data is not easily accessible. Sometimes where the data was available, the information would be out of date and less relevant (PSC, 2011:11).

However, this demonstrates that South African government institutions are willing to engage in performance systems. This is because for local governments in South Africa priorities lie in providing basic service delivery.

5.2.1 Performance Measures legal framework in South Africa

The existing legal framework provides a firm foundation to steer performance monitoring through all phases of development in all spheres of the government. In summary, Table 5.2 shows the legal framework and the provisions of each instrument.

Table 5.2: Legal framework

LEGISLATION	PROVISIONS	IMPLICATIONS
Constitution of the Republic of South Africa	Section 152, objects of local governments gives way for performance management in terms of accountability. Section 195(1) promotion of efficient, economic and effective use of resources, accountability, display of transparency and availability of information	Promotion of democratic and accountable government Provision for sustainable services Social and economic development Encouragement of safe and healthy environment Encouragement of community participation
White Paper on Service Delivery (Batho Pele) (1998)	Based on the 8 principles of improved service delivery, Consultation Service standards Accessibility Courtesy Provision of more and better information Openness and transparency Increased responsiveness Value for money	It means creation of a long-term framework Institutional coordination
White Paper on Local Government (1998)	Introduces practise of performance management Authentication of performance management tools Serves to increase trust between the local municipality and the community	Increase of accountability in municipalities Tool for facilitation of development Increases trust of the community on municipality
Municipal Systems Act (2000)	Section 4, 6 and 8 state the principles of accountability Section 11(3) municipalities must set targets for delivery, monitoring and regulating municipal services. Also the establishment and implementation of performance management systems. Chapter 6, performance management of local government. Section 38 requires the development of a PMS Section 39, the Executive Committee is responsible for the development of PMS Section 41 gives the core components of PMS Chapter 4 deals with public participation,	Targets settings, monitoring and performance assessments based on the IDP Involvement of community in the setting indicators and targets Improvement in the quality of service delivery

	section42, community must be involved Section 46(4) publishing of an annual report inclusive of the general indicators	
Municipal Finance Management Act 56 (2003)	Various provisions relating to municipal performance management. Municipalities to adopt SDBIP with service delivery targets and performance indicators.	Gives monitoring and review platforms Gives general key performance indicators
Municipal Performance Regulations for Municipal Managers and Managers directly accountable to municipal managers (2006)	Chapter 2, gives the requirements and provisions of employment contracts Chapter 3 deals with performance agreements which include prescribed key performance areas and core competency requirements Chapter 4 gives job descriptions for municipal managers	Sets out performance of Municipal Managers and managers directly to municipal managers

Source: Own Construction from quoted policies and legislation (2014).

From the above quoted legislation, only policies and legislation linking directly with integration and performance measurement will be discussed below.

5.2.1.1 Municipal Systems Act (32 of 2000)

According to chapter 6 of the Municipal Systems Act (32 of 2000), all municipalities are supposed to create a performance management system that is proportionate to its resources, applicable to the circumstances, and also in alignment with the priorities, objectives, indicators and targets contained within the IDP.

The section furthermore indicates that all municipalities should come up with annual reports that highlight the performance of councillors, staff, public, and all other government departments. In addition when setting the indicators, targets and reviews on municipal performance, involvement of the community is of paramount importance (Municipal Systems Act, 32 of 2000). This elucidates that the municipality is empowered with the ability to come up with indicators which are used for achieving integrated development.

Nevertheless, municipalities should make sure that when setting targets, the financial and institutional capacity should correlate. Another critical aspect is to ensure frequent monitoring, that is, quarterly in conjunction with quarterly performance targets.

5.2.1.2 Municipal Planning Performance Management Regulations (2001)

Section 7(2) of the Municipal Planning Performance Management Regulations stipulates that, when municipalities are coming up with performance management systems there is need to:

- Ensure that there is alignment with the requirements set out in the Municipal Systems Act;

- Illustrate fully the operation and management from the planning stage , performance review and reporting stages;
- Clearly state the roles and responsibilities of each role player including the local community;
- Clearly state how the framework is integrated with the IDP processes;
- Establish frequency reporting and accountability framework.

Furthermore section 12(2) prescribes that there is need for performance targets which are practical, realistic and in line with the available resources and within the municipality's capacity. Most importantly, they should be in alignment with the goals and objectives of the IDP.

It is noted that in as much the regulations give a clear cut framework of the performance system for local municipalities, focusing on the progress of municipalities, indicates that the performance management regulations are close to a theoretical framework because in as much as it is critical to ensure municipalities addresses all factors for effectiveness and efficiency, it is more difficult to get information of interval progress and targets.

5.2.1.3 Municipal Finance Management Act (56 of 2003)

The Municipal Finance Management Act; MFMA (56 of 2003) propounds that in each and every annual review of the IDP, municipalities are required to look at the financial and budgetary performances in line with the changing environment. According to Joubert (2008:20) it is the MFMA (56 of 2003) which informs the PMS in municipalities to provide the assessment of performance, service delivery and annual reports. This allows the council to amend the IDP based on the review.

According to Van der Wadt (2004:323) the Act also requires officials entrusted with the management of municipal finances and supply to perform their responsibilities in a transparent and ethical manner. The accounting officer should ensure that finances and resources of a municipality are managed effectively, efficiently and economically.

From the above legislation, it can be noted that the central government acknowledges that performance measurement is critical because it ensures that plans or projects that are being implemented have the desired developmental impact and also that there is need for efficient use of resources.

5.3 Key principles of performance measurements

Key principles give the fundamental norms, values or rules that are desirable for an organisation and tend to differ per organisation. For performance measurements, the principles listed below are just the underlying elements directing municipalities in formulating the performance measurement system (Amaratunga and Baldry, 2002:206).

- **Simplicity:**

The performance measurement system has to be governed to operate precisely and excellently. This has to be done in a simple and user friendly manner which enables municipalities to develop, implement, manage and review the system without placing an unnecessary burden on the existing capacity of the municipality (Performance Management policy, 2006:8).

- **Implementable:**

The PMS has to be implementable, in the sense that, it should consider the resources within the municipality. The resources in this context include time, financial, technical and institutional resources.

- **Transparency and accountability:**

The development of the PMS has to be inclusive, transparent and open. This means that the general public should, through the system, be made aware of how the system operates within the municipality, how the public resources are being spent and who is responsible for what (Performance Management policy, 2006:8).

- **Public participation:**

In terms of the Constitution (1996) and Municipal Systems Act (2000), there is need for the encouragement of public participation by a municipality during the development and implementation of PMS. The implementation framework indicates the time, kind of involvement and responsibilities on terms of public participation (Performance Management Framework, Beaufort West Municipality, and (2009:10).

- **Integration:**

The PMS should be developed and implemented in such a manner that it will be integrated within the integration development process of the municipality.

- **Objectivity:**

A system has to be developed in such a way that the information is based upon being objective and credible. Even the assessments should ensure objectivity and credibility (Performance Management policy 2006:9).

- Reliability:

The system should provide reliable information on the progress made by the municipality in achieving the objective as set out in the IDP.

- Efficiency and sustainability:

The system should be, by all means possible, cost effective and professionally developed, managed and operated in a sustainable manner (Performance Management policy, 2006:9).

- Politically acceptable:

The system developed should definitely be acceptable to all political role players at all levels and flexible enough to be accepted by the municipal council. This is because the whole process involves both councillors and officials. (Performance Management Framework, Beaufort West Municipality, 2009:10).

This means that in order to come up with efficient performance managements systems each municipality should be aligned with the given principles, guided by detailed processes and govern the performance system.

5.4 Performance measurement tools

Within the South African municipal environments, appropriate performance measures have been established to serve as yardsticks for measuring individual and organisational performance. As noted earlier, PMS quantifies services and processes. There are tools that help to understand, manage and improve organisations that have been of immense assistance in assessing and evaluating performance in South African municipalities. The tools basically focus on how well the:

- organisation is performing;
- goals of the organisation are being met;
- organisation is achieving customer satisfaction;
- processes are in control;

- are the improvements; (Kaplan, 2001:54).

The tools henceforth are:

5.4.1 Key Performance Indicators (KPI)

According to Dodgson (2009:5) KPIs are quantitative and qualitative measures used to review an organisation's progress against its goals. These are broken down and set as targets for achievement by departments and individuals. The achievement of these targets is reviewed at regular intervals. KPIs assist an organisation to measure whether it is on track and that it is working towards and attaining a beneficial outcome (Application Performance Management; APM, 2013). In many cases, KPIs are used in projects to measure service delivery. The figure below shows the hierarchy in preparing performance indicators.

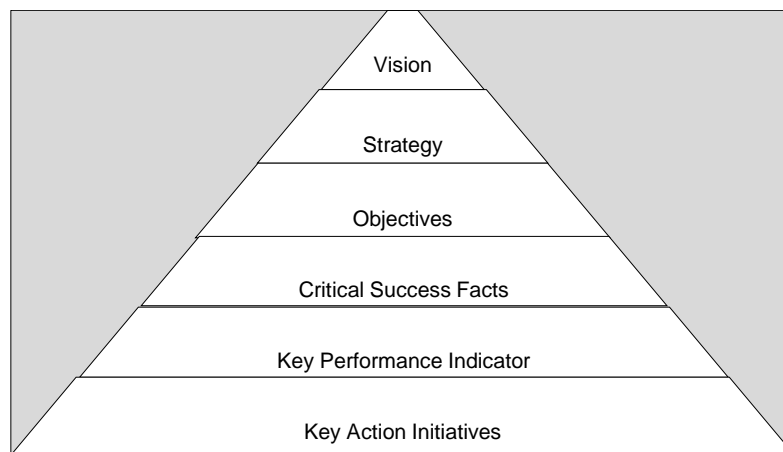


Figure 5.1: Hierarchy of key performance indicators

Source: Own Construction (2014).

5.4.1.1 Vision

In most instances, a vision is mostly confused with a mission. A vision is where an organisation wants to go and a mission may never be reached because it is meant to solve unsolved problems innovatively (Sharp, 2007:32). The vision can stimulate organisations when stated with enough clarity. A vision is also time bound and usually supported continually.

5.4.1.2 Strategy

According to Niven (2003:129) strategy is about choosing a different set of activities, the pursuit of which leads to a unique and valuable position in the environment. Strategy is actually more about the choice of what not to do than what to do. This means that an organisation has to align with what has been chosen and create value from that strategic position. The activities which

are chosen have to fit in with one another for success. If the activities are the same they produce an integrated whole (Niven, 2008:1).

In addition Niven (2003:130) denotes that strategy also involves conceptual as well as analytical exercises where strategy also takes note of, not only the details of complex data, but a broad conceptual knowledge of the organisation and environment. In this context, one can define a strategy as the representation of the broad priorities taken by an organisation in recognition of its operating environment and in pursuit of its vision.

5.4.1.3 Objectives

The objectives mainly answer the question of what must be done well in order to implement the strategy. The critical success factors are those priority areas and the KPI defines what needs to be measured in order to gauge progress towards achieving the objectives Niven (2003:15). The KPI simply defines how performance will be measured along a scale or dimension, for example, the number of houses to be built at a given timeframe. The KPI characteristics should be:

- Relevant
- Specific
- Realistic
- Attainable
- Measurable
- Resourced

Within the context of the IDP, the KPI sets out clearly municipal development objectives and targets. It also provides direction to improve on performance through the setting of key performance indicators. These indicators measure performance of the overall IDP and its sectoral plans. The IDP sets out what a municipality intends to achieve, in other words, the vision. This then enables the community to have certain expectations linked to the municipal vision and objectives (Sharp, 2007:32). The performance management system managers measure and evaluate the extent of achievement or expected outcome so as to assist the community to inspect on their expectations.

Since the IDP incorporates different sectors, it becomes easy to measure performance that is directly linked to sectoral objectives and targets. It can be done by plotting: where the municipality has come from, where it is going and how far it is? It also becomes easy to

brainstorm ideas of how to get to the set targets through critical paths and swot analysis mechanisms.

Below, Table 5.3 shows an example of some of the key performance indicators that are being used to measure progress in the achievement of goal number one for the (MDGs). It is basically an illustration to answer the questions, where are we, were are going and how far we are? The same strategy can be also be used to achieve municipal objectives.

Table 5.3: Simple example of a key performance index using Goal1 of the MDGs for South Africa

GOAL 1: ERADICATE EXTREME POVERTY						
INDICATOR	1994 baseline	2010	Current status	2015 target	Target achievability	Indicator type
TARGET 1A: Halve the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar a day between 1990 and 2015						
Proportion of population below \$1.00 per day	11.3 (2000)	5.0 (2006)	4.0 (2011)	5.7	achieved	MDG
Population below \$1.25 per day	17.0 (2000)	9.7 (2006)	7.4 (2011)	8.5	achieved	MDG
Proportion of population below \$2.00 per day	33.5 (2000)	25.3 (2006)	20.8 (2011)	16.8	likely	MDG
Proportion of population below \$2.50 per day	42.4 (2000)	34.8 (2006)	29.2 (2011)	21.1	likely	MDG
Poverty gap ratio (\$1.00 per day)	3.2 (2000)	1.1 (2006)	1.0 (2011)	1.6	achieved	domesticated
Poverty gap ratio (\$1.25 per day)	5.4 (2000)	2.3 (2006)	1.9 (2011)	2.7	achieved	MDG
Poverty gap ratio \$2.00 per day	13.0 (2000)	8.1 (2006)	6.5 (2011)	6.5	achieved	MDG
Poverty gap ratio \$2.50 per day	18.0 (2000)	12.5 (2006)	10.3 (2011)	9.0	likely	MDG
Share of the poorest quintile in national consumption	2.9 (2000)	2.8 (2006)	2.7 (2011)	5.8	unlikely	MDG
TARGET 1B: Achieve full an productive employment and decent work for all, including women and you people						
Percentage growth rate of GDP per person employed	4.7 (2002)	1.9 (2009)	1.5 (2011)	6.0	unlikely	MDG
Employment to population ratio	44.1 (2002)	42.5	40.8	50.70	unlikely	MDG
% of employed people living below \$1	5.2 (2000)	No data	3.9 (2009)	0	likely	MDG
% of own account and contributing family workers in total employment	11.0 (2000)	9.9 (2010)	10.0 (2011)	5	unlikely	MDG
TARGET 1C: Halve the people who suffer from hunger between 1990 and 2015						
% of people who report hunger	29.9 (2002)	No data	12.9 (2011)	15	achieved	domesticated
Prevalence of underweight children under five years of age	13.2 (1993)	10.2 (2005)	8.3 (2008)	4.7	likely	MDG

Source: Own Construction from Millennium Development Goals South Africa country report (2013:26).

The indicators that have been used to assess progress to reach the 2015 goals are money based poverty measures, employment, income per capita, social services and government grants. These indicators show how far the country has gone in achieving goal number. Each indicator shows how far South Africa is progressing towards achieving set targets in 2015. Presentation of the matrix gives room for transparency and communication and is initiated to further explain failures and achievement reports.

As noted by the index generally KPI's are used to:

- Communicate the achievements and results
- Determine whether an institution is delivering on its developmental mandate.
- Indicate whether the organisational structure of an institution is aligned to deliver on its development objectives.
- Promote accountability by the responsible electorate (MDG country report, 2013:26).

The above advantages can also be exploited by the local municipalities to come up with different set of performance indicators in different municipal departments. One of the critical aspects is that the whole performance measurement system enables the reassessment of functionality and alignment (Boyle, 2000). The concept of sectoral alignment to strategies, mission and vision is important because it has been a major challenge which exists with the IDP and its sectoral plans. The KPI can be used to assess sectoral alignment of goals and objectives in the three tiers of the government.

5.4.2 Goal Achievement Matrix (GAM)

A Goal Achievement Matrix (GAM) is an option that is used as a means of measuring outcome data from different contexts. It enables the data to be placed on a quantitative measurement matrix, thus tackling the problem of how to adequately identify and measure the level of goal attainment qualitatively (Sharp, 2007:2). It is also an evaluation tool which can be used to improve on evaluation design and data collection for accountability and improvements.

According to (OAP) Outcome Assessment Plan Handbook (2001:5), GAM is the systematic collection and analysis of information to improve and attain the desired outcome. When doing the analysis, the purposes revolve around; improving, informing and proving. Below is an example of compositions in GAM.

Table 5.4: Simple example illustrating compositions of a GAM

GOAL	TARGET A INDICATOR	BASELINE DATA	RECENT DATA	TARGET	OVERAL		
					good	Average	poor
ERADICATE EXTREME POVERTY	Proportion of people living below the poverty threshold	46.8	38.4	23.4		X	
	Proportion of families below the poverty threshold	40.7	32.0	20.4		X	
	Proportion of people living below the food threshold	22.6	18.4	11.3	X		
	Proportion of people living below the food threshold	17.9	14.0	9.0		X	
	TOTAL GAM SCORE					1	3

Source: Own Construction from Millennium Development Goals country report (2013:24-25).

GAM enables stakeholders, technical members, and the public to work together to rate progress towards achieving goals. The major advantage of the GAM approach is that it gives the GAM score which shows how well the institution, country or municipality has achieved its targets. According to Schalkwyk, Schoeman and Cilliers (2013:225) GAM gives a detailed analysis if its application is fully embraced by municipalities. Schalkwyk (2013) propounds that GAM is an approach which is done in order to show how far the municipalities are prioritising and aligning projects plans and strategies within the IDP. When analysing the indexes, the extreme scores indicates an average or poor achievement of the targets.

Therefore GAM can be used is an instrument which helps municipalities to identify any diversions from the IDP. Furthermore, Schalkwyk (2013) notes that in municipalities GAM can be used to assist in analysing priority projects and programmes. For instance, as contained in IDP and sectoral plans, municipalities can use the GAM approach to identify elements for spatial transformations from the IDP objectives. This can be done by identifying each project in each sectoral plan and assessing through scores the level of alignment with its contribution to the spatial transformation objectives in the IDP. The total scores are then referred to as the GAM assessments.

5.4.3 Multi-Criteria Analysis (MCA)

According to Mendoza (1999:40) the MCA is a decision making tool developed for complex multi-criteria problems that include qualitative and or quantitative aspects of the problem in the decision making process. It is a tool that helps to evaluate the relative importance of all elements involved. MCA is done to make a comparative assessment between projects or heterogeneous measures. According to NERA (2006:7), the advantages of MCA include:

- Transparency;
- Consistency and logic;
- Provision of auditing.

MCA is in most instances an ex ante evaluation tool. This means that it can be useful in evaluating the ability of various activities of a programme to fulfil a given objective. It can also be used to structure views of project or programme managers about on-going activities. Ex ante MCA can be used to discuss the content of the programmes and the funding of various activities during the drafting of strategies. Usually the ex-ante MCA is used for the examinations of the intervention strategic choices. The other evaluation tool is the ex-post evaluations, where the MCA contributes to the analysis of programmes or policies through appraisal of its impacts with regards to several criteria. In ex-post evaluations, examples of intervention fields are: poverty alleviation, immigration control or trade development. These can benefit from the ex-post evaluations because they provide judgements on complex strategies (Dodgson, 2009:6).

Table 5.5: Example of MCA elements

Poverty alleviation programme: Self-Employment Programme for Urban Poor (SEPUP)				
Criteria Assessment element		High score	Moderate score	Lower score
1	Fiscal support	No fiscal support	Likely fiscal support	High fiscal support
2	Level of risk	High risk	Can be mitigated	Sufficient mitigation
3	Level of readiness	Few major issues	Moderate issues	Minor issues
4	Likely impact	Severely affected	Limited impact	Low impact
5	Socio-economic benefits	High	Moderate	Low focus
6	Demand growth	High	Medium	Low

Source: Toolkit for Public-private partnerships in roads and highways (2009:14).

MCA is a process of establishing preference options by referring to a set of objectives that have been identified. The established measurable criteria have to assess the extent to which the objectives have been achieved (Dodgson 2009:23). In this context, institutions come up with a strategy for poverty alleviation to achieve MDG 1. There are certain elements which need to be taken into consideration to ensure that the programme will be a success and some of the elements to consider are shown in Table 5.5 above. Some of the issues revolve around Cost Effectiveness Analysis (CEA) and Cost Benefit Analysis (CBA). However it must be noted that the CEA and CBA is that they most revolve around monetary terms (Dodgson, 2009:7).

MCA can be used also in municipalities in assessing priority projects for the IDP. The municipality takes into account elements such as the cost, timeframe of the project, risk and impact, among many other elements, in order to priorities the project.

5.4.4 Public participation as a performance measurement element

According to the guidelines for reporting service, efforts and accomplishments of the Governmental Accounting Standards Board (GASB), there is need for citizens and customer perceptions to come up with the quality results of major and critical programs and services (Epstein et al, 2005:4). Many local governments and community organisations have started to involve citizens. For example, the Jacksonville community council in USA engaged with local officials and community leaders to produce an annual quality of life report that evaluates performance and human services according to a strategic vision and specific goals. Reviewing some of these experiences of different communities that participate, Epstein, Coates and Wray (2005) summarise the role of citizens as:

- customers and stakeholders;
- advocates;
- issue framers;
- collaborators;
- evaluators.

However, there is a greater challenge in involving people in the exercise of performance measurement. It is actually more difficult compared to other formal of public participation such as voting because performance measuring involves technical issues which are difficult to be understood by ordinary citizens.

Furthermore, performance measures are routine exercises that need to be undertaken frequently. Moreover, performance measures do not change policy easily (Behn, 2008:586). In some cases even if elected officials and managers are serious and committed about public input and performance information, citizen are unlikely to see concrete results for their inputs within the near future .Therefore, this discourages the public to commit time and effort to participate. Consequently, public participation in performance measurement requires innovativeness.

Due to experiences and success stories of other municipalities such as the Bangalore citizen surveys and response card which have been useful (European Commission, 1997, 5) some

governments have adopted the use response cards for specific services. The cards are specifically targeted for particular user groups to evaluate how users perceive the quality of services. This has been referred to as the scorecard measuring tool.

5.5 Balanced scorecard

The balanced scorecard (BSC) was developed in 1992 by Kaplan and Norton. It has gained widespread acceptance as a tool for performance measurement worldwide Kelvin 1883 (in Kaplan, 2010:1). According to, Knapp (2001:i) a scorecard translates an organisation's mission and strategy into a comprehensive set of performance measure that provides the framework for strategic measurement and strategic system. In simple terms, the BSC can be defined as shown by Figure 5.2 below.

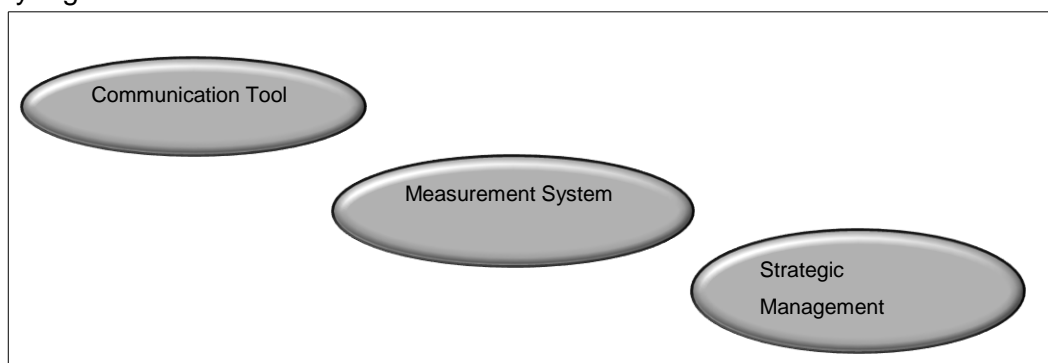


Figure 5.2: Concepts of BSC

Source: Own Construction from Niven (2006:14).

A BSC can be defined as a framework which enables communication, measurements and strategic planning within an organisation (Niven, 2006:14). However, most of all it enables integration of communication and measurements thus it is a tool for strategies. Communication and measuring systems are in place to rate or benchmark on progress within an organisation. The whole concept enables the process of quantifying long-term and short term outcomes for a certain vision.

The BSC has a multi-goal targeting approach which focuses on decisional making problems where multiple criteria are involved in a procedural way. The BSC communicates the multiple linked objectives that must be achieved and then translates mission and strategies into goals and measurements. Since the BSC is a multi-goal targeting model that focuses on decision making problems where multi criteria is involved, it is appropriate to adopt the Analytical Hierarchy Process (AHP) which allows decision makers to model problems in a hierarchical structure showing the relationships of the goals, objectives and alternatives. It facilitates the incorporation of non-quantitative measures into evaluation schemes (Dodgson, 2009:23). This is a procedural aspect which integrates the BSC in a strategic form to enhanced total performance measuring.

5.5.1 Functions of the BSC

According to Kaplan and Norton (1992:42), one of the most distinct and important functions of a scorecard is to measure performance. From early literature it can be noted that a scorecard is described as a system providing organisations with financial and operational measures. From this description it can be deduced that the BSC performs numerous functions, which range from the financial context to operations.

Ahn (2001:103) propounds that the BSC itself addresses a number of deficiencies that are found in the traditional performance measurement systems. Thus, for example, the BSC provides a balanced organisational assessment through recognising a variety of stakeholders in different sectors or departments. Furthermore, it combines non-financial indicators such as service quality, employee morale and customer satisfaction with financial performance measures (Eccles, 1991:131).

The BSC is an important tool which is used to ensure accountability. It is noted that during annual reviews, organisations can prepare reports which highlight to the public what was formulated earlier and what has been accomplished. Thus the BSC enables public accountability (Ahn, 2001:105). In assessing all municipalities in South Africa, the BSC is a suitable tool that can be used to assess progress in achieving local municipality visions and strategy.

The BSC is also used to manage performance. In this context it is used to clarify and agree on strategies and communication through organisations, alignment of different sectors, budgets, objectives, targets and reviews. According to Drury (2008:576) BSC was actually created in response to the need within the public and private sectors for an integrated framework which would clarify, communicate and manage the implementation of strategies and projects within organisations.

It can also be noted that the BSC focuses on management directed to the drivers of performance thereby explicitly encouraging the inclusion of lead as well as lag indicators (Atkinson and Brown, 2001:5). Meanwhile, it also identifies the cause-effect relationships around important trade-offs between key goal and areas of priority. The highlighted measures are then considered vital to identifying organisations priorities (Butler 1997). Significantly, the BSC, is also acknowledged as capable of acting as a powerful link between strategy and operation (Kaplan and Norton 1996a:2).

Principles of the BSC

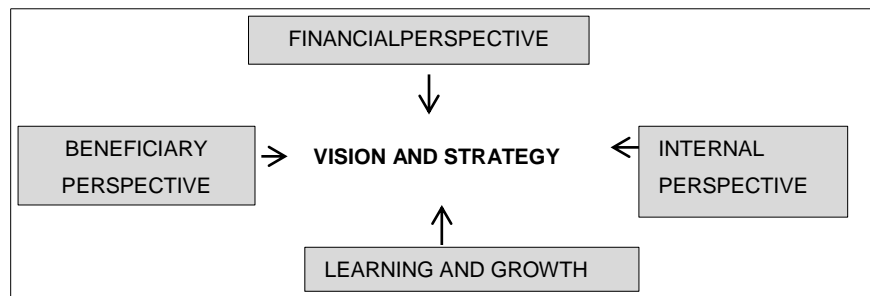


Figure 5.3: Principles of a balanced scorecard

Source: Own Construction from Kaplan (2010:4).

Kaplan and Norton (1993:136) state that the principles of the BSC enable organisations to link long term strategies with the short term actions. The principles also delimit organisations from focusing mainly on financial measures and targets to achieve long term strategic objectives, but on other measures which contribute in linking long term with short term actions.

The translation of the vision helps to build the consensus of vision and strategy. For the vision to translate into operation there is need for expression of an integrated set of objectives and measures approved by all managers.

