

The long-term viability of Elim mall as a growth point in Makhado Municipality

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PREFACE

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ABSTRACT

Spatial fragmentation is a deeply entrenched feature of the south African space economy. Little progress has been made in reversing this after more than 25 years of enlightened, post-apartheid, spatial planning. A key element of regional development is the location of economic activities (Glasson & Marshall, 2007:4). In many countries across the world, growth centre strategies have been adopted in an attempt to reduce regional inequalities. These have had varying degrees of success and there are many examples of failure. One crucial measure of success is the degree to which the local and regional space economy is becoming more or less well integrated as a result of a development or planning intervention.

The purpose of this research is to investigate the extent to which a node, Elim, in South Africa's Limpopo province, has and could in the future, contribute towards greater integration of the space economy and thereby make some progress in addressing spatial fragmentation. The methods used in this research followed a quantitative approach. A sample of 390 participants was used. The research concluded that shopping centre nodes like the Elim node are capable of transforming the spatial economy and structure of localities and eventually transform the spatial fragmentation that exist in South African settlements.

Key words: shopping centre; nodes; growth poles; spatial fragmentation; shopping centre nodes; spatial planning

OPSOMMING

Ruimtelike fragmentasie is 'n diep verskans funksie van die ruimte ekonomie Suid-Afrika. Min vordering gemaak is in hierdie omkeer na meer as 25 jaar van verligte, post-apartheid, ruimtelike beplanning. 'N Belangrike element van streeksontwikkeling is die plek van ekonomiese aktiwiteite (Glasson & Marshall, 2007: 4). In baie lande regoor die wêreld, het groei sentrum strategieë in 'n poging om plaaslike ongelykhede te verminder aanvaar. Hierdie het wisselende grade van sukses gehad en daar is baie voorbeelde van mislukking. 'N belangrike maatstaf van sukses is die mate waarin die plaaslike en streeks ruimte ekonomie is besig om meer of minder goed geïntegreer as 'n gevolg van 'n ontwikkeling of beplanning intervensie.

Die doel van hierdie navorsing is om ondersoek in te te die mate waarin 'n knoop, Elim, in Suid-Afrika se Limpopo-provinsie, het en kon in die toekoms, dra by tot 'n groter integrasie van die ruimtelike ekonomie en sodoende 'n paar vordering in die aanspreek van ruimtelike fragmentasie maak. Die gebruik van hierdie navorsingsmetodes volg 'n kwantitatiewe benadering en 'n monster van 380 deelnemers is gebruik. Die navorsing tot die gevolgtrekking gekom dat winkelsentrum nodes soos die Elim node in staat is om die transformasie van die ruimtelike ekonomie en struktuur van hul plaaslike gebied, en uiteindelik die transformasie van die ruimtelike fragmentasie wat bestaan in Suid-Afrikaanse nedersettings.

Sleutel woorde: winkelsentrum; nodusse; groei paal; ruimtelike fragmentering; winkelsentrum nodusse; ruimtelike beplanning

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

BLM	Ba-Phalaborwa Local Municipality
CBD	Central Business District
CBRE	Coldwell Banker Richard Ellis
CPT	Central Place Theory
DGP	District Growth Point
DSDF	District Spatial Development Framework
EIA	Environmental Impact Assessment
GDP	Growth Development Product
GLA	Gross Leasable Area
ICSC	International Council of Shopping Centers
IDP	Integrated Development Plans
ITP	Integrated Transport Plan
IUDF	Integrated Urban Development Framework
IVBN	Investors in Real Estate, the Netherlands
LSDF	Limpopo Spatial Development Framework
LED	Local Economic Development
LSM	Living Standard Measurement
LUM	Land Use Management
LUMS	Land Use Management System
MDM	Mopani District Municipality
MGP	Municipal Growth Point
MLM	Makhado Local Municipality
MSA	Municipal Systems Act
MSDF	Municipal Spatial Development Framework
MTSF	Medium Term Strategic Framework
NDP	National Development Plan
NEMA	National Environmental Management Act

NSDP	National Spatial Development Perspective
PGP	Provincial Growth Point
PSDF	Provincial Spatial Development Framework
SDF	Spatial Development Frameworks
SMME	Small Medium and Macro Enterprises
SPLUMA	Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act
UDF	Urban Development Framework
UK	United Kingdom
USA	United States of America
VDM	Vhembe District Municipality

LIST OF DEFINITIONS OF KEY WORDS

Former homeland	an area that, “contain(s) a rural-urban continuum, including formal ‘dormitory townships’ or ‘dense rural settlements’ (but without any economically functional core) small towns, agricultural villages, and small farms” (Atkinson, 2014:5).
Growth poles	“points of economic growth and centres of economic activity that benefit from agglomeration economies, and through their interaction with surrounding areas spread prosperity from the core to the periphery” (World Bank, 2010:37).
Node	an area with dominant activities that are functionally linked to other activities, which can benefit or detract from the existence of other activities in the area. (Glasson, 1985:144).
Shopping centre	“a group of retail and other commercial establishments that is planned, developed, owned and managed as a single property, typically with on-site parking provided. typically with on-site parking provided” (ICSC,1999:1).
Shopping centre node	an economic node with economic growth that is propelled by shopping centres.
Spatial economy	the spatial manifestation of economic development (Fair, 1982:8).
Spatial fragmentation	a negatively interpreted spatial heterogeneity of spaces, landscapes and land use systems (Verbeek & Tempels, 2016:2).
Spatial planning	a process used by the “public sector to influence the future distribution of activities in space” (Glasson & Marshall, 2007:4).
Spatial transformation	transfiguring the spatial economy and spatial structure of settlements with an aim of counteracting undesirable spatial fragmentation.
Township	“racially homogeneous area, located on the outskirts of the city, devoted to residence only, poorly equipped, isolated from the rest of the agglomeration by buffer zones, industrial areas and transport infrastructures that constituted physical barriers” (Dupont & Houssay-Holzschue, 2005:287).

**Urban and territorial
planning**

“decision-making process aimed at realizing economic, social, cultural and environmental goals through the development of spatial visions, strategies and plans and the application of a set of policy principles, tools, institutional and participatory mechanisms and regulatory procedures.” (UN-Habitat, 2015:2).

Viability

the continuing ability of the city or district centre to attract investments that can be used for improvement, maintenance and adaptation to the residents’ changing needs (Roger Tym & Partners, 2009:v).

Vitality

describes how busy the city or district centre is at different times and in various locations (Dolega & Celinska-Janowicz, 2015:16).

CHAPTER 1: RESEARCH ORIENTATION

1.1. Introduction

This chapter introduces the subject of this thesis and presents an overview of the entire document by presenting the structure of the document by outlining the introducing the framework of each chapter. The first section provides the structure of the first chapter with an aim of highlighting how the subject of this document is introduced. Section 2 presents the background of the study, which provides a brief contextual analysis of the study. Section 3 defines the source of the problem of the study and the variables and ideas inherent to the problem. In this section variables are concepts that can be described in measurable terms, which take different quantitative values (Kothari, 2004:33-34). Furthermore, section 3 identifies an area that helps to address the existing problem, explain how the theoretical framework is linked to the problem, and provides an external overview of the problem.

Section 4 delineates the research questions, informed by the research problem in section 3, followed by aim and objectives in section 5. The motivation and significance of the study are outlined in section 6, and the research methodology, which provides amongst other things the research design and methods is summarised in section 7. The last section of this chapter outlines the entire structure of the thesis as a form of conclusion. Figure 1-1 below summarises the content of this chapter and in this way provides the general orientation of this research document.

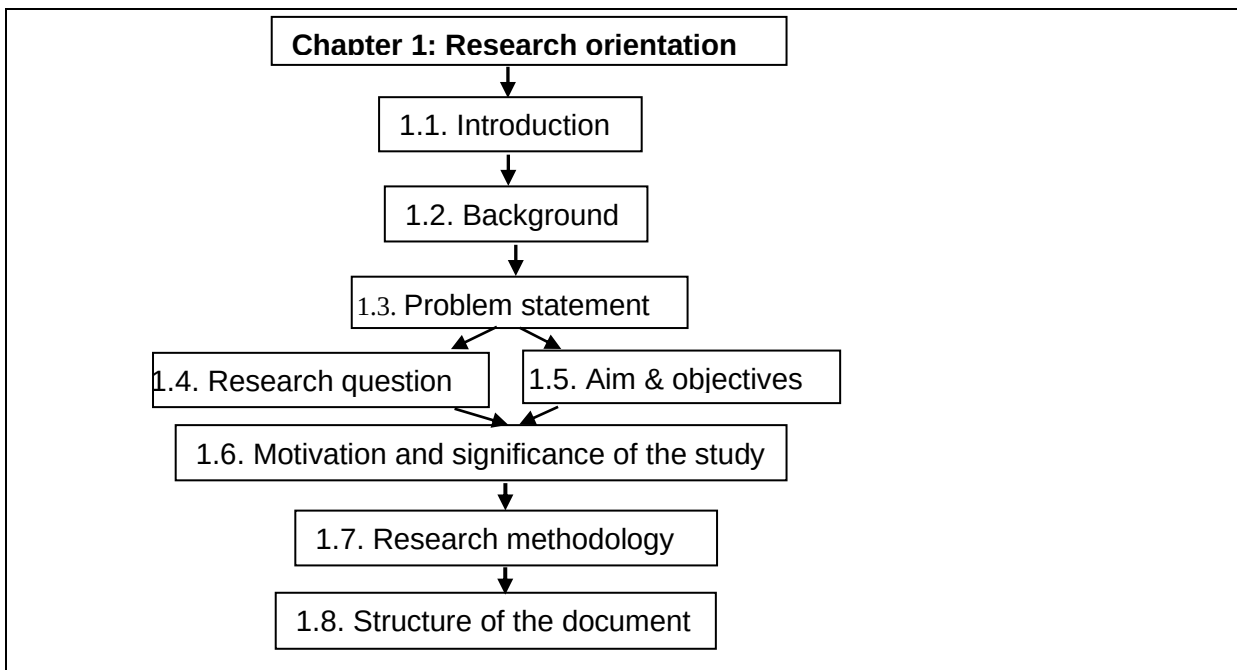


Figure 1-1: Chapter 1 structure

Source: Own construction (2018)

1.2. Study background

The broad subject of this thesis revolves around regional planning from a neighbourhood scale to regional level in the previously disadvantaged urban and rural areas of South Africa. It addresses the issue of how the spatial fragmentation in the country can be addressed using the shopping centre nodes as a tool. According to Healey (2007:22) the type of planning concerned with the interrelation between fixity and mobility has different names. In South Africa, it is referred to as urban and regional planning or town planning. The United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-Habitat) (2015:2) refers to it as urban and territorial planning and defines it as a,

“decision-making process aimed at realizing economic, social, cultural and environmental goals through the development of spatial visions, strategies and plans and the application of a set of policy principles, tools, institutional and participatory mechanisms and regulatory procedures.”

Urban and rural areas do not have an internationally agreeable definition. They are defined at country level, and in South Africa urban areas are, “characterised by large communities living at high residential densities, a variety of employment opportunities, and high-intensity business and commercial areas” (Department of Rural Development and Land Reform & Department of Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation, 2018:18). Rural areas are outside cities and towns and normally have economic activities that are based on natural resource. Residents benefit from these resources in a socio-economical manner (Department of Rural Development and Land Reform & Department of Performance Monitoring and Evaluation, 2018:16). The process of urban planning is aimed at directing the development of regions with a prepared goal playing a key role in this type of planning, which is also referred to as regional planning (Hall & Tewdwr-Jones, 1975:3).

At this level, planning produces regional plans at a level lower than the national scale to encourage economic development. At regional level planning is achieved by nurturing regional economies of scale and agglomeration, boosting productivity and wealth, reinforcing the connection between the urban and rural areas, acclimatisation to climate change and environmental impacts, urban resilience and sustainable development, dealing with socio-spatial inequalities and promoting regional integration and balance in developing and declining regions (UN-Habitat, 2015:2). Urban resilience in this context is referred to as, “a degree to which cities/regions are able to tolerate alternation before re-organizing around new set of structures and processes” (Drobniak, 2017:113).

Urban and regional planning is an influential process used in reshaping the forms and functions of cities and regions with an aim of delivering, “endogenous economic growth, prosperity and employment, while addressing the needs of the most vulnerable, marginalized or underserved groups” (UN-Habitat, 2015:2)

because of its intrinsic and central economic function. At international or supranational level, urban and regional planning allows for the production and implementation of multinational, regional strategies that are useful in guiding investments utilised in addressing global issues such as climate change and energy efficiency, resilience issues, integrated growth and development of urban areas beyond the borders of regions and sustainable development, which is, “development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” (World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED), 1987:45).

At national scale, planning involves the development of national plans that, amongst other strategies, take advantage of natural and planned economic poles and massive infrastructure to construct, sustain, organise and balance the cities and related settlements system, including urban corridors and nodes to realise their economic capacity. In this way, national plans demonstrate that constructive decisions were made. Corridors are, “integrated linear networks of infrastructure and economic activity ... which often include a human settlement and/or economic activity component”, while nodes are, “concentrations and clusters of activities of varying intensity and can be either mixed-use or mono-functional” (Department of Rural Development and Land Reform & Department of Performance Monitoring and Evaluation, 2018:15). Nodes are also perceived as poles or centres where change and growth start and later spread to the wider area.

In the South African context, the positive decisions taken in national planning should eliminate poverty and reduce inequality (National planning Commission, 2012:25) yet up to thus far, the implementation of plans based on such decision have not yielded positive results or the progress is very slow. At metropolitan and municipal level, development strategies and integrated development plans should focus on investment decisions and promote cooperation and interactions between individual urban areas and should focus further than the neighbourhood scale (Wang & vom Hofe, 2007:2). Land use plans at metropolitan and municipal level should promote the protection of environmentally sensitive areas such as swamps and the regulation of land markets. The strategies and plans should encourage the development and implementation of the integration of spatial, transportation and environmental plans in order to achieve integrated economic, social and community development.

There are challenges in the implementation of municipal land use plans in South Africa, because integrated economic, social, community development, and the general spatial integration in municipalities and the whole country is questionable. At neighbourhood scale, the planning process empowers communities to deal with proper service delivery like establishing community renewal projects, pedestrian friendly environments, mixed-use land developments, and creating an enabling environment for businesses. Public spaces and street network development plans and layouts enhance the quality of the urban area, social cohesion and inclusion, and local resources protection. In order to involve communities in managing open spaces, participatory planning and budgeting is crucial so that such public spaces and services can play

a role in better spatial integration and connectivity, human safety and resilience, local democracy, and social responsibility (Wang & vom Hofe, 2007:1).

In addition, many countries have an interest in the way geographical space can be organised to improve national economic growth rates and to ensure that the greatest number of the population benefits from economic growth. No society can be prosperous and content, if the greater portion of the population is poor and despondent. Organising the geographical space to improve national economic growth rates and to ensure that majority of people benefits from the economic growth make the economic growth of regions valuable because it is capable of improving or impeding national growth and development (Lloyd & Dicken, 1972:262).

Planning the distribution of investment in space in the economy and in the economic sector increases the national economic rates, hence there is a great need for spatial planning in previously colonial nations where spatial structures continue to promote the colonial economic system. Spatial planning is a process used by the “public sector to influence the future distribution of activities in space” (Glasson & Marshall, 2007:4). The structures of these countries are not oriented towards rapid economic growth and nation building, which results in the majority of the people in these previously colonial nations not benefiting from their countries’ economic growth. South Africa is one of the previously colonised countries, which is liberating itself from the spatial structure that continues to endorse the colonial and apartheid economic spatially fragmented settlements and economic activities.

It is vital that different regions within these countries experience growth and development that support the current, national goals and political atmosphere because colonialism is directly linked to the many challenges experienced in expanding the connections between economic activities within these countries and amongst different races and ethnic groups that are identified by area in the previously colonised nations. The above resulted in many of the previously colonised countries lagging behind economically and having spatial systems that are not favourable to gathering resources for their internal markets (Du Plessis, 2002:12).

In the South African context, not only has the colonial system contributed to the challenges that the country is facing today, but the apartheid planning system of separate development has had a direct impact on the spatial fragmentation of South African settlements; more especially the urban areas. The current spatial structure in South Africa still promotes the apartheid system of separate development in that the former homeland areas and townships are still lagging behind, while the former white areas are enjoying the benefits of economic growth and development in the country (Fast & Kalis, 2004:10; South African Cities Network, 2009:3). According to Dupont and Houssay-Holzschue (2005:287) a township is a,

“racially homogeneous area, located on the outskirts of the city, devoted to residence only, poorly equipped, isolated from the rest of the agglomeration by buffer zones, industrial areas and transport infrastructures that constituted physical barriers”.

Townships, as defined above, were endorsed by colonial town planning, which required that these types of settlements should be located away from the colonial towns. Townships were established to house the non-white population and homelands were to house Africans only. Homelands or Bantustans are densely populated, mainly rural territories in South Africa created by the apartheid system where the African population was located according to their ethnic group under the group areas Act of 1950 (Harrison, 2014:23,32). Atkinson (2014:5) describe former homeland areas as areas that, “contain(s) a rural-urban continuum, including formal ‘dormitory townships’ or ‘dense rural settlements’ (but without any economically functional core) small towns, agricultural villages, and small farms”. Dormitory townships and dense rural settlements are locations of interest in this study as they can facilitate the eradication of spatial fragmentation caused by the separate development policies in South Africa. In spatial planning, fragmentation is regarded as,

“a negatively interpreted spatial heterogeneity of spaces, landscapes and land use systems. This landscape fragmentation, due to scattered urban development and transportation infrastructure, threatens human and environmental well-being by noise and pollution from traffic, disturbs heritage landscapes and impairs the scenic and recreational qualities of the countryside” (Verbeek & Tempels, 2016:2).

In the same order that the former homelands and township followed, low cost houses provided by the current government are located further away from places of employment opportunities in areas where there is cheap land. The houses or settlements are built far from economic centres, a practice that continues to impose a burden on the poor who have to travel long distances to access economic and other opportunities offered in urban areas (Turok, 2015:2). This practice continues to endorse colonial and apartheid government town planning practices and deny the majority of South Africans to enjoy the economic growth in their country. This situation is similar to the status quo in the previously colonised countries as previously highlighted in this section. It should also be acknowledged that there are housing initiatives established in city centres for poor, black South Africans, however, this type of housing is not on a large scale.

Current low cost housing settlement planning in South Africa continues to support the apartheid settlement planning that contradicted the recognised, humane and coherent human settlement theory by situating settlements for blacks in such a manner that made South African cities very inefficient. Black people were not welcomed in urban areas; it was the labour demands of the country’s economy that made settling African people in homeland reserves impractical, and a limited number of people from the homelands were

allowed to reside in urban areas, which resulted in black (non-white) areas named townships being created in cities and towns throughout the country (Mathe, 2010:16-17).

The inherent impact of uneven development and inequalities of both the colonial and apartheid times on the urban form and the entire spatial structure of the country, is currently compounded by the neo-liberalism system that was introduced immediately after 1994. Urban form is the physical features that constitute a built-up area, consisting of the shape, size, density and formation of settlements which is measured at various levels, namely, regional, urban, neighbourhood, block and street. Urban form transforms on continuous basis as a result of social, environmental, economic and technological developments. It also responds to planning, housing, urban, health, transport and economic policies (RTPI (Royal Town Planning Institute), 2015:1).

In this context, density is defined as “the number of units (e.g. of population, dwellings or jobs) in a given geographical area (a site, precinct, neighbourhood or city)” (Turok, 2015:5). It has both human and physical elements, namely, the population density and physical structure respectively. The physical structure density is comprised of the density inhabitable area, dwelling units and the floor area ratio. Density can be calculated in many ways, at various spatial levels depending on the actual purpose that it will be used for (Turok, 2015:6).

While neo-liberalism which is the system that is compounding uneven development and inequalities in South Africa, is an economic and political approach that favours the reduction of the role of government and deregulates markets as much as possible with a purpose of promoting free trade. Economic growth under this approach is to be achieved by liberalisation, deregulation and privatisation, while shifting focus from government intervention to market forces (Pieterse, 2010:7). Liberalisation in this case is referring to the opening of political economies (National Planning Commission, 2012:250).

Deregulation meaning removing barriers to competition such government legislation and laws in a specific market. Privatisation refers to increased private sector involvement (Sager, 2011:168). Neo-liberal policies have great spatial after-effects which have the same consequences that results from urban planning influenced by this type of policies. Neo-liberal policies ideas discourage government intervention in markets where urban development entrepreneurs do business (Sager, 2011:148). The approach was predominantly supported by the USA, United Kingdom and the World Bank in the 1980s.

The introduction of Neo-liberal system in South Africa increased the gap between the rich and the poor, which Bond (2003:40) refers to as class apartheid. Class apartheid is defined as a, “systemic underdevelopment and segregation of the oppressed majority through structured economic, political, legal, and cultural practices” (Bond, 2004:47). Furthermore, in this international era of globalisation, the situation in South Africa is worsened by a new form of fragmentation that comes with the globalisation phenomenon

- the integration of a country's economy with the global economy . In the new fragmentation, the global elite are concerted in the periphery or edge of the cities in gated, gentrified suburbs as well as in new, secured and barricaded suburbs, for example, Melrose Arch, Johannesburg and Battery Park City, New York (Harrison, 2003:16).

Imbalanced car dependency and racial segregation had a great impact on the decentralisation and fragmentation of South African urban areas, making gated communities the main neighbourhoods where the middle and high-income classes reside, a key feature of decentralisation (Turok, 2013:177). Decentralisation in this case refers to,

“the transfer of responsibility for planning, management, and the raising and allocation of resources from the central government and its agencies to field units of government agencies, subordinate units or levels of government, semi-autonomous public authorities or corporations, area-wide, regional or functional authorities, or nongovernmental private or voluntary organizations”. It can also be referred to as, “a situation in which public goods and services are provided primarily through the revealed preferences of individuals by market mechanisms”(Jahani, 2015:34-35).

Consequently, globalisation renders small towns, townships, and rural areas insignificant and as a result, stimulates spatial inequalities. A popular counterattack against globalisation in many regions that are not keeping up with the current development has heightened pressure for new solutions to uneven development, which is manifested in the international pledged of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development by 193 United Nations Member States to ensure that, “no one will be left behind” and to, “endeavour to reach the furthest behind first” (United Nations Development Programme, 2018:3).

The other aspect that adds to the fragmentation and unequal development in this country is the fact that spatial inequality is a product of growth. Modern development economics rejects the very concept of equilibrium that is central to neoclassical analysis. Neoclassical economics focuses on the optimal usage of the available resources in order to maximize individual utility and consequently the welfare of a country. Neo-liberalisation is characterised by “geographical uneven development” (Didier *et al.*, 2013:2). All countries, including the post-industrialised, industrialising or pre-industrialising, have spatial inequalities in standard of living, income, and facilities. The inequalities are to some extent a prerequisite for development and modernisation. Inequalities are considered an essential feature of both the development and modernisation processes (Wessels, 2012:3).