5.5.1.1 Financial perspective

From Figure 5.3, the financial perspective emanates from the financial side where performance is measured in terms of profits. It is actually a critical component in the world of profits. The objectives and measures in this perspective communicate whether the strategies executed through objectives and measures chosen in other perspectives, contribute to the bottom line results (Kaplan, 1996:1). An organisation can focus on its capabilities to improve on beneficiary or customer satisfaction, quality, time delivery, or any other service, without any indication of the effect on the organisation's financial returns, because it is of limited value (Kaplan, 2010:5). Example of indicators in the financial perspective include; profitability, revenue growth and asset utilization.

5.5.1.2 The beneficiary perspective

Beneficiary perspective as shown in Figure 5.3 measures performance related to people in connection with the project. When selecting the beneficiary perspectives, an organisation is supposed to answer a set of selected questions which include:

- Who are our target people?

- What is the value proposition in serving them?
- What do our beneficiaries or customers expect or demand from us? (Kaplan and Norton, 1995).

This perspective normally includes widely used concepts such as customer satisfaction, customer loyalty and customer acquisition. Therefore an organisation should develop drivers that will lead to customer or beneficiary success. In addition, it is worth noting that with the beneficiary perspective the organisation creates the viewpoints from the people (Norton, 2001:109).

5.5.1.3 The internal perspective

Basically the internal perspective identifies the key processes that an organisation must excel at in order to continuously add value for the beneficiaries and stakeholders (Ahn, 2001:443). In other words, it measures the innovativeness of service, public responsibility and responsibility to stakeholders. The questions which are indicative in this context include 'what exactly we must excel at?' Therefore the task in this perspective is to identify those processes and develop the best possible objectives and measures with which to track progress to satisfy beneficiaries, customers and stakeholders (Wolf, 1999:162).

5.5.1.4 Learning and growth perspective

Learning and growth perspective deals with the personnel development, capabilities, alignment as information systems. Basically this perspective deals with the enablers of the above mentioned three perspectives. Once the objectives, measures and related initiatives in the beneficiary and internal perspectives are identified, it becomes easy to identify the gaps between the current human capital, information capital and the environment (Niven, 2006:7). The objectives and measures designed in this perspective will help to close the gap and ensure sustainable performance.

Figure 5.3 gives a hint that the BSC integrates and translates visions and strategies. The main principle of the BSC is that it translates strategies into strategic maps that will specify the details in critical elements. Internationally, the tool has been mostly applied to the performance management systems of commercial banks.

Literature on scorecards indicates that the measurements are mainly based on financial measures (Panicke, 2013:37). On the contrary, it is viable to argue that it is not only in financial matters that scorecards can be used to reveal the performance of an organisation.

5.5.2 Applicability of the perspectives in municipal transformation

The BSC has gained popularity in Europe, USA, Latin America and Australia (Panicke, 2013:37). However, Kolberg and Elg (2012:37) recognised the key characteristics of the application of the BSC in the health department in Sweden. There are diverse managerial levels which can be used with the BSC as an instrument to increase internal capabilities for the department.

Furthermore Greiling (2010:37) conducted a study on 20 sample non-profit making organisations in the services sector department in Germany. The main idea was to look at the implementation of the BSC in terms of execution levels, perspectives and challenges. Instead, the study revealed that the BSC was used as more of a measurement tool than for management. In this case, the measuring aspect was seen to affect the people’s performance.

In South Africa a municipal scorecard is adapted for measuring performance on development areas that are relevant to municipal service delivery and the public sector (DPLG, 2001:44). The BSC groups its indicators under the 5year local government strategic agenda Key Performance Areas (KPA).

5.6 Municipal BSC Perspectives

Municipalities in South Africa adopted the Municipal Scorecard as its performance management model. In terms of the model, indicators are grouped together into five (5) perspectives as depicted below:

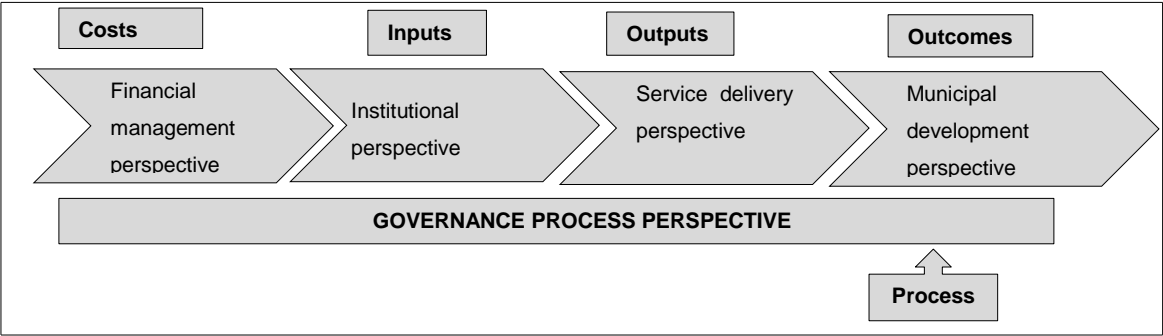


Figure 5.4: Municipal Scorecard Perspectives

Source: Own Construction from Public Service Commission (2011:106).

The financial management perspective mainly focuses on how well a municipality is performing taking into cognisance its financial management. It also measures how the municipality manages its finances. The major indicators in this perspective include:

- Operating income

- Operating expenditure
- Financial infrastructure investments
- Capital expenditure
- Financial management

The governance process perspective measures the municipality's performance with respect to its engagement with its stakeholders. This perspective indicates how well a municipality performs in relation to relationships with its stakeholders PSC (2008:21). This measures the municipal governance and the indicator measures include:

- Public participation focus can be directed to the functionality and impact on ward committees;
- Functionality of the aspects of municipal governance structures focusing on the council structures;
- Access to information.

The institutional development perspective: relates to the inputs and indicators that measure the functioning of a municipality. They assess performance with respect to the management of municipal resource which include;

- Human resources allocation;
- The management of information;
- Organisational infrastructure;
- Asset management.

The service delivery perspective relates to the municipality's performance in the overall delivery of basic and infrastructural services and products (PSC, 2008:20). Finally, the municipal development perspective assesses whether the desired development indicators around the performance area of social and economic development is achieved in the municipality.

The effective application of the BSC in municipalities should be embraced because there are reference points in areas that need focus and attention. However there is need for some modifications or changes are necessary to suite the municipal requirements or objectives preceded by a clear understanding of the BSC principles.

Nevertheless, according to Hendricks (2004:2) most municipalities fail to come up with proper measures for the quality of municipal programs and services. Some municipalities use outdated performance measures and some of the measures are so ambiguous and confusing to the municipalities themselves (PSC, 2008:25). In such a scenario it is difficult even for the municipalities to rate the impacts of the progress being made. This means that a few municipalities make use of the performance measures in the decision processes.

5.6.1 Suitability of applying the scorecard system in context

This study has selected the use of the scorecard since it has become known as an important tool to improve performance in local municipalities. Furthermore, Amarahanga, (2009:9) denote that the scoring is the least criticised tool and mostly widely accepted performance measurement. The scorecard concept in this study will not use the perspectives as local municipalities because of insufficient data but will assess performance and progress of spatial transformation over the years using the NDP goals and annual reports presented. The reasoning is that, needs are continually evolving in response to changes in the environment. The fact that a performance measurement system has the potential to be used for performance management is good enough reason to choose it to assess the progress to reach the vision. In addition the scorecard:

- Provides accountability and generates result

Accountability and the demonstration of results is only enabled when there is accurate measurements of the true performance of the organisation. The scorecard with its focus on the mission and strategy and broad view of performance allows a demonstration of advanced high level mission based objectives (Amarahanga, 2009:11). Therefore it becomes suitable to employ it in assessing levels of accountability of TLM in providing services.

- Attraction of Scarce Resources

While the BSC may not make an organisation rich, it certainly helps to attract scarce resources. By developing scorecard reporting for achieving strategic objectives and proving efficiency and effectiveness, one can ensure the migration of scarce resources to the organisation or department which uses the tool (Murby and Gould, 2006:5).

- Focus on strategy

One of the important aspects of the scorecard is that it translates a strategy into action (Figgie, 2002:7). In as much as organisations and departments has put emphasis of progress measures, there is a frequent tendency to forget the sight of the fact what the measurement

should be about in achieving the strategy. If implemented efficiently performance measuring allows one to focus on what really matters, that is, the few key drivers of success that leads to the achievement of the desired outcome. Therefore, it is of paramount importance to take note of the key drivers for success in TLM to achieve the municipal vision.

- Production of information not data:

According to Niven (2006:41), the scoring resides in the information domain as measuring the key drivers of an organisation is a success. Furthermore Niven propounds that if a BSC contains fifty to sixty measures, it probably has abundant data, but a scorecard with ten or twelve measures has real information.

- Inspire trust:

As noted earlier, the BSC helps to demonstrate accountability and attract resources, the driver of both these issues is to build increased trust from the community at large, funders, stakeholders and the technical teams.

- Additional measures on what could be used for the future:

Kaplan and Norton (1996:8) propound that the BSC retains financial measures of the past performances. Therefore with this information it is easier to evaluate and recommend for future uses.

The above mentioned elements are important for this study because there is need to analyse and assess development in transforming future initiatives. In addition, it can be noted that the application of the scorecard completes a framework of integration. In this context, all information is gathered, values are created, investment opportunities, processes, technology and innovation strategies are aligned to give desired outcome (Kaplan and Norton, 1996b:8).

For this study the IDP is the core of all the mentioned aspects. Therefore the scorecard becomes the major instrument to help assess performance towards attaining the mission and strategic goals of the IDP. Furthermore, the performance measurement tool can align organisational objectives, measures, targets and the initiatives to the targets. This points out that the scoring method can solve the issue of misalignment of plans, projects and strategies at various levels of the organisations.

5.6.2 Service Delivery Budget Implementation Plan (SDBIP)

Section 1 of the MFMA defines the SDBIP as “a detailed plan approved by the Mayor of a municipality in terms of Section 53 (1)(c)(ii) for implementing the municipality’s delivery of

services and the execution of its annual budget and which must include (as part of the top layer) the following:

- (a) Projections for each month of revenue to be collected, by source; and operational and capital expenditure, by vote; and
- (b) Service delivery targets and performance indicators,

CSIR (2011:2-3) defines service delivery by a local authority as when the residents' life is made comfortable through the city council performing its duties. The roles include refuse collection, road maintenance, and adequate supply of water, electricity as well as the maintenance of sewer systems. The South African government has made it mandatory for local municipalities to provide for all basic services to all citizens. The central government came up with the Batho Pele principles whose purpose is central to transform service delivery to excellence (Pretorius and Schurink, 2007:12). The Local Government service delivery mandate is provided for and supported through a variety of instruments including the Constitution, the White Paper on Transforming Service Delivery (1997), the Local Government: Municipal Structures Act (117 of 1998), and the Municipal Systems Act (32 of 2000).

Focus of the SDBIP is to bring the Batho Pele principles into reality and promote efficient and effective service delivery (Service Delivery Improvement Plan, 2012:12). The SDBIP is one of the key management, implementation and monitoring tool, which provides operational content to the end-of-year service delivery targets, set in the budget and IDP (MFMA circular; 2005:5). MFMA determines the performance agreements for the municipal manager and Section 57 managers, whose performance can then be monitored through Section 71 monthly reports, and evaluated through the annual report process. In other words, the SDBIP is the operational basis of the BSC. To clearly understand, the implementation flow is shown below in Figure 5.5.

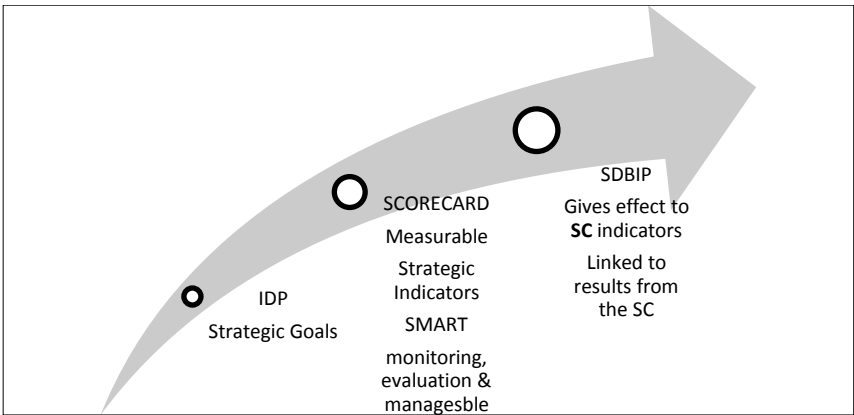


Figure 5.5: Flow of municipal elements

Source: Own Construction (2014).

SDBIP makes use of operational plans and quarterly assessments. Operational planning is the process of linking strategic goals and objectives to tactical goals and objectives. It describes milestones, conditions for success and explains how, or what portion of, a strategic plan will be put into operation during a given operational period.

5.6.3 Quarterly Assessment

Quarterly assessment in terms of the Local Government: Municipal Finance Act (2003), require that the City's accounting officer, each year (mid-financial year), assess its performance during the first half of the financial year, and submit an assessment report to the Mayor, the National Treasury and the relevant provincial treasury. In addition, annual reports and quarterly reports need to be compiled. These documents provide feedback to residents and stakeholders on the city's achievements against the objectives set out in the IDP, (IDP and Organisational Performance Management, 2014).

5.7 Conclusion

Chapter five presented the foundation for performance measuring and the reasons for its application in South African municipalities. From this chapter, it was deduced that performance measuring is an important element for the quality and management of programmes. The chapter noted that for most local municipalities, the scorecard is the recurring tool, which is being utilised as the tool for performance measuring.

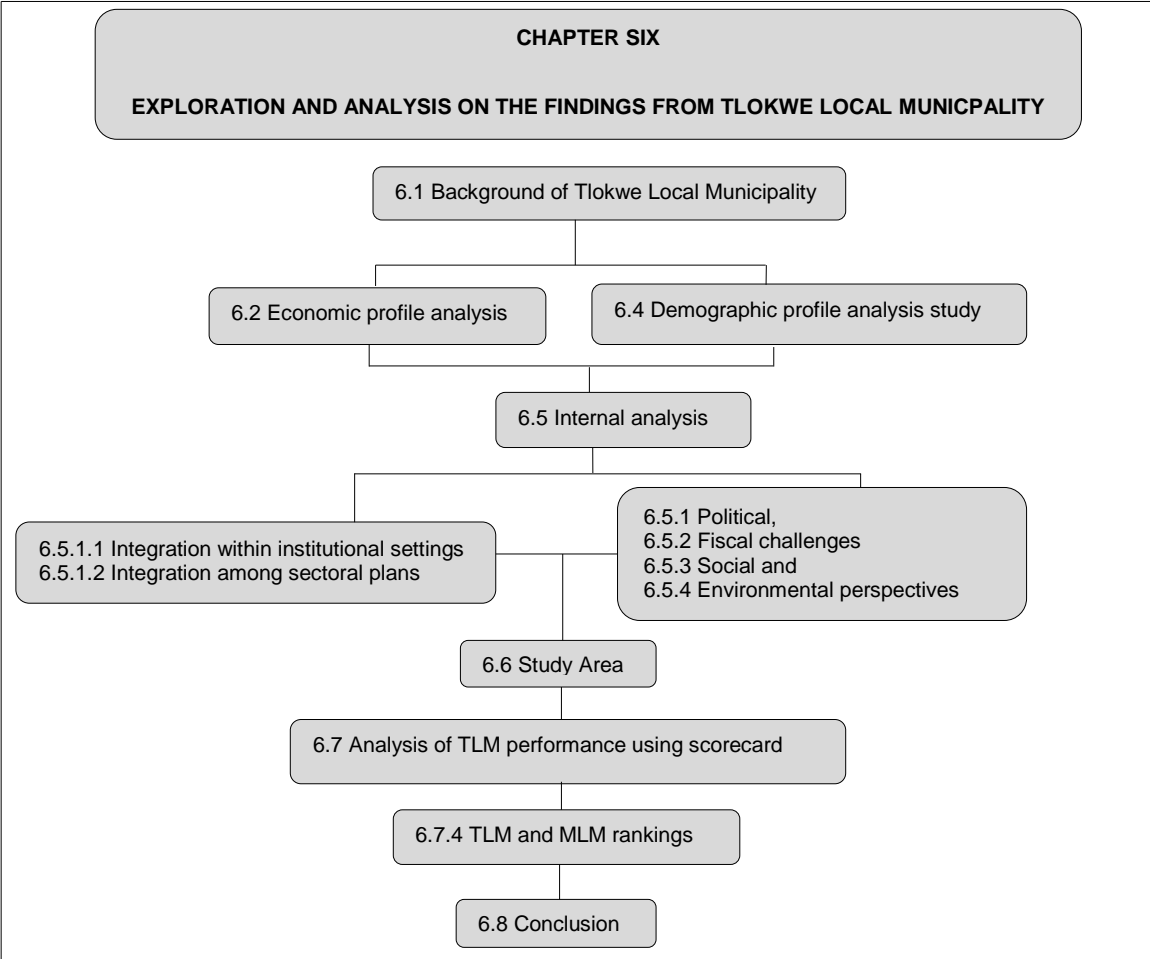
On the other hand local municipalities also adopt SDBIPs in order to assess service delivery after every quarter period of the planning year. Assessments report are presented and evaluated against the targets.

However, different methods of performance measures were presented such as the GAM and MCA. The scorecard was presented as the overriding method to be adopted because it incorporates the MCA methodology in its model as well as the observation that most local municipalities in South Africa have adopted the scorecard method of assessment. However, the implication is that there are certain principles which have to be followed in deducing the model. There is also the need for immense collection of data associated with the predefined performance goal and standards.

Chapter six provides detailed analysis on the findings from TLM. The chapter is based on intense data collection. Illustrations will be made and analysis deduced on the findings. Furthermore, the chapter will demonstrate the level of municipal performance using the scorecard method for assessment in achieving transformation onto selected objectives for the study.

CHAPTER SIX: EXPLORATION ON THE FINDINGS FROM TLOKWE LOCAL MUNICIPALITY

The content of Chapter six is graphically as follows:



6.1 Background

Chapter six focuses on the findings from TLM. The information from TLM is going to be presented and evaluated giving much attention to the levels of participation in service delivery. Furthermore, an analysis will be conducted using the scorecard method to assess performance of TLM in achieving goals of spatial transformation.

TLM falls within the Dr Kenneth Kaunda District Municipality in the North West Province. The North West Province is the branch for four districts and 21 local municipalities and TLM is one of the municipalities. It is situated on the banks of the Mooi River, and is 120km west-southwest of Johannesburg and 45km east-north east of Klerksdorp (Map 1.1). The town was founded in 1838 by the Voortrekkers in the former Transvaal and it was the first to grow and be established into a city.

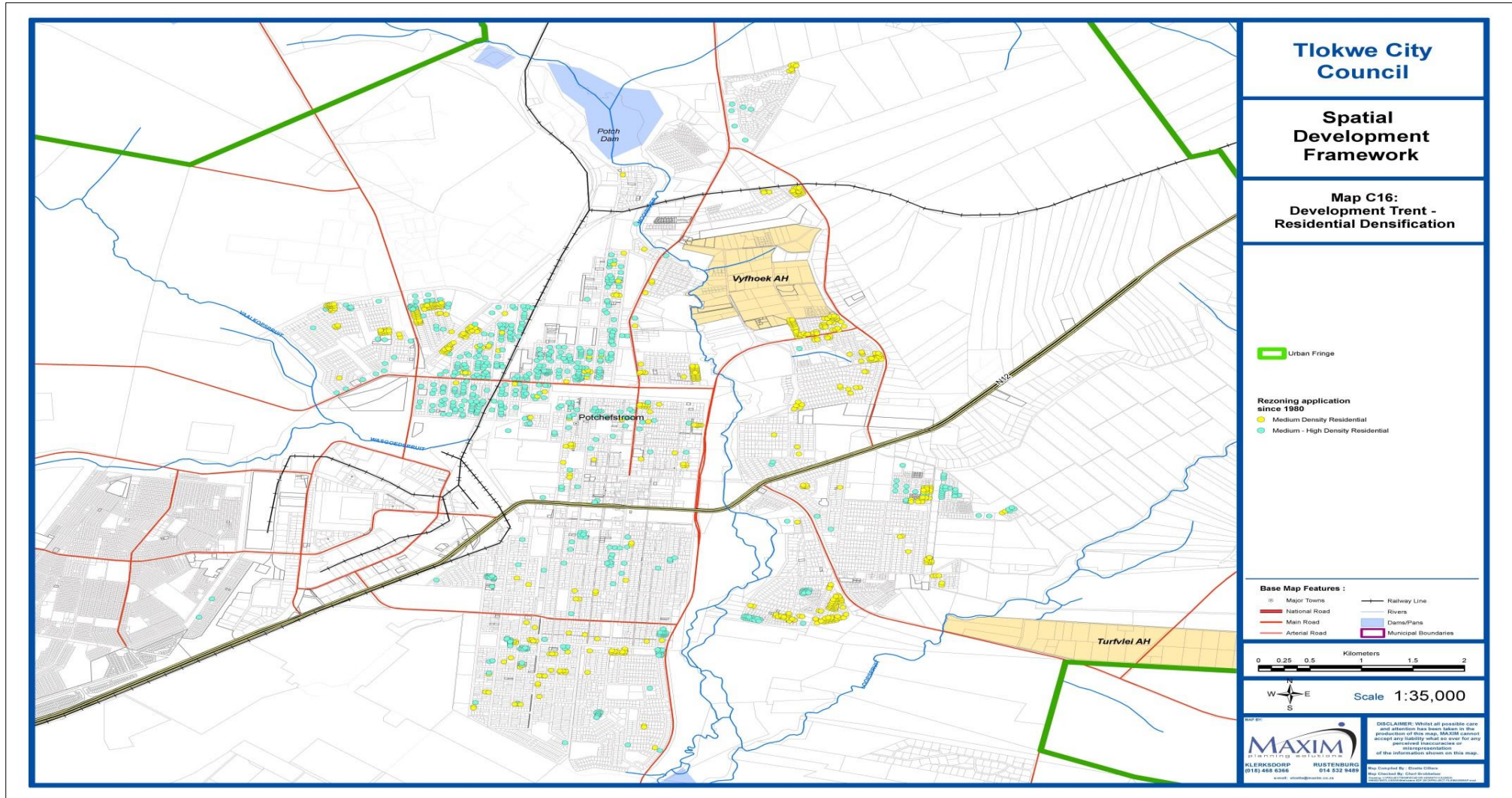
The local municipality was previously known as Potchefstroom named as such, as the biggest city. It was the first capital of the Zuid Afrikaansa Republiek in 1848 but, lost its title to Pretoria in 1860 (Berkowity, 2015). It was promulgated as a category B local municipality in the year 2000 designated NW402, in terms of the Municipal Structures Act (Tlokwe Spatial Development Framework, 2008:6).

Land tenure is highly private under TLM while, in South Africa, 18% is registered as state land, 79% privately owned and of this, a significant percentage is owned by individuals, companies and trusts (DRDLR, 2010: 6). Clarifying land rights is important because it is the key to solving land conflicts, and it has a direct bearing to providing investor and community confidence in issues of development planning, economic growth and environmental sustainability.

The townships under the TLM jurisdiction include Potchefstroom, Ikageng, Mohadin and Promosa, Leliespan/Baitshoke, Miederpark, Kopjeskraal, Wilgeboom, Lindequesdrift, (agricultural holdings) Rooipoortije, Venterskroon, Buffelshoek, (Rural) Vredefort Dome and the rural areas. The main urban area is Potchefstroom and the areas of townships include Ikageng, Saraffina, Mohadin and Promosa.

The municipal area comprises of a total of 264 684,08km² with ± 57 306 households. TLM consists of 28 548 stands in which 26 407 stands are residential units (single dwellings) and 2 141 stands are medium to high residential. Map 6.1 shows the residential density in TLM. Most of the residential units are concentrated in the western urban areas that is, Ikageng, Mohadin and Promosa comprising of 21 581 single unit dwellings (TLM SDF review, 2014:12).

Density is a quantitative measurement which assesses the level of integration. From Map 6.1 below, it can be concluded that the western suburbs are highly compact. This relates to the literature where density is an Theories of urban form concept and highly reflective of the residential living conditions. It has a significant effect on the transformation of the city because, there is need for clarity between residential density and overcrowding, where the latter is the negative result of the level of density. Concentrated densities have negative implications to Theories of urban form because it becomes too difficult to provide services for dwelling units that are close to each other. Furthermore, highly dense areas are less desirable as compared to low dense areas. From Map 6.1 it can be established that the level of density is high for western suburbs, so that there is need for consensus on the optimum density levels which are sustainable for the local townships.



Map 6.1: Tlokwe Local Municipality residential density

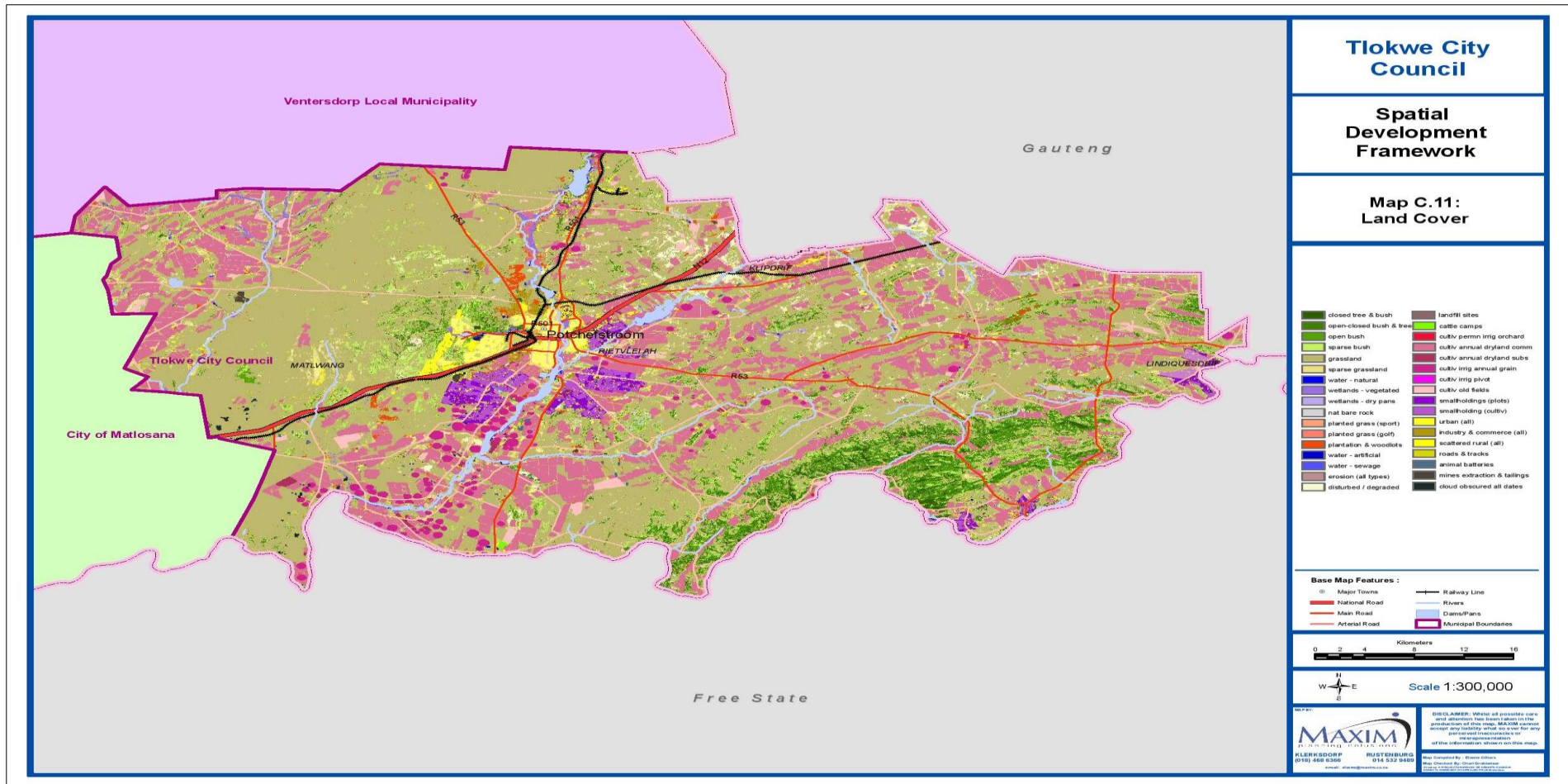
Source: Tlokwe Local Municipality (2014).

According to the NLC (National Land Cover) project (2014:27), land in South Africa underlying building and structures are 1.1%, and land for agriculture is 12.1%. The highest land consumption is on natural vegetation which has 77.9%.

Map 6.2 shows the land cover in TLM which is approximately 53% of grasslands. This is because it is used for grazing purposes. Cultivated dry land is 20% making the area economically viable for intensive agricultural enterprises. This corresponds well with the level of agricultural land cover percentages of South Africa. Due to rich grasslands, the area is highly cultivated thus it is prosperous in agricultural production such as maize, sunflower and sorghum (TLM, SDF 2014:12). These are located in the eastern, southern, northern western parts of the municipal areas.

In fact, according to the Area based Management plan for the Kenneth Kaunda District Municipality, ±19 447 ha of municipal area is highly suitable for agricultural development. As shown in the map below, the spatial distribution of agricultural activities, and crop production is also confined to the far western and central areas where there is high cattle farming in the central western sides of the municipality (TLM SDF, 2014:40).

TLM has district and regional representation of 23 national departments. Furthermore, it is also a cultural centre well known for its major newspaper hub in its early years (TLM SDF Draft, 2008:11). Additionally the town hosts internationally recognised cultural activities such as the Aardklorp which makes the town a tourist centre. The Vredefrot Dome was also listed as a World Heritage Site in 2006 as one of the largest and oldest meteorite impact craters in the world TLM, SDF (2014).



Map 6.2: Tlokwe Local Municipality Land cover

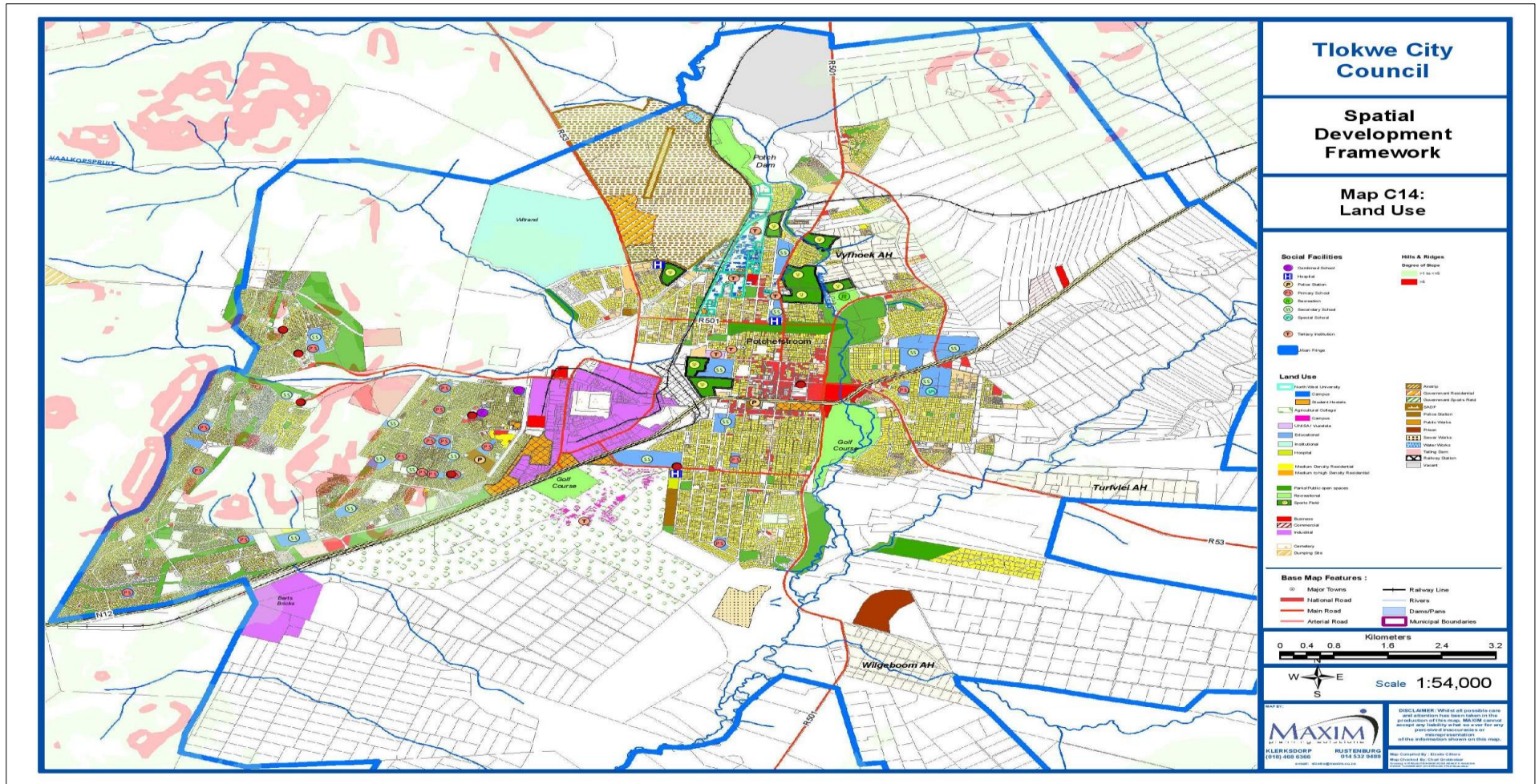
Source: TLM SDF (2014).

According to Map 6.3 the major land use within the local municipality is residential which takes up 70% of the built up land. Industrial zones are also within the area and close to the western suburbs. There is also business development, social development, industrial development as well as open spaces.

Due to the booming of the property markets and the development of educational institutions there has been a rise in the densification of certain parts of the urban area. The densification has been visible in the northern residential areas where there is the location of North West University. This can be attributed to the increase in number of full time students enrolled by the university. This has a direct bearing on the additional demand for student accommodation. This impacts on the private sector accommodation.

For the western urban areas there has been less of residential development due to the establishment of municipal rental stock. Rendering to a market research employed by Demaco, ±7 300 households are capable of obtaining the low cost rental stock. Map 6.3 below illustrates the land uses, (TLM SDF, 2014:53).

Most business developments and retail are concentrated in the urban area as well as in specific zones with the different urban hinterland. Also featuring are the vacant spaces which are not suitable for development due to the existence of dolomite. Furthermore, it consists of parks and recreational areas which are also influenced by the existence of natural features (TLM SDF, 2014:53).



Map 6.3: Tlokwe Local Municipality Land uses
 Source: TLM SDF review (2014).

6.2 TLM Economic Profile

Analysis on GDP growth rates

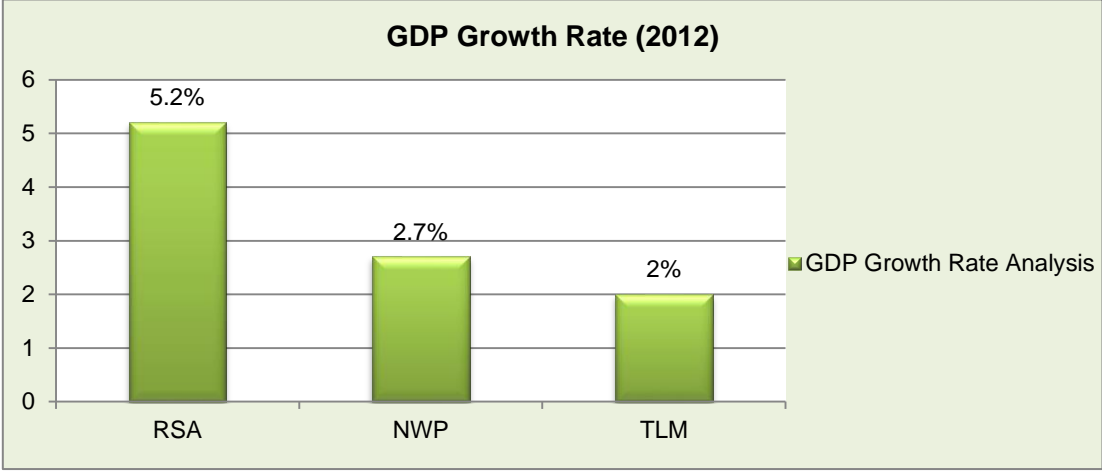


Figure 6.1: GDP growth rate (2012)

Source: Own Construction from Department of research and information (2013).

The South African economy has been experiencing transformation ever since democracy. According to the Department of research and information (2013:1) the average rate of economic growth was 3.3% per annum in real terms from 1994 to 2012. However, the pace of growth fell short with a 3.6% recording by the world economy. In 2012, the GDP for South Africa was 77%. From a global perspective the boom period for South Africa was between the periods 2004-2007 which had the real GDP growth averaging 5.2%.

In 2012, the financial sector contributed 1% to the 3.3% average annual GDP, manufacturing 0.5%, trade sector, 0.5%, transport sector, 0.48%, agriculture sector 0.05%, electricity sector 0.05% and the mining sector an average contribution of 0.03% over the period of 1994-2012. Tourism’s contribution to the national GDP in 2008 was estimated to be 8.59% from 4%. Narrowing down to provinces, according to Stats SA (2012) the GDP for North West Province was 2.7% indicating that North West contributes a large share to the national GDP. North West Province is the fourth largest contributor to the national GDP. For local municipalities in the North West Province, contributions to the GDP were high from TLM. Focusing on TLM tourism sector per se, it has been 82%, 80% and 78% in 2006, 2007 and 2008 respectively. TLM is the fastest growing investment area within the North West Province. This can be attributed by the fact that TLM’s economy is highly diversified.

TLM and its neighbour Matlosana Local Municipality (MLM) are located at the focal point of South Africa's gold mining industry. The mainstay of the economy of North West Province is mining, and its contribution is more than half of the province’s GDP and provides jobs for a quarter of its workforce (Global African network, 2013). North West province is also known as

the platinum province as it is centrally located on the subcontinent with direct road and rail links to all southern African countries. The world's deepest gold mine is situated 40km north-east of Tlokwe, adjacent to N12 Johannesburg. TLM is also characterised by diamond mining (Rysmierbult).

6.2.1 Population trends in TLM

Population dynamics have a direct bearing on the provision of infrastructure services. According to UN Habitat (2013:1), it is not only the population of developing countries which is growing at a faster rate and becoming increasingly urbanised. In 2010, 50.8% of the world's population lived in urban areas, 75.2% in more developed regions and 45.5% in the less developed regions.

Therefore it means the global infrastructure investment needs are huge amounting to tens of trillions in American dollars. The OECD (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (2007) estimated the requirements for investment; in electricity USD 4 trillion; roads USD 5 trillion; telecoms USD 8 trillion and water supply and sewerages USD 18 trillion. Most of these investments are required in developing countries and the demand will increase due to the skyrocketing of the population.

The graph below is a population trend for TLM indicating the increase of population in the urban centre.

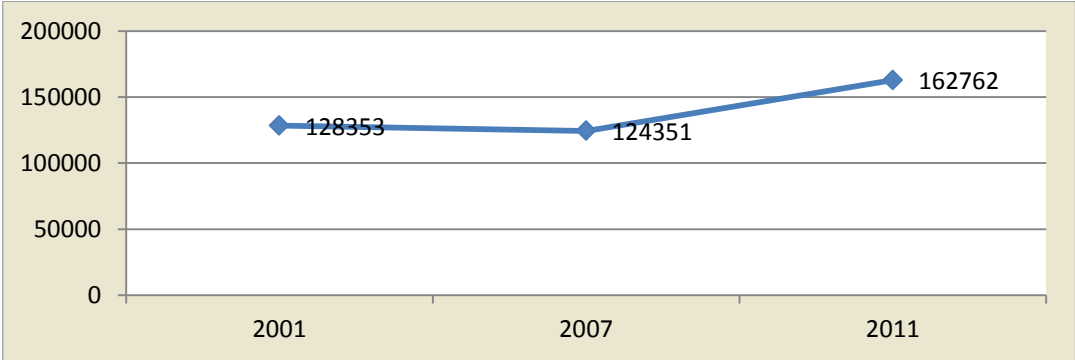


Figure 6.2: Population trend for TLM since 2001

Source: Own Construction from Stats SA (2001-2011).

According to the graph above, in 2001 the population in Potchefstroom was 128 353, in 2007, 124 351 and 2011, it was 16 2762. The graph above shows that the population decreased between 2001 and 2007, but has been increasing since then. The reason for the decrease was investigated and it as a result of an undercount, given that the comparable growth rates for the Dr Kenneth Kaunda District Municipality was 1.65% and in MLM it was 1.39% (TLM, IDP, 2012:5). The disadvantage of such inaccuracies means that the local municipality will have

presented biased information leading to the failure of proper plans and insufficient grants. As a result the municipality gets less than it is entitled to get.

According to Stats SA (2006-2011), the population growth rate for TLM has been a minimum of 2.4%. This means the population has been increasing gradually. The gradual increase in population can be attributed to the fact that TLM has numerous economic factors which tend to attract people from all over the world. For instance, one of the pulling factors for TLM is the presence of North West University under its area of jurisdiction.

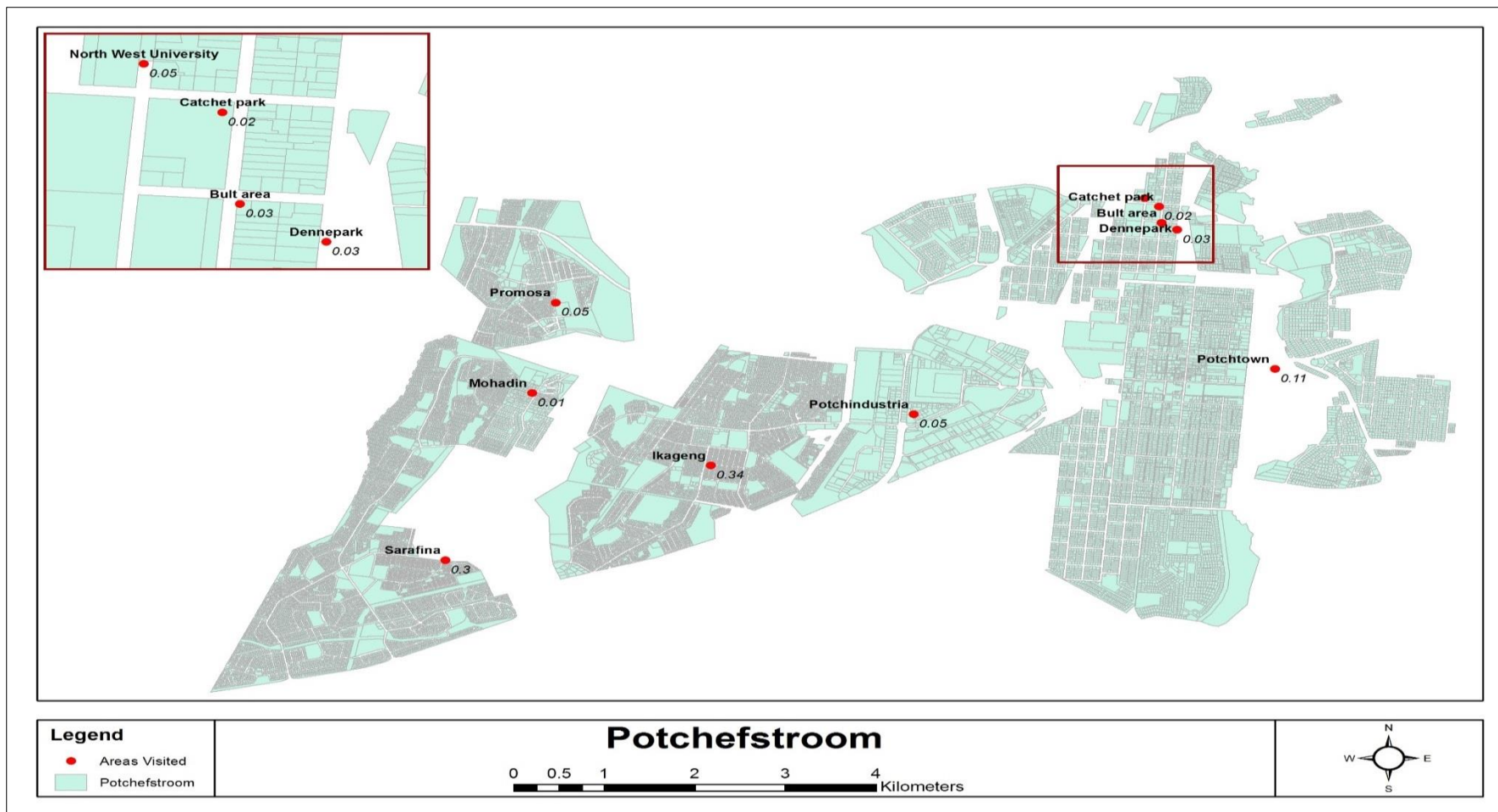
Population increase has a direct bearing on service delivery in the form of housing, infrastructure maintenance, water, sewer and electricity provision (TLM ID, 2012:121). The South African government has managed to address both sanitation and water supply backlog since 1994. It managed to halve the number of people without access to sanitation in 2008 (MDG). More than 50% households had no access to sanitation, but by 2010 it had been reduced to 21% households (Sanitation Services-Quality of Sanitation in South Africa, 2012:2).

6.3 Research area

Map 6.4 shows the area visited under TLM area of jurisdiction. In order to obtain data from the public pertaining to the research, the study followed the methodology laid out by the research method of investigation (section 1.7). At first, a pilot study was conducted to map out the area as well as to assess the authenticity of the questionnaires administered to the population. A pilot study is a small scale trial run of the procedures planned for the research (Cherry, 2004). Connelly (2008:411) suggests that a pilot sample should be 10% of the sample projected of the larger parent study. Therefore the study conducted two pilot studies to 10 participants that were randomly selected in order to assess the simplicity of the questionnaires and identify problems that needed to be resolved.

The sample size was determined by the principle of selection by homogeneity. According to Trochim (1991) the principle is that: "The more homogeneous the population under study is, the smaller the sample needs to be, to accurately reflect the characteristics of that population, assuming random selection procedures". This emanates from the observation which was held by the pilot study that the population which resides in local townships have highly similar traits.

Therefore the study adopted the principle and administered a total of 100 questionnaires using random sampling technique to local households. Semi structured interviews were conducted through purposive sampling so as to identify officials that were knowledgeable enough to answer the guided interview questions (see Annexures).



Map 6.4: Visited research areas

Source: Own Construction from field work (2014).

6.4 Demographic Profile Analysis

6.4.1 Age analysis

According to Stats SA (2014) mid-year population analysis, about 30.0% of the population in South Africa is aged 15 years and 8.4 % and 4.54% is 60 years or older. The proportion of the elderly aged 60 and older is increasing over time. According to Stats SA (2011) survey, of the total population of 162 762, TLM has young (0-14years at 25.2%; working age 15-54 years at 69.1%, elderly 65+ at 5.7%). The table below shows the age analysis of the people who participated in the research.

Table 6.1: Age composition analysis

AGE ANALYSIS			
Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
14	82	37.5	15.247

Source: Own Construction from field work (2014).

Of the 100 respondents who participated in the research, the minimum age which participated was 14 years and the maximum was 82 years. The average age analysis in the research was 37.5 years. This means that on average the research was conducted to the economically active people.

It is fundamental to analyse ages in a given research field because it helps to assess the kind of group being dealt with, that is, whether it is the elderly, the young generation or the economically active or youth. In this context, the ages are highly spread out implying that the research has different ages covered.

Furthermore, it is also important to take note of the age composition in the research in order to make correlations with the obtained responses. It can be observed that the research managed to involve all age groups which are capable of providing meaningful contributions in communities.

Among the 100 respondents, 69.7% were female while 30.3% were male. According to Stats SA, mid-year population statistics (2014) approximately 51% that is 27 640 000 of the population is female. The proportion of women has been much greater because according to

Stats SA, (2011), the life expectancy at birth for 2014 is estimated at 59.1years for males and 63.1years for females. This reflects highly on the gender analysis for TLM.

6.4.2 Race composition

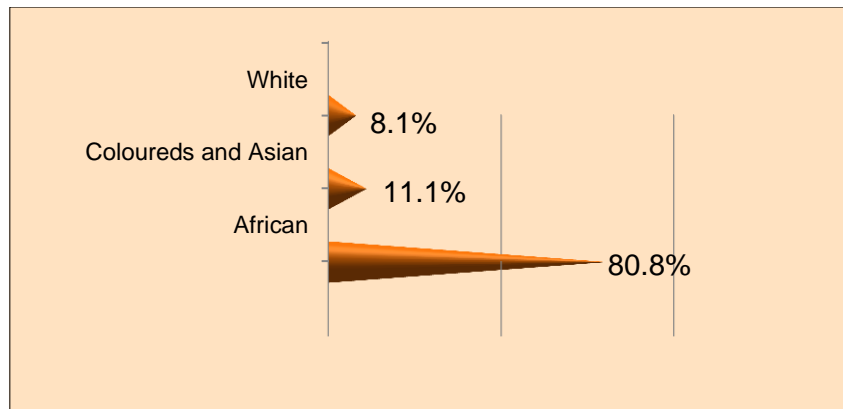


Figure 6.3: Race composition

Source: Own Construction from field work (2014).

The research also shows that of the 100 respondents who participated in the research 80.8% were Africans, 11.1% Coloureds and 8.1% Asians. The research findings are also a reflection of the local statistics. In 2011, Stats SA revealed that TLM has 71.3% Black Africans residing in the area, 6.8% Coloured, 0.9% Indian or Asian, 20.6% whites and others comprising of 0.4%. Mid- year estimates for 2014 according to Stats SA by group and sex shows Africans, 80.3% male, 80.2% female, Coloured 8.7% male and 8.8% female, Indian or Asian 2.6% male and 2.5% female and whites 8.4% male and 8.4% female. This shows the fact that the population in Potchefstroom is racially skewed to the blacks.

The research unveiled that the most affected race on issues of poor service delivery are the blacks. This can be indicated by the poverty baseline indicators shown below released by Stats SA (2011) presenting the relative baseline statistics by population segments.

Table 6.2: Baseline statistics for population segments

	Black African	White	Indian	Coloured
Non-educated	24.3	1.2	10.2	2.6
Unemployment rate	42.5	4.5	20.9	12.2
Living in shacks /huts	46.0	0.8	9.6	1.3

No piped water	72.3	3.6	2.4	27.6
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Source: Own Construction from Stats SA (2011).

The table above shows the level of service delivery according to race. Poverty and poor service delivery is highly common for the blacks and this is attributed to the colonial imbalances of the past. Settlements for the blacks during apartheid were at the outskirts of the city near the industrial zones. Nevertheless, it can be deduced that locational dynamics is one of the determinant factors in increasing the inequality dichotomy. These locational elements have been underplay since apartheid, making the black majority race the disadvantaged, followed by the Asians and Coloureds respectively. The apartheid model proves this phenomenon to be true and justifies the fact that locational factors play a vital role in worsening marginalisation.

However after democracy, subsidies were provided, such as subsidised transport, with numerous attempts to link these fragmented core periphery settlement patterns by means of development corridors.

6.4.3 Qualification level

The South African government after independence managed to achieve a number of notable successes in the creation of a single national department for education out of 19 racially, ethnically and regionally divided departments of education (NDP, 2012:68) The creation of different institutional typologies is one the great achievements which led to the creation of 50 further education and training colleges. Currently, more than 12 000 000 learners attend school with gross ratio averaging over 100% for primary schooling and above 70% for secondary schools (Jansen and Taylor, 2003:2). In total, South Africa has 29 000 schools with 36 institutions of public and higher education, which have been reduced to 21 universities and technikons (Jansen and Taylor, 2003:6).

In North West Province the number of schools where; 356 (in 1999); 353 (in 2000) and 2015; 375 (Department of education, 2013:6). However, TLM is also well known for its significant historical educational centres and the housing of North West University which consists of the Mafikeng, Potchefstroom and Vaal Triangle campuses. TLM also comprises of major primary, secondary and special schools, a technical and agricultural college.

According to the research, of the 100 respondents, 56.6% of the respondents reached the standard level of education, which is the highest education attainment level. This is followed by the matric with a 20. 2%. In addition, those who have gone to colleges are only 11.1% and tertiary education is at an alarming percentage 7.1%, and the none-educated with 5.1%.

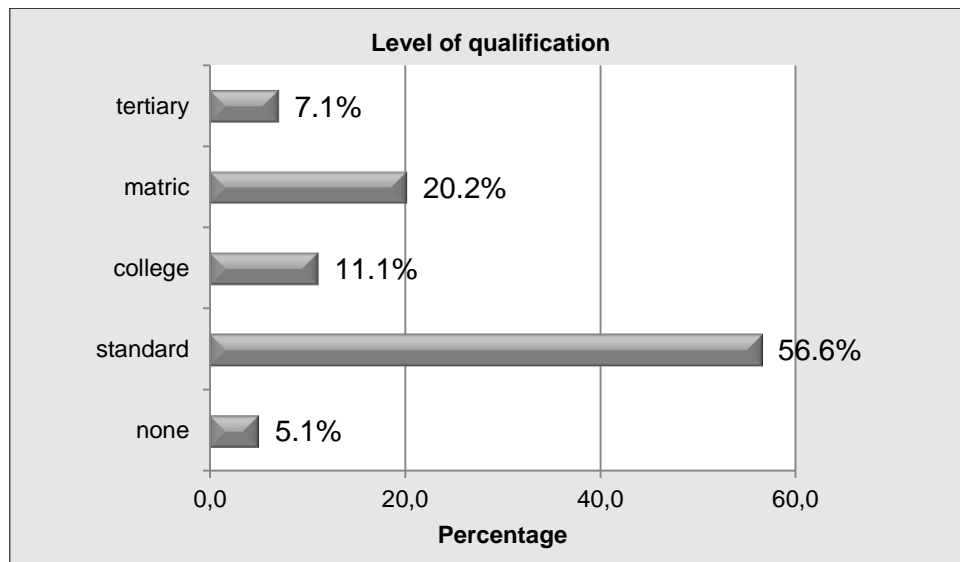


Figure 6.4: Qualification level

Source: Own Construction from field work (2014).

The graph above illustrates that most respondents have reached standard level. The major reasons indicated by the respondents include the fact that there had no sufficient finances to proceed with education. The other reason is that responsibilities in families push one to search for employment and drop educational goals and ambitions.

According to Stats SA (2011) the uneducated aged at 20 years and above are 6.9% and those with higher education above 20 years are 14, 2%. Matric aged above 20 years is 30.3%. According to the Department of Education (2008:37), the system produced 133 063 graduates and diplomats, 75.5% (100 523) having obtained undergraduate degrees or diplomas; 8 695 (6.5%) were Master's and Doctoral graduates.

However, with the idea that higher education provides higher economic returns, there is need to revisit tertiary institutions and focus on assisting more people to at least attain tertiary education rather than end only on matric. This will help the nation as a whole to recruit people with special skills in areas requiring special disciplines.

In addition, this is essential because the more educated the people are, the more they participate, the lesser they commit crimes and protest as well as demand for social grants. According to Stats SA (2011), two thirds of the non-educated were living in poverty, 60% are those who had some primary education and 55% had completed primary education. 44% had some secondary schooling and 23.6% completed matric. Only 1 in 20 people with some form of

higher education were living in poverty in 2011. This clearly illustrates that education opens up to economic prospects.