The issue of spatial inequality being a product of growth is also incorporated in the theory of unbalanced growth in regional development, which includes Perroux's (1950) growth pole theory, Hirschman's (1958) theory of unbalanced development, Boudeville's (1966) growth centre theory, and Friedmann's (1966)

core periphery theory or mode. The above theories are closely related to Perroux's (1950) growth pole theory, which is based on the notion that,

“growth does not appear everywhere at the same time: it becomes manifest at points or poles of growth with variable intensity; and spreads through different channels, with variable terminal effects on the whole of the economy” (Monsted, 1974:106).

Therefore, development and growth within a region will not take place evenly within the region but it will develop unevenly overtime between points or nodes as industries within and outside the region work together. This notion also strengthens the view that development and growth thrive in spatial inequalities and can also encourage such conditions. The development of regional and sub-regional (district) growth centres, such as cities and towns, depends on the socio-economic circumstances of their regions. Hence, the development of strong urban areas is possible in regions, which create strong socio-economic peripheries that strengthen the urban growth centres with efficient economic linkages (Meczynski & Gadzinski, 2011:101).

The regional planning sector view the growth poles as a strategy to reduce regional inequalities between core regions and their peripheries (Manyanhaire *et al.*, 2011:3) and as such, growth poles still provide a conceptual vehicle for distributing growth across space and provide a means for the achievement of distributive justice. These growth centres must have favourable locations, adequate human resources, service capacity, previous growth performance, and reasonable population densities (Gavrila-Paven & Bele, 2015:407-408).

1.3. Problem statement

Traditionally, planning is about guiding the, allocation of activities and development in space (Glasson & Marshall, 2007:18) and at regional level, it is guided by regional policies that may be directed towards the provision of infrastructure, which can be beneficial during economic hardships. Regional planning is, a reaction to modern regional matters like urban growth, rural and industrial relapse or underdevelopment as well as regional imbalance (Glasson & Marshall, 2007:18-20). The spatial distribution of economic activities has a considerable impact on the performance of a given economy and on the welfare of the population depending on that specific economy (national or regional economy).

From the economic efficiency perspective, spatial inequality can be useful if the inequalities are created by regional specialisation founded on comparative advantage or returns to scale in development that result in increased productivity. However, if the spatial inequalities result from external economies that are not internalised, the inequalities can be detrimental (Kim, 2008:1). As a result, the spatial patterns of regions are inherently inequitable and various regional planning tools are used to deal with the inequities to create balanced and just spatial forms. Nodes and corridors are amongst the regional planning instruments that

are implemented in various ways to guide regional development in an equitable manner in order to achieve integrated spatial forms.

Germany and South Africa were liberated five years apart. In Germany, the differences that characterised the division between east and west do not persist, however, in South Africa, the spatial form continues to perpetuate the differences defined by the past. The 1975 National Physical Development Plan (NPDP) restructured segregated townships under a broad context of regional development axes, growth poles, growth points, and deconcentration points meant to manage the excessive agglomeration of development in urban areas and counter act out-migration of whites in rural areas (Turok, 2018:4).

As a result, colonialism and the apartheid state have created a highly fragmented and unequal urban system with regards to economic opportunities, social justice, and environmental sustainability. Forced removals, return migration and that South African Africans were temporary migrant workers in urban areas, created a highly fragmented economic space in and outside urban areas (Turok, 2018:4). Spatial planning for municipalities, cities, towns, villages, neighbourhoods, and precincts has to be approached as an integrated process and in a holistic method. Such an approach is achievable by ending the conventional idea of separating residential areas from industrial and leisure areas (Claes, 2012:14-15).

In addition, innovative methods of integrating the former homelands areas and the former white South Africa to achieve an integrated spatial form in the country should be promoted. Despite the use of growth centres and nodes as regional planning instruments used in addressing spatial fragmentation in cities and at country level development in an equitable manner with a purpose of achieving integrated spatial forms, fragmentation persist in country wide.

1.4. Research questions

Research questions reveal the problem that the researcher wishes to consider. In precise terms, they are questioning declarations that signify the augmentation of the declaration of the aim of the study because they are intended to precisely state the question the researcher intends to respond to (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006:478). Derived from the above problem statement, the subsequent research question posed is: *To what extent can Elim Mall be a long-term viable growth point in Makhado Local Municipality?*

Vitality describes how busy the city or district centre is at different times and in various locations (Dolega & Celinska-Janowicz, 2015:16). Viability means the continuing ability of the city or district centre to attract investments that can be used for improvement, maintenance and adaptation to the residents' changing needs (Roger Tym & Partners, 2009:v). Consequently, the ability of Elim Mall to continuously attract investment should be assessed because it keeps the node successful. A municipality, in this case, refers to

“an organ of state within the local sphere of government exercising legislative and executive authority within an area determined in terms of the Municipal Demarcation Act, 1998 1998 (Act No. 27 of 1998) envisaged in section 155(1) of the Constitution of South Africa” (Section 1(1) of the Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act (SPLUMA) 2013 (Act 16 of 2013); Section 2(a) Local Government Municipal Systems Act (MSA), 2000 (Act 32 of 2000).

Elim Mall was selected because of its location, a former homeland area, which formed part of the homeland system that operated during the previous government and were designated following the growth centre strategy. The apartheid government managed to create growth centres and decline centres, such as the homelands, which resulted in the spatial fragmentation that still exist today in the country. Examining the extent to which Elim mall can be a long-term viable growth point in Makhado Local Municipality (MLM) known as Makhodo Municipality allows for assessing if shopping centre nodes can play a central role in dealing with the current spatial form and in so doing establishing an approach of counter acting such fragmentation.

It is necessary to examine the vitality and long-term viability of this centre to ensure if it is capable of playing a significant role in dealing with the economic and spatial fragmentation that prevail in MLM, Limpopo where the centre is located in the previous homelands area and the entire country. To properly analyse the long-term viability of Elim Mall as a shopping centre node in the Elim/Waterval area within MLM, Namakgale Crossing shopping centre in Namakgale township in Ba-Phalaborwa Local Municipality (BLM) is analysed in addition to Elim mall in order to add value to the analysis.

Namakgale Crossing shopping centre analysis provides an additional perspective from an urban shopping centre with regard to the viability and vitality of shopping centres. The reason for analysing both shopping centres is to establish if the viability of the Elim/Waterval node can serve as an example for other areas in the Limpopo Province in both urban and rural settings. Namakgale Crossing is a supporting case located in a dormitory settlement created by the same separate development system that created the homelands as decline points. Township are located mostly in the former white South Africa as residential areas for non-whites. The focus in this instance is spatial fragmentation created by the separate development decentralisation policy.

To answer the main question, the following sub-questions should be answered:

- 1. What are the spatial laws and policies relevant in creating shopping centre nodes that can contribute positively in confronting the spatial fragmentation in South Africa?*
- 2. How should shopping centre nodes that can contribute positively in confronting the spatial fragmentation in South Africa be conceptualised, understood and implemented?*

3. *How should these shopping centre nodes be created in the context of the national, provincial, and regional planning SDF's and economic development frameworks?*
4. *What types of businesses are established close to these shopping centres since the creation of these nodes?*
5. *How do these shopping centre nodes measure up to the growth poles concept?*
6. *How can long-term viable shopping centre nodes in the former homelands and townships be established?*

1.5. Research aim and objectives

This section defines the justification of this study by outlining the aim and objectives of the study. Based on the main research question in section 1.4 above, the general aim of the study is to assess the long-term viability of Elim Mall as a growth point in MLM. The objectives below were instrumental in achieving this aim and in answering the research questions identified in the section 1.4 above. The objectives are:

1. To analyse the spatial laws and policies relevant in creating shopping centre nodes that can contribute positively in confronting the spatial fragmentation in South Africa.
2. To understand how these shopping centre nodes are conceptualised, understood, and implemented.
3. To analyse how these shopping centre nodes are established in the context of the national, provincial, and regional planning SDF's and economic development frameworks.
4. To examine the types of businesses that are established close to the shopping centres since the nodes were created.
5. To apply the growth pole concept to these shopping centre nodes to assess if they measure up to the concept or not.
6. To establish how long-term viable shopping centre nodes should be created in the former homeland areas and townships.

1.6. Research hypothesis

Kothari (2004:34) argues that, "a research hypothesis is a predictive statement that relates an independent variable to a dependent variable". It must have one independent and dependent variable respectively. Predictive statements that cannot be empirically proven, and assumed relationships that cannot be tested, should not be referred to as research. The research hypothesis in this research were generated from the research question. The general assumption is that shopping centre nodes are suitable tools in confronting spatial fragmentation by attracting investment, retaining income, and creating an integrated spatial form in their local areas. Thus, the hypothesis is that Elim and Namakgale shopping centre nodes are suitable tools in confronting spatial fragmentation in MLM and BLM by attracting investment, retaining income, and creating an integrated spatial form within their municipal areas.

The above hypothesis relates to the notion that creating shopping centres in former homeland areas with high population and no economic centres, and in townships, enhance development as well as facilitate spatial integration, while not impacting negatively on the locality but change the functional structure of the areas in a manner that integration is enhanced.

1.7. Motivation and significance of the study

This study is an undertaking that contributes to research in Elim and Phalaborwa areas, as well as the Limpopo Province in South Africa, which has not been researched extensively. The study areas were chosen as suitable areas, which contribute in addressing the spatial fragmentation in the former homelands and townships. The study was motivated by the fact that both apartheid and democratic South African economies are characterised by extensive regional disparities with regards to economic activities and welfare outcomes. The previous government succeeded in achieving their goal of separate development by creating development nodes in white areas and depression nodes in the former homelands and dormitory townships. The former government used a specific strategy, the Industrial Decentralisation policy coupled with the separate development policy to fragment the urban and rural areas by race and development.

Since the beginning of democratic South Africa in 1994, there have been spatial initiatives by the government aimed at redressing the inequalities and spatial disparities caused by the laws and policies of the previous government, but to no avail (Turok, 2013:169). The fact that the spatial form created in the past still continues is a well-known fact in the government, private, and academic sectors. There are specialists, professionals, practitioners, and academics involved in research and practice in the process of redressing the spatial and economic inequalities but there is less progress in this area. There are professionals who have experience that span from the 1970s who can shed light on how the problem can be addressed.

In short, the problem has been identified, which is the persistent fragmented spatial form, but there is no solution to the problem while there are qualified professionals who can assist in confronting the problem. Consequently, there is a need to create debate regarding the subject so that further discussion and input into how the problem can be solved can continue with the hope of finding a solution. The fact that research in urban and regional planning in South Africa tended to concentrate on urban areas presented an opportunity for the researcher to address how the spatial fragmentation and its economic and social inequalities in the previous homeland areas and townships outside metropolitan areas can be eradicated.

The study, in a way, contributes by giving input in confronting the problem either by researching ways in which the problem or its effects can be reduced or eradicated if that is possible. It contributed to academic knowledge, updating existing literature and analytical tools. It also highlighted possible indicators for further studies that deepen understanding in the field, with the hope that a different perspective in the subject

area is offered. The study promote understanding in South African spatial planning field. It serve to evaluate instruments used, past events and present trends in the discipline, and forecast into the future.

The study provides vital information in the creation of corridors and nodes in which economic development opportunities aligned to the main growth centres are channelled. All of the above support effective planning and management of nodes that play a significant role in confronting the spatial form created during the previous government. The study is significant in that it is intended to attract policy makers, urban and regional planning specialists, professionals, practitioners, and academics because it provides good reference and knowledge that is useful in practice and further research.

1.8. Research methodology

Methodology refers to the detailed practical aspects of how a research enquiry is undertaken. The choice of method depends on the research purpose. Detailed research methodology will be discussed in chapter three where the research design and methodology used in this study is explained. It outlines the research design, population, and the sampling technique. Chapter three fully describes the area, geographic location, and key features in the area of study, and gives a brief description of ethical issues and limitations of the research.

1.9. Structure of the dissertation

This dissertation assesses the long-term viability of Elim Mall as a growth point in MLM in 12 chapters. Figure 1-2 below shows the structure of the dissertation, which summarises the document in a pictorial form, and also outlines how the twelve chapters of this document are interwoven.

Chapter 1 is an introduction. The main aim of this chapter is to give clarity on the context and background of this research. It provided a background study to the research problem in order to contextualise the study. The research problem and questions are clearly stated. The aim and objectives, motivation, significance, are highlighted in this chapter. The chapter concluded by giving the structure of the entire dissertation.

Chapter 2 provides a theoretical basis upon which this study is based. It provides a detailed analysis of the growth pole theory as the theory that guides the entire study. The origin, concept, principles, application, and the spatial relationship between the theory and spatial development is explored.

Chapter 3 outlines the methodology used in this research, together with the research design, the sample size and sampling technique, as well as data collection and analysis methods.

Chapter 4 presents a detailed international literature review on the application of growth pole theory in the establishment and development of growth centres in the selected, previously colonised countries of Brazil, Argentina, India, Kenya, and Zimbabwe. These are countries with a history of colonisation selected to establish comparisons because South Africa has a similar background of colonisation. It also discusses lessons learned from these countries and how these lessons can support and positively contribute to this study.

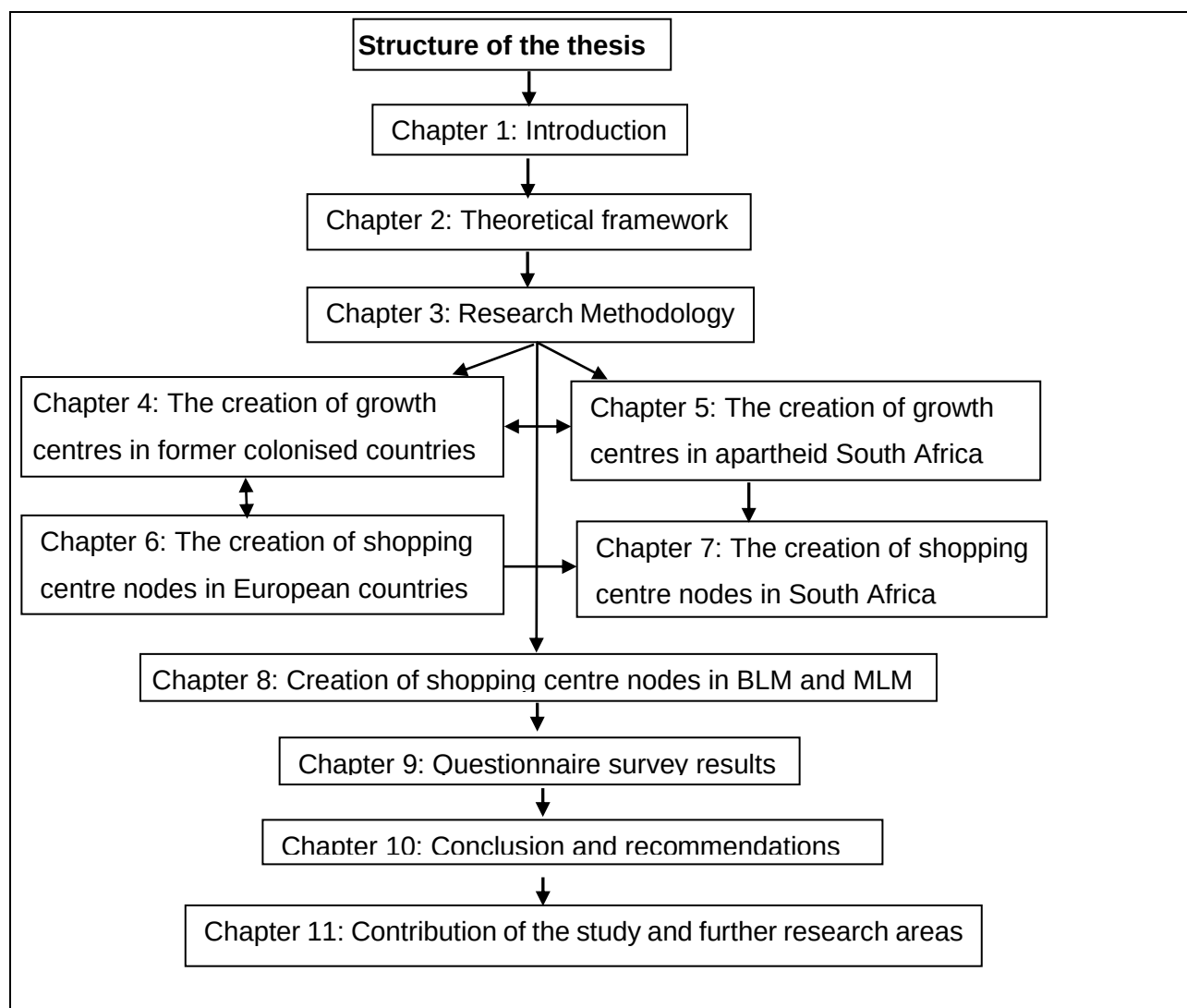


Figure 1-2: Thesis structure

Source: Own construction (2018)

Chapter 5 offers international literature review that examines the establishment of shopping centre nodes in European countries. The shopping centres are used to create towns in areas that did not have formal town centres. The classification, definition, and key issues that need to be considered when establishing shopping centres are discussed, followed by factors that contribute in the success of shopping centres, shopping centre nodes, their resilience, and functions.

Chapter 6 provides local literature review analysis on how growth centres were created in South Africa during the apartheid period. It identifies and examines the laws and policies applicable at the time in order to establish a historic background of the current laws and the way the current creation of growth centres in South Africa started.

Chapter 7 focuses on local literature review that analyses the laws and policies that apply to the establishment and development of growth centres in the form of shopping centre nodes in democratic South Africa. The chapter focuses on spatial laws and policies, including development policies, and also studies the creation of shopping centre nodes in democratic South Africa. It examines the creation and establishment of shopping centre nodes in current South Africa and how these nodes can effectively contribute to confronting the current spatial form.

Chapter 8 provides an empirical exploration using the case study method to demonstrate that sustainable shopping centre nodes can be created to deal with the inequalities and spatial fragmentation in South Africa. Elim Mall in Elim/Waterval District Growth Point (DGP) in MLM, a predominantly rural area, and Namakgale Crossing in Namakgale former DGP now part of Phalaborwa Provincial Growth Point (PGP) in BLM in Mopani District Municipality (MDM), in an urban area are used as case studies. The viability of these shopping centres, more especially the Elim Mall as the main case study, is examined to demonstrate that shopping centre nodes can be used in the integration process of the previously disadvantaged areas into mainstream South African spatial economy. These shopping centre nodes can eradicate or lessen the spatial fragmentation in South Africa, especially in the Limpopo Province.

Chapter 9 briefly presents the questionnaire survey conducted in the study areas. The chapter presents data collected through survey, analyses, and interprets the data, test the hypothesis of the study using statistical methods, and also provides concluding remarks on the issue. Chapter 10 provides a conclusion for the entire study based on both literature review, observations, and questionnaire survey. It also highlights the recommendations made based on the conclusion of the study which provide a link between the conclusion and contribution of the study.

Chapter 11 presents the original contribution of the study to the existing body of knowledge in a number of ways, and also suggests further areas of study that can add value to the contribution made by the study in the field of urban and regional planning.

CHAPTER 2: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. Introduction

This chapter explains the theoretical framework pertaining to urban, rural and regional, economic and development, which form the background for the whole document. The growth pole theory is analysed as the basis of the theoretical framework of this study. The first section of this chapter provide the structure of the chapter and introduces its by explaining what is meant by theoretical framework and identifying the growth pole theory as the theory that guides this study. The second section starts with describing the origin of the growth pole theory followed by its principles, concepts, evolution, debates, and criticism; finally, it concludes with the application of the theory.

The discussion focuses on the concept of growth poles and international arguments. The appropriateness of the growth pole theory to this study will be presented followed by the conclusion, which gives a summary of the chapter and creates a link between subsequent chapters. The structure of the chapter is as illustrated in Figure 2-1 below.

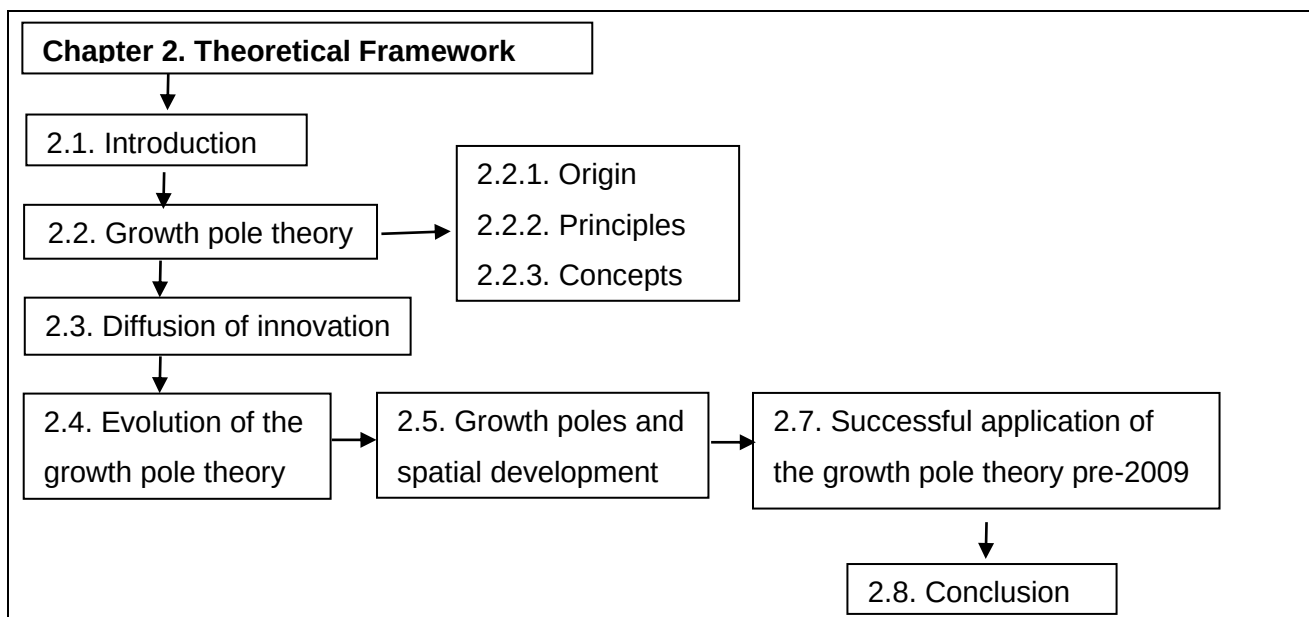


Figure 2-1:Chapter 2 structure

Source: Own construction (2018)

A theoretical framework is an empirical or quasi-empirical theory that is useful in understanding and interpreting phenomena. It is a theory that a researcher chooses to guide him/her in his/her research where the application of a theory or a set of concepts drawn from the same theory is used to explain an event, or research problem. In other words, the theory provides a researcher with guidance for the study questions, selection of methods for measuring variables, and means to plan the analyses. Therefore, it can be

concluded that a theoretical framework guides research while defining the items or factors that need to be measured and identifying statistical links.

If a study lacks a theoretical framework, it normally does not have a proper direction and foundation; it also creates confusion in the literature review and results in incorrect or inappropriate interpretation and description of the findings (Tamene, 2016:53). In this chapter planning theory is analysed with an aim to explain and shape the theories in an organised manner and to construct a theoretical framework for the case studies for the purpose of understanding the theoretical context of planning practices reflected in the case studies. Planning theory in this chapter refers to theory in planning, the philosophy that direct the planning process. Current research builds upon existing theories developed in the past as a response to past and present planning thinking and practice.