6.4.4 Employment status

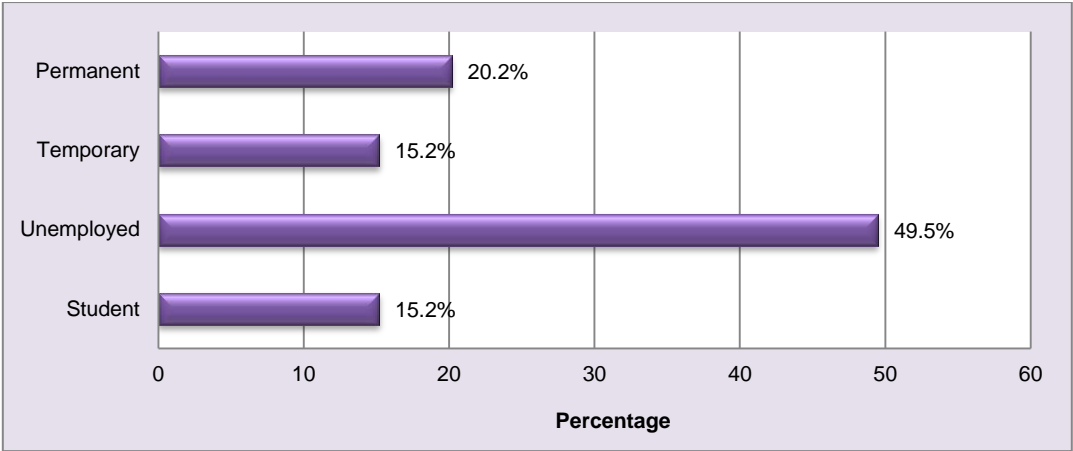


Figure 6.5: Employment status

Source: Own Construction from field work (2014).

The graph above shows that of the 100 respondents, the unemployed are 49.5% while students and those employed temporarily are 15.2%. Those who are permanently employed are 20,2%. However, according to Stats SA (2011), the unemployment rate in South Africa is 21.6% and youth unemployment rate is 29.5%. In addition, the Stats SA general household survey (2004) states that the the unemployed are those people within the economically active population that, did not work for seven days prior to an interview, want to work, are available to start working within two weeks and have taken steps to look for work or start some form of self employment.

In spite of the definition, the unemployment rate of South Africa, for 15-24 years old with primary education or less is 50%, and for those with tertiary education, the unemployment rate is 37%. The situation is highly contrasted for those aged 25 and above where 20% of the age group with primary education are unemployed, while only 7% of those with tertiary level education are unemployed.

One other aspect, depicted in the study revealed persons that are employed permanently and temporarily. Usually temporary employment is involuntary because the wages are very low and there is no job security. However, people resort to it for lack of options. Only 20.2% of the respondents in this research are permanently employed a rather disconcerting revelation. Individuals employed temporarily rarely have disposable income, which means that the

community will lack developments due to zero savings since earnings are only sufficient to spend on basic commodities.

According to a basic Socio Survey (2004) the unemployment rate for females was 20.4%, almost double that of males (TLM, IDP 2012:3). However, with such a profile in a community, it becomes a challenge for the government and local council because there is need for social or care service provision. This means that the administrative costs and subsidies become very high in order to provide for them in terms of, for instance, health care and social grant services. Below is Figure 6.6 which illustrates a comparison on the percentage levels of people requiring social grants in the year 2012.

Tendecies on social security recipients

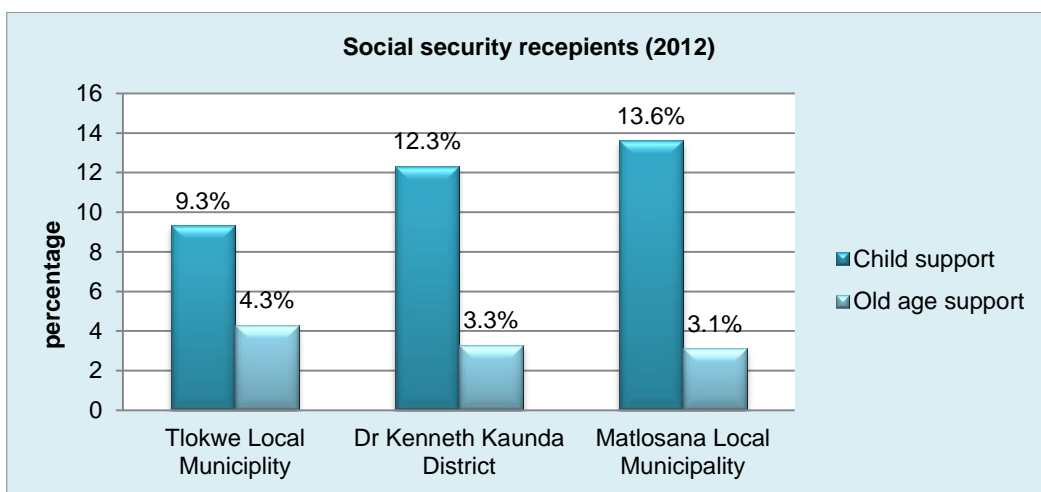


Figure 6.6: Social security recipients (2012).

Source: Own Construction from IRR (International Race Relations, 2012).

TLM has the largest percentage of people requiring old age support. This is highly similar to the population requiring support as illustrated from the fieldwork. This has negative connotations in the economic profile of the TLM, because the higher the dependency ratios, the higher the costs of social grants and the rate of dependency. This will also reflect in the municipal IDP budgets, and becomes a direct budgetary cost in the long run.

6.4.5 Place of employment

Approximately 60.05% of the population travel to their places of employment (midyear Stats SA 2014). This can be traced back to the historical background of South Africa where apartheid led to the creation of dormitory towns away from the CBD. Due to this, people had to travel long distances to go to places of employment. However, industries were located closer to the

townships in order to cater for the workers because their wages were not permissible for transport costs. It is against this background that most people are still travelling every day to go for work.

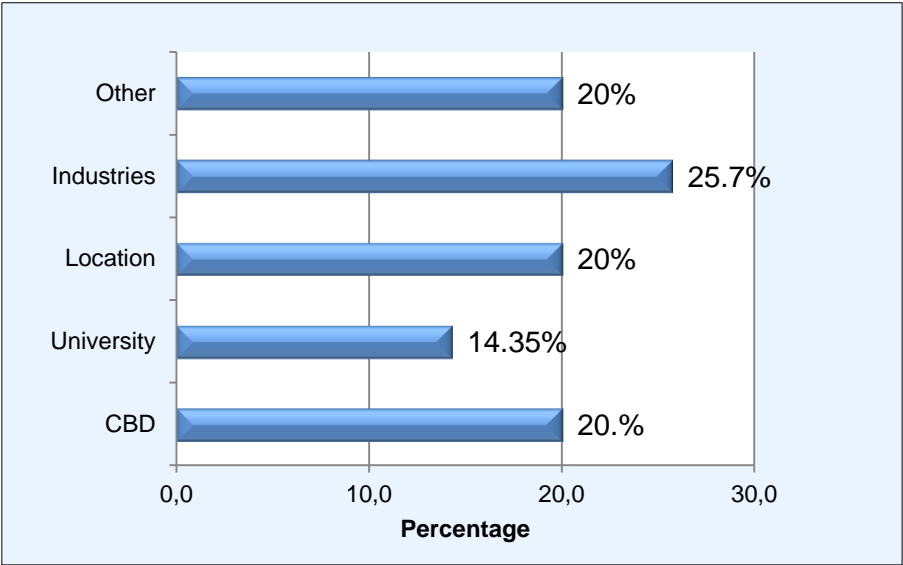


Figure 6.7: Place of employment

Source: Own Construction from field work (2014).

The people employed in industries comprise of 25.7% of the respondents. Furthermore, 20% are employed in the CBD while 20% of the respondents are employed in the townships. 20% of the respondents are also employed elsewhere in Potchefstroom.

However, increased mobility poses numerous challenges, such as the increase in the costs of travel, motor vehicle traffic congestion and high gasoline prices. This raises concerns about the sustainability of planning in the transport sector. As the costs of travel increases it also has a direct bearing on transport planning, with the need to bring in the notion of transit oriented development. Basically transit oriented development is development along transport lines in order to reduce mobility.

It is important to take note of the developments occurring internationally with newer forms of transport that have increased speed and distance travelled, such as the bullet trains. For example cities such as Mumbai have metro systems either underground or elevated. However, these have also contributed to a more dispersed urban land use pattern. This is the opposite of reducing accessibility. In an urban sprawl situation there is even more widely dispersed and can be more difficult to access even with cars. Therefore it can be argued that much slower modes

of transport, such as transit, cycling and walking are better off in providing accessibility in areas of high densities or in compact cities.

It is also necessary to look at the distribution of employment in the various industries as shown by the table below.

Table 6.3: National distribution percentage of employment by industry

	agriculture	mining	Manufacturing	utilities	Construction	trade	transport	finance	Community and social services	Private household
FEMALE	3.5	0.6	10.3	0.3	2.0	24.4	2.5	12.7	28.7	14.9
MALE	5.5	3.7	15.6	0.9	12.6	21.1	8.2	13.1	15.9	3.3

Source: Own Construction from Quarterly Labour Force Survey (2011:33).

Nationally, women are highly dominant in the community and social services sector by 28.7%. The sector with the least percentage of women is construction. Most community and social services are not highly paying. This reflects the issue that most women are employed in low paying industries as well as ranking jobs. Nevertheless, most women are the heads of families as shown by Figure 6.8 below. This has a direct bearing on the level of disposable income as well as instigating women to stay in abject poverty.

6.4.6 Household position

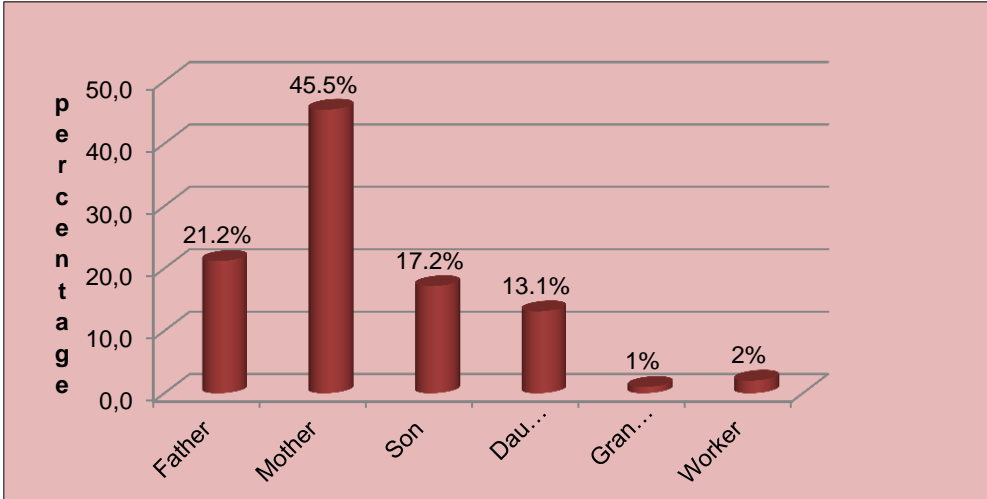


Figure 6.8: Household composition

Source: Own Construction from field work (2014).

According to the research, 45.5% of the participants are mothers whereas 13.1% are daughters. In addition, 21.2% of the respondents are fathers while 17.2% are sons. Only 1% are grandchildren and 2% workers.

The research revealed that most households are female headed. This is because most men are dying at a young age, leaving most homes female headed. The other factor is the increasing rate of irresponsible fathers. This is one of the challenges that the government is facing as huge amounts of money are being allocated to child grants.

On the other hand, there is an increase in divorces. According to SA divorce statistics (2011), 20 980 divorces from civil marriages were processed. 35.8% of the divorcees were from the black African population group, 32.1% from the white population group and 16.6% from the coloured and Asian population groups. Of the number of divorces in 2011, 20 980 had children younger than 18 years. Therefore, the statistics for children affected by divorce shows that 37.4% were from the black African population group, 27.1% white and 20.2% coloured population group.

6.4.7 Original place of residence

36% of the people who participated in the research originated from Potchefstroom while 64% migrated to Potchefstroom. This clearly shows that most of the people in Potchefstroom are a result of migratory factors. There are quite a number of pull factors in Potchefstroom which makes it attractive for migrants. Some of the pull factors include availability of diverse economic opportunities for employment, and the availability of well recognised educational institutions such as the North West University. Also, there is the availability of social activities as well as an Afrikaans cultural festival which is well known worldwide (Aardklorp), held yearly attracting more than 150 000 people from all over the world.

In addition, Potchefstroom is well known for being a very safe city in terms of crime. This is one of the major reasons for its preference by most migrants. Additionally, Potchefstroom has no major hazards nor is it affected by natural disasters, making it a good area to settle.

However, the high number of migrants in the city creates a number of challenges in articulating the needs of the ever changing population in terms of cultural diversity and basic service elements in a municipality. This means that due to the increase in the number of people, services will be congested if such dynamics are not properly planned for.

One of the major challenges which TLM has been and still is battling with is informal settlements due to the influx of people in the city. Currently there are more than four recognised informal

settlements in Ikageng Township only. Instead of progressing forward, the municipality has to go back and forth in order to address the issues of housing and infrastructure provision.

However, it is not only in TLM but, in most municipalities, infrastructure and resources have also been highly strained by migration such that the backlogs have increased acutely. This is one of the challenges that towns and cities will have to face and increase on proactive planning, especially assessing the trends of migration. Otherwise municipalities will continue to battle with congestion on basic services and informal settlements.

In as much as the local municipalities can try to assess migration trends, most of these immigrants are illegal. It is therefore a challenge to estimate the migration trend, making informal settlements a perpetual challenge for municipalities to deal with.

6.4.8 Reasons for migration

Recorded South African migrants for work purposes (2012)

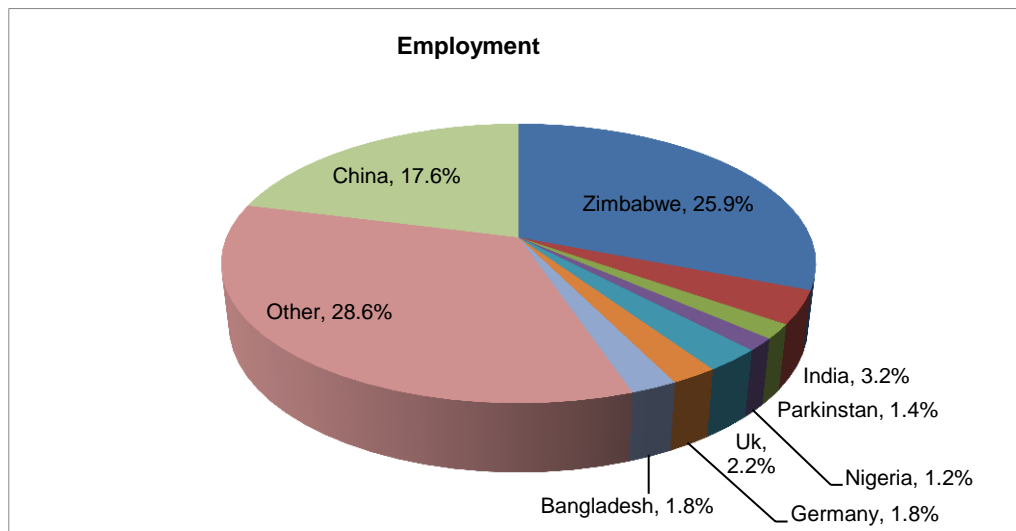


Figure 6.9: National migrants for work purposes.

Source: Own Construction from Stats SA, (2012:22).

South Africa has been experiencing an alarming rate of migration. Figure 6.9 illustrates the volume of people from top countries immigrants to South Africa for employment. The recorded person reflects on those that have work permits. Zimbabwe records the largest number of migrants (25.9%). This implies that the national government has to make proper projection and forecasting for the influx in population so as to avoid poor service delivery due to failure to meet the increasing demand of services.

National recorded migration trends for educational purposes

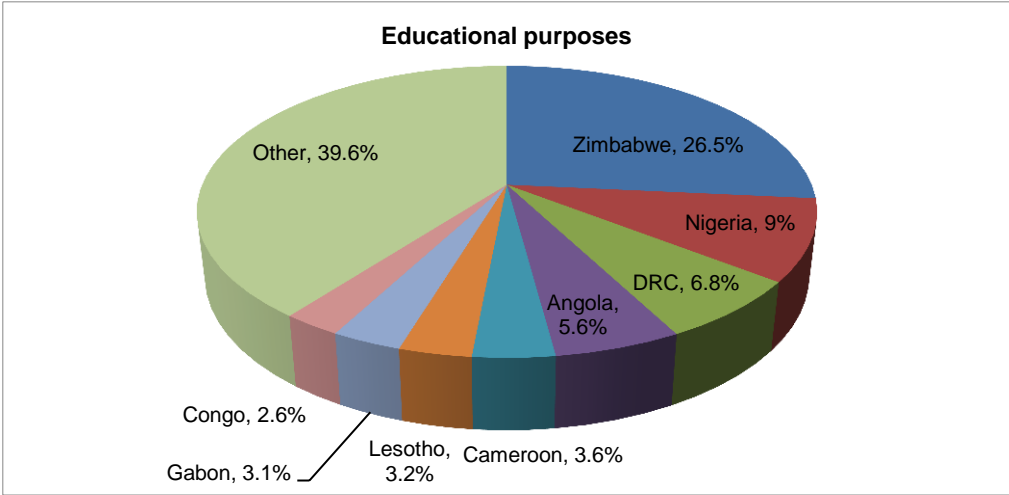


Figure 6.10: Recorded national migrants for educational purposes.

Source: Own Construction from Stats SA (2012:22).

Furthermore, most people from African countries are migrating to South Africa for educational purposes. This implies a need for increased private sector accommodation facilities for students, especially those in higher and tertiary education in areas where there are education institutions.

TLM reasons of migration

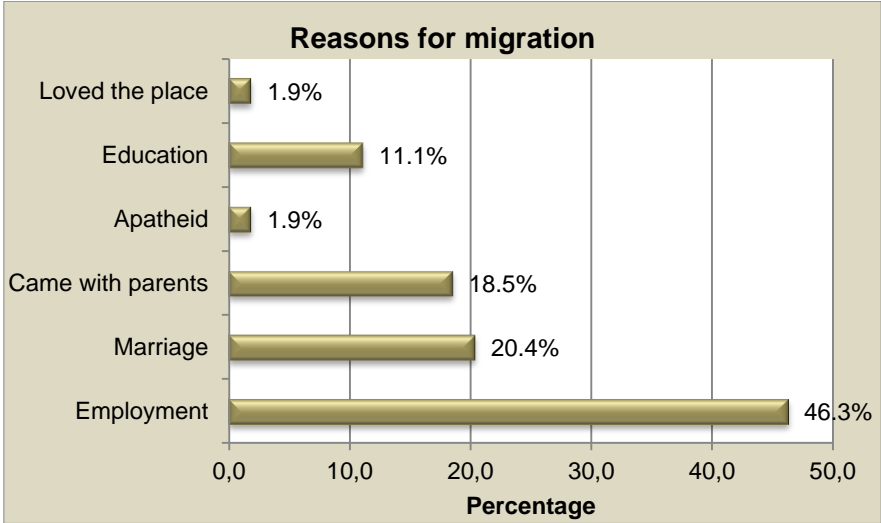


Figure 6.11: Reasons for migration

Source: Own Construction from field work (2014).

TLM has potential of expanding because it attracts a number of people for its different opportunities. This corresponds well with the Cumulative causation and core periphery theory

which states that the centre (core) is attractive for investment because of the available resources, pulling other services to itself, and causing the centre to increase. It can be noted that 46.3% of the people who migrated to Potchefstroom were mainly for employment. This is in high relation with the influx recorded nationally of the people migration to South Africa for employment. Furthermore, 20.4% of the people moved to Potchefstroom due to marriage while 18.5% moved along with parents. 11.1% moved to Potchefstroom because of the availability of different well recognised educational facilities such as the Technical school, North West University and other primary schools. As noted earlier, there are numerous popular schools in Tlokwe which are recommendable and well known worldwide. Upon completion of their studies most become employed in Potchefstroom and become full residents. This is also in connection with the percentage levels of people migrating to South Africa for educational purposes.

Putting it into context, TLM has to utilise the economic opportunities to expand and initiate effective economic development. For instance it can strengthen local development through tourism because of the presence of the Vredefort Dome which is a tourist centre. TLM has also the advantage of the N12 which is a major road, making it easier for accessibility. However, in order to make this a reality there is need for Precint plans which provide detailed information on making the economic development a reality, taking advantage of the corridors and nodes in TLM.

Nevertheless, the high levels of in-migration imply increasing demand for social services such as housing, municipal infrastructure and health facilities. It becomes the duty of the council to effectively and accurately make projections in migration in order to plan for future expansions.

6.4.9 Safety

National rates on street crimes 2012/2013

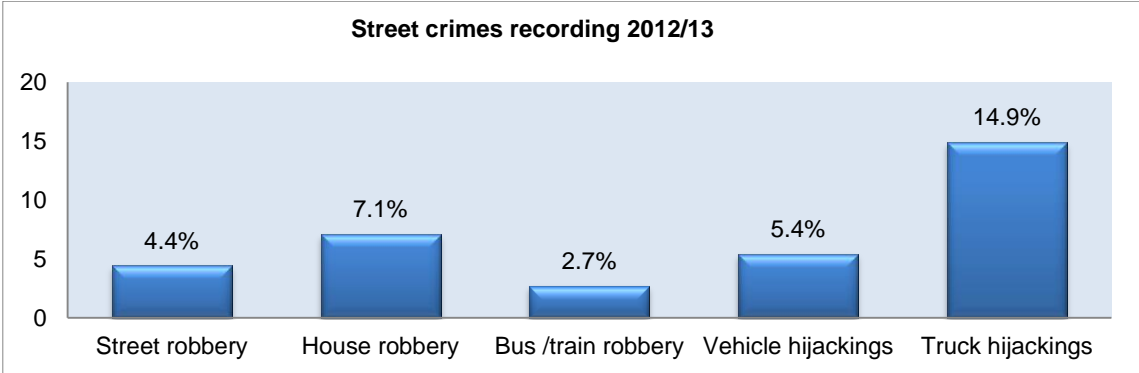


Figure 6.12: National street crimes recordings.

Source: Own Construction from South African Fact sheet and guides (2012/13).

One of the reasons that South Africa has an alarming rate of street crimes is because it is the hub of all African migrants. The whole of Africa migrates to South Africa; as a result some of the gangsters are foreigners without sufficient paper work to legally stay in the country. Since they are not legal, work is difficult to obtain, so that most of them end up earning a living through committing crimes. The other reason is that firearms in South Africa are common commodities which, in certain instances, are sold on streets. Due to this, the whole country becomes vulnerable to fugitives.

According to the research 66.3% of the respondents feel unsafe in Potchefstroom while 33.7% feel safe. It is unfortunate that one of the utmost challenges that South Africa is facing currently is the increase in crime rate. There have been numerous reports in mass media on car hijackings as shown by the 14.9% presented above from the national street crimes recordings. House robbery has been recorded at 7.1%.

However, Potchefstroom is one of the safest towns in South Africa, but because of the horrific crime reports shared on, for instance, social networks, people are terrified. Most of the respondents during the research commented that they are afraid wherever they are because they are not aware of who is watching. This poses lots of challenges even to the local council with a need to raise awareness to the people in communities on managing crime situations, and encourage community protection services such as neighbourhood watches.

6.5 Internal analysis

At this juncture, it is imperative to note that the theories, policies, legislation and guidelines stipulated in the previous chapters of the research were the guiding principles to assess the obligations of TLM. Direct emphasis is now being placed on assessing factors within Tlokwe which are affecting the municipality either positively or negatively in achieving spatial transformation. In order to obtain the information, interviews were conducted with municipal officials, councillors academics as well as consultants. The participants were selected according to the level of knowledge towards the subject at hand (see Annexures Discussion framework).

Given the municipal visions, most municipalities in South Africa are still struggling to meet the goals and objectives of the IDP. However, this is because each municipality faces different challenges in trying to meet goals and objectives. For TLM, the IDP goals and objectives have been hindered by the influx in population levels, insufficient resources and environmental setbacks, to mention a few. The picture below gives a glimpse of the environment in local townships of TLM.



Plate 6.1: Subserviced roads, uncollected refuse and informal backyard dwellings

Source: Flickr images preview (2014).

According to Stats SA (2011) the provision of the four basic services, that is, water, sewerage, sanitation and electricity has overall increased. For water, a 6.4% increase has been noted between 2011 and 2012 nationally. The number of consumer units receiving electricity also increased from 8 100 000 to 9 500 000 from 2008-2012, with the North West Province recording an increase of 36.9% during the four-year period. Furthermore the number of consumer units with sewerage and sanitation has increased nationally from 8 600 000 2008 to 9 700 000 in 2012. Moreover, solid waste management services to consumer units have gone up from 7.5 million in 2008 to 8.100 000 2012 (Stats SA, 2011).

However, from a bird's eye view, approximately 80% of the residences in local townships of TLM are living in unsustainable conditions. Twenty one years after democracy local municipalities are still facing challenges of poverty, inequality and unemployment. It is against this background that question of whether spatial transformation is a reality to municipalities and if true democracy is in existence arises?

According to the research, of the 100 respondents, 70.7% of the people are not satisfied with service delivery while 28.3% are satisfied. Only 15% are sometimes satisfied with service delivery from the municipality. The figure below illustrates the views if the respondents.

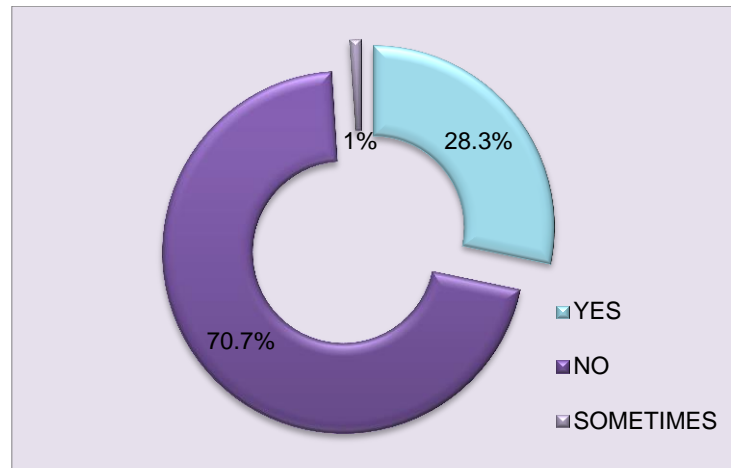


Figure 6.13: Level of satisfaction on service delivery

Source: Own Construction from field work (2014).

Service delivery has been a topical issue across the globe. It is not only a challenge in TLM nor in South Africa alone. First and foremost, it is crucial to identify areas of poor or non-service delivery and deduce the patterns. This can reveal the true dynamics of the governance system. It can be noted from the research conducted that, of the four local townships visited in Tlokwe, there was consistency of reports on issues of maladministration, nepotism, corruption, fraud and failure of councillors and the municipal officials to deliver quality services. However most complaints were recorded from Ward 21, 19, 11 and 12. Ward 21 recorded the highest with 98% unsatisfactory service delivery. The situation questions the effectiveness of Batho Pele principles (1997) which compel officials to commit in serving the people and finding all possible methods for efficient service delivery.

The numbers of informal houses in the TLM settlements have been increasing gradually. The increase in informal houses is a reflection of human needs and must be recognised as a human endeavour for survival. There is need to understand the historical base of informal settlements focusing on when, why and how it was created. A grip of the detailed issues is essential so that lessons are learnt on how to effectively engage them in order to address the challenge. It is of utmost importance to address the challenge because in reality, an informal settlement reduces the ability of the whole city to attract investment as well as individual properties. Currently there are 18 489 formal houses which have 9 617 subsidies/RDP houses, 2 265 informal structures on stands, 6 354 informal structures in backyards and 996 informal structures not on stands (HSP 2014:12).

A number of issues can be deduced in trying to figure out the position of TLM in achieving its IDP goals and objectives of transformation and the challenges experienced during the

processes. The challenges have been divided into political-administration, fiscal, social and environmental concerns.