Planning theory reduce the divide between theory and practice (Abukhater, 2009:64). Planning theory describes planning models which are composed of suggestions about how planning take place and how it should be structured (planned). According to Abukhater (2009:65) “defining a body of thought for planning theory serves as a vehicle to enhance the ability of planners in comprehensively addressing important practical issues based on a holistic understanding of the larger picture within which these issues are often generated and evolved”. Therefore, present and future planning practice benefit from theory and play a role in the development of current theories. situations. Planning theory should therefore provide answers to all problems related to planning.

2.2. The growth poles theory

The growth pole theory is based on the notion by Francois Perroux where, “growth does not appear everywhere at the same time; it becomes manifest at points or poles of growth with variable intensity and spreads through different channels with variable terminal effects on the whole of the economy” (Wojnicka-Sycz, 2013:18). Initially, the theory emphasised the benefits of concentration around leading areas and growth poles, which eventually spill over toward lagging areas and increased convergence. Currently, the growth poles strategy is used by governments in encouraging uniform development throughout regions and dealing with the adverse externalities of agglomeration. It is used as a tool for spatial planning policies, emphasising its use as an integrated approach aimed at delivering basic services in areas with actual or demonstrated growth potential (Kotlebova & Siranova, 2014:32).

The World Bank (2010:37) views growth poles as, “points of economic growth and centres of economic activity that benefit from agglomeration economies, and through their interaction with surrounding areas spread prosperity from the core to the periphery”. At national level, the World Bank (2011:16) defines a growth pole, “as an economy whose domestic growth helps drive the growth process in other economies”. The agglomeration and spread to the periphery aspects still apply up to the present era. Countries such as the United Kingdom (UK), Germany and the USA are defined as growth poles by the World Bank, while

Portugal and Turkey are defined as the periphery where the urban shopping centre development revolution has begun more recently.

2.2.1. The origin of growth pole theory

Growth pole theory was formalised and used in economic growth perspectives by a French economist, Francois Perroux, in 1949 in a lecture delivered at Harvard University (Darwent, 1969:5). Perroux was mainly concerned with the economic activities and not the geographic space in which the activities should take place (Casetti *et al.*, 1971:377). In 1955, Perroux published the article *A note of the notion of growth pole* and the framework of the growth pole theory is derived from this publication. The growth pole as a propulsive industry mostly in urban centres with spread effects and backwash effects was first outlined by Perroux in his book *L' Economic duXX^e Siècle*, which was published in 1961. Originally, an economic growth pole was established to exist in abstract economic spaces (Sandretto, 2009:11).

J. R. Boudeville extended the growth pole theory by transforming Perroux's abstract economic concept into a geographical concept that has revolutionised the growth pole theory into growth centre theory. The growth centre concept is much broader than the growth pole concept. In its most fundamental sense, space refers to physical distance and area. Every economic process must exist on the ground in a bounded area and at some definable distance from other activities (Richardson & Richardson, 1975:163).

2.2.2. Principles of growth pole theory

Growth pole theory originated from concepts of propulsive firm and dominance. As the analysis is at the firm level, dominance is defined with interest to firms. "Dominance effect is one way a firm may exercise control over another; it occurs when a firm controls the supply or market of a product. The 'propulsive firm' is defined as a firm that could create an effect of dominance" (Tekeli, 1976:286). A firm should be a large unit with high inter-industrial backward-and-forward linkages for it to impose such influence. The propulsive firms must be in a rapidly growing sector because the sectors of the industries that are enabling growth are very important to the theory. Not all firms in a sector that is developing fast generate an effect of dominance, therefore, the growth of such a firm in Perroux's abstract space forms a condition for polarisation with an oligopolistic structure (Hansen, 1970:125).

2.2.3. Growth pole theory concepts

Perroux introduced the concepts of propulsive industry, polarised development, core periphery and diffusion of innovation. These three concepts represent the three stages in the implementation of a growth pole theory. From planners' perspectives, all development and economic activity occur in geographic space. Human beings inhabit specific areas where production and consumption of goods and services take place. Houses and infrastructure are developed, and governments built structures from which the activities that take place in these areas or physical spaces are managed. Place is where complementary

activities come together on the ground, where physical obstacles to growth, for example, access to serviced land and clean water, and where business interactions are most efficient (Hayter, 2013:1).

Geography, space, and cities should not be regarded as mere outcomes of industrialisation, inert containers of economic activity, or passive recipients of investment. Industrialization implies the modification of agriculture based rural societies to manufacturing urban communities led by manufacturing and services (Hayter, 2013:1). On the hand the spatial economy refers to the manner in which the economy is manifested spatially, that is, the geographical (spatial) patterns of economic development (Fair,1982:8). When the spatial economy functions effectively, it constitutes an intrinsic part of the real economy. In short, efficient spatial patterns are crucial to promoting diversification and integrated development (Capello, 2011:1-3). The following section provides a breakdown of the concepts and stages in implementing the growth pole theory.

2.2.3.1. Propulsive industry

A propulsive industry is defined as an economic unit which encourages growth in other economic units as it grows (Richardson & Richardson, 1975:163). Growth poles should have a dominant large firm or industry which dominates the other firms or industries in their interaction and the large firm or industry's dominant interaction is referred to as being propulsive (Todd, 1974:293). Propulsive industries influence the wealth of all the adjacent firms through increased activities between suppliers and customers. They also promote an increase in activities in the tertiary sectors due to the new income they produce, and attract new firms that will benefit from the new marketing and production facilities (Wojnicka-Sycz, 2013:19)

The first step in the implementation of growth poles involves positioning or identifying a propulsive industry within a designated growth pole. At this stage, the dominance effect, which refers to transforming the nature and modes of interactions amongst economic units, must be effective and should result in polarised development (Vertakova *et al.*, 2015:752). In terms of shopping centres, the propulsive industry applies at sectoral level, and a shopping centre acts as a propulsive industry in a growth centre. The first step, in the case of a shopping centre, is finding a suitable location for the shopping centre.

2.2.3.2. Polarised development

Polarisation is the process by which growth poles grow. It refers to the expansion and strengthening of the field of economic forces in which the growth pole exists and develops. The result of the dominance of a polarised industry results in the consolidation of the core industry at the growth pole and the growth of other economic activities activated by the dominance of centripetal movement to the field of force. Theoretically, economic expansion would spread from the growth pole to the periphery to attain regional development (Hansen, 1976:13).

Hirschman (1977:80) argues that these linkages are based on the fact that current activities open ways for new activities to develop and thereby create a linkage between the prevailing and the new activities. This is the second step in that the identified propulsive industry is growing through polarisation. The dominance effect of the propulsive industry highlighted above results in the polarisation of production around the growth poles, economic units work as macro-units, consequently impulsive aggressive competition fades away, and the general efficiency of activities of units increases (Vertakova *et al.*, 2015:752).

The polarisation process involves backwash and spread effects. Walton (1974:50) defines the backwash effects as all appropriate negative changes outside the core region caused by economic expansion in the region, while Kwon (1975:146) defines the backwash as a process that occurs when growth in the core region attracts people and economic activities away from the periphery, resulting in economic growth that has a negative impact on the periphery. Spread effects are the tools of spreading economic wealth produced at the core to the surrounding periphery, in other words, the peripheries are the reverse of backwashes (Serna, 1961:1436). The effectiveness of these forces depends on existence of a balance between the industries in the growth centre and the periphery.

The polarisation process in this study takes place at regional and sectoral levels. The processes of examining and identifying regional, local, and spatial elements such as growth centres, where their amalgamation into a single growth centre take place at a regional level. The expansion and transformation of the shopping centre into a different higher typology can be referred to as being at sectoral level. As a firm within a municipal area, a shopping centre as a propulsive industry is expected to encourage development of linked industries in a planned growth centre, resulting in growth diffusing beyond its zone of influence.

2.2.3.3. Core periphery

Core periphery is the relationship or interaction between the core industry, linked industries, and its periphery. The concept of core periphery involves two sets of conflicting forces, the backward force or polarisation (Hirschman, 1958:100-117; Myrdal, 1957:28), spread, and trickling down forces (Glasson, 1974:147; Myrdal, 1957:31). The economic activity in the periphery declines as the capital investment, services and goods derived from the periphery flows to the core as well as young workers migrating to the core depriving the periphery of entrepreneurs, scarce income, services, and infrastructure (Myrdal, 1957:26).

The concept of core periphery is best explained by Friedmann's core periphery model, which advises that each stage of economic development reflects the change of economic relationships between the core and periphery. In the final stage of the economic development of spaces, four types of areas are recognised, namely, core regions that have urban and industrial concentration; upward transition regions, which are

peripheries that have high trickle-down effects from the core and rapid economic growth; resource frontier regions that are part of the periphery that are developing; and downward transition regions, which are regions that have stagnant or deteriorating economies with depleted resources (Pylypenko, 2014:171).

Traditionally, the concepts of core periphery represented an arrangement of a country where manufacturing was in the core and agricultural were in the periphery, while in the current period, the core represents the large urban areas, and the rural areas are referred to as the periphery (Krugman, 1998:13). The deteriorating regions are a result of the economy rapidly developing at the centre, while the periphery threatens to collapse. Consequently, the backwash force forms an expanding gap between the core and periphery, generating a vicious cycle of dependency (Friedmann, 1963:17).

The pattern discussed is about regional development, which is about the relationship between central and peripheral areas with the dominance of the centre. It signifies the global economy that is comprised of a strategic link between the economic centres that use economic surplus in countries that are near the periphery by utilising economic, social, political, and administrative control. The core periphery relationship is found at any spatial level and can be clearly identified (Pylypenko, 2014:173). The upward transition regions in Friedmann's core periphery model correspond with development corridors. Friedmann (1966:xv) defines a development corridor as a, "type of upward-transitional area connecting two or more core regions".

Boudeville (1972:19) refers to nodes in a spatial system as point of origin for economic growth within a region or areas that are directly linked to economic growth and they grow naturally. Glasson (1985:144) defines nodes as areas with dominant activities that are functionally linked to other activities, which can benefit or detract from the existence of other activities in an area. From both definitions of nodes, it is clear that a node includes a combination of diverse activities that derives benefit from being clustered at one point and the natural growth and development of this node originates from the functional linkages between different land uses and activities. Core and periphery form a comprehensive spatial system. The process of the core dominating the periphery is an outcome of past and critical innovations that were fused into the central authority's system structure.

On a global scale, the core areas are the wealthy, industrialised countries in the northern hemisphere; North America, western Europe, and eastern Asia. While the peripheral countries are the world's poorer countries comprising of portions of Africa, Asia, Latin America, and all the other countries that depend on local resources and supporting the economic core. On a country scale, In the USA, the southern cities like Atlanta, Memphis, Dallas, and Phoenix serve as the core centres for the south in the Sun Belt (University of Minnesota Libraries, 2016:46-49). At a local level, urban areas are the core, while the rural areas are the periphery. In a town scale, the city centre is the core, and the suburbs and the outskirts of the city

centre are the periphery. The metropolitan areas are the core, with a great capability for innovation and growth.

The development corridors connect the core metropolis and the cities' upward transition regions, which are areas of growth that spread over small centres from the core. The peripheral areas of new suburbs and settlements are the resource-frontier regions whereas areas that are now deteriorating because of depleted resources or because of industrial change are called the downward transition regions. In the South African context, the metropolitans such as Johannesburg, Pretoria, and Ekurhuleni are the core with higher wages and prices, while small towns and rural areas such as Elim in MLM and Namakgale in BLM, are the periphery confronted with lack of employment and low wages.

2.3. Diffusion of innovation

Firms operating in a growth centre grow quickly because of amongst other things rapid diffusion of high-tech innovation. Innovations present opportunities for propulsive industries to stimulate growth and to spread growth impulses by means of linkage chains. a growth pole with modernizing linkas with other industries and local area promote a healthy environment for innovation in the whole region. Growth centres are based on the notion that economic growth, in the form of innovations spread throughout a growth centre's periphery to small towns and neighbourhoods adjacent to the centre. Innovations and knowledge once generated in a central location are assumed to spread between regions from one area to its neighbours. The 20th century propulsive industries as compared to the current systems of growth knowledge, spillover and innovation are important to universities. (Wojnicka-Sycz, 2013:18-20).

Innovation is defined as, "successful introduction of new ideas, articrafts or combinations and requires an innovating agent" (Evangelinides, 1975:321). The diffusion of innovation is a process where innovation is transferred between members of a social system for an extended period through specific channels (Rogers, 1983:5) and it is through this process that growth poles develop. As Friedmann (1973:43) points out, growth poles develop through, "an innovative process leading to the structural transformation of social systems". According to Berry (1972:108) "The developmental role of growth centres involves the simultaneous filtering of the innovations that bring growth down the urban hierarchy and the spreading of the benefits accruing from the resulting growth, both nationally from core to hinterland regions and within these regions from their metropolitan centres outward to the inter metropolitan periphery".

Where there is an innovating core and mostly passive periphery, innovations will allow for new growth, and this growth spreads in different ways. Due to the core's improved innovation capabilities, it can implement new categories of control over the periphery. These result in new trade or migration patterns, patterns of financial flows attracted by the growth of the core industry and pole, and the acceptance of the core's innovations by the peripheries. The link between the core and periphery influences all kinds of development and reform that takes place in peripheral areas (Rodell, 1975:530).

The diffusion of innovation, and the distribution of information, occurs hierarchically from the leading economic regions at national cores to the areas of periphery in neighbourhoods; from centres of the highest hierarchy to centres of the next order; from main cities as cores of polarisation to adjacent areas (Vertakova *et al.*, 2015:752). Cities are centres of innovation and are linked to national and regional systems to transfer innovation to the small towns and rural settlements.

2.4. Evolution of the growth pole theory

Boudeville extended the definition of growth poles by introducing his notion of a polarised region, which is defined as a, “heterogeneous, continuous area localized in geographical space, whose different parts are interdependent through mutual complementary relations centered around a regional centre of gravity” (Richardson & Richardson, 1975:163). The argument in linking the growth pole to a geographic space is that an economic space has an innate regional character. Boudeville described a growth pole as a city or town with multifaceted propulsive industries (Wojnicka-Sycz, 2013:18).

Therefore, the connection between the economic space and geographic space is in the transformation process, which is significant to the economic process. All economic events basically occur in geographical space; transformation occurs in functional space happening throughout the economic development process and can be projected into and is manifested in geographical space. In the same way that the concept of growth poles can clarify the constant changes in real practical spaces, it can similarly explain the changes that occur in geographical space throughout the economic development process (Hermansen, 1969:7-8).

Friedman introduced the agropolitan approach from the growth pole theory. The approach is founded on the concepts of “decolonisation, democratisation, self-empowerment and reaching out.” (Buang *et al.*, 2011:2). The approach put emphasis on transferring primary production and manufacturing from urban to rural areas. The agropolitan development policy framework suggest that cities should be created in fields or virgin land by using some of the major components of urbanism in deep rural areas with limited sizes. The agropolitan district is regarded as a suitable unit where spatial development policy should be pursued using decentralised planning and decision making and should include integrated development (Friedmann & Douglass, 1973:163).

Rural development should be implemented by linking rural with urban development at local level. Decisions made regarding economic activities should be subjected to the will of the local population. Both the community and the individual should have a joint ownership in the process and projects. The approach is regarded as bottom up rather than top down approach and is exclusively suitable to developing countries (Buang *et al.*, 2011:2). The approach was applied in Asia and Southern Africa in Mozambique.

P. Pottier further added the concept of axes to the growth pole concept. He concentrated on the idea that areas which are located between growth provide transport links and also get added forward push because of an increase in freight traffic and infrastructure development. In this way these areas transform into development axes referred to as corridors (Vertakova, 2015:753). Richardson (1975:27) points out that for regional spatial planning to be effective, it requires fifteen to twenty years of time and that net spill over does not form around a growth pole within a short period but takes prolonged years to mature.

Polenske (1988:105) argues that the failure of the growth poles is not the failure of Perroux's theory, but failure of the inaccurate interpretations applied in different locations emanating largely from Boudeville's interpretation. Gore (1984:45) argues that growth poles cannot be expected to attain their goals within a short period of time. From the above discussion, it is clear that most growth poles fail because of other reasons or a combination of reasons. For example, the strategy was applied within the framework of recreational facilities and it failed because it did not have nodal prominence, resulting in facilities without economies of scale. Therefore, the position in this research is that the growth pole theory is viable, and it can be used as a theoretical basis for regional policy.

From the above discussion, it is clear that currently, growth poles are applied as growth centres incorporating the geographic space introduced by Boudeville. The current poles are linked to geographic space; their impact takes time to mature and their failure is as a result of the application of the concept, not the concept itself. They are linked together by corridors. Therefore, growth poles in this study are recognised as growth centres.

2.5. Growth poles and spatial development

Regional planning in both developed and developing countries still use the growth pole theory (World Bank, 2010:37). Developing countries referring to countries that are lagging in all areas of development, have problems in all areas (human capital, microeconomic flexibility, and institutions with pro-technology adoption) mostly about the quality of the education system, and the flexibility for entering and exiting the markets, and need to put much effort in improving their standard of human capital. Developed countries, on the contrary, being countries or nations that are advanced countries with mature and sophisticated economies measured by gross domestic product (GDP) and average income per resident; have advanced technological infrastructure; and diverse industrial and service sectors where citizens enjoy access to quality health care and higher education (Bromley, 1992:250; West & Desai, 2002:138-139).

From the innovation diffusion perspective, development is a process of innovation that results in the organisational transformation of social systems (Friedmann, 1969:4). According to Hermansen (1972:6) innovation diffusion refers to the induction and diffusion of continuous waves of inventions in the practical and geographic space. From this perspective, self-sustained, regional economic development is made

possible by continuously adopting innovations in the region. Therefore, regional economic development policies are designed in such a way that they stimulate diffusion of innovation.

The growth centre theory is a valuable tool in spatial policies because economic and social transformation takes place in a spatial context. A growth centres policy in a developing country is generally adopted in order to create new growth centres and clusters where they do not exist. Moreover, it is generally accepted that alterations in spatial structure in different countries are necessary and should occur through the creation of new, larger centres in localities where they will play a significant role in both the national and local economic development (LED) and create a greater balance in the spatial distribution of incomes. The expectation is that centres will transform the traditional contact networks for the majority of people and also eliminate dependency and isolation in remote areas (Rodell, 1975:530).

Most importantly, growth centre theories and policies should uphold the fact that the best, effective manner to create growth in lagging regions is to cluster ventures in comparatively few places that have potential to grow. In an ideal situation, public investment in planned growth centres would start a chain reaction of public and private investment. However, the growth centre methodology acknowledges that there are outward economic agglomeration factors that are involved in the process. In theory, the economic development would spread from the growth centres to the periphery and by so doing attain real regional development. No wonder viable growth centre policies and approaches call for superior judgment in choosing centres and activities (Hansen, 1976:13).

A development policy must attempt to enlist the backward and forward effects, yet it can do so only if there is some knowledge as to how different economic activities 'score' with respect to these effects (Hirschman, 1958:100). Local, regional, and national policies are instrumental in the establishment of planned growth centres, and they influence national and regional development goals (social and economic). As such, planned growth centres are linked to government incentives and controls. In addition, development policies are significant in a situation where governments want to stimulate growth, and such policies are intended to extensively intensify the spread of new growth and the benefits of the existing development (Hansen, 1975:821). In order to accomplish the above-mentioned goals in an effectual way, the growth centres should include:

“Consideration of the location, number, and scale of poles at different points in time as endogenous variables (the regionalization of the nation being given); recognition of the spatial distribution and availability of natural resources and other factors of production at the initial stage, and possibly at other stages within the planning horizon; allowance for labour and capital mobility; incorporation of agglomeration economies and time lags into the production functions; possibility of several technological processes for each industry; possibility of technological differences among poles;

indivisibilities of the investment components; sensitivity tests to detect errors in the initial conditions and parameters; nonlinear consumption functions” (Tolosa & Reiner,1970:449, 452-453).

The main concerns and sectors that are propulsive forces in development and varieties of human activities that are significant in a given place at a given time should be explicit in any inclusive regional development. The link between economic growth theory and regional development process is represented in the following propositions, namely, a regional economy is open to the outside world, subject to external influence; regional economic growth is externally induced; export sector growth translates into residentiary sector growth; local leadership is critical in the adjustment to external change; regional economic growth is a problem in the location of firms; economic growth takes place in a matrix of urban regions through which the space-economy is organised; flows of labour tend to exert an equilibration force on the welfare effects of economic growth, but contradictory results may be obtained; and when economic growth is sustained over long periods, it results in progressive integration of the space-economy (Friedmann, 1963:50).

The above factors give clarity on why large amounts of investment funds are directed into large, existing urban centres. They also highlight the multidisciplinary aspect of development such as the investigation of propositions (Friedmann,1963:50-51). Nonetheless, regional policies answer the location question in economic development. It is through the rearrangement of the variables of the national policies that the utmost beneficial contributions to the prospective regional economies can be made. Speedy and constant national growth should result in the filtering of inventions down the urban structures and out of centres into their adjacent urban fields.

Diffusion should take place from the centre into the periphery, transferring growth away from the centre and into lagging areas. If the trickle-down process is working well, it should result in the rural periphery following along the activities in core centres (Berry, 1969:289). Regional policies that are based on growth centre theory are significant to this study because the legislation and policies that impact on the case studies are, in a way, based on growth centre theory.

P. Pottier (1963) further developed the growth pole theory emphasising axes of development. He emphasised that areas located between the growth poles, which provide “transport links get additional forward momenta due to the increase in cargo traffic and infrastructure development” and become development axes or corridors (Vertakova et al., 2015:753). Currently in regional planning, growth nodes and corridors are amongst the major tools which are modelled around growth pole theory. Development corridors are used as means to promote and achieve global trade competitiveness, economic development, and balanced regional development (World Bank, 2009:4-5).

The urban corridors have been regarded as essential tools for development for many years, more especially in Germany and France. The theoretical framework of corridors is based on pioneering works of Hurd (1924), Christaller (1933), Losch (1954), Perroux (1955), and Pottier (1963), followed by Friedmann (1966), Berry (1969), Koch (1976), and Geyer (1987; 1988). In all the studies mentioned above, development corridors are linked to growth nodes. These nodes are established as urban corridors and nodes. Corridors are linear developments without a specific spatial economic significance, while development corridors (Furundzic & Furundzic, 2012:723) are, “transport routes that evolve to facilitate an increasing range of social and economic development activities”. Development corridors evolved from basic transport routes through to economic corridors, development axis, to linking appropriate and related urban centres in the regional space (Hope & Cox, 2015:viii).

Nodes and corridors are applied in many ways to direct regional development into a more balanced state. Communication and dealings between various nodes are maintained through corridor development and the interface along corridors have various strengths, which differ amongst the various categories of corridors and connected nodes (Glasson, 1985:78). In Europe, development corridors are developed as what is referred to as Euro corridors and are categorised as spaces of, “linear nature connecting large agglomerations over various national borders”; international areas of significant value and “fast spatial development, provide transport infrastructure, urbanisation, economic expansion and environmental sustainability” (Furundzic & Furundzic, 2012:274).

Therefore, it is significant to understand the theoretical background of such policies so that the policies relevant to shopping centre nodes could be analysed based on the background in this section. Spatial and regional development policies related to shopping centre nodes will be examined to see if they address the relevant issues that need to be tackled when establishing growth centres in a given locality. Examining the application of growth centres as a regional development strategy will help in understanding their role as expressed by the growth pole and growth centre theories. The next section provides an analysis and interpretation of the application of growth centres.

2.6. Successful application of the growth pole theory pre- 2009

The growth pole theory is applied as a strategy to guide regional development in both developed and developing countries and was generally considered as a failure in the 1970s. Developed countries mostly adopted growth pole policies in order to rescue regions that were economically backward; many such regions were at some stage prosperous while developing countries introduce growth pole-based policies in order to bring development where there was none (Hansen, 1966:1). The concept was applied in Lacq, in the outlying south-western region of France after the discovery of natural gas deposits in the locality, which was expected to provide a means of establishing a big industry that will fuel regional development, serving as an example of a planned growth pole based on the extraction of natural resources (Gavrila-Paven & Bele, 2017:210). The industry failed to meet expectations of becoming a thriving growth pole and

brought uncertainty on depending on one industry as a leading industry that will develop in a region (Kongstad, 1973:202).

However, there are examples of successful growth poles documented in literature, and a few will be highlighted in this section to demonstrate that the growth pole theory did not completely fail as a policy strategy for regional and spatial development. Spain implemented the growth pole-based policy from 1964; the policy introduced seven poles. Five of the poles were industrial development poles aimed at diffusing the effects of growth from the two development poles, Burgos and Huelva, designed to enhance regional development of the country. Granada, Cordoba, Oviedo, and Logrono were established in 1969 and were functional from 1970 to 1972 (Morris, 2014:109).

Another pole, Villagarcia de Arosa, was established in 1972. Ten percent subsidy to capital investment, preference in obtaining official credit, and fiscal reduction, and tax exemptions were introduced as incentives to attract industries to the poles. The chemical and metal industry sectors, which are expensive to operate, dominated the poles' industrial development. The success and productivity of these poles varied based on the size of the dominant pole. For the new growth poles, 396 firms were introduced, and as a result, there was a rapid population growth in the growth pole areas and decline in other localities within the provinces. Though the level of inter-industrial regional linkage of the poles was low, the Spanish growth pole strategy had positive results in promoting inter-regional equality while inducing intra-regional and urban-rural disparity (Hardin, 2008:28, 30).

Silicon Valley in San Jose, California emerged as a techno hub in 1955, when William Shockley started a company that manufactured transistors. There were a few clusters of information technology firms and is now an example of one of the successful growth poles in the information technology industry. It grew at a rapid speed in the 1990s and its economic impact was not limited to the state of California or the USA, but it was also felt in other countries through improved employment and social development in the developing countries in Asia far from the USA (Goldstein & Lugar, 1990:64-65). Woods (2007:8) argues that, "Silicon Valley is a growth pole where technology is created; it can be diffused much faster via a mobile labour force and adopted more easily because of the ease in exchanging information".

Another successful growth pole is the Research Triangle Park in North Carolina, which was established in 1959 purposefully in the middle of the three campuses at Raleigh, Durham, and Chapel Hill. The park provides a good example of how universities act as growth poles. North Carolina has benefitted from a high-technology industry located within the research park and the supplement economic activities created further into the periphery of the park. The Research Triangle Park is also of great value as an example of a growth pole (Hardin, 2008:28, 30).

The park is a regional incubator for high-technology enterprises because it offers an opportunity for these businesses to follow research and development activities, and to profit from a research-led economic cluster. Nonetheless, the new products developed in the park are mostly produced in satellite production plants outside of the park, but still within the region. By 1988, there was already noticeable, improved economic success in the region, which was attributed to the Research Triangle Park. By then, approximately 20 000 jobs were created from the university-industry-government collaboration in the park, and about 30 000 other jobs were created in the region through supplement economic activities. There are also a further 116 cases of local research parks linked to universities that serve as examples of successful growth poles in the USA (Meyer & Hecht, 1993:4-5).

Turkey succeeded in applying growth pole theory founded policy. The country managed to release stress on Istanbul and has attained decent development stability in different regions, which highlights that they had a thorough policy (Erkip, 2003:1075). France's growth pole theory was applied at national level with some of the poles failing like Lacq, as mentioned above. The Netherlands is also one of the successful countries where the nuclei policy to attain the ideal geographic distribution of fruitful resources for speedy economic growth was applied. Italy did not remain behind, it applied the industrial growth poles to stimulate growth in related and associated industries and environmental peripheral economies from which all additional industries profited (Rossi, 2009:651). Great Britain, Scandinavia, and Norway are just but a few countries that employed the growth pole theory and succeeded, thus validating Perreux's policy as relevant and viable (Christofakis & Papadaskalopoulos, 2011:7).

Growth poles applied on macro level is a unit (firm) that profits the neighbours by means of the growth leadership of a particular economy in a specific economic space, which results in shared and stronger economic growth. In this narrow regional context, each unit must be investigated using three elements, namely, existing propulsive industry as the core economic force shaping the growth pole; strong spatial/geographical effects of growth pole existence; and the strength of links that connecting growth pole to its surroundings (Kotlebova & Siranova, 2017:635).

The agropolitan approach was applied in the East Coast Economic Region in Malaysia. The key economic drivers of supporting the socio-economic development in the region included Tourism, Oil, Gas and Petrochemicals, Manufacturing, Agriculture, and Education. The project was introduced in 2007 aimed at improving the lives of the local population and eradicate poverty by 2010. It involved disadvantaged in agro and non-agro sectors in agricultural project of economic activity referred to as Agropolitan. The project has been recognized as successful because it has a positive impact on the lives of the participant (Ahmad *et al*, 2014: 479- 490). In Mozambique, the agropolitan approach of Friedmann was introduced in the 1980 and concentrated on lower order silent centres that provide basic daily economic activities and district service centres.

2.7. Conclusion

The growth pole theory as discussed in this section provides a theoretical perspective from which the empirical study will be undertaken. Growth pole theory can work successfully in different economic and socio-political environments and can be used for creating economic growth and development in backward regions. Large firms are regarded as growth poles utilising a certain economic space at global, national, regional, and local level. In this section, the theoretical background of the growth pole theory and related concepts were outlined and discussed to provide understanding on how growth poles originated, evolved to a point of including geographic space, and how it shifted to be a growth centre theory.

The chapter presented a standpoint that growth centres are growth poles, linked to a geographic space. They are generally towns, cities, or urban areas. There are examples of growth poles that are operational that can be used as reference point for developing growth poles nowadays. A conclusion is made that shopping centre nodes are growth centres and the shopping centres in those nodes are propulsive firms. This means that shopping centre nodes are conceptualised as growth centres and that they have a socio-economic impact on the local area, the region, and the country as a whole. The next chapter provide the research methodology used in the study which is informed by the theoretical framework of the study discussed in this chapter.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

According to Tamene (2016:53) research is simply an, “organized and systematic way of finding answers to questions.” In this process, the researcher needs to collect information for the research and there are many possible methods of gathering information from respondents. Key components research methodology mainly includes: the location of data (study population and sample), the method of collecting data, and the method of analysing data. This chapter focuses on the research design and methodology used in the study Figure 3-1 below depicts the chapter’s structure.

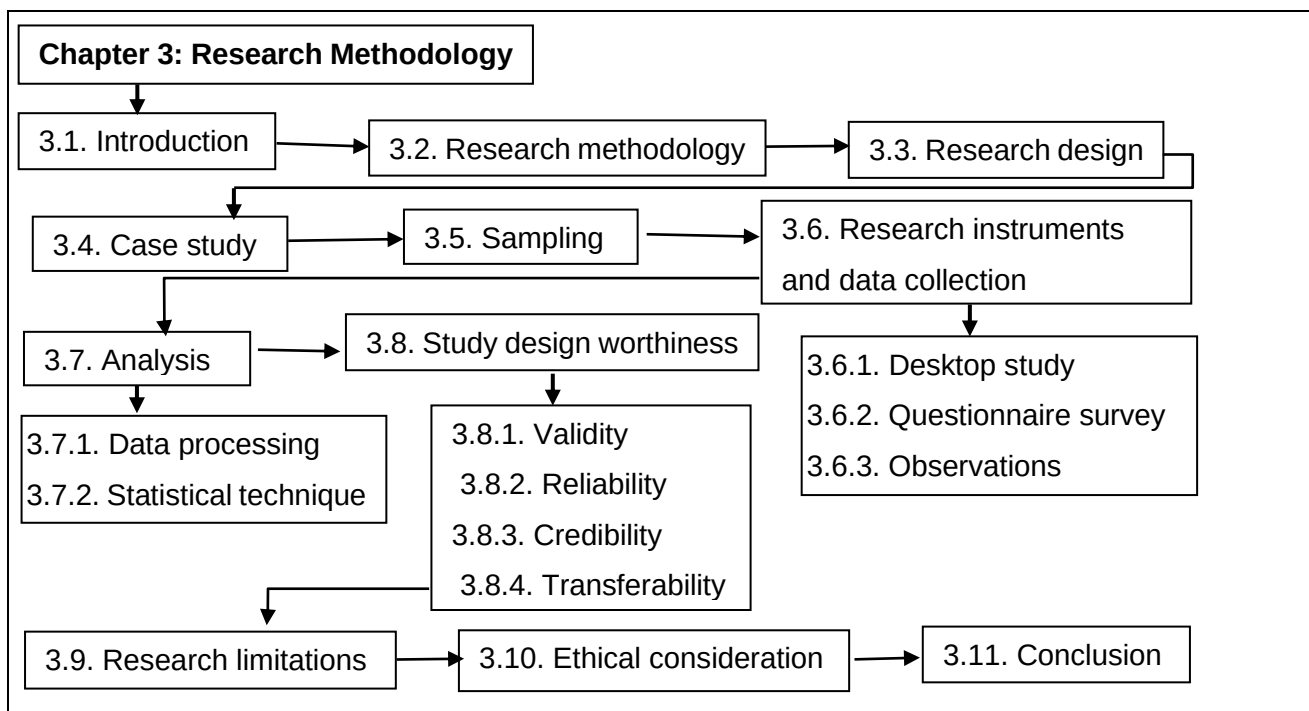


Figure 3-1: Chapter 3 structure

Source: Own construction (2018)

Section 1 introduce the chapter by providing the structure of the entire chapter. Section two discusses the research methodology used while section 3 explains the meaning of the term research design and how it fits in the current study. In Section 4, case study as a research method is describe and its relevance in the current study. Section 5 deliberates on the sampling methods and size. Section 6 revealed the research instruments used in collecting data for this research. Section 7 clarifies the data analysis procedures, section 8 explains the study design worthiness section, 9 highlight the studies limitations, and section 10 reflects on ethical issues considered in the study. Section 11 presents the concluding remarks on the subject of this chapter.

3.2. Research methodology

Methodology is the, “strategy, plan of action, process or design” (Sulaiman et al., 2008:1) upon which the researchers’ choice and use of particular research methods is based. Each methodology is applied using various methods and even combinations of methods. Research is viewed as an empirical endeavour or investigation intended to address specific social issues, contributing to and shaping knowledge, broadening perspectives, and informing practice (Creswell, 2007:3). Research processes and researchers are often guided by basic and held belief systems or paradigms, not only in choices of method. But also, in ontologically and epistemologically fundamental ways, leading to debate about rigour, validity and also hegemony on the nature and conduct of research. This study is no exception and is, therefore, shaped by the choice of the research methodology that guided the justification for the research design (Adams *et al.*, 2007:235).

To understand how shopping centre nodes, which are based on the growth pole concept, can be used to deal with the spatial fragmentation and inequalities in South Africa, a research design was proposed as the procedure for conducting the study, of which the purpose is to specify a plan for generating data to be used in answering the research questions. There are several research designs that target to find results, which will draw the most valid and reliable conclusions from the answers to the research questions. This research leaned heavily on the qualitative method; however, quantitative approaches were also used.

According to Jonker and Pennink (2010:77) “the essence of qualitative research is to identify the characteristics and structure of phenomena and events examined in their natural context. Subsequently, these characteristics are brought together to form a mini theory or a conceptual model.” This research approach is relevant in this study because a phenomenon and events in both rural and urban setting within the field of urban and regional planning were examined in their natural setting and interpreted to formulate an approach on how to deal with the spatial fragmentation in South Africa using shopping centre nodes.

The data used consists of both primary and secondary data. Primary data is regarded as, new data or data that was never used, gathered first-hand for a specific research project by the researcher. Secondary data is data collected in the past for another study or different study obtainable from a database for further use in different or further studies (Currie, 2005:92). Secondary data in this study was collected from Internet sources, libraries, universities’ websites, government and organisations’ documents, dissertations, books, journal articles, electronic media, and published reports. A questionnaire survey, observation, case studies, and legislation analysis were used in collecting primary data (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014:6).

3.3. Research design

Research design refers to a plan of transforming research into a study that can be conducted by a researcher which includes,

“decisions about how the research itself is conceptualized, the subsequent conduct of a specific research questions, and ultimately the type of contribution the research is intended to make to the development of knowledge in a particular area” (Tamene, 2016:53).

According to McMillan and Schumacher (2014:28) it

“describes the procedure for conducting the study, including when, from whom, and under what conditions the data will be obtained. In other words, the research design indicates the general plan: how the research is set up, what happens to subjects, and what methods of data collection are used”.

From the above, it can be deduced that a research design scrutinises and guides how the research question to be answered should be approached and also provides options. For this research, a case study is adopted as a qualitative research design. Qualitative case study is important for this study because it is more descriptive, holistic, explorative, and contextual in its design, aiming to produce a rich description of explored phenomena (Creswell, 2007:36). The research design of this study is outlined in Figure 3-2.

3.4. Case study

The growth pole concept is a strategic tool for economic development. This has made it popular globally. However, the trend is that there are diverse experiences by different countries. This means the designated growth centre's activities will describe the nature of economic development in context. However, the economic trends in South Africa are aligned to historical experiences emanating from the apartheid system of separate development. Case study is a research strategy which focuses on understanding the complexity and context of behaviour present within a single setting in order to contribute to action and intervention (Eisenhardt, 2007:25).

A case study method may also be understood as a specific instance that is frequently designed to illustrate a more general principle (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014:370). Creswell (2007:73) indicates that the case study involves either a single or multiple cases and sub-cases or numerous levels of analysis. Within the broader qualitative research methodology, the researcher uses a case study approach, focusing on a single case, which leads to studying the responses of the respondents in that particular case study. This may present the advantage of extensive analysis that yields different insights from the single case. Therefore, case study research is an evidence-based research approach and evidence-led approach that encompasses various research methods with the aim of generating an in-depth understanding of a specific topic (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014:370).

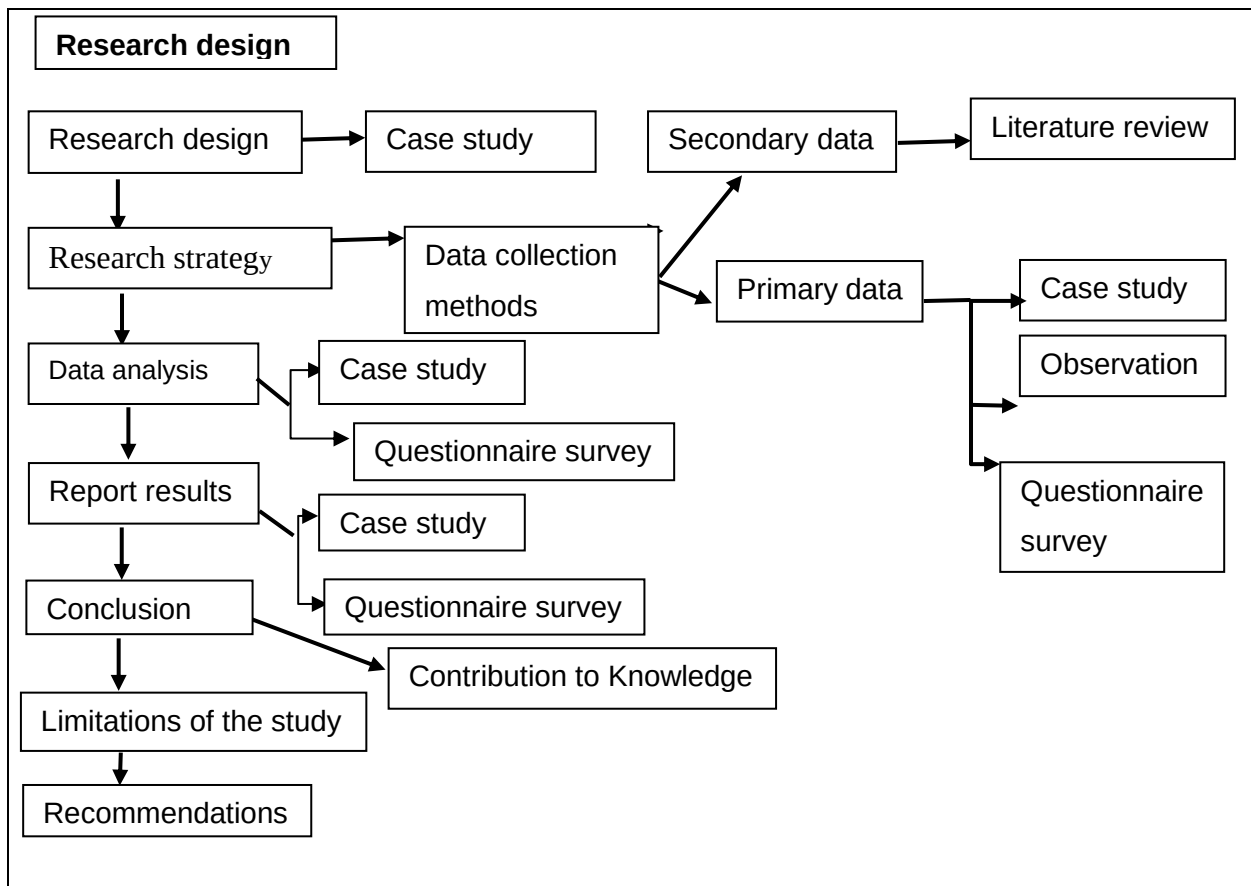


Figure 3-2: Research design and strategy

Source: Own creation (2019)

This study uses two case studies, the first case study of the Elim Mall, in a rural area in the Elim/ Waterval area within the MLM, located in the previous Gazankulu homeland with a concentrated population. The second, Namakgale Crossing, is in an urban area in Namakgale township within the BLM. Each case study is anticipated to be representative of other cases of a specific type, namely, shopping centres in rural areas with a high population density, which can be regarded as urban areas if the urban areas are defined based on population (found in previous homeland areas) and townships, especially those that are in the same category as Elim Mall and Namakgale Crossing. These shopping centres offers insight into conditions and activities prevailing in shopping centres of the same categories (Yin, 2011:18, 310).

The case studies' locations are in the Limpopo Province, which is one of South Africa's nine provinces. The province is located in the northern part of the country that shares borders with Botswana to the west Zimbabwe to the north, Mozambique to the east, as well as with Mpumalanga, Gauteng, and North West provinces to the south as depicted in Figure 3-3. The location of the province as illustrated on the map revealed that the Limpopo Province's development and socio-political issues have a direct impact not only in South Africa, but also in the three neighbouring countries that the province shares borders with. Equally,

the socio-political conditions in Botswana, Zimbabwe, and Mozambique has an influence on the province and the whole of South Africa (Vhembe District Municipality, 2011:39).

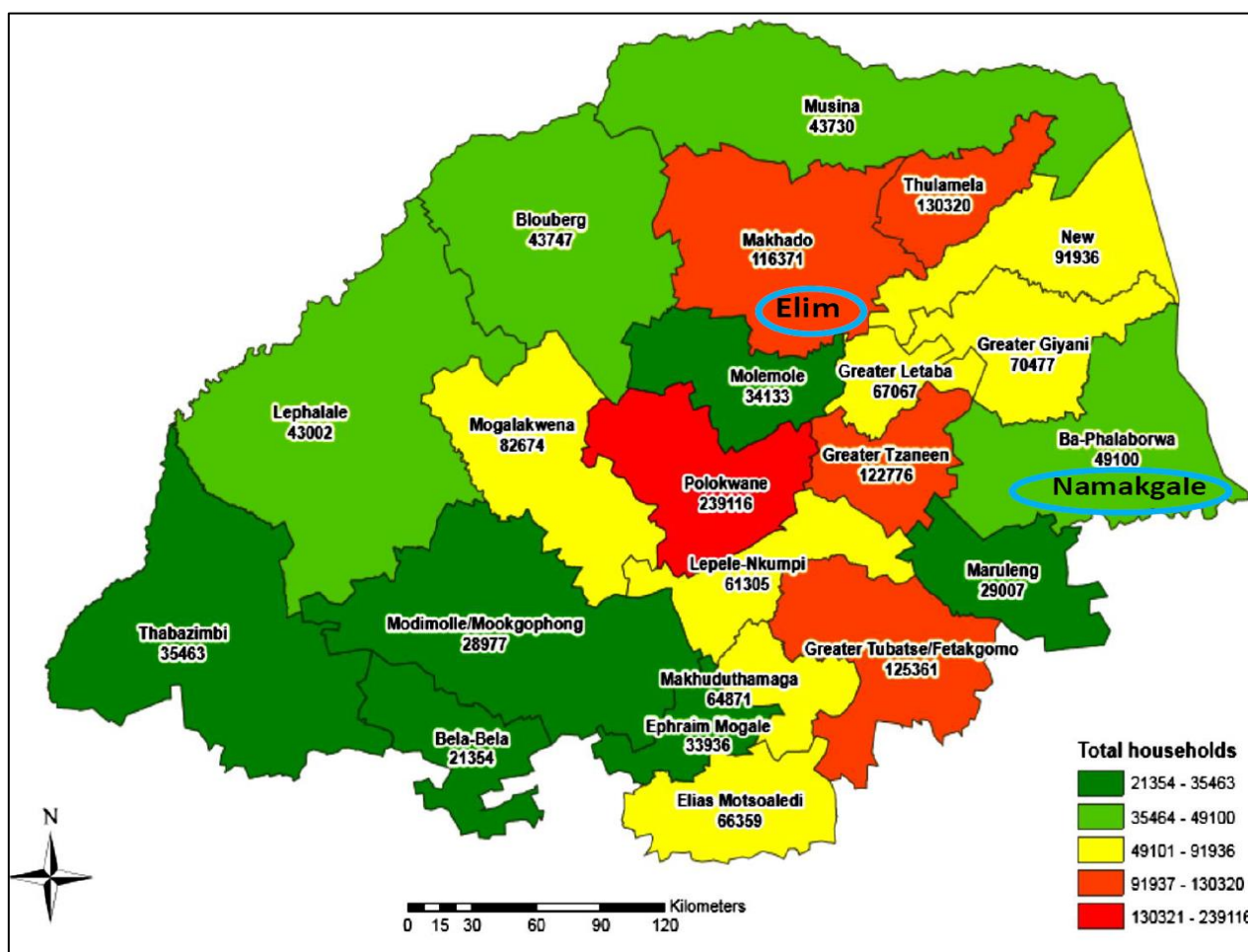


Figure 3-3: The location of the case studies in the context of Limpopo Province

Source: Statistics South Africa (2018:33)

The Limpopo Province is divided into five district municipalities, which are subdivided into twenty-five local municipalities as indicated in Figure 3-2 (Limpopo Provincial Government, 2015:11). The map also illustrates the location of both study areas; the two locations are labelled with a red colour on the map. Aspects studied in these case studies are the application of policies and laws; growth centres and nodes implementation; conceptualisation and implementation of shopping centres as nodes; businesses established after the establishment of the shopping centres; and application of growth pole strategy on the shopping centres; and they are analysed based on these topics.