6.5.1 Political-administrative interface

One of the reasons behind poor or non-service delivery is the relationship which exists between the municipal officials, the political office bearers and across the three tiers of the government. Members of the provincial and local municipal executives, officials and councillors are required to define clear roles in order to avoid inappropriate interferences from an institutional perspective.

6.5.1.1 Integration and alignment within institutional settings

As noted earlier, the term alignment is used interchangeably with integration which entails the procedures and methodologies followed in the planning processes through application of certain planning instruments (Schoeman, 2015:2). Giving an overall assessment of interviews held with municipal officials, the officials have sufficient knowledge of the definition and issues of integration and alignment of the IDP goals and objectives within municipalities as well as across the three tiers of the government.

Figure 6.9 below shows the complexity and nature of the three tiers of the government. The hierarchy gives a picture of the flow of information and illustrates the organisational structure displaying the nature of how highly sequestered government is. From the hierarchy, local municipalities are all made up of local communities, the private sector and stakeholders. The local sphere of the government is the closest to the people and it is also made up of the district municipality. The district municipality executes some of its functions on the local government. The district municipality comprises of several local municipalities. The Provincial sphere of the government also performs functions which are listed in the Constitution. Generally provincial government has extensive supervisory power over local governments. In addition, national government also has powers over the two tiers, that is; the provincial and local governments. However, there are conflicts which arise in practice as to the clear allocation of the functional areas as it affects service delivery.

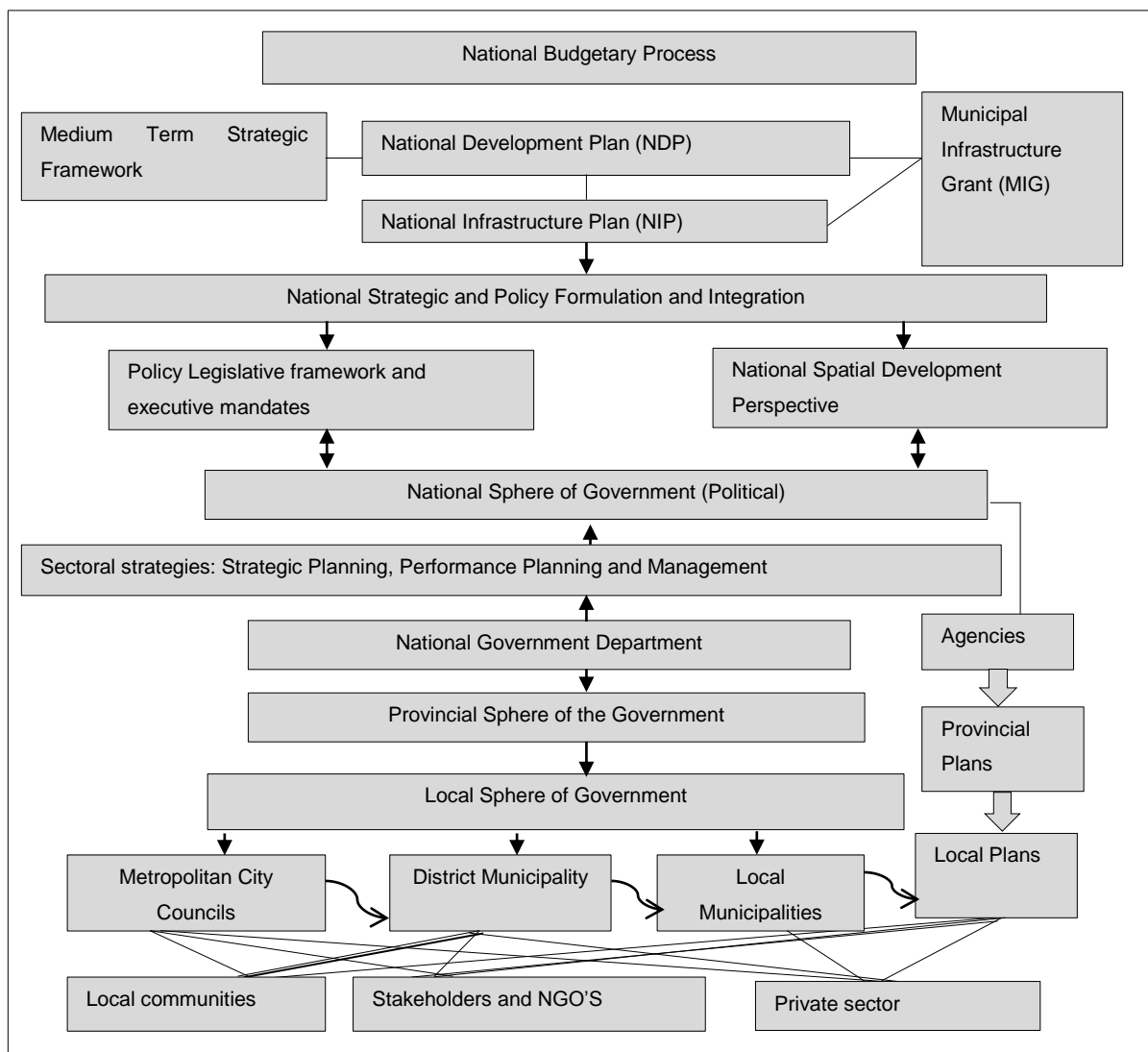


Figure 6.14: Government structures

Source: Schoeman (2015:17).

All the spheres above have to be interlinked to achieve development. The success and failure of the IDP cannot only be seen in the face of local municipalities but all the other spheres of the government. Practically, over the years of IDP implementation, the alignment of municipal IDP goals within provincial and national governments has only been realised in the identification of important issues or rather the acknowledgement of the important aspects. This is because, according to the other two tiers of the government, the IDP is a local planning process which does not share with the provincial and national government. In practise, the provincial and national departments are supposed to integrate with local municipalities in focusing on issues of prioritisations but as it is, they perform in contrast.

In addition, the compliance of provincial government is generally not satisfactory on issues of implementing the IDP. This means that most municipalities are fighting their own battles without

the assistance from the provincial departments, because of the tendencies of provincial governments to take long to respond to calls from the local municipalities. Additionally, the lack of coordination among the three tiers of the government disables efficient service delivery.

One IDP personnel in TLM stressed the point that there is need to align the IDP goals and objectives with the national and provincial goals as stipulated by the legal frameworks. However, the provincial and national government tend to impose policies and legislation to the local governments without really aligning them with the different local governments in place. This poses a challenge for local municipalities to have realignments. However, SPLUMA, (2013), is meant to address issues of misalignment and should be embraced as an opportunity by municipalities to achieve transformation.

The research gathered through semi structured interviews that there has been insufficient participation with regards to officials from the provincial and national government in the plan making and implementation of the TLM IDP. This is because funding is obtained from the national and provincial governments yet they tend to by-product the plight of the local municipality. Looking at the provincial departments' role and responsibilities, the major trade lies with the local governments, the overarching role being to lead and support the local government entities. However, it can be argued that the provincial governments are under resourced, poorly structured, incapacitated, and in most instances lack the central objective of governance mandates. Due to this, it translates to poor responsiveness and structural inability to work as a responsive sphere of the central government.

On another note, some of the challenges faced by the provincial level relate to political contests within departments. The only way provincial governments can improve is by de-politicising municipal issues and practise total professionalism when dealing with municipal goals and objectives in order to perform effectively.

However, officials have stated that in most instances the district municipality is mostly concerned with none urban areas and weak local municipalities which are mostly found in the non-urban area settings. Therefore, on this note, it can be suggested that there is only need for a single tier local government for local municipalities in urban areas. It reduces the layers of governmental spheres that often delay decisions and the flow of funding. Additionally, it ensures better accountability as local communities are closer to the communities than the districts municipalities.

6.5.1.2 Integration and alignment of sectoral plans

The IDP involves the strategic integration of all its sector plans. This means that sector plans should fit in the hierarchy of plans from national and provincial perspectives. Legislation sets out the requirements for each sectoral plan and the approaches to be adopted. However in practice sectors often do not share information, and the goals and targets are not aligned with the municipal priorities

TLM has been adopting the IDP since in 2000. However, the municipality during the time lacked sufficient skills to come up with the IDP and made use of consultancies. However, the adoption of sectoral planning has to a large extent turned out to be plans existing in isolation for lack of coordination. For instance the SDFs are usually outdated or have not been yearly reviewed. The lack of integration has also contributed to the failure of municipalities to achieve their mandate.

The council approves on the budget on the first of August and the IDP is adopted. In a more viable and realistic way when councillors approve, managers are supposed to commence project specifications because if one begins later on it means there is no meeting of the targets for quarterly assessments (section 5.6.3). This is mostly the case such so that municipalities rarely meet their performance targets thereby compromising the quality of service.

6.5.1.3 Information dissemination mechanisms

27.6% respondents were aware of development projects while 72.4% were not. One way to measure exposure of people in a community is to assess the level of knowledge on other issues. In this context, most people are not aware of what happens in their community, some because of ignorance. Most people in communities are failing to fully participate in issues of development. The high percentage of unawareness can be directed to the failure of Ward Councillors or officials to communicate with community members on the value of community engagement.

It is noted that the respondents who knew about developmental projects were students claimed that they had been educated at schools about projects and had assisted in some of them. This clearly shows that information on municipal projects is difficult to access. This is because the forms or methods of dissemination of information are not conducive enough for the majority of people. One councillor also claimed that the community members are given feedback on these issues. Therefore further investigations were done to examine the methods used in order to give people information and feedback.

Table 6.4: Method of dissemination of information

INFROMATION SYSTEM	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Newspaper advertisement	6	6.1%
Ward meetings	16	16.2%
Informal communication systems	9	9.1%
Internet	2	2.0%
Other	2	2.0%
N/a	71	71.7%

Source: Own Construction from field work (2014).

Only 6.1% of the 100 respondents have heard about projects in communities, 6.1% was via newspaper, 16.2% at ward meetings, 9.1% via informal communication system, then 2.0% via the internet and the other 2% through other communication channels. The greater 71.7% was not accounted for because people never had knowledge on this issue.

This clearly depicts that there is need for intervention if there is going to be integration in local governments. The implication from the study is that there are insufficient engagement processes and ineffective communication strategies for integration, posing challenges on the achievement of the IDP goals.

6.5.1.4 Institutional capacity

Most municipalities are failing to achieve the goals of the IDP because they do not have the human capacity to execute integration. The whole IDP process needs competent personnel to plan and implement it in terms of both skills and funds. The major challenge for local municipalities face is insufficient technical capacity to formulate innovative IDPs, thus the employment of consultancy and its implementation.

Local municipalities tend to appoint incompetent personnel. Skills and qualifications are of paramount importance if serious attention is going to be given to IDP. Appointing incompetent people is detrimental, as evidenced by poor service delivery, causing the municipality to fail to perform to its full capacity. Project management and performance issues need competent personnel if quality results are going to be obtained. This calls for intense mandatory capacity building sessions to ensure improved service delivery.

The key role players in the IDP should be equipped with sufficient skills and a deep understanding of the issues at play so that individual capacity can be utilised to the maximum advantage of the people.

This also extends to the capacity of TLM where there is a need for strong leadership and internal confidence within the municipality itself to ensure optimal capacity. It further goes to the intergovernmental structures to ensure delivery. However, in reality there is a gap among individual capacity, institutional and the intergovernmental capacities such that it is difficult to execute the goals that are being planned.

6.5.1.5 Use of the IDP as a “template” (one size fits all)

One of the challenges emanating from the appointment of consultancies is that most consultancies tend to use one IDP for all the municipalities. The IDP thus becomes a one size fits for all municipalities. The IDP loses its meaning in local municipalities and lacks innovation. It is the duty of the local government to ensure that they get a quality document. Therefore, thorough investigation should be done with all role players involved in the preparation of the IDPs so that the key people know what to expect in their own IDP, to guard against use of replicas of other municipal IDPs.

However, the only way local governments can ensure that “template IDPs” do not occur is to have sufficient skills in the municipality to prepare IDPs. During the period that consultancy services are preparing the plans, local governments should gather skills and minimise instances where consultancies do their jobs. It will also save costs of paying consultancies for municipalities as the municipal officials gain skills and adopt their own IDP.

6.5.1.6 Limited sense of ownership in the municipal IDPs

Sense of ownership relates to the point where those whose voice is heard, who are influenced by the decisions and the people affected by the outcomes and process become responsible. Becoming the owners of the product determines the strategic interests and actions of individuals or organisations. There is need to identify who has the voice in the process of coming up with the IDP and understand who is heard. There is need to understand these three question if municipalities are going to embrace their IDPs: who are we, where are we going and how do we get there?

6.5.1.7 Vulnerability of municipal officials to political advances

One of the most important attributes that municipal officials should embrace is neutrality on political issues and focus on professionalism. However, most of the officials are trapped in the political web such that they become the agents of corruption and nepotism.

Furthermore poor service delivery is mostly because municipalities are not being governed effectively, efficiently and have political divisions that undermine delivery. This is seen from the performance management framework itself which is not fully transparent. Some representations for failure to meet targets are not fully accounted for in the public presentation of municipal annual reports.

6.5.2 Fiscal Challenges

6.5.2.1 The local municipality failure on Municipal Infrastructure Grant spending

According to municipal officials, the local municipalities cannot meet the demand for the population for a lack of sufficient financial backup. However, every financial year municipalities are given an opportunity to plan and produce the IDP and provide a budget prior to receiving funds from the national and provincial governments. These plans are used by the national and provincial governments to determine the amount of funds that will be released to the municipality. The Municipal Infrastructure Grant (MIG) are made available to the local municipalities.

However, municipalities do not release some of the funds for developmental projects such that at the end of a financial year millions of rand are unspent. In 2014, TLM had to return unspent R 32 million. According to Stats SA, (2011) out of 52 537 households in the municipality, 91.3% of household have access to piped water either in dwelling or in the yard, while 2.0% of households do not have access to piped water. 90.5% of households have access to electricity for lighting.

The table below gives a general overview of the people who are in need of basic services yet the local municipality has not responded as yet to deliver the services. 17% of the 100 respondents have no access to electricity and an alarming 32% have no serviced roads. The probable cause could be because the municipality is turning a blind eye to the real challenges in service delivery that people are facing. If the municipality fails to priorities service delivery, yet these are the issues communities are facing, then the municipality is failing to meet its mandate.

Table 6.5: Service delivery

SERVICE	AVAILABLE	MISSING
Electricity	82%	17%
Water	87%	12%
Serviced roads	67%	32%
Street lighting	81%	8%
Waste management	84%	15%
Sewer management	75%	24%

Source: Own Construction from field work (2014).

On one of the visits to Ikageng township people who reside there have to walk long distances for transport. Below is an image taken during field work showing the subserviced houses;



Plate 6.2: Informal dwellings

Source: Flickr images preview (2014).

Local municipalities have been established since 1994. However, in order to initiate most of the projects in the IDP the municipality has to seek funding from the district, provincial and national governments. In order for local governments to function effectively and to implement their IDP, significant fiscal autonomy has to be transferred to local governments when budgets have been done. This was done to pave way for meaningful development to be achieved.

Power struggles in the three tiers of the government also hinders the IDP process in the sense that the division of power and functions amongst local municipalities and districts impacts on the communication processes. If this communication channel is not strong, it will lead to the local governments failing to access funds, information, capability and empowerment.

It is important to take note that in the initial stages of fiscal decentralisation, the intergovernmental strategy of the central government, emphasised on reducing and eliminating infrastructure backlog. Therefore sectoral priorities were made; each transfer was accompanied by a sector specific financial and physical report. Arrangements were complete amongst local municipalities, provinces and the transferring department at the national level. However, this imposed multiple reporting requirements in the transferring departments and it is still the case.

Looking at TLM, it has been accredited it qualifies for level 2. The first level involves the presence of all national departments and has the ability of performing most local governments' functions'. However, the municipality has since been due for level 2, which is the stage when the council is awarded to take charge of its finances and allocate the funds for its projects itself. According to a municipal official, the province has been reluctant about this for fear they will lose power, jobs and more funds in devolving such autonomy.

6.5.3 Social Challenges

6.5.3.1 Insufficient awareness of public participation

Ward Councillors were put in place as mechanism to enable public participation (Municipal Structures Act, 1998). Ward Councillors are the representatives of the people. However, the research discovered that a number of people are not aware of the roles of the Ward Councillors. In fact, quite a number of people do not know the responsible Ward Councillors in their respective wards.

According to the research, 55.6% of the people have knowledge on the roles of Ward Councillors while 44.4% do not. The structures of Ward Councillors and committees were meant to connect residents with the government departments, but are ineffective. This correspond to the notion that TLM residences are not fully empowered with knowledge on the governing bodies, community forums and other public engagements conducted within the municipality. There is evidence of the absence of sufficient communication between councillors and residents.

On the other hand, for Ward Councillors and committees to be more effective, there is need for them to be fully capacitated with sufficient skills and resources so that they are able to achieve their goals as public leaders. This emanates from the fact that over the years ward committees have been given a small stipend which is not sufficient to carry out all that needs to be done in communities.

However, in as much as it is the role of Ward Councillors to disseminate information, it is also the duty of the council representatives to ensure information is available to everyone. It is not sufficient to only advertise in newspapers when there is for instance a new development. Not everyone reads the sections and only a handful of people in local townships buy the newspapers. The graph below shows the picture of people who have had interactions with council officials on developmental issues.

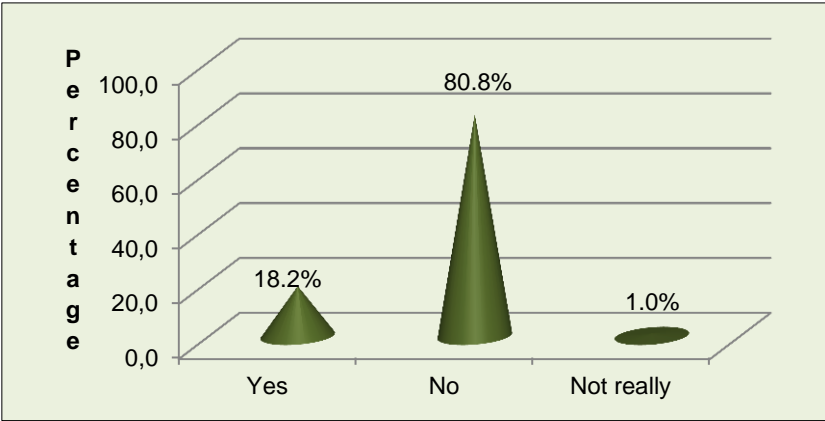


Figure 6.15: Level of communication with council representatives

Source: Own Construction from field work (2014).

Figure 6.15 clearly illustrates that only 18.2% of the respondents have interacted with any member from the council representatives. The rest 80.8% have never interacted with the council officials. This might be because most people are ignorant and do not understand the proper channels in communities. This scenario shows that there is inadequate information being disseminated to the people.

6.5.3.2 Poor public participation structures

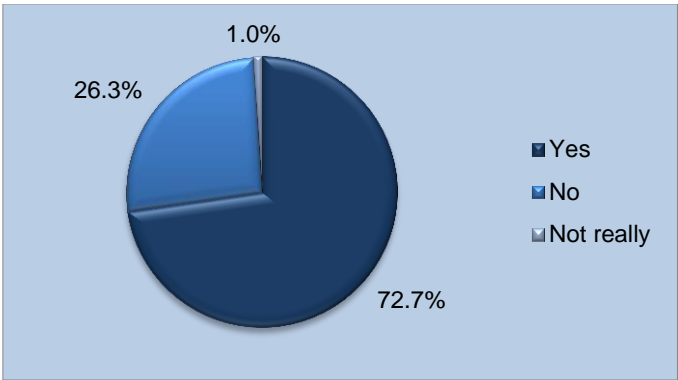


Figure 6.16: Willingness to participate

Source: Own Construction from fieldwork (2014).

According to the research, 72.7% of the respondents are willing to participate in developmental projects in communities while 26.3% are not interested. Only 1% was not sure of participation. This implies many people are willing to join and make contributions in communities. This is also clearly highlighted by the number of people who have joined different organisations in communities. It shows that people have that willingness to be part of a good programme. Therefore, there is need to consider the variables and the environment which can aid participation so as to increase the moral for people to participate.

6.5.3.3 Method of participation

Table 6.6: Public participation methods

METHOD	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Internet	2	2.0%
Suggestion boxes	95	96.0%
Surveys	99	0
Other	99	0
Not applicable	1	1.0%

Source: Own Construction from field work (2014).

Of the respondents in the research, 96% were willing to participate through community meetings. However, some of the respondents gave conditions to the method of participation, which include;

- The meeting should not end up in fights;
- Provision of a proper meeting place because most people raised complaints about spending the whole time exposed to extreme weather conditions;
- The meeting place should be held at a walkable distance; some respondents claim that the distance to go for meetings is too long.

Only 2% of the respondents wanted to participate via internet, these were mainly the students. In such scenarios, ward committees can set up different forums which can aid different age groups to participate in different matters. For the young the internet may be used where a website is opened for each ward with surveys conducted of the perceptions of people. For the elderly the ward meetings suite perfectly as long as there is comfort at meeting places.

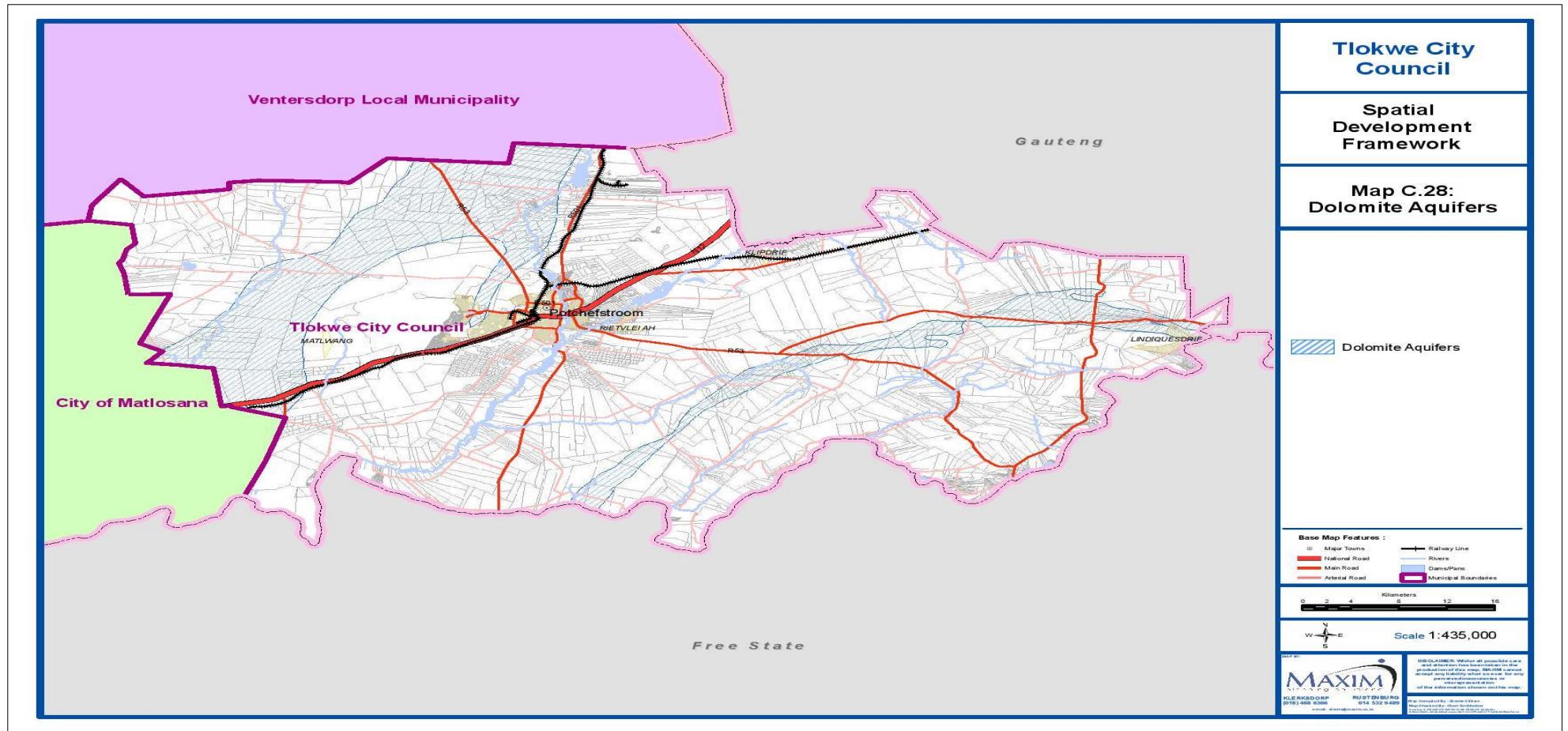
Another of the challenges with these meetings is the lack of professionalism that dissuades people from attending. Therefore professionalism will improve the turnout of the community, including the well educated people in society and encourage innovative ideas for development.

6.5.4 Environmental Challenges

6.5.4.1 Existence of dolomite in Tlokwe

When TLM engaged in a housing project in 2009, preliminary studies were held in geotechnical investigations and it was discovered that in Ikageng, around the Kanana area, there was some element of dolomite. Dolomite is a carbonated rock type which dissolves over time to subsurface cavities then forms sinkholes. Rainwater and percolating groundwater that is weakly acidic though enrichment with carbon dioxide dissolve and remove the dolomite in the form of bicarbonates as they percolate through the network joints, fractures and faults of the rock (Buttrick and Schalkwyk, Kleywegt and Watermeyer, 2001:24).

When this occurs the results may be very disastrous as it can lead to loss of lives or properties. Most of the sinkholes have been associated with the change in water regime. In fact, 95% of sinkholes have been caused by human activity, for instance, leaking utility services and ground water obstruction and more often leaking sewer water which dissolves dolomite causing the sinkholes.



Map 6.5: Dolomite affected areas

Source: TLM SDF (2014).

Therefore, it was decided by the municipality that there was need for an intense study to assess all the areas under TLM to ascertain areas affected by dolomite. In 2009, TLM undertook the investigation to determine the locations of dolomite. It was found that the phenomenon was bigger than anticipated and was spreading to Promosa. As the investigation took precedence, it was discovered that portions of Ikageng, Promosa and Mohadin are areas which are underlain by dolomite. Map 6.5 shows the belt of the dolomite affected areas.

The council had to commission some studies with service providers to identify the areas which were actually affected by dolomite. In the process a moratorium on the approval of plans in the locations affected by dolomite was prepared. Ward 4 was identified as an area of high risk of the dolomite. Currently council has developed a plan to resettle residents to an identified piece of land with less risk. However, there has been resistance towards the by the people in townships as a result of their ignorance of the potential hazard. At the same time, the local municipality is also facing spatial challenges as there is limited developable land.

However, Ages consultancy firm appointed by TLM carried out an intensive study to determine the dolomite classification and determine the number of stands that are affected (Ages presentation, 2015). They came up with different levels of threat divided into 6 categories as shown below.

Table 6.7: Dolomite classifications

CLASSIFICATION	LEVEL
DRM1	High risk RDP houses not recommended
DRM2	High risk RDP houses not recommended
DRM(3a)	Medium risk RDP houses not recommended
DRM(3b)	Medium risk RDP houses not recommended
DRM4	Low risk conditions on construction
DRM5	High risk

Source: Own Construction from Ages presentation (2015).

The presence of high risk dolomite makes the building of housing units impossible, or limits the scale of development based on the geo-technical risks of an area. Over the years people have settled without consideration of the dolomite until recently when the municipality began to place much attention to the issue dolomite after an incident in Sarafina of the presence of a sinkhole incident. Fortunately no deaths have since been recorded. This has now become a matter of priority and has been incorporated in the IDP as an issue of priority. However, the matter had to

be funded by the district because the municipality cannot afford such projects. At the moment the municipality is searching for other sources for financial backup (Ages, 2015).