3.5. Sampling

The type of sampling used in this study is stratified, random sampling. Stratified, random sampling is, “a procedure wherein we first have stratification and then simple random sampling” Kothari, 2004:16). If a population from which a sample is drawn is not formed by a homogeneous group, the population is divided into various smaller population groups that are more homogeneous than the total population. In this way

stratums are formed whereby items are selected from each stratum to create a sample (Kothari, 2004:62, 65).

In this study, the population from which the sample is drawn is comprised of government officials, consultants, community members, and the business community. A random sample was drawn from these groups in order to reach a representative sample because the sample from the government officials and consultants was too small within the study area. People in the different divisions are legally involved in the subject of this study mainly through the public participation process, which is required by law in any policy making decision and planning process.

An ideal sample size should not be extremely large or very small, but it must be of the right size where the required criteria that include representativeness, efficiency, flexibility, and reliability are met (Kothari, 2004:56). The sample drawn for this study is able to ensure that the above mentioned criteria are met. The preferred sample in qualitative research is not important, but the saturation point is. Creswell (2007:64) recommends 20 to 30 interviews in order to achieve saturation. According to Creswell (1998:110), sampling is the process of finding people or places to study, to gain access to study, and to establish a rapport so that respondents provide relevant data.

The main aim of a sampling approach is to draw a representative sample from the population so that the results of the study sample are a true reflection of the study. Adams *et al.* (2007:87) emphasise the importance of selecting the appropriate candidates for the questionnaire survey. During the process of sampling, the aim is to get a sample that is as representative as possible of the target population (Mouton, 1996:110). A sample size is established by collecting the ideal required number that allows for valid conclusions to be made about a population. If the sample size large it creates a slim chance for random sampling error. Therefore, there is no benefit in studying very large samples because the sampling error is inversely proportional to the square root of the sample size. An ideal sample size relies on the parameters of the phenomenon that is being analysed at a specific time frame (Marshall, 1996:522).

Qualitative research recognises that some respondents are richer in information than others, therefore, a stratified random sampling strategy was used to select the targeted respondents at the municipality and in the community. Marshall (1996:524) also indicates that sampling in qualitative research should be guided by the conceptual question of the study. The respondents were selected based on the understanding that sometimes it is appropriate to select a sample on the basis of knowledge of the population, its elements, and the purpose of the study. The stratified random sampling technique was preferred due to the fact that the sample for this research is smaller and information required can only be acquired from a small pool of experts engaged in regional, rural economic development, and spatial planning. Community information can be gathered from a small group of the society, which is comprised of role players in the community and business community.

In this case, the community group is composed of people who are involved at ward level by attending meetings and being members of the ward committees. The business community consist of people who own or manage formal and informal businesses within the community. Respondents in this study are qualified, capable municipal and government officials, politicians in their capacity as community role players, and professionals in their capacity as consultants. The business community sample works with policy development, implementation and the identification and planning of growth points in the province. These respondents were purposefully selected in order to acquire the perspective from practitioners in the field (Marshall, 1996:522).

The sample size in this study was determined using published tables, which provide the sample size for a given set of criteria with a confidence level of 95%, margin of error at 5%, and standard deviation at 0.5. The sample size is based on Krejcie and Morgan (1970) and the Research-advisors.com (2006), sample size tables (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970:608; Hill, 1998:6) while adhering to the stratified random sampling and sampling discussed in this section.

3.6. Research instruments and data collection

Data refers to numbers, text, photos, or other forms of documentation that explain the status and conduct of a subject collected through various forms of research instruments (methods) such as surveys, observations, experiments, or interviews (Wang & vom Hofe, 2007:11). Zikmund *et al.* (2009:19) adds that data is, “recorded measures of certain phenomena”. The empirical study was conducted using the case studies as sample areas, which allowed for secondary and primary data collection. The primary data was collected using a questionnaire survey and observations, and a review of laws as mentioned before.

The questionnaire survey was used to collect data from people who are involved in the establishment of shopping centres as growth centres, while the observation method was mainly used to collect data from the case study locations. The secondary data for the two cases was collected mainly from Internet sources, libraries, universities’ websites, government organisations, dissertations, books, journal articles, electronic media, and published reports. A data generation strategy is important in qualitative research because the reliability of the study depends on the generated data’s trustworthiness.

Using questionnaires, observations and document analysis in this study, enhanced triangulation. Triangulation, in social science, is a process whereby two or three different methods are used to gather and analyse data for the same subject (Davies, 2007:34-35). By examining information collected through different methods, the researcher corroborates findings across data sets and thus reduces the impact of potential biases that can exist in a single study (Fox & Bayat, 2007:107). Triangulation involves combining sources of information, different investigations, and methods of data collection.

Triangulation, in this study, assisted the researcher in guarding against the accusation that the study's findings are simply an artefact of a single method, a single source, or a single investigator's bias. Qualitative and quantitative methodology were used in data collection include document analyses, observations and questionnaire surveys. Government officials, consultants, community members and the business community were involved as respondents in the questionnaire survey. Document analysis in this study is defined as, "a systematic procedure for reviewing or evaluating documents both printed and electronic (computer-based and Internet-transmitted) material" (Bowen, 2009:28-29). The above method included thematic analysis, which is valuable in this study, as it requires objectivity and sensitivity in the data selection and analysis from the documents.

The method is appropriate in this study in that qualitative case studies triangulate data in order to help the researcher find meaning, understand, and gain better insight relevant to the research undertaken. Although this method has often been used to complement other qualitative methods as a form of triangulation, in this study, it is the main source of data and is supplemented by the administration of questionnaires to respondents. The document analysis specifically focused on policy documents, plans and by-laws. The number of policies reviewed do not matter as much as the quality of the documents and the evidence available to respond to the research purpose do. Hence, the intention for using this method during this study was to establish the institutional commitment, plans, and experience of growth point, centres and nodes.

3.6.1. Desktop study

A desktop review of secondary data, laws, and policies applicable at municipality level was undertaken. The policies are mainly the laws and policies at national and provincial level that constitute the foundation of the local municipalities' by-laws and policies, as well as Integrated Development Plans (IDPs) and Spatial Development Frameworks (SDFs) of the relevant districts and local municipalities. The review of the policies serves to introduce the empirical study process, and the case studies establish an operational base for the study. The IDPs and SDFs were analysed because they are the main tools of the local municipalities, which enables the municipalities to engage in integrated development within their jurisdiction. They offered valuable background information about the case studies and municipal context. The laws that inform these documents were analysed as primary data sources.

The understanding from the documents was achieved through document analysis, which was retrieved through comprehensive and thorough review of strategic documents. These documents included IDPs, SDFs, LED strategies, MLM; Building Regulations by-laws, Spatial Planning Land Development and Land Use Management (LUM) by-laws of both the MLM and the BLM. A significant portion of the data in answering the research questions in this study came from document analysis.

3.6.2. Survey questionnaires

The study opted for survey questionnaires, as interviews were not possible in the study area due to the socio-political instability that prevails within the study areas. The observation made was that the prospective respondents were uneasy and not willing to be interviewed. The respondents were requested to participate in the study telephonically and by email. Those who agreed were sent questionnaires via email, which they had to fill in and return to the researcher. The questionnaires were also personally delivered and collected from the respondents. Emailing questionnaires as a method of collecting data was preferred due to the fact that respondents were located in different locations throughout the province and the method will eliminate the distance and some of the time constraints that lead to respondents being tense during interviews. Respondents completed the questionnaire when they had free time and privacy, which allowed them to be comfortable when responding to the questions.

The respondents who participated in the questionnaire survey comprised of 30 government officials; 20 consultants from consultant firms that specialise in urban and regional planning, Integrated Development Plans (IDP) and LED Strategies consultancy; 97 respondents from the community, comprised of ward councillors, councillors in different committees and community leaders who interact with the municipalities and also participate in public consultations done by the municipalities; and 243 respondents from business communities in the MLM, BLM and in adjacent areas in Molemole, Greater Letaba, Greater Tzaneen, Greater Giyani, and Muruleng municipalities.

The above-mentioned respondents were targeted because they are able to provide information about growth pole centres, shopping centre development, and as community members who patronise shopping centres in the local communities. Data collection using the questionnaire method and the observation method was undertaken from March 2017 to September 2018. This was done to avoid conflict as the area under study was embroiled in violent protest action during the most part of this period.

3.6.3. Observation

Observation is a data collection method used in qualitative research to observe human actions and the physical environment at the site (Yin, 2011:132). The method was used to gather data that relates to what is currently happening in both study areas. These methods have been employed in this study to observe the actions of human beings during the distribution and collection of the questionnaire and in the physical environment at Elim Mall and Namakgale Crossing. During the site or field observation, the researcher observed the scenes, physical environment and the spatial arrangement of both locations; and recorded the information by taking notes and photographs. The above discussed research and data collection instruments were used in different sections of the study in order to acquire data used to answer the research questions. Table 3-1 provides the chapters, research question and in which chapter the aforementioned instruments are used.

Table 3-1: Chapters, research question and methods used

Source: Own creation (2018)

Chapters	Research question	Method used
chapters 2, 4,5 and 6	How are shopping centre nodes conceptualised, understood, and implemented?	Literature review
chapters 7 and 9	What are the spatial laws and policies relevant in the creation of shopping centre nodes that can contribute positively in confronting the spatial fragmentation in former homelands and townships? How are the nodes conceptualised, understood and implemented?	Literature review Questionnaire survey
chapters 7 and 8	How should shopping centre nodes be created in the context of the national, provincial, and regional planning SDFs and economic development frameworks?	Literature review Observations
Chapter 8	What types of businesses are created close to the shopping centres since the establishment of the nodes? How do these shopping centre nodes measure up to the growth poles concept?	Literature review Observations
Chapter 10	How can long-term viable shopping centre nodes in the former homelands and townships be established?	Literature review Observation Questionnaire survey

3.7. Analysis

Reporting data involves more than just presenting it, the data gathered for this study need to be interpreted or analysed to say what it means, especially in relation to the study's research questions. The meaning from the study was established by using the thematic analysis approach because the thematic approach encourages the recognition of emerging and dominating themes as the focus of the study. A thematic data analysis approach is a method of identifying and analysing patterns of meaning within a dataset. It usually illuminates the dominant themes, the end result being to highlight the meaning presented by the study. According to Braun and Clarke (2006:17) the six stages for thematic analysis are: familiarisation with data, generating codes, searching for themes, reviewing themes, defining and naming themes, and producing a report. The thematic analysis process is a step-by-step process; it is also a back-and-forth process, which means that steps overlap, a feature which fits well with qualitative research (McMillan & Schumacher 2014:378).

In qualitative research, data analysis makes sense of data in terms of respondent's definition of the situation (Creswell, 2007:161). The reason for using thematic analysis in this study is that, unlike other qualitative data analysis techniques, the approach is clear in terms of knowledge demand, and does not involve the intricacies of theoretical foundations of qualitative research. The theoretical flexibility of this approach was essential in that it allowed the researcher to develop themes without restrictions. Furthermore, the use of a thematic approach was not only motivated by flexibility but also its ability to permit the researcher to use multiple-data sources. Therefore, the inherent features enabled the researcher to flexibly and systematically analyse the data.

3.7.1. Data processing

According to Kothari (2004:122, 23, 27) data processing,

“...implies editing, coding, classification and tabulation of collected data so that they are amenable to analysis. Editing of data is a process of examining the collected raw data (especially in surveys) to detect errors and omissions and to correct these when possible. Coding refers to the process of assigning numerals or other symbols to answers so that responses can be put into a limited number of categories or classes. Classification is the process of arranging data in groups or classes based on common characteristics. Tabulation is the process of summarising raw data and displaying the same in compact form (in the form of statistical tables) for further analysis.”

Thematic analysis was applied in this study as defined by Bricki and Green (2007:23), who define it as an analysis, “that looks across all the data to identify the common issues that recur and identify the main themes that summarise all the views you have collected”. This method was used to arrange data into themes and headings in this research document, and to create tables that summarise the data while providing statistical information for the study.

3.7.2. Statistical data treatment

Quantitative research is constructed from observations that are changed into separate units that are compared to other units, using statistical analysis. There may be changes and variations in the general description of quantitative research, therefore, statistical analysis is an important component of quantitative research (Tamene, 2016:54). In this study, Microsoft® Excel® was used for basic data capturing and data analysis, while the IBM® SPSS® (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) was used for statistical analysis and for hypothesis testing.

Statistical information generated for this research was coded into tables, figures, graphs, and charts. The coding allows for the data to be summarised, easily accessed, interpreted, and to present it in visual form. The data were used to support the qualitative data used in this research. To ensure the validity and reliability of the data, the data are read repeatedly, continuously reviewed, and analysed. To ensure the

credibility of this study, the researcher adopted a research design that allowed for data to be collected in a proper manner and subjected the research to be reviewed by the supervisor, the co-supervisor, and peer research colleagues.

3.8. Study design worthiness

Among the various strategies available within qualitative research is the protection against bias and enhancing validity and reliability of the study. In qualitative work, the strategy deployed during the study depends on the judgment and skill of the researcher, and the appropriateness of the data in answering the research question(s). It is evident that all studies are selective, depending on the collection of particular sorts of evidence through the prism of particular methods, each of which has its strengths and weaknesses (Creswell, 2007:205; Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2008:560). Authentic citations were used to increase the trustworthiness of the study and to demonstrate to readers from where and what kinds of original data types are formulated (Elo *et al.*, 2014:7).

3.8.1. Validity

Most of the time, emphasis is placed on the traits of validity and reliability, although qualitative methods underscore the importance of validity and generalisability (Creswell, 2007:202). Some researchers view validity and reliability for quantitative and qualitative research as similar, however, according to McMillan and Schumacher (2014:190) quantitative validity and reliability focus more on instruments and data analysis techniques, while qualitative validity and reliability focus on the trustworthiness of the data collection instrument, the content of data analysed, and whether or not the conclusion rests on the data. However, evidence of validity must be contested either through generalisation or transferability. Hence, validity is enhanced by providing a sufficiently full description of the research conducted so that the reader may assess the extent to which the conclusion drawn in this context may be transferred to another study (Creswell, 2007:206).

Careful and accurate application research methodology application in this study will allow for reliable and valid data, results and conclusions that meet the standards of good science. The validity of this study will again be underscored by the research design(case study) which focuses on addressing the research questions and objectives. External validity will be realised by drawing a representative sample from the population using stratified random sampling.

3.8.2. Reliability

Reliability estimates the consistency of the measurement or more simply, the degree to which an instrument measures the same way each time it is used under the same conditions with the same subjects. Reliability is essentially about consistency. Therefore, reliability is primarily synonymous with dependability and consistency over time, over the instrument, and over a group of respondents (Creswell, 2007:207). The use of reliability in qualitative research is still contested. Debates on the naming of reliability in

qualitative research have proposed other terms, such as credibility, neutrality, conformability, consistency, dependability, applicability, trustworthiness, and transferability. Therefore, this discussion in research methodology rigour has been simultaneously and interchangeably used as in the list of terms mentioned above (Creswell, 2007:202; Adams et al., 2007:235). The reliability of data used in this study was tested using the Kappa reliability test and Cronbach's alpha test in Table 9- 2 and 9- 4 section 9.4.

3.8.3. Credibility

Credibility addresses the issues about whether or not the study is undergirded by an appropriate theory and whether or not the claimed findings are really there. Hence, the process of research credibility draws rigour strategies to confirm the process' appropriateness. The strategies which were enhanced during this study for the credibility of the findings are the research process, which involved the selection of respondents, the questionnaire process and the data analysis process (Adams et al., 2007:235; Creswell, 2007:206). The study conducted document analysis of policy, by-laws and development frameworks, questionnaire survey to personnel qualified in the development and management of growth centres and shopping centres, as well as observations as the methods of data collection. This revealed various dimensions relating to growth centres and shopping centres in MLM and BLM. The idea of using two methods was to generate as much and as diverse data as possible to facilitate the development of meaningful conclusions.

The study equally utilised the descriptive approach, which Creswell (2007:201) recommended as a means of enhancing the trustworthiness of a qualitative study. Therefore, the phenomenon under study, the context surrounding it, collection and analysis of data, and the findings, are presented in detail. This was intended to give the study a clear picture, demonstrating that the study is grounded on facts. Therefore, the strategies were not only used to guarantee study worthiness and credibility, but also to generate a richer explanation of data with minimum faults (Adams, et al, 2007:235).

3.8.4. Transferability

It is argued that qualitative data is better judged on its transferability than on generalisation. This is because qualitative research findings are often specific to a unit of analysis and its environment. Therefore, it is not easy to apply specific findings and conclusions to another population. This study endeavoured to provide sufficient information on the unit of analysis and the research process to enable readers to establish whether or not the described situation might be replicated, and whether or not the findings are transferable to another situation (Creswell, 2007:2002; McMillan & Schumacher, 2014:192). There may be limitations in the extent to which describing details of the process is concerned.

3.9. Research limitations

Effort has been made to make sure that the research is designed and conducted to enhance the opportunity to attain the aim of the study. However, there are limitations that should be acknowledged.

Case studies have been adopted as a qualitative research design and it is based on a constructivism philosophy. The researcher can be subjective in a quest to defend the suppositions of this research. The respondents are given a chance to tell their story, which impact on the information they have provided because in constructive paradigm the significance of the subjective nature of human construction of meaning is acknowledged. Besides the limitations that have been mentioned, there is still an element of objectivity in the discussions and conclusions drawn from the research.

The study is limited to the Limpopo Province and data was collected in BLM and MLM municipalities within the VDM and MDM. It was difficult to gather information within MLM because of the socio-political unrest and the processes of adjusting the municipal boundaries within the district. The strained political and social relations were evident as community and government officials were very cautious and uneasy in providing information. The situation also resulted in some of the targeted respondents withdrawing from interviews. The sample consists of 390 respondents because people were not willing to participate, some needed a small enticement while others were afraid of being discriminated against in their workplace based on their participation. The chances for the study to be applicable on an international level is limited, but not impractical. The study is also reliant on the responses of the respondents who might be subjective in nature, hence generalisation might not be completely accurate, but not dishonest.

3.10. Ethical consideration

According to the North-West University (2010:46)

“Ethics is the practice of aligning human life, individually or collectively, or institutional structures and practices, according to basic standards of conduct; Generally speaking, human conduct, practices and institutions are judged to be good or bad, right or wrong, in the light of such standards of conduct; Standards of conduct take on the form of values/principles, obligations, rights, and consequences, and meeting those standards emanate from good character or virtues.”

Ethical issues in research are about the consequence of the researcher's conduct in relation to that of the respondents in data collection. The institution also states that every research that involves people must be sanctioned by the Research Ethics Committee prior to the commencement of the study. Ethical clearance has been granted by the institution before the commencement of this research (North West University, 2010:49).

All requirements of the institution are complied with. Thorough consideration was given to ethical issues specified by the Sustainable Planning, Development, and Implementation Sub-programme Colloquium such as restricting respondents in this research to municipalities, government, politicians, and professionals working with the identification and planning of growth points; and involving only qualified persons with the relevant competence in the subject area or field. When collecting data, survey

questionnaires provided to the above-mentioned persons included general instructions to clarify the purpose of the research study; a general orientation of the topic of the questionnaire; informed consent in terms of the requirements of participation; who is sponsoring the research; confidentiality statements; and statements of voluntary participation. Data collected remain the property of the researcher and will be used in this study and not for any other purpose. The data is treated in a manner that protects the confidentiality and anonymity of the respondents by quantifying and coding the data.

3.11. Conclusion

The chapter outlined the research methodology used in this study. A research design was proposed as the procedure for conducting the study, of which the purpose is to specify a plan for generating data to be used in answering the research questions. Both qualitative and quantitative methods are used. Qualitative methods include observations, and case study methods while the quantitative method used is the questionnaire survey method. The study uses two case studies, the first case study is the Elim Mall, in the previous homeland area Elim/ Waterval area in MLM; and the second in the former Lebowa area is Namakgale Crossing, in a township (urban area) called Namakgale in BLM. It is assumed that these case studies are representative of other cases of a specific type, namely, rural shopping centres in previous homeland areas like the Elim Mall and Namakgale Crossing.

Elim Mall and Namakgale Crossing shopping centres offer insight into conditions and activities prevailing in rural shopping centres of the same category. The size of the sample is determined by the optimum number necessary to enable valid inferences to be made about the population and in this study a sample of 390 respondents was used. Qualitative research recognises that some informants are richer than others, therefore, a stratified random sampling strategy was used to select the targeted respondents within both municipalities. The next chapter examines the creation and growth of growth centres in formerly colonised countries with an aim of highlighting the benefits that growth centres as tools in regional planning can offer.

CHAPTER 4: THE ESTABLISHMENT AND DEVELOPMENT OF GROWTH CENTRES IN FORMERLY COLONISED COUNTRIES

4.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses the application of the growth poles theory discussed in chapter three in selected developing countries with a history of colonisation. These countries have a similar background of colonisation as was the case in South Africa. They are discussed with an aim of highlighting how they have applied the growth pole strategy post-colonisation to deal with the inequalities created by the previous colonial system in their territories. This chapter starts by introducing the topic, followed by an analysis of the application and experiences of Brazil in section 4.3; Argentina in section 4.4; India in section 4.5; Kenya in section 4.6 Kenya; and Zimbabwe in section 4.7. Section 4.8 provides lessons learnt from the above-mentioned countries. Section 9 offers concluding remarks. Figure 4-1 below summarises the entire chapter in a diagrammatic representation.