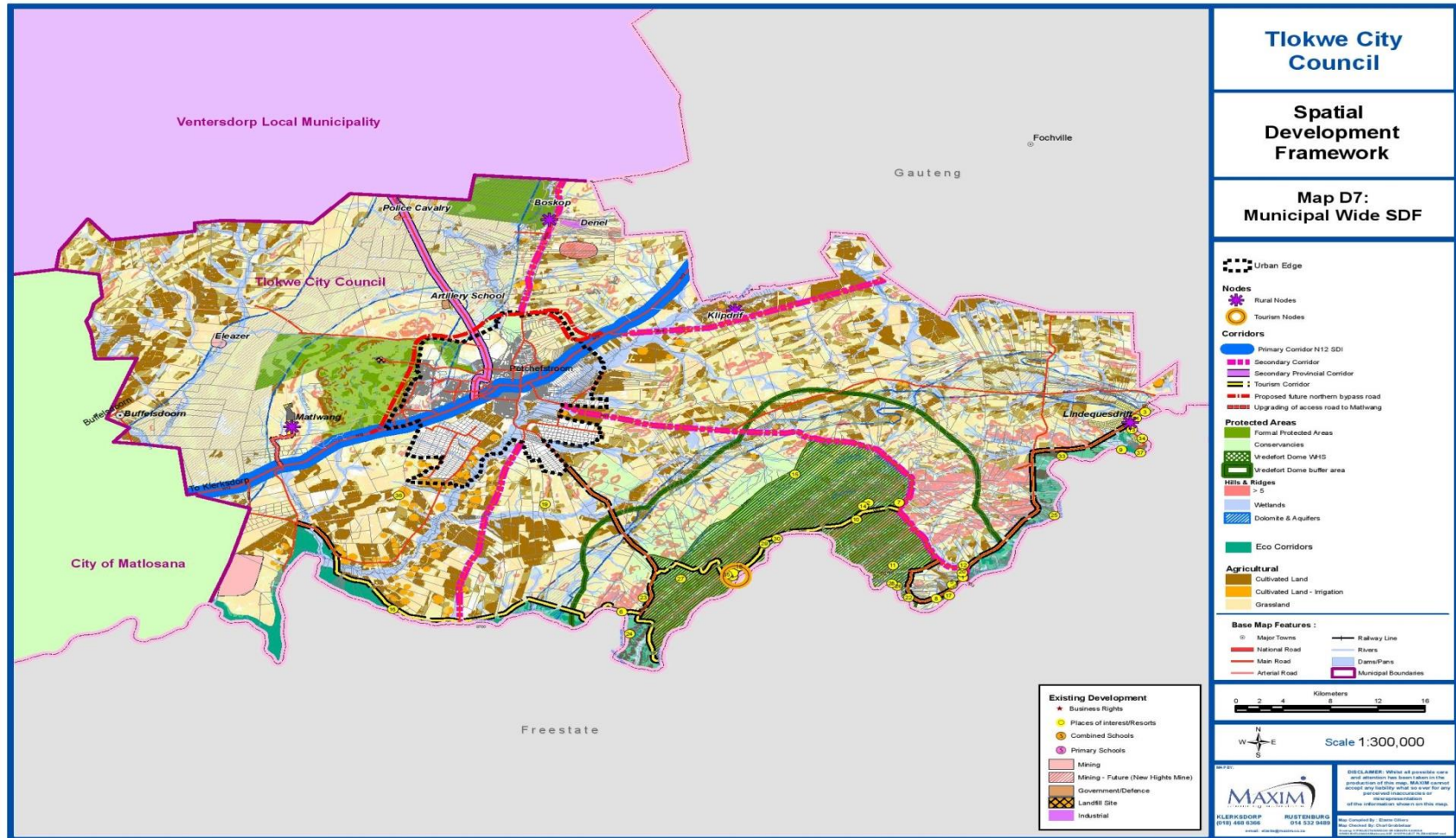
According to Potgieter (2012:43) the DRMS shows that there are mitigation processes which will be followed rather instead of large scale resettlements from the dolomitic areas. Resettlement of households is only considered as the last resort when all other possible mitigation measures may prove to be unable to reduce the risk effectively to a tolerable level. According to Ages (2015.), resettlement is the last resort due to cost. This is also because it is argued that dolomite can be managed. Only the high risk areas will necessitate relocation for the danger they pose already. Instead, there can be changes in the standards of housing and infrastructure. This means the areas that are already occupied will need upgrading with GPPE pipes, storm water canals, raft foundations, aptons and gutter pipes.

The public also need to be conscientised about the signs of disaster, such as cracks in buildings and strange noises, given that 80% of the respondents are not aware of the dolomite and its effects (Ages, 2014).

6.6 Study area

6.6.1 Tlokwe Spatial Development Framework

shows TLM SDF (2014). The map gives direction on the manner in which development should occur in space. It also gives the basis for guiding decision making and action over a period of time, in this instance, 5years. It shows that TLM urban edge is relatively minimal indicating that TLM is encouraging dense developments. Although it is relatively minimal, it is sufficient for guiding growth and ensuring sustainable use of land. The map also shows the tourism corridor as an opportunity which allows greater investments. It also displays access routes that allow easier accessibility. Grasslands are also a common feature of the map. Further analysis of this framework is given later in the study.



Map 6.6: TLM Spatial Development Framework

Source: Tlokwe Local Municipality SDF (2014). SDF and IDP relationship

From a bird's eye view, integrated spatial planning and spatial transformation has been uneven in TLM. This is because the municipality is battling to keep pace with the growth and demand of services and also the backlogs of the past. Therefore the study deduced a scientific method of scoring to rank performance of the municipality as an assessment measure to authenticate how well each IDP objective has contributed in achieving transformation.

6.7 Analysis of TLM performance using the scoring method.

The stages implemented during the scoring method are described below in brief below and the results illustrated. The study used the scorecard method in assessing TLM performance. Each stage of assessment is explained and the results illustrated. Data was obtained from Stats SA (2001-2014) and annual reports from TLM and MLM (2010-2014).

6.7.1 Identification of transformation objectives and the assigning of weights

Objectives need to be SMART (Specific, Measurable, Agreed, Realistic and Time dependent), (Multi-criteria analysis manual, 2009:10). This is in relation with the principles of performance measures laid out in section 5.3 of the study which provided the foundation of identifying the best performance measure. Therefore the study used the principles of performance measures from section 5.3, to identify the best objectives and indicators assessed through the SMART concept.

During the objective identification stage, the TLM IDP was used together with the NDP to identify preferred objectives with the overall aim of integration and spatial transformation. During the objective identification, some of these objectives were broken down in order to be more specific and quantifiable. The study managed to identify seven out of fifteen objectives for the study because some of the objectives were not directly related to the study at hand.

After the identification of the objectives, weights were applied to each individual objective and indicator. These weights reflect how each objective and indicator will be elicited. The given weights were based upon value judgements about relative importance of different objectives, indicators and opportunity cost of achieving the study goal.

Table 6.8: Assigned weights per objective

OBJECTIVE	Objective Weights
O_1 To promote infrastructure development and basic delivery	0,3
O_2 To provide and support human settlements	0,2
O_3 Municipal transformation and institutional transformation	0,16

O_4 Management of the Office of the Speaker	0,15
O_5 To combat corruption	0,13
O_6 Poverty alleviation and job creation	0,04
O_7 Tourism development and marketing	0,02
TOTAL	1

Source: Own Construction from field work (2015).

Weights for indicators from Objective 1 (O₁) to Objective 7 (O₇)

O₁ > O₂

O₁ weighs more than O₂ because in 2012, there was the establishment of a National Infrastructure Plan. According to the South African government, the plan is aimed at transforming and supporting integration of African economies. Therefore this is the major objective cross cutting all issues involved in O₂. The government has an obligation to ensure that everyone has the right to housing (Housing Act No 107 of 1997). Therefore this becomes a necessary objective to provide housing as a basic right than a commodity NESRI, (National Economic and Social Rights Initiative; 2015).

O₃ < O₂ < O₁

O₃ is of less importance compared to the former, due to the fact that effectively implementing those former objectives leads to municipal transformation in terms of service delivery. Transformation is the ultimate result in improving service delivery and a necessary tool in improving internal processes, thus weighed greater than the latter objectives (The National Treasury, 2005). Transformation is only conducted when the municipality has assessed the weaknesses and strengths of the policies and implementation of the other projects.

O₄ < O₃ < O₂ < O₁

Management of the office of the Speaker is an important aspect of this study and has been weighed to be objective 4. Office of the speaker manages public participation through ward committees, stakeholder forums and petition processes. The reason for the lesser weight is that the office has no direct link with the public as it is only used to enhance public participation.

O₅ < O₄ < O₃ < O₂ < O₁

In as much as municipalities have to battle corrupt tendencies, their top priority is service delivery to the public (USAID, Making Cities Work, 2015). The IDP itself makes room for corruption to be dealt with by municipalities. Cooperative Governance of Traditional Affairs (COGTA) has also required local municipalities to fight corruption through its local government anti-corruption conduct.

O_6 < O_5 < O_4 < O_3 < O_2 < O_1

Poverty alleviation strategies have been an issue since Agenda 21 and it is the duty of all levels of the government to reduce poverty. It is a necessary spectrum because it helps to identify the dynamics of poverty in South Africa. In countries like America poverty is defined in terms of income and opportunities (UN, 2010). Therefore this study looks at poverty alleviation strategies paving way to economic development.

O_7 < O_6 < O_5 < O_4 < O_3 < O_2 < O_1

In South Africa tourism has been identified as the key sector with potential for growth. The government aims at increasing tourism contribution to the economy from the 2009 baseline of R189 billion (7.9% of GDP) to R499 billion by 2016 (National Department of Tourism, 2012). Therefore the tourism strategy realises full potential in economic growth and is thus an important pillar to study. It is lesser than all the former indicators because it is only an assessment of strategy on exploiting the potential for the region in tourism development and marketing.

6.7.2 Identification of transformation indicators for given objectives and the assigning of weights

Table 6.9: Performance indicators and weights

OBJECTIVE	THEME	INDICATORS	INDICATOR WEIGHTS (normalised)
O_1 To promote infrastructure development and basic delivery	Accessibility	I ₁ Percentage of households without access to water	0.06
		I ₂ Percentage of households without access to sanitation	0.06
		I ₃ Percentage of households without access to refuse removal services	0.06
		I ₄ Percentage of household without access to electricity	0.06
	Sustainability	I ₅ Blue drop percentage compliance	0.045
		I ₆ Green drop percentage compliance	0.015
O_2 To provide and support human settlements	Housing opportunities	I ₁ Number of housing units provided by the municipality	0.13
		I ₂ Percentage of households residing in informal dwellings	0.04
		I ₃ Number of informal settlements	0.03
O_3 Municipal transformation and institutional transformation	Audits	I ₁ Number of municipal audits held	0.08
		I ₂ Percentage level for revenue collections	0.064
		I ₃ Review on HR policies	0.016
O_4 Management of the Office of the Speaker	Public participation	I ₁ Number of the ward meetings held (ward development meetings)	0.045
		I ₂ Total number of ward committees members trained for different wards	0.075

		I ₂ Percentage attendance on meetings by councillors	0.03
O_5 To combat corruption	Contact crime	I ₁ Percentage increase on reported cases on corruption	0.0845
	Public opinion and perceptions	I ₂ Percentage level of corruption perceptions in municipal administrations	0.0455
O_6 Poverty alleviation and job creation	Poverty alleviation strategies	I ₁ Number of social development projects	0.008
		I ₂ Percentage of SMMEs growth	0.012
	Level of unemployment	I ₃ Percentage of unemployment rate	0.0052
		I ₄ Percentage of the rate of literacy level	0.0056
O_6 Poverty alleviation and job creation	Strength of civil society	I ₅ Number of capacity building workshops for the public	0.0048
		I ₆ Percentage of beneficiaries of government grants	0.0044
O_7 Tourism development and marketing	Sustainable tourism	I ₁ Number of tourism events hosted	0.008
		I ₂ Number of accredited tourism facilities	0.007
		I ₃ Percentage success of marketing programs conducted	0.005

Source: Own Construction from field work (2015).

O1

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} I_1 & 0.06 \\ I_2 & 0.06 \\ I_3 & 0.06 \\ I_4 & 0.06 \\ I_5 & 0.045 \\ I_6 & 0.015 \end{array} \right\}$$

Explanation: Accessibility to service delivery indicators use equal weighting because there is no firm basis for applying differential weights, given the existing knowledge and unavailability of scientific consensus necessary to determine the importance of basic services of one over the other (World Economic Forum, 2002). Indicator 5 weighs more than indicator 6 because according to National Treasury, Category B (locals) in 2013 took a national operating expenditure of R 7 274 million for water while sanitation took R6 135 million (National Treasury Database, 2015). In as much as both indicators contribute to health and sustainability the blue drop gains much more weight because more funds are allocated to it. However both the indicators contribute to MDG goal 7 to gain access to improved drinking water sources and sanitation making them crucial for the study.

O2

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} I_1 & 0.13 \\ I_2 & 0.04 \end{array} \right\}$$

Explanation: I₁ is an influential indicator which cross-cuts different issues. Informal settlement is an indicator of high demand and limited supply of housing. Therefore it becomes an important

aspect when studying progress in human settlements. However, using budget allocation from the National Treasury; human settlements consumed higher allocations, as much as R1 064 million, for North West Province in 2013 (National Treasury Database) making it crucial to assess the housing opportunities being given.

O3

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} I_1 \quad 0.08 \\ I_2 \quad 0.064 \\ I_3 \quad 0.16 \end{array} \right\}$$

Explanation: Indicator 3 is highly important because it presents the prime opportunity to expand the knowledge base of all employees. It gives a supportive cushion that enables better performance. Indicator 1 is the basis for monitoring and evaluation. It is important when it comes to any issues relating to financial reports on an on-going basis (KPMG Audit Committee Institute, 2009: 2). Indicator 2 is about revenue collections and it is the least weighed. In as much as it is the main source of income for the municipality for financing the cost of public goods and forms the largest weight as all local government taxes (Municipal Finance Management Act No; 56 of 2003), the study gives much more emphasis on the other sources of finance.

O4

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} I_1 \quad 0.045 \\ I_2 \quad 0.075 \\ I_3 \quad 0.03 \end{array} \right\}$$

Explanation: According to the Municipal Systems Act (32 of 2000) ward committees are the structures which have been put in place to allow public participation by the local community in the affairs of the municipality. Therefore the number of ward meetings held weighed higher because ward meetings serve as the official special participation engine for the local community and the municipality. I₂ assesses the number of trained ward committee members to perform duties. Lastly attendances to meetings by councillors are weighed the least because the need to ensure constructive and harmonious interactions is outweighed by the need to assess participation by the representatives in the ward meeting. Furthermore, cooperative functional partnerships among leaders to perform duties are essential for integration purposes.

O5

$$\left\{ I_1 \quad 0.085 \right\}$$

Explanation: The number of reported cases on corruption is selected as the only indicator to shows the extent to which the public is willing to eradicate corruption. According to the PSC there was an establishment of a National Anti-Corruption Hotline (NACH) for the safe and anonymous reporting of corruption (PSC, 2011:2). Therefore it is a crucial indicator for assessing corruption in local municipalities.

06

{	I_1	0.008	}
	I_2	0.0012	
	I_3	0.0052	
	I_4	0.0056	
	I_5	0.0048	
	I_6	0.0044	

Explanation: the number of social development projects is an indicator relating to the level of poverty, literacy, unemployment and empowerment. It is highly weighed in this class because it is the broader aspects of all indicators. The latter indicators weigh less because they relate to social security issues. The government allocates 93% of the budget of the Department of Social Development to social grants (South African year book, 2013). I_2 weighs 0.0012 because SMEs are integral to the economic development and growth of regions (SABS, 2015). Therefore taking note of SMEs growth indicates the increase in willingness towards contributing to economic growth. Employment rate is weighed 0.0052 because it shows the economic growth of the area and strategies to reduce poverty and inequality. Indicator 4 is about capacity building as a means of promoting sustainable development and encompasses a multitude of dimensions (UNEP, 2006: 2). It is the catalyst and constant fuel for the whole region.

07

{	I_1	0.008	}
	I_2	0.007	
	I_3	0.005	

Explanation: It is important to note the number of hosted tourism events because such events contribute to economic growth immensely. In other words, tourism is the injection for expanding economic opportunities (Ashley etal, 2007). Moreover, it is an important indicator for assessing the social benefits that are provided, such as small and medium-sized enterprises, development, new job creation, and improvement of infrastructure. Therefore the assessment of the number of tourism events hosted addresses whether there is community enrichment making it an important indicator. The 2nd indicator assesses accredited facilities for tourism. This is also

an important feature because it helps to establish the level of tourism in a region and gives credit if the region is a significant tourist centre. The success of marketing programmes can only be noted when tourists events are a success (KPMG Audit Committee Institute, 2009:2).

6.7.3 Identification of scores, interpolation and normalisation

The study selected Matlosana Local Municipality (MLM) as a base case study to compare the results of TLM. This was because among the municipalities available in North West Province under the Dr Kenneth Kaunda District, MLM is in category B level of municipalities as is TLM. The study could not rank National and provincial scores against TLM scores because the levels are not the same. The methodology selected is only applicable to similar categories.

Table 6.10 is a consequence table which has the identified scores per indicator. The results are assigned in numerical scores

Table 6.10: TLM and MLM scores

OBJECTIVE	THEME	INDICATORS	TLM scores			MLM scores		
			2010	2012	2014	2010	2012	2014
O_1 To promote infrastructure development and basic delivery	Accessibility	I ₁ Percentage of households with access to water	0.80	1.00	1.00	0.50	1.00	1.00
		I ₂ Percentage of households with access to sanitation	0.569	0.806	0.96	0.928	0.945	0.948
		I ₃ Percentage of households with access to refuse removal services	0.690	0.80	0.905	0.893	0.946	0.940
		I ₄ Percentage of households with access to electricity	0.895	0.90	0.971	0.930	0.892	0.978
	Sustainability	I ₅ Blue drop percentage compliance	0.982	0.945	0.987	0.596	0.9538	0.9535
		I ₆ Green drop percentage compliance	0.59	0.78	0.97	0.517	0.421	0.634
O_2 To provide and support human settlements	Housing opportunities	I ₁ Number of housing units provided by the municipality	150	100	50	165577	1200	1445
		I ₂ Percentage of households residing in formal dwellings	0.811	0.899	0.8595	0.829	0.844	0.793
		I ₃ Number of informal settlements growth rate	0.01	0.16	0.16	0.01	0.01	0
O_3 Municipal transformation and institutional transformation	Audits	I ₁ Number of municipal audits held	4	4	4	4	4	2
		I ₃ Percentage level for revenue collections	0.85	0.857	0.322	0.4093	0.88	0.8602
	Working standards measure	I ₄ Number of reviews on human resource policies	0	0	4	1	1	1
O_4 Management of the Office of the Speaker	Public participation	I ₁ Number of council meetings held (ward development meetings)	12	12	12	10	10	9
		I ₂ Total number of ward committee members trained for different wards	10	5	0	28	80	60
		I ₃ Percentage of attendance of councillors to meetings	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.85	0.85	1.00
O_5 To combat corruption	Contact crime	I ₁ Percentage growth rate on reports on corruption tendencies	0.00	0.5	0.425	0.00	0.5	0.020
	Public opinion and perceptions	I ₂ Percentage growth on corruption perceptions in municipal administration	0.03	1.34	0.56	0.125	0.5	0.00
O_6 Poverty alleviation and job creation	Poverty alleviation strategies	I ₁ Number of social development projects	16	15	14	4	8	12
		I ₂ Percentage of SMEs growth	0.05	0.054	0.018	0.00	0.00	0.01
	Level of unemployment	I ₃ Percentage of employment level	0.784	0.798	0.802	0.67	0.76	0.75
		I ₄ Percentage on the rate of literacy level	0.897	0.8973	0.896	0.63	0.56	0.58
	Strength of civil society	I ₅ Number of capacity building workshops for the public	3	12	18	30	15	0
		I ₆ Percentage of growth rate for beneficiaries of government grants	0.026	0.015	0.012	0.095	0.012	0.058
O_7 Tourism development and marketing	Sustainable tourism	I ₁ Number of tourism events hosted	3	2	2	3	5	7
		I ₂ Number of accredited tourism facilities	4	1	1	1	0	1
		I ₃ Percentage success of tourism marketing strategies conducted	0.95	0.50	0.05	0.80	0.44	0.10

Source: Own Construction from Stats SA (2001-2014) and annual reports of TLM and MLM (2010-2014).

The first stage indicated by the table above is the assessment of performance levels with the scoring of the two local municipalities (TLM and MLM). Better levels of performance give higher value scores, and the values range from; 0-1; with 0 representing the worst level. Three interval points have been given for each municipality (2010; 2012 and 2014).

However, due to the unavailability of data from the local municipalities, the study used a method called interpolation to obtain some missing values. This is basically a method of constructing new data points within the range of discrete set of known data points (Business Dictionary). Therefore Stats SA was used from period of 1996-2011 to obtain data ranges for 2012-2014 for the missing scores. Table 6.11 below shows the scores.

The second stage during the process was normalisation. Normalisation can be defined as the process of taking data from the problem and reducing it to a set of relation while ensuring data integrity, and eliminating data redundancy (Russel, 2000). As shown by Table 6.11, the indicators were scored using different units (percentages and numbers).

The study transformed or rather standardised the values to a common basis in order to avoid mixing different units of measurement. The variables were transformed using the process of normalisation by descaling to make the values range from (0-1) by the formula below (Freudenburg, 2003).

$$\text{Formula for normalisation by descaling} = \frac{X - X_{min}}{X_{max} - X_{min}}$$

The table below shows the normalised values. This method was used in order to give an identical range for the standardised scores for every indicator.

Table 6.11: Normalised scores for TLM and MLM

OBJECTIVE	THEME	INDICATORS	TLM NORMALISED SCORES			MLM NORMALISED SCORES		
			2010	2012	2014	2010	2012	2014
O_1 To promote infrastructure development and basic delivery	Accessibility	I ₁ Percentage of households with access to water	0.8	1	1	0.5	1	1
		I ₂ Percentage of households with access to sanitation	0.569	0.806	0.96	0.928	0.945	0.948
		I ₃ Percentage of households with access to refuse removal services	0.69	0.8	0.905	0.893	0.946	0.94
	Sustainability	I ₄ Percentage of households with access to electricity	0.895	0.9	0.971	0.93	0.892	0.978
		I ₅ Blue drop percentage compliance	0.982	0.945	0.987	0.596	0.9538	0.9535
		I ₆ Green drop percentage compliance	0.59	0.78	0.97	0.517	0.421	0.634
O_2 To provide and support human settlements	Housing opportunities	I ₁ Number of housing units provided by the municipality	1.00	0.50	0.00	1.00	0.00	0.00
		I ₂ Percentage of households residing in formal dwellings	0.811	0.899	0.8595	0.829	0.844	0.793
		I ₃ Number of informal settlements growth rate (considered as a penalty function i.e. negative effect on the objectives therefore was multiplied with negative 1)	-0.01	-0.16	-0.16	-0.01	-0.01	0
O_3 Municipal transformation and institutional transformation	Audits	I ₁ Number of municipal audits held	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.00
		I ₃ Percentage level for revenue collections	0.85	0.857	0.322	0.4093	0.88	0.8602
	Working standards measure	I ₄ Number of reviews on human resource policies	0.00	0.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
O_4 Management of the Office of the Speaker	Public participation	I ₁ Number of council meetings held (ward development meetings)	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.00
		I ₂ Total number of ward committee members trained for different wards	1.00	0.50	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.62
		I ₃ Percentage of attendance of councillors to meetings	1	1	1	0.85	0.85	1
O_5 To combat corruption	Contact crime	I ₁ Growth rate on reports on corruption tendencies	0	0.5	0.425	0	0.5	0.02
	Public opinion and perceptions	I ₂ Growth on corruption perceptions in municipal administration (penalty function)	-0.03	-1.34	-0.56	-0.125	-0.5	0
O_6 Poverty alleviation and job creation	Poverty alleviation strategies	I ₁ Number of social development projects	1.00	0.50	0.00	0.00	0.50	1.00
		I ₂ Percentage of SMEs growth	0.05	0.054	0.018	0	0	0.01
	Level of unemployment	I ₃ Percentage of employment level	0.784	0.798	0.802	0.67	0.76	0.75
		I ₄ Percentage on the rate of literacy level	0.897	0.8973	0.896	0.63	0.56	0.58
	Strength of civil society	I ₅ Number of capacity building workshops for the public	0.00	0.60	1.00	1.00	0.50	0.00
		I ₆ growth rate for beneficiaries of government grants (penalty function)	-0.026	-0.015	-0.012	-0.095	-0.012	-0.058
O_7 Tourism development and marketing	Sustainable tourism	I ₁ Number of tourism events hosted	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.50	1.00
		I ₂ Number of accredited tourism facilities	1.00	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.00	1.00
		I ₃ Percentage success of tourism marketing strategies conducted	0.95	0.5	0.05	0.80	0.44	0.10

Source: Own Construction from Stats SA (2001-2014) and annual reports of TLM and MLM (2010-2014).

6.7.4 TLM and MLM Ranking

Table 6.13 illustrates the scorecard ranking units for the two local municipalities (TLM and MLM). For the successful implementation of the model, the study had to make use of the indicator and objective weights. As noted earlier, the indicator and objective weights were obtained using the AHP (Analytical Hierarchical Process) (see section 5.5). The method used adapts well to this study. For this study in particular, there are two local municipalities which need to be ranked, basing on similar objectives and indicators, making it the appropriate model.

The results of the model are the sum of the rankings across the two municipalities from 2010; 2012 and 2014. Aggregating the scorecard rankings, gives the total scorecard ranking units for the two municipalities, across the given years. The units will be used to assess and draw differences and conclusions for transparent analysis and informed decision making.

Table 6.12: Ranking for TLM and MLM

OBJECTIVE	THEME	INDICATORS	TLM Ranking			MLM Ranking		
			2010	2012	2014	2010	2012	2014
O_1 To promote infrastructure development and basic delivery	Accessibility	I ₁ Percentage of households with access to water	0.05	0.06	0.06	0.03	0.06	0.06
		I ₂ Percentage of households with access to sanitation	0.03	0.05	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06
		I ₃ Percentage of households with access to refuse removal services	0.04	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.06	0.06
		I ₄ Percentage of households with access to electricity	0.05	0.05	0.06	0.06	0.05	0.06
	Sustainability	I ₅ Blue drop percentage compliance	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.03	0.04	0.04
		I ₆ Green drop percentage compliance	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01
O_2 To provide and support human settlements	Housing opportunities	I ₁ Number of housing units provided by the municipality	0.13	0.07	0.00	0.13	0.00	0.00
		I ₂ Percentage of households residing in formal dwellings	0.03	0.04	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03
		I ₃ Number of informal settlements growth rate (considered as a penalty function i.e. negative effect on the objectives therefore was multiplied with negative 1)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
O_3 Municipal transformation and institutional transformation	Audits	I ₁ Number of municipal audits held	0.08	0.08	0.08	0.08	0.08	0.00
		I ₂ Percentage level for revenue collections	0.05	0.05	0.02	0.03	0.06	0.06
		I ₃ Number of reviews on human resource policies	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02
O_4 Management of the Office of the Speaker	Public participation	I ₁ Number of council meetings held (ward development meetings)	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.00
		I ₂ Total number of ward committee members trained for different wards	0.08	0.04	0.00	0.00	0.08	0.05
		I ₃ Percentage of attendance of councillors to meetings	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03
O_5 To combat corruption	Contact crime	I ₁ Growth rate on reports on corruption tendencies	0.00	0.04	0.04	0.00	0.04	0.00
	Public opinion and perceptions	I ₂ Growth on corruption perceptions in municipal administration (penalty function)	0.00	-0.06	-0.03	-0.01	-0.02	0.00
O_6 Poverty alleviation and job creation	Poverty alleviation strategies	I ₁ Number of social development projects	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01
		I ₂ Percentage of SMEs growth	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	Level of unemployment	I ₃ Percentage of employment level	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00

		I ₄ Percentage on the rate of literacy level	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00
	Strength of civil society	I ₅ Number of capacity building workshops for the public	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
		I ₆ Growth rate for beneficiaries of government grants (penalty function)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
O_7 Tourism development and marketing	Sustainable tourism	I ₁ Number of tourism events hosted	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01
		I ₂ Number of accredited tourism facilities	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.01
		I ₃ Percentage success of tourism marketing strategies conducted	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
TOTAL RANK UNITS PER YEAR			0.71	0.61	0.54	0.60	0.65	0.50

Source: Own Construction from Stats SA (2001-2014) and annual reports of TLM and MLM (2010-2014).