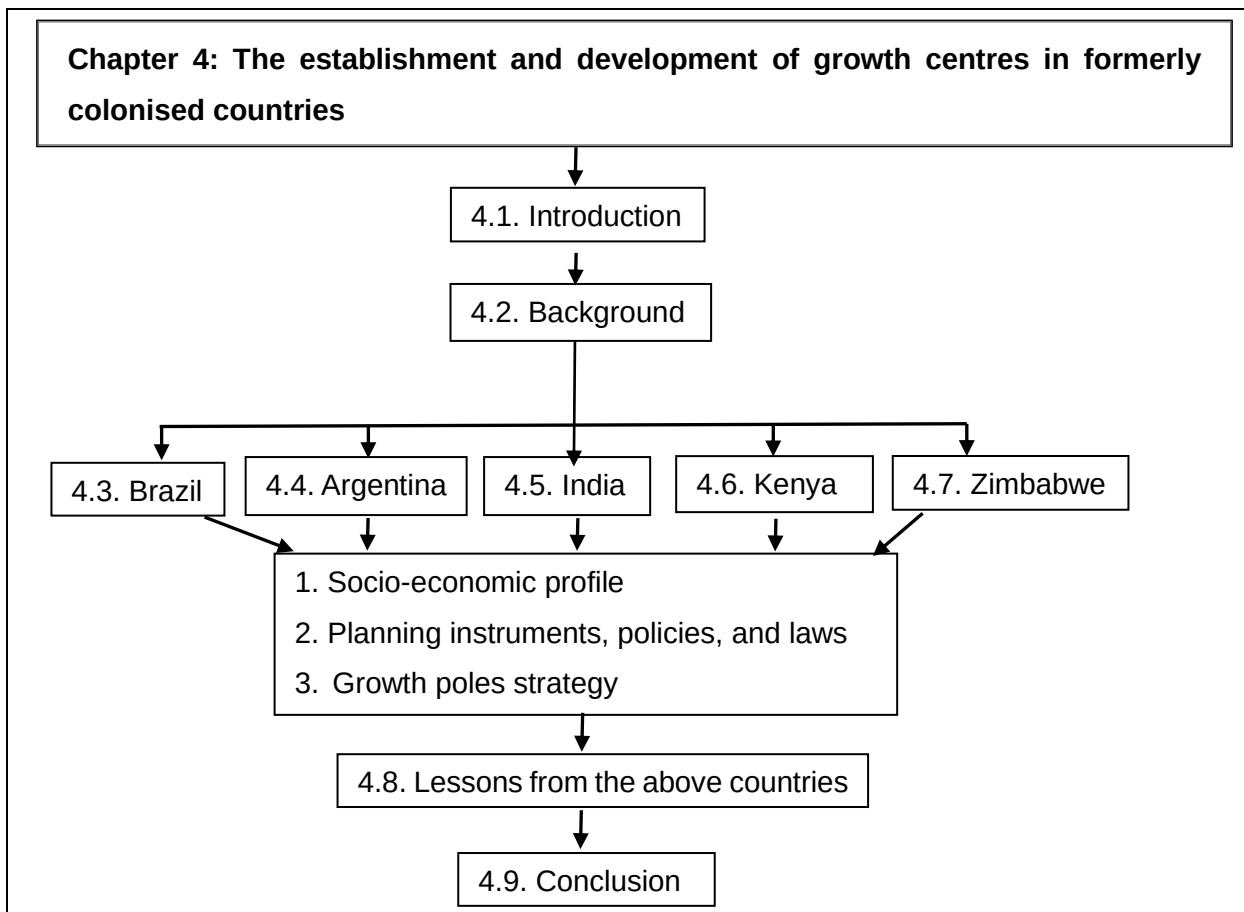


Figure 4-1:Chapter 4 structure

Source: Own construction (2018)

4.2. Background

Growth centre strategies have been implemented in various geographic locations and socio-economic perspectives. The fact that the growth poles theory has been applied in various policy frameworks, is an indication that the theory has become an international instrument and theoretical basis of regional policies in the era after the World War II (Christofakis & Papadaskalopoulos, 2011:5; Serra, 2003:15). The concept was placed in a spatial framework by Friedmann in his regional planning theory, the general theory of polarized development, and the centre-periphery model. This concept is linked to Frank's (1968) model of world metropolis where there is a chain of metropolitan satellites and each satellite has a monopoly of power over its satellites.

The colonies in Africa, Asia and Latin America shifted power from their colonisers whereby their resources were to benefit the core, which was the country from which the colonisers come from. Colonialism is defined as, "a formal devise by which large parts of Latin America, Africa and Asia became incorporated into the international capitalist economy" (Gore, 1984:130, 131). From the same concept of core and periphery, modernisation is defined as "the diffusion of innovation from a 'polar' region to peripheral subordinate regions, and or from an anterior historical period to a subsequent one" (Gore, 1984:135). In this case the Polar Regions are the colonisers, the developed countries, and the periphery are the underdeveloped, third world or developing countries.

According to Amos (1990:37) Friedmann's theory of growth poles is concerned with "societal 'development' characterised as an innovation process leading to the structural transformation of social systems, where innovations may be technical or institutional". According to Tolosa and Reiner (1970:450) from the national point of view, "the prime goal in the programming of a system of planned poles is the elimination or reduction of existing centre-periphery inequities." It is from the situation stated above that growth centres are implemented to redress the imbalances created by the colonial system in previously colonised countries such as the ones discussed below. The introduction of growth centres in these countries is, to a large extent, aimed at bringing development in the countries from a local municipality level to a national level. The selected countries include Brazil, Argentina, India, Kenya, and Zimbabwe and they are discussed below in that sequence.

4.3. Brazil

South America is a continent in the southern hemisphere, which is part of the former colonised Latin American countries regarded as the peripheral regions in the world economy. Brazil is in South America and has an area of 8,547,400 square kilometres, which makes it the fifth biggest country in the world and is rated the first, powerful economy in Latin America. Map 4-2 shows the location of the country within the context of South America. It has the most impeccable industrial system in the region, yet as a developing

country, it has an imbalanced development between economy and society, which is demonstrated by severe regional difference and poverty (Wang & Sun, 2013:2).



Figure 4-2: Map of Brazil

Source: Land Info Worldwide Mapping (2013a:1)

4.3.1. Socio-economic profile

Portugal colonised Brazil with an emphasis on commercial development, rather than on settlement until 1930. The country became mostly urbanised during the 1960s while in the 1970s over half of the population and the poor were living in rural areas. By 1981, 77% of Brazilians were urbanised (Irazabal, 2009:42-43). Like the other Latin American countries, Brazil's colonial past left the country with an extremely skewed land distribution procedure and an economy that is geared towards the export of primary commodities. In the 16th and 17th century, an early pattern of urban primacy was introduced whereby Recife, Salvador, and Rio de Janeiro became the main destination for agricultural trade. During the 1960s, interpersonal income differences were increased, particularly in the urban areas and the Brazilian economy was primarily operating in Sao Paulo, the capital city. However, the south-east regions developed, while the north-east regions were neglected and remained underdeveloped (Martine & McGranahan, 2013:9).

4.3.2. Planning policies and laws

The implementation of the Imports Substituting Industrialization policy was to address economic aspects and it was successful at developing local industries, some of which developed into main exporters resulting in high growth rates during that period (Martine & McGranahan, 2013:9, 13). Brazil's economic development has affected planning practices and regional growth significantly. Deregulation and reform started in the 1990s and marked the introduction of lowered trade barriers and non-tariff barrier's removal. The Brazilian government has since played an interventionist role in growth development, as well as the reduction of poverty and inequality. In 2007, the government introduced the growth acceleration plan. The second phase in 2010 planned to stimulate a more sustained and equitable economic growth within a short period of time. Brazil serves as one example of countries with neoliberal economic policies (Almeida, 2016:10).

The Statute of the City, which was approved by Brazil's new Constitution in 1988 and adopted in 2001, regulates the development of master plans in all municipalities with a population of over 20,000 urban inhabitants, and those within the boundaries of a metropolitan region or urban agglomeration. A key article of this law endorsed the principle of the social function of urban property, creating instruments that allowed the government to tax or impose the use of unoccupied properties and not fulfil their social function. Infrastructure works were assigned for political reasons rather than economic rationales (Martine & McGranahan, 2010:48). Table 4-1 below highlights Brazil's instrumental planning laws and their impact as planning instruments in that country.

Table 4-1: Brazil's instrumental planning laws

Source: Own creation (2018)

Planning laws	Impact
Brazilian Institute of Environment and Renewable Natural Resources Law 7,735/1989	Protecting the environment, ensuring the sustainable use of natural resources, and promoting environmental quality nationally. There is a need to decentralise the administrative actions of IBAMA (Brazilian Institute of Environment and Renewable Natural Resources), because of the large size of Brazil that burdens the supervisory activities of the body
Law 11,284/2006	Public forest management, which regulates the management decentralisation process Union forest to the states and municipalities (Castelo, 2015:215)
Article 182	Establishes the principle of the social function and creates instruments for the state to tax or force the utilisation of properties that are not inhabited and therefore do not fulfil the social function.
Usucapiao urbano	Creates the ability to establish incontestable title of ownership for residents who have squatted continuously for five years on small lots of urban land, given no legitimate opposition to the change in title.

The Estatuto da Cidade	Aims to promote sustainable development and combat inequality through proper regulation and democratic management.
Statute of the City (Law No. 10, 257/01)	The principle of the social function of the urban property was established and introduced new rights, such as the right to housing.
Constitutional Amendment No. 26, of 2000)	Article 6 deals with urban planning and land regularisation.
Statute of the Metropolis Federal Law No. 13,089, 2015	Aimed at correcting and filling the gaps left by the constitutional text, by clarifying concepts, defining instruments and source of funds. Structuring the inter-federal governance and guidelines for planning and management.
Integrated Urban Development Plan	Institutionalise the National Urban Development Policy and the National Regional Development Policy.
Law No. 12,112 of 2009	Amended the Law on Tenancy of 1991, and gave a faster pace to eviction procedures, constituted an incentive for owners to review their contracts, increasing the possibilities of conflicts over urban land.
Interministerial Ordinance No. 17, 2014.	Established the Intersectoral Commission for Urban Conflict Mediation.

4.3.3. Growth pole strategy in Brazil

The growth poles theory was applied in Brazil during its early stages when Boudeville (1957) attempted an experimental presentation of the notion of growth poles and their location in geographic space by evaluating the influence of the steel smelting industry on the economy of the province of Minas Gerais, Brazil. This experiment resulted in Perroux's growth pole being linked to a geographic space and evolving from a growth pole, which is abstract to a growth pole in space referred to as a growth centre. For the first time, Perroux's theory was applied in an economic space and yielded results as it was modified to suit the situation in Minas Gerais, Brazil (de Garassi, 2015:113; Markusen, 2018:167- 174).

Therefore, it is in Brazil where the first growth centre was applied in a developing country and paved way for growth centres as they are known today. However, the failure of growth centres is attributed to Booneville's modification of Perroux's growth points. Nevertheless, Brazil is an example of a country that successfully applied the growth pole theory and modernisation models (Serra, 2003:18). The strategy was implemented to assist in redistributing wealth out of the developed, prosperous south-east regions to the other parts of the country, more especially, the disadvantaged north-east regions.

Growth centres in Brazil were also implemented to redress the injustices of past colonial policies (Irazabal, 2009:47; Martine & McGranahan, 2013:7). The country's development policies employed Perroux's development pole theory as a theoretical justification for economic objectives of fast-tracking economic growth, and for the geopolitical objectives of national integration and occupation of the Amazon by the military regime (Serra, 2003:26). The spatial approach of Brazilian development plans was based on Perroux's development pole theory and were implemented according to the directives established in line with the theory. Table 4-2 below outlines how the strategy was applied in the country based on the policy instrument used to promote growth and development based on the strategy.

Table 4-2: Brazil's instrumental policies in growth centre development

Source: Own creation (2018) partly based on Serra (2003:2, 18, 26-28)

Policy/Law	Impact
SUDENE (Supretendency for Development of the Northeast) 1960s III Master Plan for Economic and Social Development of Northeast (1966-68)	Promoted development in Salvador and in rural development centres to achieve redistribution of capital out of the wealthy south-east regions, thereby fostering population deconcentration from coastal cities and the occupation of the large central-west region (Martine & McGranahan, 2010:45). Facilitated the construction of Goiania, Brasilia and a road network that linked the capital with the 20 states and territories of the Union and the Amazon region. Formalized the development poles, called agro-mineral growth development poles. Used development poles in its III Master Plan for Economic and Social Development of the Northeast. Created small metropolitan poles within Sao Paulo State, and transferred the administrative capital inland to Brasilia. Created new urban centres, distinct from its colonial past to redress the injustices of the colonial policies that established the capital at the shore to support export trade to the colonising countries (Brillembourg, 2013:3; Rossi, 2009:655). The policy was regarded as too diffused to be labelled a growth pole strategy. The trans-Amazonian highway created an environmental disaster (Serra, 2003:18-19).
PND I (1972-74)	Facilitated the selection of development and integration poles in priority areas and border zones to achieve regional priorities, through the concentration of investment. Managed to address the imbalances caused by the colonial system (Rossi, 2009:655).
PDN II (1975-79)	Maintained fast rates of growth. Its spatial development strategy was formalized in the POLAMAZONIA programme (abolished 1987). Had 15 development poles selected based on their potential: mineral, forestry, agro-livestock and agro-industrial potential. Incentives and infrastructural. Investments provided by the Federal Government to accelerate economic growth and create favourable conditions for the poles. Failed to generate significant momentum in reorganising

	urban growth (Martine & McGranahan, 2010:47). Succeeded in eight metropolitan centres and in the Amazon. Transformed Belo Horizonte, Mina Gerais and Rio Grande do Sul into development poles and established secondary centres in the same regions (Darwent, 1969:13). Had a positive effect on the social, physical, and political aspects of the country. However, the challenge was the developers and implementers of the policy, who were viewed as not having a proper understanding of Perroux's theory.
Polamazoni 1975-1979	Legalised by Decree-Law n° 74,607 on the 25th of September 1974. Investments were directed into infrastructure development, capital subsidies, taxation with a purpose of creating structural changes through accelerated economic growth.
PDN III 1979	Focused on increasing exports and reducing the external debt crisis. Emphasised the need to deepen development in designated poles through POLAMAZONIA. Identified mining as the main sector in the Amazon. Maintained some of the objectives of previous plans, e.g., import substitution of basic inputs, petroleum exploration, activities directed at increasing exports. The state was decentralised into subregions.
Integrated Development Plan 1980	Emphasised investment in infrastructure. Social issues were neglected, and public policy was top-down oriented.
Multiyear Plan (1996-99)	Focused on selected development axes (included strategic projects to eliminate barriers for export crops and minerals transportation). Resulted in agricultural modernisation and development of agricultural complexes.
Plurianual Plan (2000-2003)	Focus on regional economic development pole at national level.
The Growth Acceleration Plan (2007) 2 nd phase (2010)	Promoted faster, more sustained, and equitable economic growth. The goal was to develop infrastructure, housing, energy, and transport. Receiving the major shares of investment through the programme in both phases.

Brazil's public roads are neglected, parking availability in cities is low, and there is a huge distance between cities and locations. The primary transportation infrastructure has many challenges, which includes the need to upgrade roads and ports. The most common method of cargo transportation is by roads because of the inadequate rail network. Waterways are mainly used in the Amazon region where rivers are the only way to access most of the remote areas. The public transportation infrastructure is comprised of 50% road infrastructure, 25% railways, 17% waterways and the remaining percentage is covered by air transportation. Public transportation includes metro buses, Bus Rapid Transit (BRT) and mass transportation. Sixty-one % of the total freight is by road, 21% by rail transportation, which was 30%

private partnership for highways in Brazil effectively started; the Brazilian experience shows that private ownership of infrastructure has, in general, led to better management and investments in the rehabilitation of the network. This is a key issue in terms of the country's competitiveness (World Bank, 2009:13).

4.4. Argentina

The Republic of Argentina is a federal country in South America. It shares borders with Chile to the west, Bolivia and Paraguay to the north, and Brazil, Uruguay, and the Atlantic Ocean to the east as depicted in Figure 4-4.



Figure 4-4: Map of Argentina

Source: Heinonen *et al.* (2016:6)

4.4.1. Socio-economic profile

Spain colonised Argentina until 1816. In this year, the United Provinces of the Rio Plata affirmed their liberation from Spain, separating from Bolivia, Paraguay, and Uruguay to become Argentina. During the colonial period (1575 - 1768) the Spanish Crown allowed Jesuit missionaries to play a major role in re-organising local societies and allocating land for agricultural use and creating small towns. At present, the country consists of a national state, 24 federated units with constitutions, 23 provinces and an independent city of Buenos Aires, which is the capital of the country. Each province has its own constitution adapted

from the national constitution and controls its own political, economic, social, and cultural matters. The provinces are further divided into municipalities, the lowest level of government administration. The legal status of the municipalities differs from province to province (Muzzini, 2017:5).

The situation described above indicates that each area is autonomous, which results in uneven development, fragmentation of public works planning throughout all levels of government, and restricted municipal responsibilities and capability mostly preventing integration. The country has a population of 44,688,864 million people and 90% of the population live in cities, which makes it the most urbanised country in Latin America. The population grows more in the Buenos Aires metropolitan area and in the peri-urban areas at an annual rate of 1.6 % (Fensham, 2013:11).

4.4.2. Planning policies and laws

Historically, Argentina has never had national urban, land and spatial planning laws. Spatial planning has never been a function of the national and provincial governments, though their policies and actions have a significant impact on urban development (Monkkonen & Ronconi, 2013:8). From a spatial planning point, the challenge that the country is faced with is that there are no institutional and legal instruments to efficiently manage or coordinate urban growth. The largest cities grow uncontrolled and fragmented, substantial infrastructure backlogs, traffic congestion, rising car dependence and growing geographic inequality between the employed and the unemployed.

There is also a lack of established metropolitan planning. The national government has since prepared El Plan Estrategico Territorial, a national strategic plan, which addresses land and infrastructure, Urban Argentina, and Integration with international territories (Fensham, 2013:11). As mentioned, in the past, spatial planning has not been a great concern of national and provincial governments, however policies and actions of these levels of government had a significant impact on urban development. Public investments have changed territorial development and transformed the physical and socio-economic arrangement or planning of cities and regions, especially in recent years (Monkkonen & Ronconi, 2013:8).

4.4.3. Growth poles strategy

From a spatial viewpoint, development in Argentina is influenced by the interaction between an increasing concentration of activities in the core region and the relocation of activities from the core to the peripheral regions. The Greater Buenos Aires area is positioned in a wider region that can be labelled as the Rosario Buenos Aires LA Plata corridor. In this context, there is enough evidence that there is a concentration of economic growth in the core provinces, particularly those that have the most active and have economic sectors that are focused on export. There is also a growing move of economic activities from the centre of Buenos Aires towards the periphery. This type of growth pole approach is focused on national economic growth whereby in practice a country pursues the strategy unconsciously. The government invested first in the capital city in the early stage of economic growth because the city has a large population and

potential to bring about rapid growth, and it is easier to invest in infrastructure in the expanding capital city.

Table 4 3 outlines Argentina’s policies used in growth pole development

Table 4-3: Argentina’s policy for growth pole development

Source: Own creation (2018)

Law/ Policy	Description
The National Development Plan (1970-1975)	Warned about the country’s extreme dependence on the capital and identified growth centres (Rossi, 2009:655).
Competitiveness Plan with promotional incentives (2001)	Most provinces have in place one form of incentive or another, ranging from tax breaks to production subsidies, including creating export processing zone. Every province had a special industrial infrastructure. The incentives expired in 2013. Areas such as Tierra del Fuego had a tax-free zone until 1972. Provinces attracted industries through such fiscal incentives during 1974–94. The incentives in regions that were left behind were aimed at equal distribution of income and it included Patagonia, Rio Negro, La Rioja, Salta, Neuquen, Catamarca, and Jujuy (de Ferranti et al., 2005:217 -219).

Forty % of the road network is in poor condition, while 95% of freight is transported by truck. Five % of the total freight is transported by railway, which has an average speed of 14km per hour. Ports and waterways have limitations on infrastructure and access to infrastructure, which resulted in the loss of competitiveness that did not permit proper operation of large ships. The air sector has low domestic connectivity, has half the number of passengers or per capita number as compared to the rest of the region, and there is a chance for improvement in security and air traffic control. Urban mobility is characterised by 15 million people who use the MRBA, inadequate public transport in the provinces, and inferior infrastructure standards. The government has developed a transport plan (2016- 2019) to improve the quality and operation of the transport system in the country. Cities, towns, and villages are accessed by means of these transport modes (Ministry of Transport, 2016:1).

The transport network in Argentina that linked cities, towns, and villages as growth centres is illustrated in Figure 4-5. Brazil and Argentina demonstrate how planning laws, policies and strategies to eradicate the colonial city structure within their respective boundaries could be used. The countries shaped the spatial structures of their cities in line with the respective government’s urban planning interventions, which resulted in the four city structure models outlined in Figure 4-6.

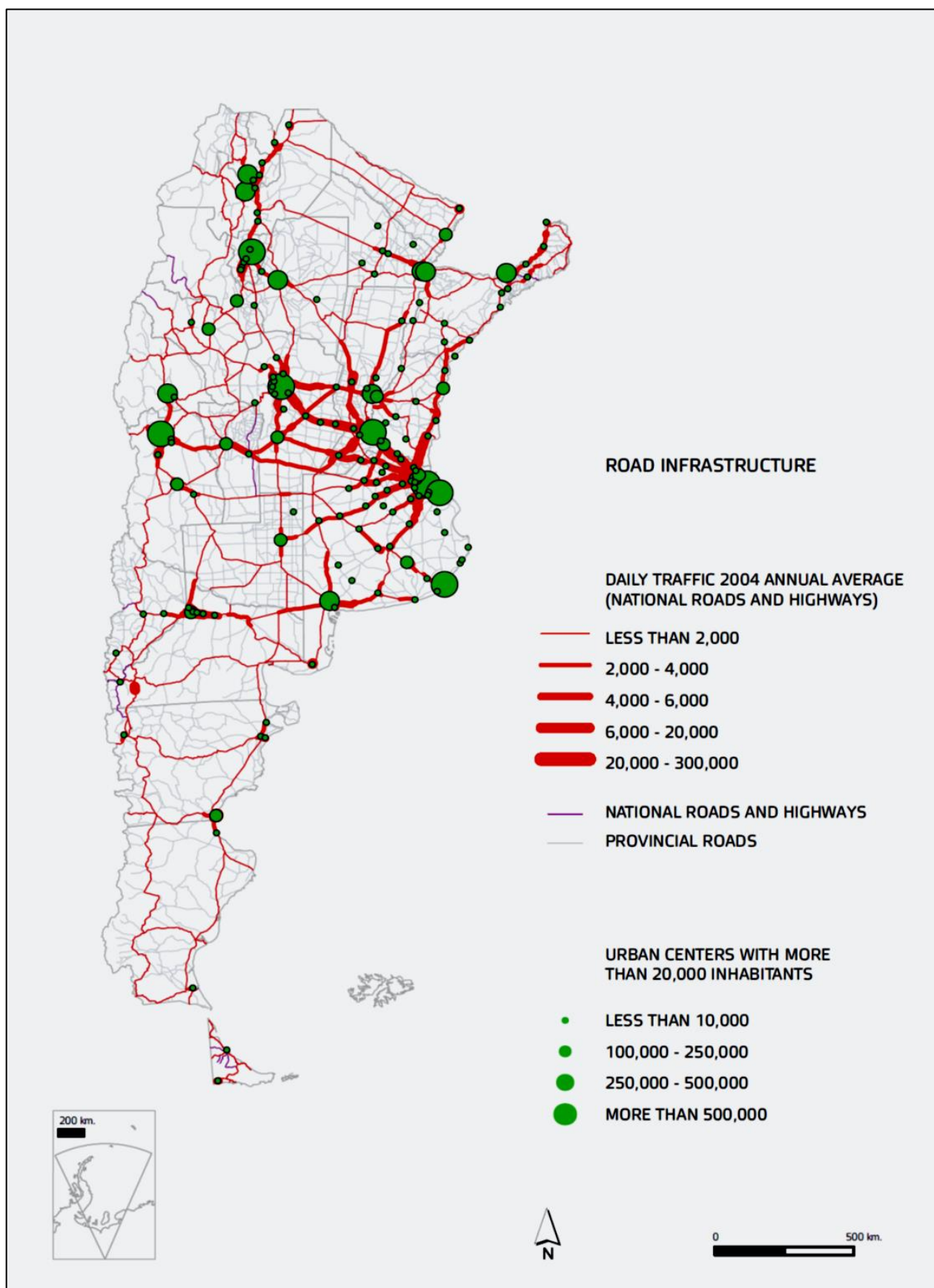


Figure 4-5: Argentina road transport network

Source: Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Worship (2012:29)

The Latin American city model evolved from the colonial compact, sectorial, polarised city structure to a fragmented agglomeration city structure. This evolution illustrates that government intervention, laws, policies and designs can transform the spatial structure of settlements, neighbourhoods and towns. Each model in the figure above originated and is branded by specific structural principles as well as urban laws and policies. Shopping centres are no longer restricted to the upper class but distributed in the entire city or urban structure.

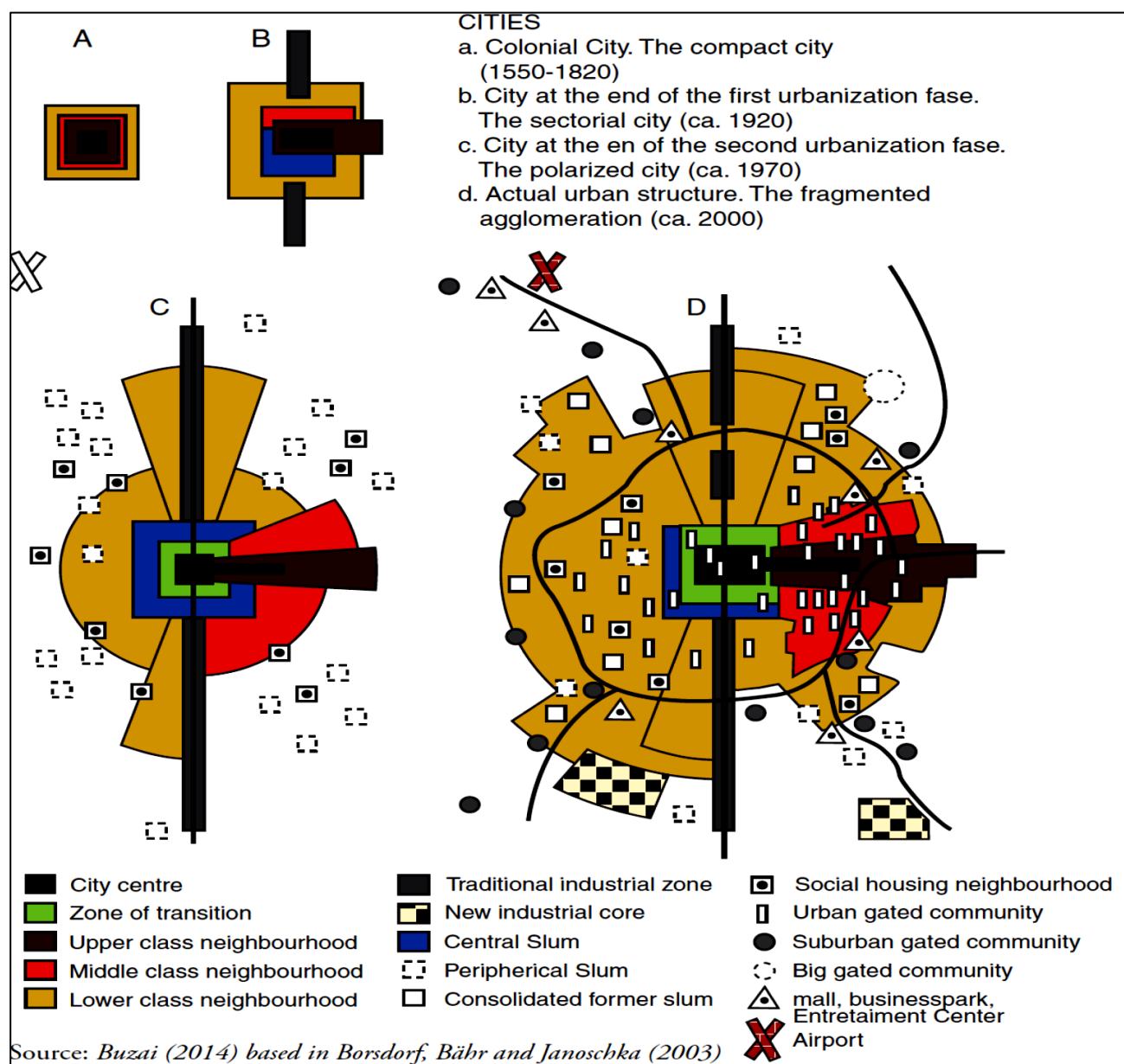


Figure 4-6: Latin American urban structural development model

Source: Borsdorf and Hidalgo (2016:281)

In the past, the main traits of urban development were growing polarisation, superimposed on the sectoral principle of urban growth, and principles of postmodern urban development. Currently the neoliberal political and economic system driven by private interventions, which privatise urban development in

response to real-estate market demands as well as the principles of postmodern urban development, are changing the urban spatial form of cities in Latin America resulting in fragmented urban nodal structures depicted in Figure 4-6 (Borsdorf & Hidalgo (2010:32,33). This type of fragmentation is a result of economic development, not colonial policies.

4.5. India

Unlike South America, India is a subcontinent. It is a country in the south of Asia bordering the Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal, Pakistan, Afghanistan, China, Nepal, Bhutan, Myanmar and Bangladesh. The country is divided into 35 states or union territories and 640 districts. The location of the country and states is outlined in Figure 4-7.

4.5.1. Socio-economic profile

India became independent from colonial rule in 1947 and implemented planning policies that promoted an anti-urban bias and funding that focused on rural development projects. India did take up the responsibility for the planned development of cities and towns except for the national capital city and a few state capital cities and industrial cities. Therefore, urbanisation remained market driven, even after the colonial period, and the model of socialistic pattern of development. During the first years after independence the national capital grew and was protected and guided by the government (Singh & Shukla, 2005:4).

4.5.2. Planning policies and laws

The Indian, state-built Chandigarh, Bhubaneswar, and Gandhinagar as designated new cities for political administration at state level and industrial townships. In the late 19th Century, new cities developed to form transportation hubs, hill stations and cantonments, market towns for exporting agricultural products where small industrial clusters for specialised products also emerged, especially in Tamil Nadu, Salem, Tiruchirappalli, and Madurai. Other noteworthy cities such as today's Uttar Pradesh, Ahmedabad and Hyderabad developed at the beginning of the 20th Century. They are still counted amongst the top ten cities in India (Tumbe, 2016:10, 25).

4.5.3. Growth poles strategy

The unique aspect of India's implementation of growth centres is that it went beyond the general notion of stimulating lagging regions, and the decentralisation of infrastructure and services; it was to address development issues within the unique context of India. The concept had to be modified to be relevant and applicable in the agricultural sector of India. In one of the growth pole development projects, development of poles had to be undertaken simultaneously in twenty different situations in twenty development blocks all throughout the country (Rushton, 1983:33-35; Shah, 1985:47).



Figure 4-7: India – Location of provinces and cities in India

Source: Payyappallimana and Koike (2010:172)

The growth pole concept in its original form may not be relevant in India's agrarian economy and given the diversity of India's economy and its territorial size, it is not possible to focus on one growth centre that has national relevance. According to Chaudhuri (2001:158) the weakness of the growth pole theory is its urban and industrial bias; inapplicable to certain regional problems and its functional rigidity that led to the assimilation of its basic elements, central place theory (CPT), and spatial diffusion theory to extend the growth poles concept to a new hybrid concept referred to as the concept of growth foci or development foci. This was done to address economic growth issues in India, which emanated from innovations in agriculture and not manufacturing.

This concept of growth foci will assist in urbanisation and regional economic development in India. The growth foci concept is comprised of a five-tier hierarchy with the central village at the local level, the service centres at the micro regional level, the growth points at the sub regional level, the growth centres at the regional level and the growth poles at the national level (Mandal, 1989:539- 540). Table 4- 4 outlines the five tiers at each level as mentioned above. The development and implementation of the growth foci concept is an achievement as it addressed innovations from the agricultural industry. This model of growth centre is now used in other countries including African countries like Zimbabwe and Kenya as discussed in the next section of this document.

Table 4-4: Hierarchy of growth foci in India

Source: Rengasamy (2009:25); Chaudhuri (2001:158); Mandal (1989:539- 540)

Hierarchy of growth foci with population and coverage	Nature of growth foci and facilities expected
1. Central village. Population 6000 covering 6 villages.	Nature: revenue village or village panchayat. Facilities expected: offering marketing, recreational and social services; will have primary school, sub post office, health sub centre, and primary cooperative.
2. Service centre Population 30,000 covering 5 central villages + 5,000 population in the service centre itself; Town Panchayat	Nature: headquarters of the extension officers, minor govt. functionaries; focal points for social intercourse. Facilities expected: will have grocery store general merchant shops, minor repair facilities, tailor, larger shops, restaurants, primary and middle school, sub-post office, co-operative bank, rice mill, flour mill, cinema theatre.
3. Growth points Coverage 1.5 lakh population i.e. serving 5 service centres plus 10,000 to 25,000	Nature: sub-regional innovative and propulsive urban centres; contribute to the social, economic, and emotional integration of the respective sub-region; linked with sister growth points by state highways and with the service centres by district/local road networks.

population of the growth point itself municipal town or taluk head quarters	Facilities expected: will contain all the facilities located in the service centres. Over and above it will have agro-industries, dairy processing units, junior college, primary level specialised medical facilities etc.
4. Growth poles Coverage – 10 to 12 lakhs of population; plus 50, 000 to 5, 00,000 population of the growth centre itself.	Nature: there will be 500 growth centres in the country. District headquarters act as counter magnets to large urban centres liken Bombay, Madras, Calcutta, Delhi etc. Facilities expected: predominance of secondary activities; will have collecting, storage, and processing facilities for agricultural products; will produce agricultural inputs such as fertilizers, pesticides, and machines; will have radio/ television station, banking facilities, degree college, university, technical institutions; operation of external economies; will function as industrial hubs of the area they serve.
5. Growth poles Population of a growth pole ranges from 5 lakhs to 25 lakhs – It will serve a population of 20 – 30 million	Nature: designed to serve as the ‘heart’ of one macro region of the country; state headquarters. Facilities expected: will send out financial technological, research and industrial impulses to all centres and points within the area of their command; will perform highly specialised secondary and tertiary activities.

The five-year plan in India is outlined in Table 4-5, highlighting how the growth pole theory was applied in India. The goal of all India’s five-year plans is to promote growth, modernisation, self-reliance, and equity. To some extent, all the five-year plans have not met their objectives. The situation indicates that it is not an easy task to tackle issue of development and growth as there are a myriad of factors involved. However, India is making progress in meeting the needs of the rural people by effectively locating urban services in the best suitable locations and properly organising these services. Where these activities come together in spatial context, is where the growth foci or centre is created (Rushton, 1983:37).

Table 4-5: India’s five-year plans

Source: Own construction (2018)

Policy/ Legislation	Impact
First five-year plan (1951-56)	Promote growth by increasing domestic investments and help the economy recover from colonial rule (Mookherjee & White, 2011:22). Requisitioning and acquisition of Immovable Property Act, 1952.
Second five-year plan (Nehru-Mahalanobis Plan)	Industrialisation strategy, public investment in industry (Vyasulu, 2007:7). Planners emphasised balanced regional development. Pattern of investment must be created to lead balanced regional development. In 1960 Intensive Area Development Programme (IADP) was launched in seven selected

	districts of seven states. There was no decentralisation of factories for the rural areas because the backwardness of the rural areas was more serious than expected and the investment scheme that existed was not flexible enough to cover such areas and required that a model suitable for the Indian situation be devised.
Third five-year plan (1961-66)	Restrict growth of metropolitan cities; development of two state capitals and industrial towns (Vyasulu, 2007:7). Decongesting cities by planning and developing small town. Utilised the Master Plan (1962); JJ Removal scheme, 1960–67 80 sq. yard plot. Introduced 26 industrial sites. Balanced development emphasised benefits of economic growth extended to the less developed regions and extensive diffusions of industry.
Fourth five-year plan (1967-73)	Reduction of poverty, integrated rural development for improving the economy of small and subsistence farmers, balance economic activities and reduce central government involvement (Rushton, 1983:32). The Urban Land (Ceiling & Regulation) Act, 1976 - planning the spatial location of economic activity was introduced. Introduced integrated development of smaller towns. Investment was directed at the rural poor communities. The policy did not achieve much because of high inflation (Mishra & Fuloria, 2018:391).
Fifth five-year plan (1974-79)	Development of smaller towns and new urban centres reducing the impact of escalating urbanisation (World Economic Forum, 2016:7). Decongesting cities and creating or developing small towns. Planning the spatial location of economic activity. Master Plan approach in Delhi, Calcutta, Mumbai, Gandhi Nagar, Bhubaneswar approach of concepts of growth centre and central places strategies emphasised. The utilisation of subsidies was unsuccessful because they did not reach the poor but ended in Maharashtra, Tamil Nadu, Karnataka, and Kerala, which housed a fraction of the country's population only 20% of the total national population and the areas were not poor.
Sixth five-year plan (1980- 85) 1985–86	Provided an integrated approach to the problems of regional inequalities, the mechanism of area planning was adopted (World Economic Forum, 2016:7). Targeted smaller, medium, and intermediate towns for integrated provision of services. Prayog Vihar– insitu upgrading, introduced four sites situated near workplace and transportation available. Adopted the clustering growth centre development methods. The Information and Communication Technology Bangalore dominates the sector and there are 30 software technology parks (Choe & Roberts, 2011:61).
Seventh five-year plan (1985- 90)	Agricultural productivity, and human resource potential and reduction in inter-regional disparities.

Eighth five-year plan (1992- 97)	Remove regional disparity. Decentralisation of governance.
Ninth five-year plan (1997- 2002)	Continuation of earlier policies in achieving the regional balance. Decentralisation of governance. Constitution (74 th Amendment) Act 1992 The Urban Land (Ceiling & Regulation) Repeal Act, 1999 Major Relocation in late nineties (18 to 12 sq. yards).
Tenth five-year plan (2002- 2007)	Development of regions by ensuring the socio-economic development. Added emphasis on urban governance and continuing emphasis on shelter, sanitation, and employment. Relocation continues from the tenth to the current development plan. India acknowledges that urbanisation and industrial development cannot be avoided.
Eleventh five-year plan (2007- 2012)	Inclusive Growth Development of national highways for regions that are not connected.
Twelfth five-year plan (2012- 17)	Achievement of faster, sustainable, and more inclusive growth'. Development of national highways for regions that are not connected. Achieved GDP growth of 8.2% (Mishra & Fuloria, 2018:393).

India has a large road network, which includes national highways, expressways, state highways, district roads, PWD (Public Works Department) roads, and project roads. The roads remain the most significant mode of transport and the infrastructure transports over 65% of total goods and 80% passengers. It moves goods and people between settlements and areas where economic activities occur as illustrated in Figure 4-8. It joins all the growth centres together from village level up to national level (Sharma, 2018:3, 6). The private sector participates in the development of roads, and in 2017, 312 road projects were endorsed for development by the Public Private Partnership agreement. Public Private Partnership agreement is “a contract between a public-sector institution and a private party, where the private party performs a function that is usually provided by the public-sector and/or uses state property in terms of the [partnership]” (National Treasury. 2017:159).

In the same year, the government approved the development of world-class road infrastructure in the Jaffna region in Sri Lanka. Better connectivity amongst various cities, towns and villages led to added road traffic over the years. Even though most settlements are connected, there are still those that are in remote areas that are difficult to access. The Special Accelerated Road Development Programme for the north eastern region is meant to develop road connection between the north east remote areas with state capitals and district headquarters (India Brand Equity Foundation, 2018:3,5, 13).



Figure 4-8: India transportation system

Source: National Transport Development Policy Committee (2013:134)

4.6. Kenya

Kenya is in eastern Africa as depicted in the map in Figure 4-9, neighbouring Ethiopia to the north, Sudan in the north-west, Uganda in the west, in the south by Tanzania, and in the east by Somalia and the Indian Ocean. The map in Figure 4-9 shows the location of Kenya and some of the major cities.



Figure 4-9: Map of Kenya

Source: Land Info Worldwide Mapping (2013b:1)

4.6.1. Socio-economic profile

Kenya was colonised by British settlers until 1963. Like many developing countries, Kenya has countless development problems and most of the problems are linked to the effects of past colonisation. Development planning and other legislations during the colonial period were used to control, divide, and restrict Africans from residing in urban areas and in this way segregating the population into European, Asian and Africa groupings (Ngau, 2013:4, 5). Due to the racist colonial heritage that continued influencing the country's development for decades after independence, the country has stimulated integrated regional development targeted at lessening regional disparities to encourage economic growth in rural areas that were neglected by the settlers (Owuor & Mbatia, 2008:4).

The urban centres chosen for accelerated development were those with agricultural, administrative, tourist and industrial potential, proximity to population concentrations, acceptable levels of existing infrastructure,

and good accessibility via transportation and communication links (Fair,1986:75). Accessibility refers to, “people’s overall ability to reach services and activities, and therefore the time and money that people and businesses must devote to transportation” (Litman, 2018:1). According to Karaska (1997:771) Kenya's approach to economic development is referred to as 'rural-urban balance'; which is a strategy for investments in small towns and secondary cities to take advantage of rapidly growing agriculture. The colonial development trends persisted beyond the country’s independence in 1963 until the 1970s.

The current Kenyan economy is comprised of a small industrial sector. By the year 2013, the services sector contributed 63.4% of real Gross Domestic Product followed by agriculture with 20.7% and the industrial sector contributed 15.9% from which 9.5 % came from manufacturing. Over the past five years, the country’s Gross Domestic Product increased by an annual average of 3.7% with agriculture, the industrial sector, and services sector growing by 0.6%, 4.0%, and 4.5% respectively. These is an indication that Kenya has now of late experienced economic growth, however, the growth has not been inclusive as demonstrated by continuing high levels of poverty and regional disparities (East Africa Resource Center, 2014:2, 8). The Kenyan economy grew by 5.6% in 2015, increased by 5.9% in 2016 and 4.7% in the first quarter of 2017. The economic sectors that grew include agriculture, construction, real estate, finance, and insurance (Knight Frank, 2016a:1; Knight Frank, 2017:1).

4.6.2. Planning policies and laws

Planning in Kenya is the responsibility of the national and regional levels of government. Kenyans own land through succession, heirs get assets without paying any taxes to the public. Publicly owned land is allocated by the President or the Commissioner of Lands. The Commissioner of Lands (the custodian of all government and trust land) allocates land for different uses guided by the Physical Development Plans (Musyoka, 2006:243). Land that is available for distribution should be advertised in Kenya Gazette. Applications for land should be made to the chairperson of the Provincial or District Plot Allocation Committee and a non-refundable fee should be paid, and the local authority has the responsibility to provide infrastructure. Land for agricultural use is subdivided according to the requirements set out under the Land Control Act 1963 (Thuo, 2013:542). Additional laws and policies that facilitate the town planning and development planning processes in Kenya are outlined in Table 4-6.

Table 4-6: Kenya’s planning laws and policies

Source: Own Creation (2018)

Law/Policy	Impact
Rural Development Strategy, 2001 –2016	Aimed at reducing the decline in forest resources. Emphasises the necessity to manage, defend and preserve the forests as a source of wood, water, food, and nutritional preserve (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2012:14).

Integrated National Transport Policy (2009)	Addresses challenges in the transport sector by means of integrated transport infrastructure and operations and responding to the transportation needs of the market.
Kenyan Constitution (2010)	Article 69 (1 and 2) compels the government and everyone to protect and conserve the environment, ensure ecological sustainable development and use of natural resources.
County Government Act, 2012	Outlines principles for planning and development that guide regional planning
Urban Areas Cities Act, 2012	Provides for interlinkages between regional plans
The Land Value Index Laws Amendment (2016)	Provides for the assessment of land value index with regards to the compulsory acquisition of land. Standardise and harmonise the value of land across the country. (Knight Frank, 2016b:3).
Finance Act (2016)	Reduces corporate tax rate from 30% to 15% when a company builds a minimum of 400 residential units annually, effective 2017 (Knight Frank, 2016b:3).
National Spatial Plan (2015-2045)	Fundamental issues addressed by the plan include uncoordinated human settlement, disjointed sectorial policies, spontaneous urban and rural development, economic development disparities, unsustainable use of natural environment, regional resource imbalance and under development, and inefficient transport and infrastructure framework.
Land Use Master Plan (2008-2012)	Designed to be developed with the Agricultural Land Use Master Plan. Aimed at adequate use of all landforms, collecting accurate and continuously updated mapping of land use patterns tracking and developments in Kenya (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2012:54).
Physical Planning Act 1996 Cap 286 revised 2012	provides for the “preparation and implementation of physical development plans and for connected purposes” as well as public participation public (Republic of Kenya, 2012:5)

4.6.3. Growth pole strategy in Kenya

In the 1970s and 1980s the central government introduced a hierarchy of cities and policies to support growth poles that will stimulate the development of towns and cities (Roberts, 2014:129). It introduced the growth and service centres strategy as urbanisation and regional development strategy. Kenya’s regional policies are designed to facilitate the redistribution of economic activities and urban population (Fair, 1983:183). Table 4-7 outlines the main policies that are the foundation of growth centre development in Kenya. The table highlights National Development Plans from the first to the recent plan and revealed the intentions of these plans and how government intended get involved in regional development.

Decentralisation dominated the development policies outlined in the five-year development plans for 1970-1974, 1975-1978, 1979-1983, 1989- 1993.