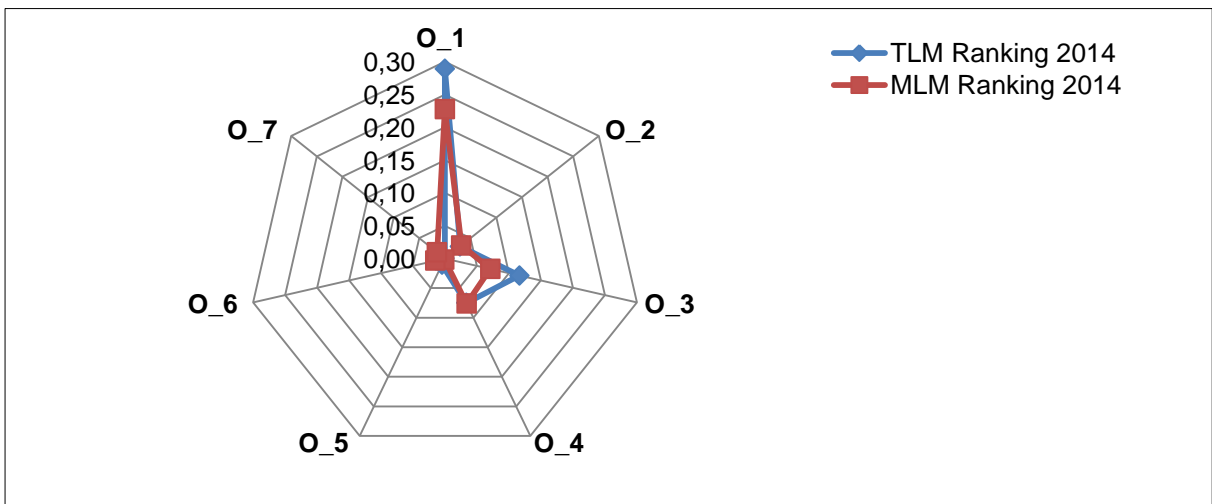
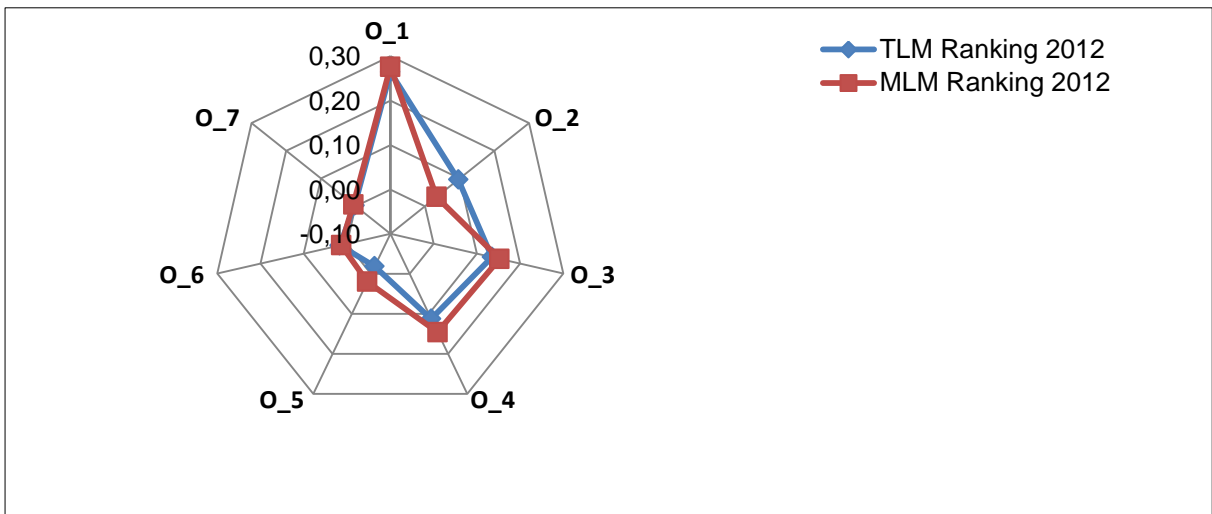
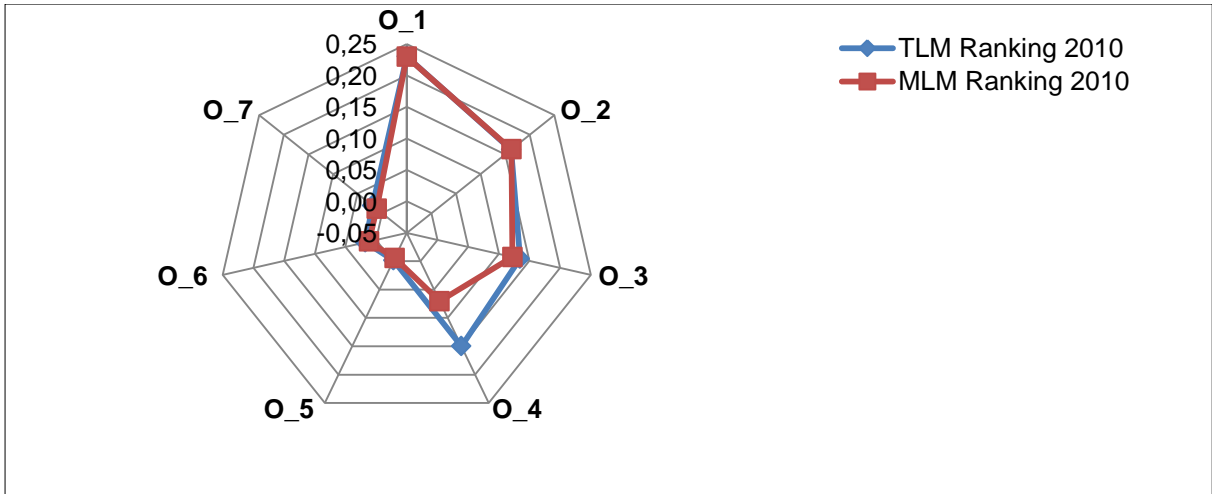


Figure 6.17: Performance levels 2010-2014

Source: Own Construction from annual reports of TLM and MLM (2010-2014).

For objective 1, in the year 2010 and 2012, both municipalities performed equally in promoting infrastructure development and service delivery. However in 2014, TLM outperformed MLM. For objective 2, the two municipalities managed to perform at par in providing human settlements in 2010 as well as in 2014. However, MLM faced some challenges in 2012 leading to better performance from TLM. For Objective 3, TLM outperformed MLM in both 2010 and 2014 on achieving higher scores which contribute to spatial transformation. Objective 4 which focus on public participation saw TLM perform better in 2010, but outperformed by MLM in 2012. There was equal performance in 2014 in achieving this objective. Objective 5 which deal with combating corruption saw the two municipalities performing equally in 2010 and 2014. However, in 2012, MLM was the best performing municipality. Objective 6 on poverty alleviation strategies saw the two municipalities performing equally on all the given time points. Lastly, objective 7 on tourism development also produced equal performances by the two municipalities for 2010-2014.

The two local municipalities vary in size. In as much as both local municipalities are in Category B. MLM has a larger area of jurisdiction compared to TLM which has only urban and rural. This brings out the issue that size does matter because it raises a question on whether performance is influenced by the size, that is, whether bigger municipalities can function as efficiently as small or relatively smaller municipalities. For instance, looking at South Africa's largest district municipality, Namakwa in Northern Cape, it is approximately as big as Greece. In comparison with American states, countries of the world suggest that vast districts or municipalities with vastly smaller budgets might be outperformed by smaller ones (Holborn and Moloï; 2012). This is a similar concept between TLM and MLM so that outranks the latter.

One other influencing factor for the differences can be the fact that for each municipality, focus is directed towards different areas as the level of services vary according to local preferences (Slack, 2006:101-102). This can be authenticated by the economic theory where goods and services are provided within a particular geographical area to residents who are willing to pay for them, thus outperformance of certain objectives confines to certain jurisdictions.

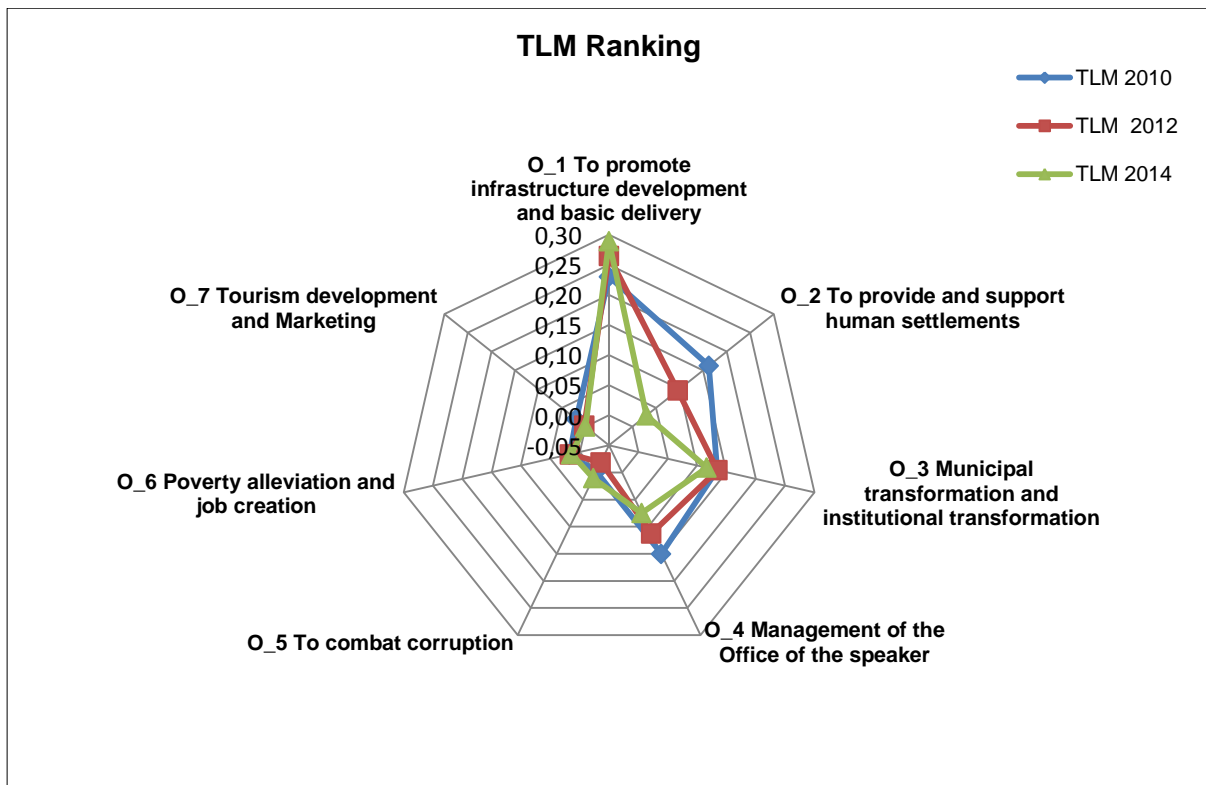


Figure 6.18: TLM performance from 2010-2014

Source: Own Construction from annual reports of TLM (2010-2014).

In 2010 TLM performed well with O_2. However, there has been a decline in O_2 from 2012 and 2014 unlike with O_3 where the municipality is rather constant on contributing to transformation. O_6 also calls for attention as it has been constant and shows poor performance together with tourism development. Of all the years the overall performance of TLM was in 2010. This means that the municipality is declining in providing services. This decline can be attributed to the dimensions mentioned earlier on during the internal analysis (see section 6.5). From the graph, it can be deduced that if the units continue to score in such a manner, then the local municipality is deteriorating. The rank units have been decreasing and it calls for immediate attention.

Furthermore, the future of the municipality can be predicted using the given units per year to deduce the performance for subsequent years if nothing changes in the implementation to achieve the goals. The forecast is bleak in TLM because of the huge decline of units. Municipalities need to come up with better strategies before they fail to achieve their mandates.

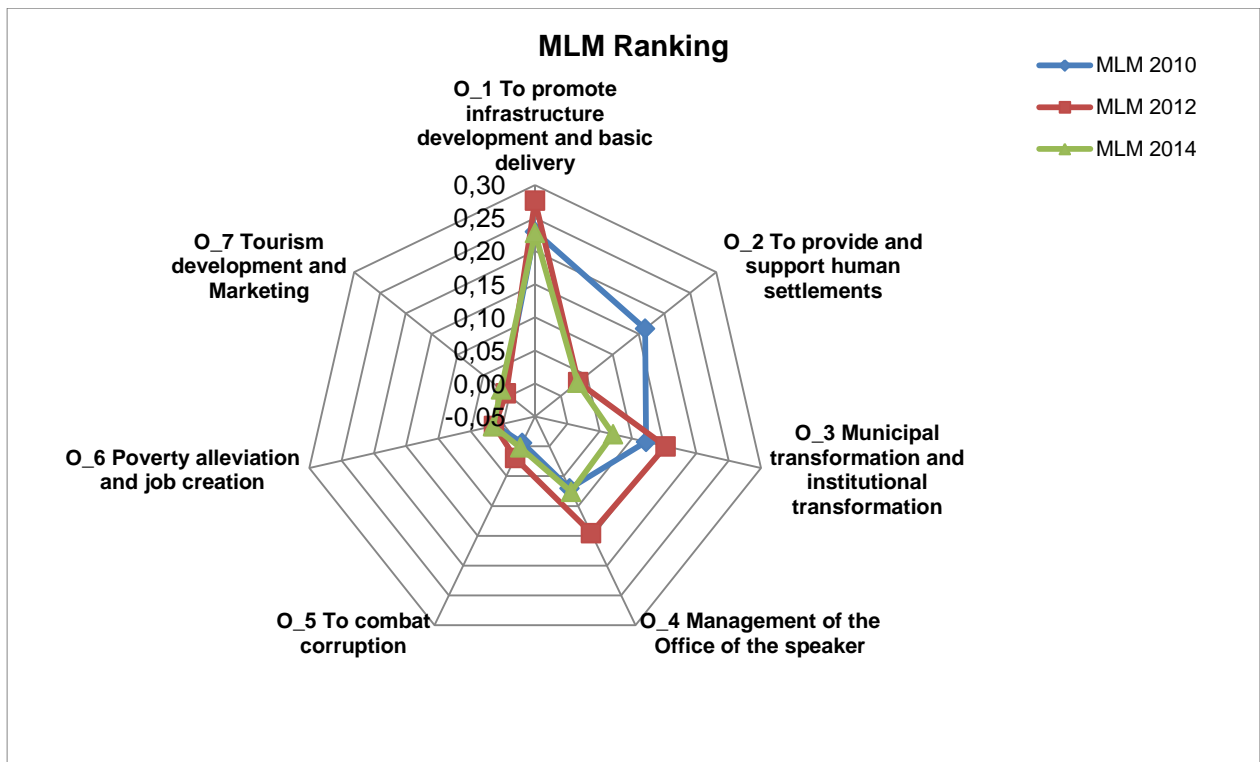


Figure 6.19: MLM performance from 2010-2012

Source: Own Construction from annual reports of MLM (2010-2014).

In 2012 MLM performed well with objective 1 and in 2010 objective 2 obtained more credit. The figure above shows that the municipality has only been constant with objectives 5, 6 and 7. Emphasis is much greater on objective 1-4 though progress is declining on each objective.

The table below shows the performance rankings of each municipality on each objective, per year. It can be concluded that on all the objectives, in 2010, TLM outperformed MLM, while in 2012, MLM outperformed TLM. In 2014, TLM outperformed MLM resulting in the ranking order shown below.

Table 6.13: Performance ranking order

	2010	2012	2014
Highest Ranking order	TLM	MLM	TLM

Source: Own Construction from annual reports of TLM and MLM (2010-2014).

The scoring matrix used the ranking order illustrating the issues at play in TLM. It gave an analysis of the performance of the municipality geotechnical and further compared it to an almost similar local municipality. From the matrix it can be deduced that TLM still needs to give attention to other objectives especially in alleviating poverty, corruption and strategies for

tourism development. Not much activity has been done and it is a grey area as illustrated. However, the overall performance of TLM is better than that of MLM. Nevertheless, TLM could perform better if it addresses the challenges highlighted by the research.

6.8 Conclusion

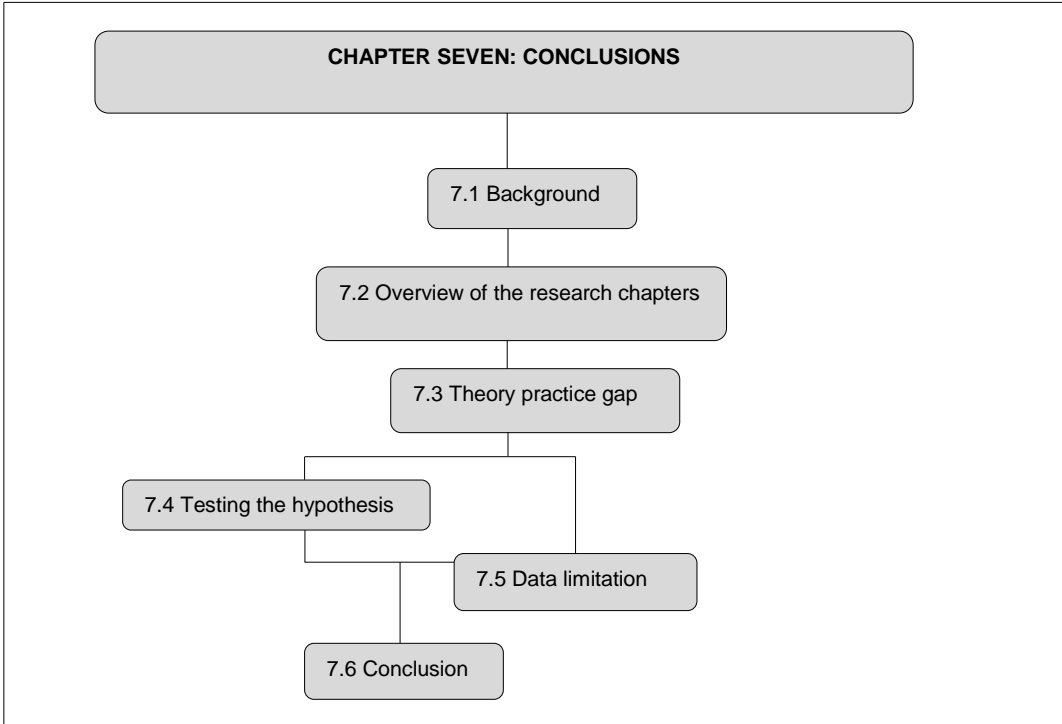
Based on the findings with regards to the assessment of TLM in achieving transformation, the chapter concludes that, in comparison to MLM, TLM has been performing better. However, a comparison with the reference to performance in years, TLM has been declining in terms of achieving spatial transformation objectives. This confirms the study observations that there has been poor service delivery.

Furthermore, the chapter provided an evaluation on the issue of integration and alignment of sectoral plans in the municipality. The chapter concludes that there are complex hierarchical relationships that are hindering development. Additionally, another contributing phenomenon is the lack of sufficient knowledge in addressing integration. Therefore the results have been manifested in poor service delivery.

In summary this chapter gave the results of the data obtained in the research and analysed each of the variables. The chapter gave a scientific analysis in order to rank performance of the municipality using the scorecard method. The next chapter will give the summary of the whole research. It will further highlight on the conclusions drawn for each concept laid out in the research. Focus will be directed to the assumptions of overriding ideas presented in analysing the IDP and its sectoral plans.

CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSIONS

The content of Chapter seven is graphically as follows:



7.1 Background

The government system which came into power after democracy saw the need to evenly distribute resources and provide a sustainable pattern of development. This led to the birth of the IDP which became the instrument for transformation to be used by local municipalities to address the injustices of the past through the support of other policies and legislation. However, the study propounds that 21 years after democracy the road to integration and transformation has deteriorated in terms of achieving quality service delivery and participatory planning. This has been shown by the increase in intensity of service delivery protests against local municipalities (see section 1.1). It has become evident that rendering services such as clean water, proper sanitation, electricity and health facilities has remained a major challenge for local municipalities. It is against this background that some conclusions have been drawn by the research).

7.2 Overview of research sections.

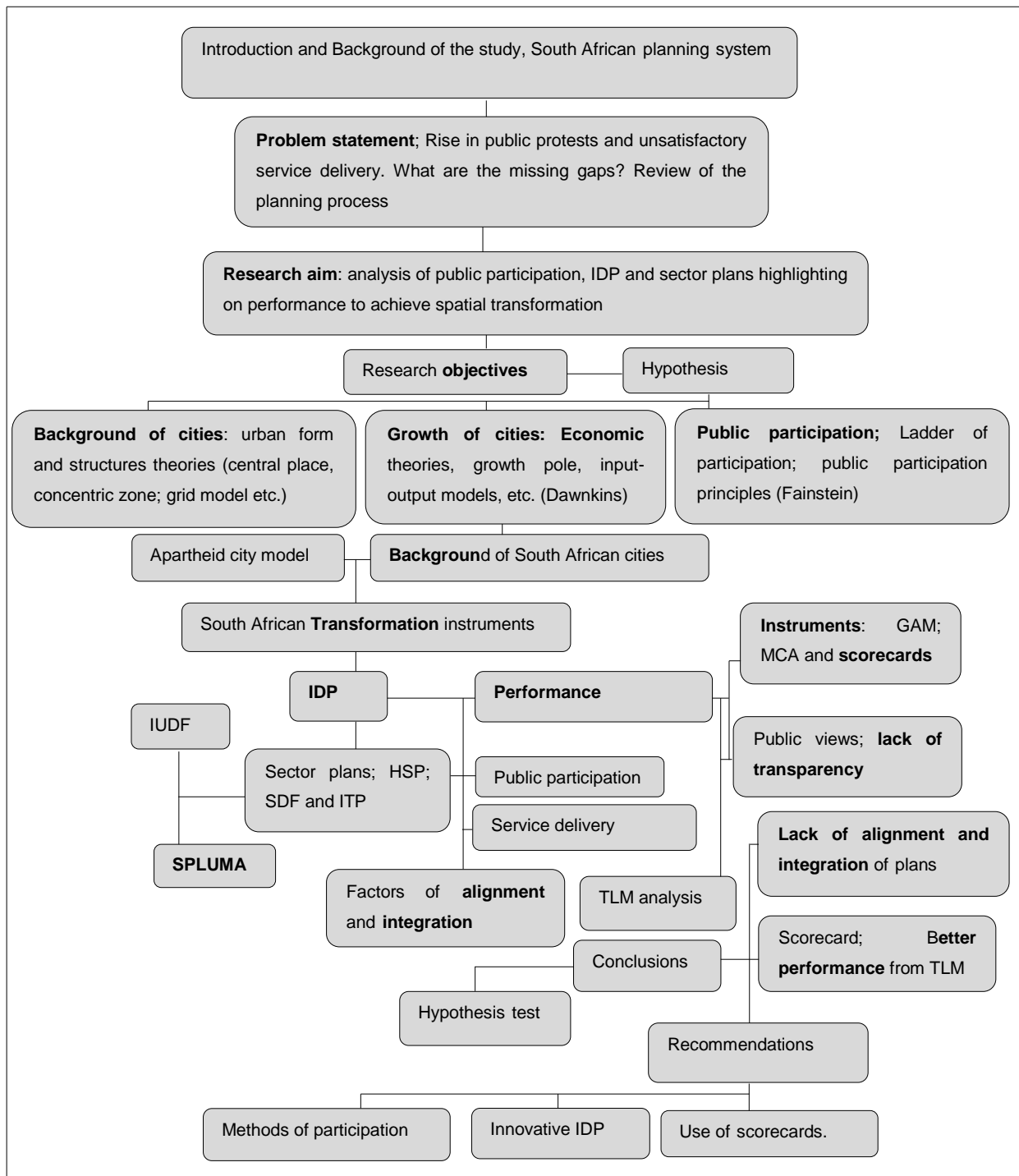


Figure 7.1: Research road map

Source: Own Construction (2015).

7.3 Alignment of theory and practice of critical issues of the study

In summary, the study's theoretical framework materialised as a background of the study to understand urban form and structure. It established the historical basis of different spatial dynamics in urban centres as propagated in section 2.2 and 2.3. The central theme realised is that urban centres and their spatial patterns have been influenced by past experiences. However, rendering to the case study under scope (TLM), it is the apartheid model (Figure 3.1)

which played a role and shaped the urban form. The detrimental effects of the model were that it left towns and cities spatially disintegrated as clearly shown by Table 3.1.

The study revealed that the IDP came into play as the strategic planning document to address the injustices of the past which were instigated by apartheid (section 3.3.1). Different policies, institutional and legal frameworks to guide and facilitate the IDPs were presented in the research. The major drive was to explicitly define the roles and responsibilities of each level of the government on the implementation of the IDP (section 4.6.1). In as much as a great deal of progress has been made to achieve the IDP goals and objectives of the legal frameworks by each government entity, practice has shown that little has been done to put them into action. This can be attributed to a failure by municipalities to fully align and integrate the plan during the implementation stages (section 6.5.1.1). Conclusions have been drawn for the critical issues identified in the study and they are given below;

7.3.1 Issue 1: The IDP as the strategic framework

The study deduced that theoretically, the IDP is the major and strategic instrument for local municipalities to achieve integration and transformation. One of the key concepts for the IDP and its sectoral plans is the ability for innovativeness. However, in practice, the study realised that there has not been much difference between the third generation IDP and the first round of IDP. Habitual IDPs have been created over the years due to the inadequate capacity to come up with strategic innovative ideas for the plan making and implementation processes of the plan.

Furthermore, plan making and implementation of the IDP and its sectoral plans requires officials with specialised knowledge on the concepts of the plan and the proper coordination. This is because sectoral plans do not have to exist in isolations, although this is currently the reality. The study ascribed to the understanding that, practically, the IDP itself has been difficult to adopt for officials because of lack of sufficient knowledge on concepts of alignment and integration. Consequently, local townships have been experiencing poor quality service delivery as depicted by Plate 6.1, and hence the failure of local municipalities to meet their obligations.

7.3.2 Issue 2: Integration and alignment of the IDP and its sectoral plan

One of the most important aspects brought out by the research is that the South African planning system is undertaken within the three spheres of the government. Theoretically, each sphere is mandated to come up with strategic plans which require coordination amongst all the arms of the government (section 4.6). However, one key constraint which has been noted is that, in practice, there are poor hierarchical relationships in existence thus inhibiting coordination among developmental goals, and support of development (section 6.5.1.1).

The study concludes that there is insufficient alignment of responsibilities amongst the three tiers of government. Integration across the levels of the government has to be absolute in order to reap benefits and achieve transformation.

The study also brought out the notion that integration in the IDP has to be realised within sectoral planning. Theoretically, sectoral planning is there to further develop and adapt to national, provincial and local based strategies and priorities. However, the study noted that in practice there is no clear coherence and strong coordination among the plans and the policy documents (section 6.5.1.2). The shared vision and focus is lost along the way and this is usually due to outdatedness, resulting in sectoral plans existing as single entities and in isolation.

7.3.3 Issue 3: Participatory planning concept in relation to the IDP

The study took steps to analyse public involvement in the IDP so as to meet the aim of the study presented in section 1.3. The study gave a theoretical base illustrating models and principles of public participation promulgating on the best ways of public engagements and the importance of full citizen control as shown in section 2.6 of the research. The cardinal approach which emanated from the analysis was the citizen participation ladder which underlined the importance of citizen power (Figure 2.7). The approach became the overriding theoretical concept because it emphasises on the rights, options and responsibilities of the public in participation, which is the integral part of the IDPs (section 3.6).

The empirical study emphasised on the gist of public participation, formal communication channels between the community and the municipal council, created and governed by legislation, policies and guidelines as subsequently shown in section 3.6. However, the study comprehended that, in practice, officials are finding it difficult to conduct meaningful public participation. This is because the participation strategy emanates from understanding the IDP and its entire cross cutting issues.

On the same note, the study gave an overview of the processes used in public participation as well as the supporting pieces of legislation. To find out more on public participation, questionnaires and semi structured interviews were used. An overpowering response came from the people highlighting their willingness to participate in developmental issues. It can be concluded that, the public are willing to participate, but the methods of participation being implemented are not viable to the people, resulting in ineffective public engagements.

Another challenge for participation as a concept of the IDP is the coordination with the other levels of the government. One of the important dimensions which ensure the successful implementation of the IDP is the active participation of all the role-players involved in issues of

development. This emanates from the fact that participation in the IDP is the key to decision making. It implies full engagements across all levels of the government (section 3.6.1). However, in practice there has been failure of full coordination amongst the three tiers of the government, as a result of poor communication channels that compromise the quality of municipal IDPs.

7.3.4 Issue 4: Scorecard method of analysis

The study purpose was also to assess the performance of TLM in terms of integration to achieve spatial transformation (section 1.4). The study conferred different performance measurement tools that are being implemented in municipalities in South Africa (section 5.4). However, the research emphasised on the scorecard as the performance measuring tool to be adopted, as it enables municipalities to rank performance with given targets (section 5.5.1). The analysis used output measures which were supported by an empirical perspective explained in section 5.2 of the research. The study managed to adopt the scorecard method in assessing the performance of TLM in terms of achieving its IDP goals. The study strategically selected IDP goals and objectives and produced an analysis of the performance of TLM (Table 6.12). The study concluded that the overall performance of TLM is better than that of MLM from 2010-2014. It can be concluded that the scorecard is one of the instruments which can be used by local municipalities to assess performance in order to rate achievements and progress.

Each objective managed to be achieved in different chapters of the research through interpretations and analyses identifying different challenges, evaluations and recommendations. The post-apartheid period saw the evolution of a new planning era using different policies and legislation as instruments to achieve goals and objectives of spatial planning.

7.4 Testing the hypothesis

The hypothesis set out in section 1.5 has been proven correct. The empirical study revealed that;

- The public is aware of the existence of vehicles of participation
- Majority of the people are not active in participating therefore unsatisfactory results revolve around issues of service delivery (section 6.5.3.1).
- Participation in the IDP preparation process is also minimal, thereby explaining the lack of integration and coordination of plans and ultimately ineffective service delivery (section 6.5.3.2)

7.5 Data limitations

The research made use of seven objectives obtained from the National Development Plan (2012) to come up with the scoring matrix in section 6.7.4. Only seven objectives were selected in order to limit the complexity of the research. Furthermore, the study came up with 26 indicators which were carefully chosen focusing on data availability. Some of the indicators were interpolated using the 1996 and 2011 values in the absence of recent statistics.

On another note, the study made use of a translator in administering questionnaires because of lack of knowledge on the native languages (Tswana and Afrikaans).

7.6 Conclusion

The chapter gave conclusions which have been construed from the research and have proven the hypothesis. The research exposed that there is an existing relationship between public participation and development which needs to be realised if plausible transformation is to be experienced.

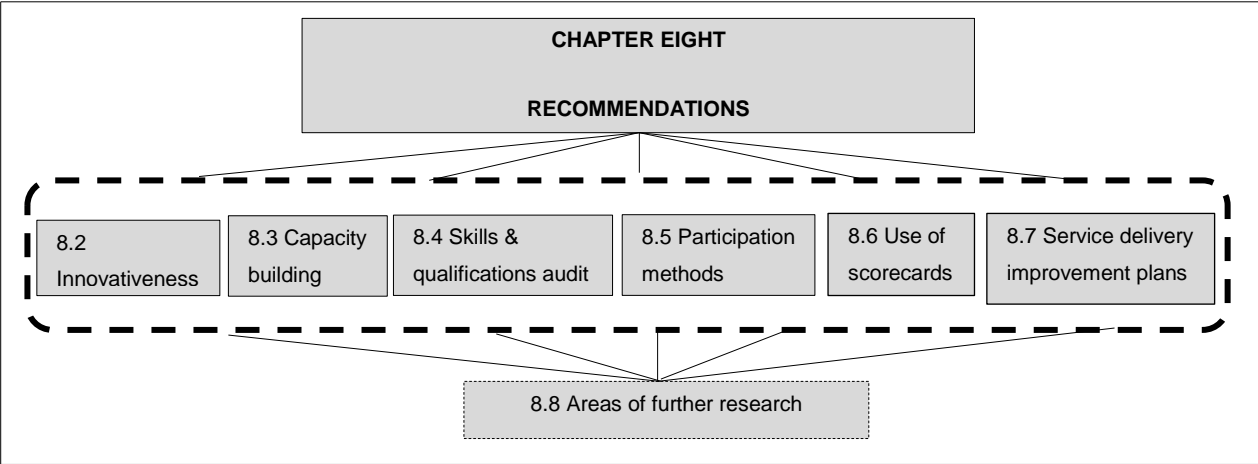
Furthermore, the study concludes that in order for municipalities to achieve their goals and objectives a bottom up approach at and across all levels is crucial, and so is the alignment and integration among the three spheres of the government.

Even more, the chapter establishes the IDP as the strategic instrument which requires municipal officials to fully embrace and understand opportunities which comes along with it in achieving development

Chapter eight provides the way forward for local municipalities in order to achieve the goals and objectives for spatial transformations.

CHAPTER EIGHT: RECOMMENDATIONS

The content of Chapter eight is graphically as follows;



8.1 Background

The findings of this research have been analysed, evaluated and conclusions drawn from the previous chapters. The study revealed the reality shaping IDPs in municipalities. Therefore, the major thrust of this chapter is to give recommendations on the major delimiting factors pointed out in the study, which are inhibiting achievements of spatial transformations.

8.2 Creation of innovative IDPs

The IDP as a strategic planning instrument has poorly achieved its aims and objectives due to numerous causes and effects central to issues on weak alignments and integration on the plan making and implementation stages as expounded in (section 6.5.1.1 and 6.5.1.2) of the study. The complexities and challenges have hindered spatial transformation from becoming a reality as evidenced by non-service delivery (Plate 6.1, Figure 6.13) and non-democracy as illustrated by (Figure 3.1, Table 3.1) thereby affecting negatively the development impact. It is against this background that the study recommends a relook at the IDP directing emphasis on the relationship which exists amongst the sectoral plans. Figure 8.1 below illustrates effective integration and alignment.

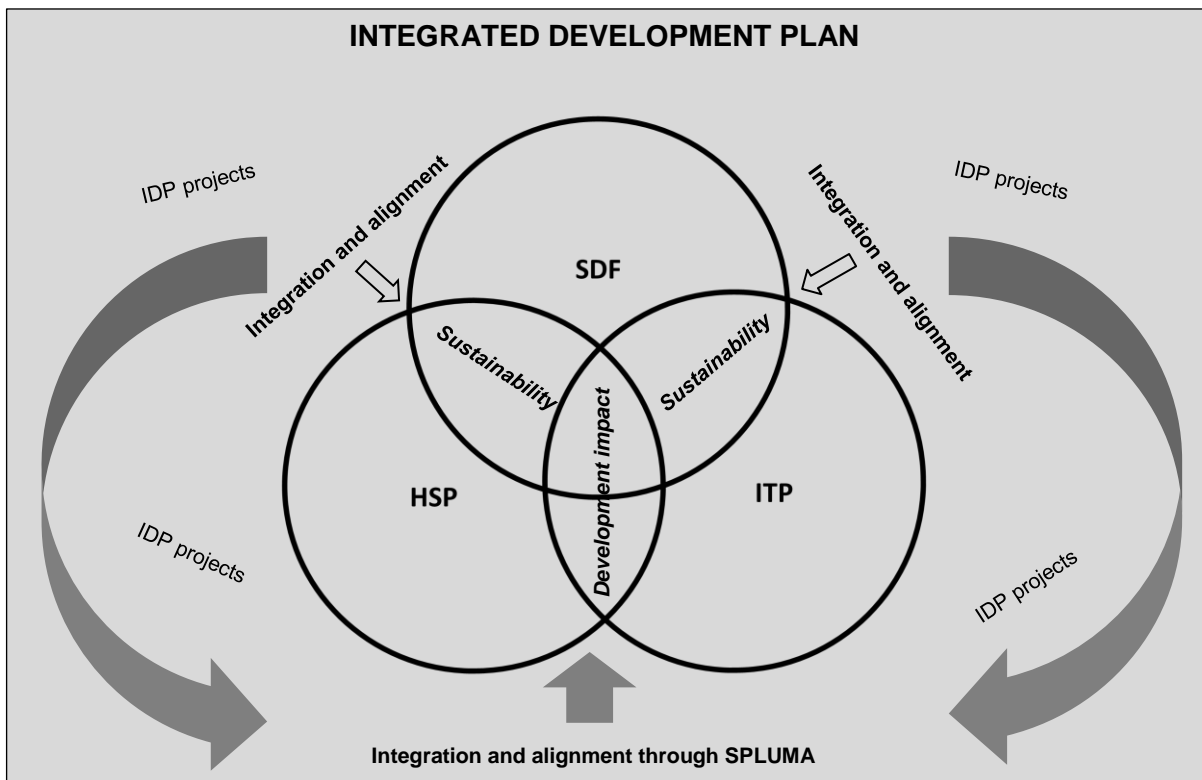


Figure 8.1: IDP integration model

Source: Own Construction (2015).

In order for local municipalities to address the challenges on alignment and integration the study recommends municipalities to fully utilise the opportunities presented by SPLUMA (2014). Chapter 2-6 of the Act, have to be interpreted from an integration perspective and this can be addressed through formal capacity building sessions with all role players. Effective integration and alignment leads to a positive development impact. It also further ensures sustainability among sector plans thereby promoting a win-win situation on each sectoral plan, and on development as well.

However for integration and alignment to be a reality, there is need for full human capacity within the disciplines of integration and alignment. The enhancement of alignment and integration will depend on the level of competence and standards applied in the curricula for education and training of the professionals functioning in this discipline. It is also dependent on the provision of adequate capacity in providing training of staff in terms of specialisation, which must become mandatory for training institutions. In other words, municipalities should be in a position to recruit qualified personnel with sufficient knowledge on integration and alignment of plans as well as specialised knowledge in planning entities. If not, municipalities should be fully prepared to engage in full thrust capacity building sessions to develop personnel who can plan and adopt the IDP. This will embolden innovativeness and endorse ownership in the development of the IDPs.

Furthermore, there is need to create a balance within the planning domain, among role players, to promote integration and alignment. This means that there is need to revisit development plans and assess varying roles and functions across political and institutional contexts and focus on the levels which need to promote integrated development. This will give rise to innovativeness in planning which are consistent with the requirements of modern planning.

Success stories of innovations have only been experienced in metropolitan cities. One example is the reformation of the IDP of the City of Cape Town which has expanded its efforts in rationalising complex and fragmented land uses through dropping some spatial concepts and coming up with spatial strategies for the sector plans to make spatial integration an urban reality. However, this can only be done by fully knowledgeable municipal officials as recommended earlier.

8.3 Continued training and capacity building sessions

National and provincial governments are constitutionally mandated to support and strengthen the capacity of municipalities. This means that there are mandated to have capacity building, and monitoring and evaluation sessions. The study concluded that though the performance monitoring and evaluation schemes have been done by other research entities and as consultancies, services in important departments illustrated capacity constraints in critical areas of the municipality, and this has been hampering service delivery.

Therefore the study recommends a revamp on building of existing capabilities and harnessing of potential opportunities which is a long term approach to building capacity. This can be done through continued training and capacity building sessions as noted earlier. There is a difference between capacity building and training session, in that training is an element of capacity building. Training focuses on providing skills while capacity building comes as a whole package designed to empower.

For this particular study, training and capacity building has to be done for three levers, that is, for the municipal officials, political officials as well as the community leaders. The framework below gives the process flow for capacity building.

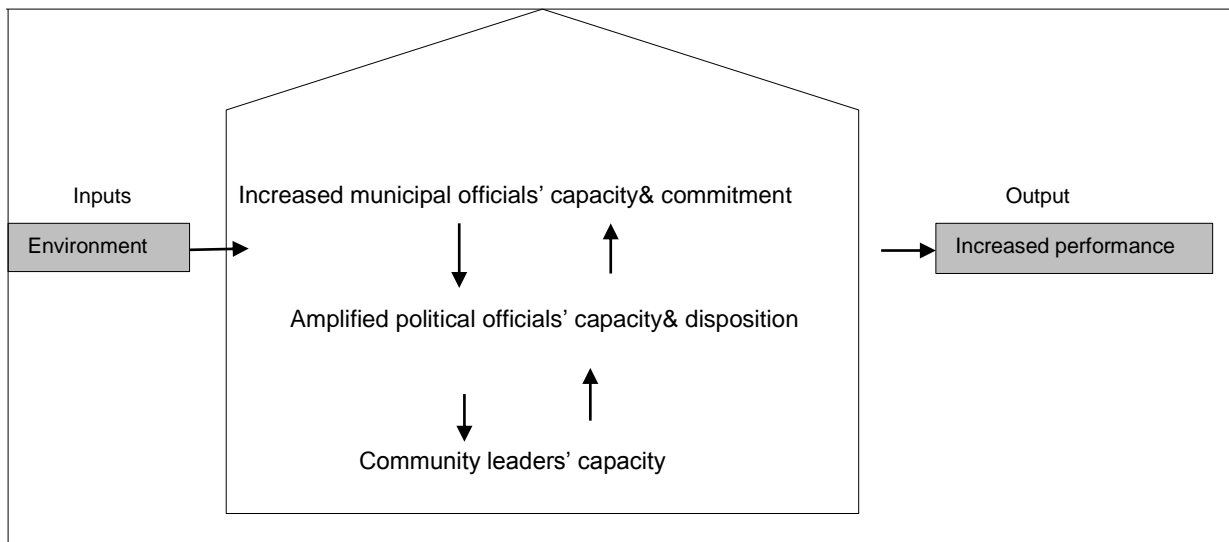


Figure 8.2: Framework levers on capacity building and sessions

Source: Own Construction (2015).

Municipal officials' lever

- Continuous training on critical areas to aid spatial transformations;
- Ensuring senior management has adequate experience;
- Continuous active involvement in skills development and training sessions;
- Consistent formal graduate recruitment scheme of top performers for the curricula on special entities of the municipality.

Political officials' lever

- Frequent workshop sessions for the political office bearers to get the pedagogy of critical issues;
- The need for deep understanding of roles and responsibilities.

Community leaders' lever

- Grasping of leadership skills;
- To enhance the promotion of effective participation on community leaders;
- Empower local leaders to address and promote local strengths.

Responsibilities;

One of the roles of community leaders is to ensure effective public participation. However, for community leaders to perform their duties at their best, training is necessary to enable them for

proper decision making and embrace leadership qualities so that their views are incorporated in future developments. Knowledge and skills are also a stepping stone for providing innovative ways to effectively address issues affecting the community. Therefore there is need for perpetual training of the community leaders to ensure an increase in emancipation of leadership qualities as well as the drive to encourage community participation.

Continuous training is also necessary for municipal officials because it will equip the group with proper and sufficient skills in dealing with specialised areas of development planning. Nevertheless, councillors also need to be equipped with necessary workshops and training sessions in order to understand the major issues that are addressed by the municipality as well as how to incorporate the public in the development exercises. The political dimension is also a crucial aspect, in order to ensure political willingness in participation at the workshops. This can be revealed by ensuring attendance.

For capacity building to be effective and responsive, the focus should not only be at local municipality level, but should also include strengthening capacities of all actors of the government across the three spheres of the government. This is holistic capacity building approach, which would mean training of all institutional teams to empower the whole institutional interface on roles and responsibilities and how well coordination can be achieved in order to attain the set goals and objectives.

8.4 Frequent skills and qualifications audit

The research revealed that local municipalities suffer from insufficient skills to perform some duties and responsibilities especially in specialised disciplines, hence the appointment of consultants. Therefore, the study recommends that municipalities conduct full enhancement on the standards applied in recruiting personnel. Municipalities need to augment competent personnel with proficient expertise on IDPs so as to achieve opportunities in the plan.

Furthermore, the study recommends frequent skills and qualifications audits. This is a clean way towards achieving a competent administration group. The major aim to conduct a skills and qualifications audit is to assess the capacity that exists within local government. The results obtained can be used to channel capacity building intervention so as to address competency gaps.

Qualification audits are of paramount importance especially for complex disciplines of the municipality as noted earlier to ensure that officials have job-related qualifications. Some qualifications can be irrelevant or insufficient for the job specifications, which is a detrimental factor especially for specialised planning entities. Therefore, there is need to put emphasis on

issues of competency frameworks to be instigated as institutional obligations so as to guard against employment of consultancy at all times.

8.5 Launching alternative public participation methods

According to the research findings, community participation is insufficient and it can be attributed to poor public participation structures which have become the stumbling block for public ownership of the IDP and empowerment of the general citizenry. In as much as vehicles for participation have been structured, the research findings suggest that ward committees and IDP representatives forums are not functioning effectively, and the aftermath has been poor service delivery. Therefore, the study recommends a revisit of the IDP public participation lever and to make assessments on the best possible methods for public engagements, as well as to deduce the best possible levers that will integrate citizens' needs.

On the other hand, municipalities should come up with new approaches for public participation. The research revealed that a number of people are willing to participate in developmental issues, but when analysing the situation, it can be deduced that the one size fits all approach is not conducive for every member of the community. In such a scenario, it means that there is need for a well-designed approach encompassing different participatory processes which include community based planning, area assemblies, online polls, radio and television talk shows, citizen juries and surveys, thereby providing a wide base of platforms for public participation. This is because poor communities require intense support and engagements while wealthier towns are better resourced and require a different type of engagement.

The study also revealed that functions of the ward committees are misinterpreted by communities, so that they are viewed as agents of service delivery or the managers of development projects and funds. However, the primary function of ward committees is communication. For these ward committees to act as effective communication channels a strong system of representation is necessary.

Furthermore municipalities should act upon the inputs brought in by the different wards. The continual discrediting of the inputs of the communities through their ward committees will create the perception within the community that government structures are inefficient. Therefore, it should be well cleared out during communication processes that the local council is unable to meet these demands and give the clearly stipulated reasons for denying.

8.6 Use of scorecard analysis in sectoral departments as performance frameworks for service delivery

The study has revealed that numerous scientific methods can be adopted in municipalities to assess performances in achieving the goals and objectives of spatial transformation. However, for the purposes of the study, the scorecard was used as a yardstick to rank performance of selected transformation objectives. The results gave the position that TLM has reached in achieving its goals. The scorecard system is highly recommendable to ensure service delivery. For instance, if such a yardstick has to be implemented in sectoral departments, it will help to take note of the departments that are lagging behind in terms of service delivery.

At sectoral levels it will assist in weighing the objectives that require attention as well as the overall performance on each objective. This should be made a priority by local municipalities for measuring growth. There are municipalities that have adopted these instruments already. Yet, there is need to embrace performance measures fully and ensure that local municipalities and the officials are in a position to adopt them at any level of the government and department. This will boost the level of commitment rather than making the system an obligation without ownership.

8.7 Instituting service delivery improvement plans

The study revealed that in as much as the White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery (1995), the Batho Pele principles, are in place and emphasise on delivering quality services, most departments are still struggling to deliver the mandates of the policies. Most municipalities are struggling to provide the basics of service delivery and fail to map out the areas that are without efficient service delivery. Therefore, the study recommends the adoption of a service delivery performance document which has a section on improvement concepts. The plan will clearly illustrate the standards of services that the community can expect and shows the consistency of services per ward, as a transparent mechanism to the community. It can be noted that the quality of service delivery has never plausibly improved in as much as there have been increases in budget allocations. Hence, the study encourages local municipalities to come up with service delivery standards and improvements plans so that local municipalities are not stagnant in terms of service delivery.

However, it is the duty of local authorities to meet the local standards as provided by, for instance, the CSIR guidelines and standards for local communities. Nevertheless, the major problem for municipalities is the enforcement of the standards and guidelines. There is also need to ensure that there is enforcement through adhering to a comprehensive performance

measuring system, which will identify the weaknesses within which the services are being provided.

Local municipalities have an obligation to provide services to communities under their jurisdiction. However, previous studies have shown that service provision is improved when it is privatised. The municipality can choose to provide the services themselves or appoint an external service provider, the latter being the best option if challenges persist.

8.8 Areas of further research

The recommendations which have been given in this chapter are applicable practically in improving the current spatial planning system and assist in the integration of plans and objectives. The study provides an opportunity to further explore a comparative study between a metropolitan and a local municipality with a focus on strategic innovative ideas on the plan making process of IDPs and its sectoral plans through concepts of sustainable development.

The study also gives an opportunity to analyse concepts of integration and alignment using sustainability as the yardstick for development impact. This study provided a hint on possible approaches of integrations thereby paving way for further investigations on analysing different fields of integration dimensions that address spatial disparities in South Africa.

More importantly, the study built a basis to further investigate on reinvention methods for the effective implementation of the IDP. This deduction came after the realisation that the IDP is a comprehensive plan that can answer to all planning challenges. However, there are missing links in its implementation, which has resulted in poor service delivery. Therefore, there is need to further explore the best methods which could make the IDP aims and objectives realised.

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ANNEXURES



NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
YUNIBESITHI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA
NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT

DISCUSSION FRAMEWORK

Urban and Regional Planning Student: Tendai Dzingai

Student number: 25654578

Contact Details: +276156577367 **Email:** dzingaitanda@gmail.com

Supervisor: Prof. C. B Schoeman

Title of research: Integrated Development Plans and its Sectoral Plans in the optimisation of participatory and Integrated Spatial Planning as transformation tools: A Case of Tlokwe Local Municipality.

Date of interview:

Place of interview:

Themes of the discussion:

- (1) Spatial planning focusing on the SDF
- (2) Community participation
- (3) Housing sector plans
- (4) Integrated transport planning
- (5) Integrated development planning
- (6) Performance management

Specific questions

- What are the challenges experienced in coming up with each component above?

- What is the impact and relevance of each component?
- How is each component above perceived by different role players?
- How conducive enough is the operational environment for each component stated above?
- What are the strengths and weaknesses of each component?
- How efficient and effective has been each component above in addressing transformations in Tlokwe over the past decade?
- What lessons have you learnt from the above components
- What do suggest for each component to achieve transformations?
- Do you have any general comment regarding any above mentioned themes?

The emphasis of the above questions will vary depending on the specific interests of the interviewees, problems and focus areas.

The following categories and key role players were interviewed

A. Councillors selected for sessions

A1 Mr P.I. Motlabane

A2 Mr Maduna

Officials from TLM

B1 Mr Dolos (IDP Manager)

B2 Ms D. Loate (Housing)

B3 Mr L. Mohlomi (Housing manager)

B4 Mr E.Modiakgotla

B. Planning Consultants involved with Tlokwe in housing processes, transport planning and spatial planning in general

C1Ms Booysen (Maxim Planning Solutions)

C2 Mr A.S Potgeter (Ages private limited)

C. Academics

D1 Prof C. B. Schoeman (Professor, North West University, Consultant to Tlokwe Local Municipality)

D2 Mr Moroke (PHD Candidate, North West University)

D3 Prof Ilse Schoeman



NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
YUNIBESITI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA
NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT

POTCHEFSTROOM CAMPUS

POTCHEFSTROOM HOUSEHOLD QUESTIONNAIRE

Urban & Regional Planning Student: Tendai Dzingai

Student number: 25654578

Title of research: Integrated Development Plans and its Sectoral Plans in the optimisation of participatory and Integrated Spatial Planning as transformation tools: A Case of Tlokwe Local Municipality.

Date of interview:

Place of interview:

Tick the applicable

Demographic questions

1. Location													
2. Sex of respondent	Female			1			Male			2			
3. Age of respondent	1	<20yrs	2	21-30yrs	3	31-40yrs	4	41-50yrs	5	51-60yrs	6	>60	
4. Race of respondent	1	African	2	Coloured	3	Asian	4	White	5	Other (specify):			
5. Qualification level	1	None	2	Standard	3	College	4	Matric	5	University			
	6	Other (specify):											
6. Employment status	1	Permanent			2	Temporary			3	Unemployed		4	Student
7. Household position	1	Father	2	Mother	3	Son	4	Daughter	5	Grandchild	6	Worker	
	7	Other (Specify):											

B. Planning questions

-5yrs	1
6-10yrs	2
11-15yrs	3

8. How many years have you been staying in Potchefstroom?

16-20yrs	4
+20yrs	5

9. Do you have any knowledge pertaining to Ward Councillors?

Yes	1
No	2

10. Who is your Ward Councillor?

11. What are the roles of a Ward Councillor?

12. Are you aware of any developments/projects which are being or have been carried out in your area?

YES	1
NO	2

13. If yes how did you get to know the information?

Newspapers	1
Ward meetings	2
Informal communication systems	3
Internet	4
Other	5

14. Have you ever communicated with a representative of your municipality about planning or developmental issues

YES	1
NO	2

15. If yes which representative did you communicate with?

Municipal officers	1
Councillors	2
Community workers	3
Other	4

16. Are you satisfied with the way the council addresses services delivery issues?

YES	1
NO	2

17. Give reasons for your answer.

YES	1
NO	2

18. Are there any activities that you do or have been done in your community which you are aware of?

19. If yes which ones are these?

20. Have ever encountered members from the council who visited your community to get some information or feedback on plans/projects /service delivery from you?

YES	1
NO	2

21. Do you feel that you have contributed in any way at any form of development held by the municipality?

YES	1
NO	2

22. Are you a member of any organization in your community?

YES	1
NO	2

23. If yes which one?

24. Have you ever obtained a grant for development?

YES	1
NO	2

25. If yes how much was it?

26. Did this grant assist you in anyway?

YES	1
NO	2

27. If yes how?

28. Would you want to participate in bringing in coming up with developmental projects in your community?

YES	1
NO	2

29. If yes, how would you want to participate?

30. Which mode of transport do you normally use?

Taxi	1
Bus	2
Train	3
Car	4
Motorbike	5
Bicycle	6

31. How often do you travel on?

Transport Mode	Often [1]	Sometimes [2]	Seldom [3]	Never [4]
a) Foot				
b) Taxi				
c) Bus				
d) car				
e) train				

32. What are the major forms of recreation available for your community?

33. Where do recreational activities occur in your community?

Place	Yes [1]	No [2]
a) Streets		
b) Open Spaces		
c) Paths		
d) Other (specify)		

34. Are there any missing services which are provided by the council your community which you like?

YES	1
NO	2

35. Which ones?

Priority 1

Priority 2

38. Do you feel unsafe in at any place in your community?

YES	1
NO	2

39. If yes, state the place that feels unsafe

40. What are the improvements you suggest for your community now or in the future?

41. The following assessment questions which can be answered with outstanding, very good, poor or no idea depending on your views or personal experiences on the issue

Element	Outstanding	Very good	Good	Poor	No idea
a) Interaction with Ward Councillors or leaders					
b) Community projects initiated by the people					
c) Discrimination in community presentations					
d) Interaction with any member from the council					
e) Cooperation of municipal members with the people					
f) Availability of information on municipal issues					
g) Effectiveness of the council in resolving grievances					
h) Platforms for public participation					
i) Service provision in community					
j) Housing provision process					
k) Housing costs					

l) Housing type					
m) Transport provision					
n) Transport cost					
o) Transport efficiency					
p) Availability of social facilities					
q) Safety of community					
s) Transparency on provision of services					

42. Do you have any comment pertaining to these questions?

YES	1
NO	2

43. If yes, briefly comment or give a hint on areas for further discussion

*******THANK YOU*******