Table 4-7: Laws and policies in Kenya for facilitating the development of growth centre

Source: Own construction (2018)

Policy/ Law	Influence of the policy
First Development Plan (1966-1970)	Contributed to reducing inequalities between urban and rural areas (Mulongo <i>et al.</i> , 2010:6, 26). Embraced foreign investment and provided incentives for it (Hornsby, 2012:130). In practice, for a short period, it succeeded in delivering growth, improved services, and Africanisation (Hornsby, 2012:128).
Second Development Plan (1970-1974)	Presumed investors would voluntarily move to the centres due to incentives and infrastructure. Used to guide the creation of Nakuru, Kisumu, Thika, Eldoret, Kakamega, Nyeri and Embu to be promoted as industrial centres (Rondinelli,1986:244). The creation of growth and service centres was problematic because resources for implementation were not enough and planning was centralised (Mulongo <i>et al.</i> , 2010:6:5).
Third National Development Plan (1974-1978)	Launched Kitale and Meru increasing the number of centres to nine (Rondinelli, 1986:244). Gave in service delivery. Rural access and inter-regional road network programmes were initiated to facilitate mobility within and between growth and service centres, and rural hinterlands. Minor contribution to employment and economic growth (Otisi, 2005:123). Failed to discourage growth in Nairobi and Mombasa, thus, rural development planning failed.
Growth Centres and Service Centres Policy (1977)	Ensured general rural development and managed to guide in the development of growth centres. Introduced both planned and natural growth centres and in addition to existing growth centres. It was ineffective in rural development. Did not influence private sector investment in rural centres (Roberts, 2014:129).
Fourth National Development Plan (1979-1983)	Reduce rural urban migration, spread economic activities, poverty alleviation (Fair, 1983:185, 187; Rondinelli, 1986:245). Aim of planning at district level was comprehensive rural-urban development (Kenya, 1982:50). Managed to contribute in reducing urban growth and channelling investment to rural areas. Effected District Focused Rural Development Policy. Failed to reduce the continuing urban growth; inadequate investment in rural areas (Roberts, 2014:129).
Fifth National Development Plan (1984-1988)	Provide non-agricultural employment and focused on decentralisation to the districts. Contribute in reducing urban growth and channelling investment to rural areas. Failed to reduce continuing urban growth; inadequate investment in rural areas (Fair, 1986:75).

National Development Plans (1989-2012)	Facilitated structural adjustment for Kenyan economy (Gaile, 1992:147). Provided for Infrastructure development in rural areas, decentralisation, and poverty alleviation. Contributed to reducing urban growth and channelling investment to rural areas. Failed to reduce the continuing urban growth; inadequate investment in rural areas. The provincial tier of government was discarded, and a two-level system of governance introduced which is comprised of the national and county (regional) levels (Otisi, 2005:125-126; Roberts, 2014:129).
National Development Plans (Kenya Vision 2030, Medium Term Plan II)	Decentralisation - transform Kenya into a newly industrialising, middle-income country by 2030; increased number of centres from 2/10/2013 to 46 by 07/2015; increased number of services from 10 at inception to 45 by 07/ 2015. With internationalisation and globalisation, the impact of policies is not visible as major cities grow at a fast pace and government invest heavily in them to keep up with international development trends outline in Vision 2030 (East Africa Resource Center, 2014:21). Kenya adopted a new constitution in 2010, recognising 47 districts and granted municipalities better authority and access to development funds. The new administration system is derailed by the nonexistence of a comprehensive urban-development policy and resources to support infrastructure development (Roberts, 2014:129).

The table above revealed that Kenya's aim was to deepen the development of rural areas and the country used growth poles as an economic tool to create small and intermediate towns and small industries. This is a demonstration of how the Kenyan government is committed to the decentralisation of infrastructure and wealth in the rural communities. The country introduced both planned and natural growth centres and in addition to the nine known growth centres that started in 1969, (Otisi, 2005:19). The Kenyan transport system is dominated by road, which transports 93% of all cargo and passenger traffic, followed by rail, then the air transportation system.

The road network services both domestic and regional passenger and freight transport demand. The government made remarkable efforts in upgrading and improving the efficiency of road and rail transportation. Major infrastructural projects take place in the country through public private partnerships. For example, the expansion to dual carriageways sponsored through a grant from the Japanese government's Economic Cooperation Programme Project, and the upgrading of the James Gichuru junction-Rironi (A8) road funded by the World Bank Group and the government of Kenya under the National Urban Transport Improvement Project (Knight Frank, 2016a:3).

Challenges facing the transport sector identified by the Integrated National Transport Policy (2009:24) includes lack of an urban/rural transport policy and the lack of a vision for the transport sector. Figure 4-10 outlines the road network of Kenya indicating the road network that joins all cities, towns and other

settlements in the country. The map also reflects the rail route, ports, and airports that represent the other transport networks available in Kenya. The map also highlights the location of the national, regional, and urban areas and the surrounding land uses that support and sustain the growth and development of the growth areas.



Figure 4-10: Kenyan road network

Source: United Nations Department of Field Support (2011: map sheet)

4.7. Zimbabwe

Zimbabwe is a landlocked country in southern Africa, which shares borders with Mozambique to the eastern side, South Africa to the south, Botswana and Namibia to the west and Zambia to the north as shown in Figure 4-11.



Figure 4-11: Map of Zimbabwe

Source: Land Info Worldwide Mapping (2013c:1)

4.7.1. Socio-economic profile

Traditionally, Zimbabwe's economic activities were mainly based on farming, very limited mining, and unsophisticated trade activities, which can be classified as primary economic activities. These economic activities still contribute to the economy of Zimbabwe as the country's key economic sectors (African Development Bank Group, 2011:5). After 1945, the country experienced growth in the manufacturing sector. During the period of the Unilateral Declaration of Independence, the import-substitution strategy was used as a foundation for economic planning. It was also used as an introspective approach to economic development that existed at the time. The strategy, together with the uprisings, resulted in economic decline, a closed economy, with imposed protection inspired by state involvement, which supported the interests of the settler (Mapuva 2015:142; Stewart *et al.*, 1994:3).

From 1999 to 2008, there was a major decline in these sectors due to the ever-changing government policies that resulted in a weakened economy, which is incapable of withstanding external shocks. It provides an insight into the country's economic changes caused by the economic crises, macroeconomic adjustment and reform. However, in the period from 2010-13 the Zimbabwe's economy achieved real growth of above 10% per annum before decelerating to approximately 3% growth in 2014 because of poor harvest, low mineral revenues, and decreased investment, infrastructure and regulatory deficiencies, a poor investment climate, a hefty debt burden, and excessively high government wage expenses (African Development Bank Group, 2011:5, 9). Zimbabwe's 2012 census found that the share of the urban population had declined from 35% of the total population in 2002 to 33%, indicating that the country had de-urbanised during the decade

4.7.2. Planning policies and laws

The first colonial urban settlements were established from military forts, built along the route followed by the Pioneer Column, a mercenary force organised and lead by Cecil Rhodes, under the British South Africa Company as resting points. The settler's economic activities established roads, railway lines and other supportive infrastructure to consolidate the colonisation process and institute permanent settlement (Mapuva, 2015:142; Munzwa & Wellington, 2010:124; Muronda, 2008:034, 038). A strong link with South Africa was established by facilitating transport, communication and a trade route with South Africa; and like in South Africa's urban and mining centres, the centres were created along racial lines.

Colonial Zimbabwe used racial segregation policies such as the Land Apportionment Act of 1930 and centralisation policies to develop their own settlement areas. Though the policies promoted racial discrimination, the policies and laws centralised services, infrastructure, and economic activities in urban areas and impoverished the indigenous people. According to Rakodi (1996:1558) the colonial government of Zimbabwe used physical planning to attain colonial and settlers' goals. Planning laws implemented in Zimbabwe in the establishment of growth centres area outlined in table 4-8 below.

Table 4-8: Zimbabwe planning laws

Source: Own construction (2018)

Policy/ Law	Impact
Regional, Town and Country Planning Act (1976) amended 1980, 1982.	Provides the basis for statutory regional and urban planning. Mainly focused on physical planning, land, and property. Emphasises land use and provides a framework for local authorities to prepare regional, urban, and rural plans. Terms of reference broadened to cater for the communal areas which were excluded from statutory planning. This is important in rural regional planning growth centres and resettlement. (Wekwete, 1988:9).

Land Tenure Amendment Act 1977	The act removed racial division of land, by 1980 the formal racial segregation was completely removed.
Special development order (District Councils areas) 1982	Formalised development and instituted a procedure for application of planning permission. Permitted long leases in business and commercial centres.
The Land Acquisition Act 1985	The Act, however, had a limited impact because of the willing seller, willing buyer clause, the government was helpless in the face of the farmers' resistance (Chirisa & Dumba, 2012:4).
The Rural District Councils (Amalgamation) Act 1988	Ended the dual system of local government in rural Zimbabwe; the colonial legacy of separate development based on race and allow for a more equitable distribution of public services. Amalgamation of Rural Councils and District Councils into 55 Rural District Councils; basic socio-economic and land tenure divisions of the past remained, and the Act accepts the boundaries, therefore the Rural District Councils are ordered based on these divisions (Ncube 2011:91).
The Land Acquisition Act 1992	Aimed at fast tracking the land reform process by abolishing the "willing seller, willing buyer" clause. It empowered the government to buy land forcibly for redistribution and pay a fair compensation. Increased opposition by landowners.
Constitution Amendment 17 of 2005	Nationalised Zimbabwe's farmland and denied landowners the right to contest in courts government's decision to expropriate land.

4.7.3. Growth pole strategy in Zimbabwe

The settlement areas developed during the colonial period in Zimbabwe are regarded as growth centres because there was a conscious decision and criteria used to select the areas and develop them for the benefit of the country at the time (Mazingi & Kamidza, 2010:322). Some of the settlements were developed into towns and cities because of their mineral resources, others because of their fertile soil and good climatic conditions suitable for farming, transportation, and as administrative centres. Therefore, it can be deduced that even before the growth centre policy was formalised in Zimbabwe it was effectively applied from the beginning of the colonial period with an emphasis on the political agenda of racial discrimination and centralisation.

The colonial system applied centralisation policies that resulted in the congestion in the prime cities and the other parts of the country being underdeveloped. In 1978, Zimbabwe introduced the growth centre concept to decentralise administrative functions from the major cities; reducing regional inequalities and enhancing economic development in other parts of the country, more especially in rural areas, thus correcting the colonial imbalances through the provision of infrastructure to the disadvantaged communal

communities. The same policies and additional policies were also implemented after independence (Muronda, 2008:039).

New growth centres were created and provided with infrastructure development, building and housing construction, and business promotion as basic services. After independence, the policy was directed on rural areas and its implementation in these areas consequently facilitated the decentralisation of services, infrastructure, economic functions and institutions as well as government administrative functions to lower levels of government. However, most of the growth centres eventually failed to stimulate growth in tribal trust lands (Chirisa & Dumba, 2012:5; De Gasper, 1988:425; Mapuva, 2015:144). In the early 1980 the Whitsun Foundation's 'Rural Service Centres Development Study', appointed to provide a reliable programme for the 300 small centres.

The approach followed establishment of physical infrastructure in tribal lands. 450 prospective Rural Service Centres were introduced, one in each of the wards increasing the Whitsun Foundation's 300 Rural Service Centres to 500. Local industries, agroindustries, cottage industries, service industries and craft industries were introduced. Local participation in the development of different industries in rural areas and small towns were encouraged (Wekwete, 1988:6). The Whitsun report provided a blueprint for the development of infrastructure and improving rural services. Public infrastructural investment in rural areas was similar to the pre-independence patterns. Centres had to fit in a specific category to be in pre-specified places. The post 1980 government adopted the settlement hierarchy proposed by the Whitsun Foundation and put special emphasis on district centres. The hierarchy graded settlements into villages, business centres, rural service centres, district service centres, growth points, towns and cities (De Gasper, 1988:434).

A Rural Service Centre was expected to offer all basic infrastructure, have a strong residential section, and provides a wide variety of services that would naturally entice rural non-farm activities. A Rural Service Centre referred to a number of various activities connected with trading, manufacturing, construction, transport and government and other services (Whitsun Foundation, 1980:60). The role of the centre was to provide a location for the creation of small industrial and commercial firms which are expected to have strong linkages within a region. Whitsun Foundation (1980:61) stated that if the government can provide support through the provision of infrastructure, the shortage in manufacturing may consequently correct itself. The Foundation also advised that service centres should be developed in maruzevha (renamed Tribal Trust Lands in 1969) to reduce excess population in urban areas.

The maruzevha (Native Reserves) occupied 9 million ha of land, 20.4 million ha was reserved for European settlers' land and 3 million ha as Native Purchase areas (Whitsun Foundation, 1980:15). The land for African Reserves was increased to 16 million ha and remained at that size until independence in 1980 (Mbiba, 2001:428). The strategies proposed included growth points and service centre strategy,

grazing schemes and internal communal land reorganisation, resettlement and the conservation of natural resources through camp-fire programmes, institutional reorganisation at the local level and programmes to increase agricultural productivity (Mbiba, 2001:431). The centres should have electricity, bus stops, drains, market stalls and new commercial areas started to be visible in areas where untidy buildings in neglected areas with potholes existed (De Gasper, 1988:434).

Small plots of approximately two hundred square metres were introduced for those who could not afford land after retirement (Whitsun Foundation, 1979:6). Whitsun Foundation (1980) growth points policy was reflected in the First Five Year Development Plan (1986-90). The plan emphasised investment in growth points and gave the points preferential treatment as part of the strategy for the urbanisation and industrialisation of rural area which was adopted from Whitsun Foundation (1980) (Mbiba, 2001:433- 434). The Whitsun Foundation (1980) rural growth point in the form of Rural Service Centres is credited in the establishment of growth centre in Zimbabwe's rural areas. The centres are said to have facilitated the decentralization of services, infrastructure, economic functions and institutions as well as government administrative function to lower levels of government.

Most researchers in Zimbabwe argue that the implementation of growth centres established after the colonial era in that country did not deliver the desired result. The researchers argue that the government conveniently followed the pre 1980 growth points. Chikwanha-Dzenga (1999:40); Chirisa & Dumba (2012:5); De Gasper, (1988:425); Manyanhai *et al.* (2009:518); Manyanhai *et al.* (2011:8, 15); Mapuva (2015:144); Mbimba (2001:448); Rakodi (1995:268); Wekwete (1988:13) state that despite the success of some of the growth points, most of the centers eventually failed to stimulate growth in tribal trust lands. The other factor acknowledged is that politics interference post 1980 led to the demise of the growth centres as they were developed based on political not economic reasons. The literature also state that that Zimbabwe was over ambitious by approving over 50 growth points concurrently.

Friedmann's extended core-periphery model embrace both the diffusion of economic activity and linked urban settlement configuration; and the diffusion of socio-cultural and political modernisation from the core to the peripheral locations. In the model the core is regarded as the source from which innovations diffuse away from the core towards the outside to affect economic activity, settlement patterns, socio-cultural and political structures in the periphery (Friedmann, 1966:40- 44). Fair (1982:12,15- 16) summarised Friedmann's the pre-industrial, transitional, industrial and post-industrial stages that countries go through in relation to the political, socio-cultural, economic and physical dimensions.

Politically, the spatial structure changes from an extremely centralised situation to a polycentric decision making system. The privileged in the core who have political power and control devolves some or all of their powers to their counterparts in the periphery. In terms of Fair's interpretation, Zimbabwe's creation of growth centres has succeeded in that it manage to devolve the political and some of the administrative

powers to the service centres. Table 4-9 below summarises the application of the growth pole strategy and its impact on the spatial development and distribution of centres in the country.

Table 4-9: Laws and policies for growth centres implementation in Zimbabwe

Source: Own Creation (2018)

Policy/ Law	Impact
Statutory instruments 57 income tax and 58 sales tax provisions (1978)	Enticed businesspeople to invest in the growth centres and draw existing large firms to decentralise and locate in these areas. Did not yield positive results. Most growth centres were established without any resource base to boost their development resulting in stagnant, unattractive and no prospect of growth (Wekwete, 1988:6).
Integrated Plan for Rural Development (1979/80)	Decentralisation of services, infrastructure, wealth, economic activities, industry to the rural areas and areas outside of the main cities (Wekwete, 1988:7). Decongesting urban centres resulting in declining rural-urban migration.
Transitional National Development Plan (TNDP) (1982)	Reducing inequality, reduce poverty and create employment. Created above 150 000 jobs; improved agricultural production of small scale communal farmers (Mapuva, 2015:146).
First-Five-Year National Development Plan (FFYDP) (1985)	Reducing inequality, reducing poverty and creating employment; 5,000 families were to be resettled every year; back-up services to be increased to ensure that there is adequate agricultural production (Poultona <i>et al.</i> , 2002:39). Resettled 162,000 peasant families over the three-year period of the Plan (Burdette & Davies, 1987:77).
Second-First-Five Year Development Plan (SFFYDP)	Service delivery improved, and clinics, roads and schools constructed in most areas. Abandoned in favour of Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) which failed (Makina, 2010:105).
Urban Development Corporation Act 1986	Generate employment and encourage the development of commerce and industry. Location of industry and public service activity in intermediate urban centres outside Harare and Bulawayo; established service centres in poor areas in order to provide for critical needs (Fair, 1986:74).
The Rural District Councils Act 1988	Amalgamation of Rural Councils and District Councils into 55 Rural District Councils; basic socio-economic and land tenure divisions of the past remained, and the Act accepts the new boundaries which meant that the Rural District Councils are arranged based on the divisions recognised by the Act (Ncube 2011:91).
Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) (1991)	Focused on reducing Government expenditure on social services and redirect expenditure to investment in manufacturing, agricultural and mining sectors. Induced liberalisation and deregulation, extensive retrenchments and company closures resulted in increased unemployment (Nyandoro & Muzorewa, 2017:5).

Zimbabwe Programme for Economic Social Transformation (1998)	Address the negative impact of the Economic SAP. Never realised its objectives due to lack of adequate financial commitment (Makina, 2010:104-105).
Indigenization and Economic Empowerment Policy 2008	The implementation of the policy is challenging, and the policy need to be revised (Gochero & Kadira, 2015:76).
Land Reform Programme (2000)	Fast tracked the land reform programme, which resulted had a negative impact on the economy.

Overall, 55 growth points or district service centres, 450 rural service centres, and 2500 business centres were recognised, designated, and developed. The centres were then graded based on the seven levels of the national system of settlements, that is, villages, business centres, rural service centres, district service centres, growth points, towns, and cities (Gasper, 1988:426; Wekwete, 1988:9) however, from the 55 district centres and many other small towns, only 10 growth centres were successful (Nhede, 2013:119). Zimbabwe's urban landscape encompasses the large metropolitan areas of Harare and Bulawayo, large cities, and towns, and as many as 472 small urban centres (Infrastructure and Cities for Economic Development, 2017:1).

These growth points are well-connected by a road network of highways, regional roads, primary roads, secondary roads paved and unpaved secondary roads. The roads are not in a good condition due to the economic and socio-political situation in the country. The road network and how it connects the centres is outlined in Figure 4-12. The establishment of growth centres in Kenya and Zimbabwe was to correct the segregated spatial form that was created by the colonial planning and related policies highlighted in the discussion above. Magunje Growth Point in Hurungwe District is one of the successful growth points in Zimbabwe. Magunje has an adequate population size, located in an area suitable for maize, groundnuts, soya, sugar beans, tobacco, cotton, paprika, and sunflower farming. It has an agro-based macro economy, a good example of a growth point established following Friedman's agropolitan approach (Manyanhaire, 2009:510).

Facilities in the area include schools, a hospital, herbal clinic, hardware shops, retailing, restaurants, nightclubs, two service stations, butcheries, and a few churches. It also include a library, police station, a fresh farm produce market and is close to a main highway. The location of this growth point provides a good example of a centre located following the principles of the growth pole approach. The growth point employed a number of local people. The area has challenges because of the current economic hardships in the country (Nedhe, 2013:122). Magunje is a leading producer of tobacco in Zimbabwe. The growth point is struggling economically despite regardless of the presence of different government departments that relocated to the area during its inception stage (Manyanhaire, 2009:512).

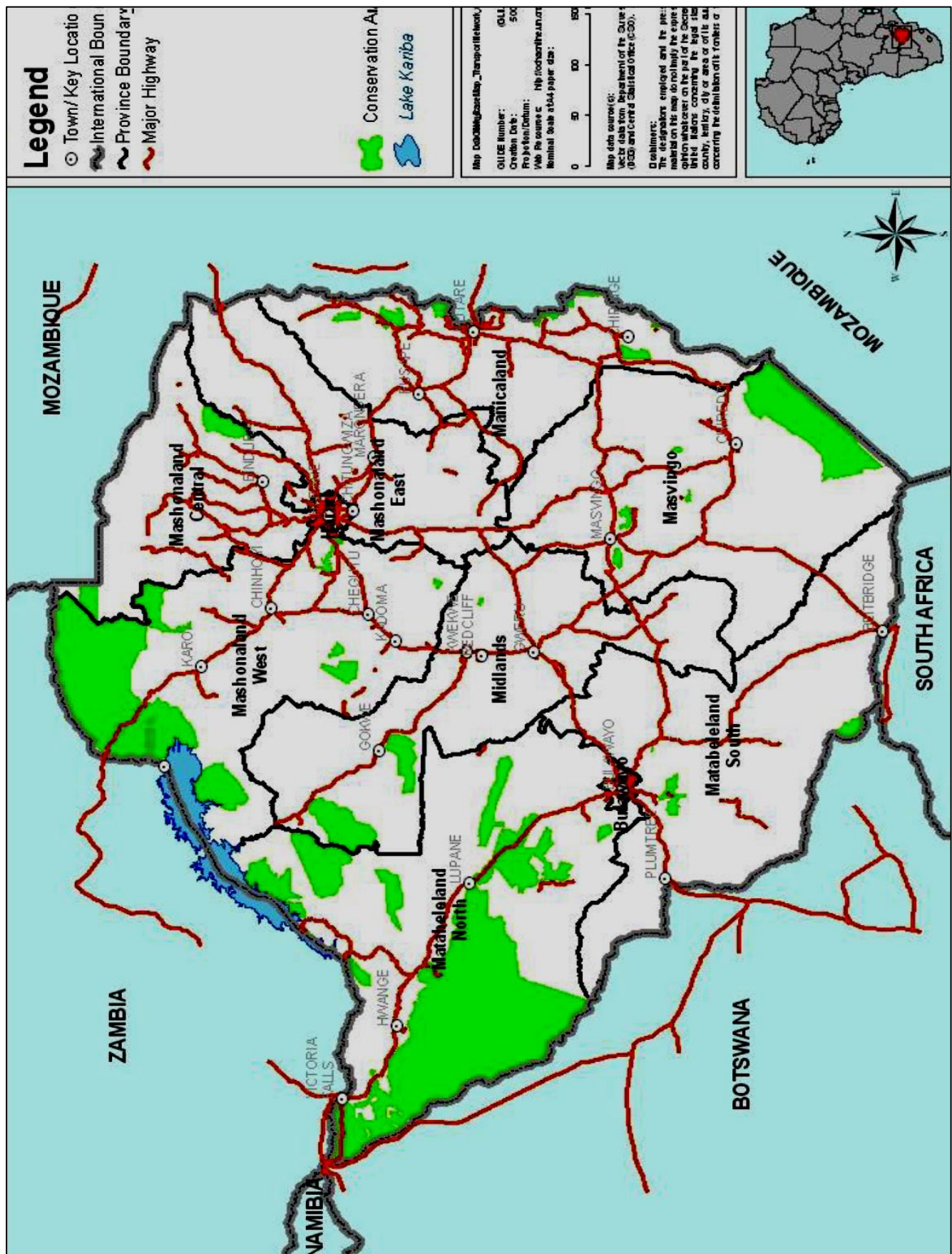


Figure 4-12: Zimbabwe road network

Source: World Food Foundation (2018:2)

The Model in Figure 4-13 is a result of above mentioned colonial laws that marginalised Africans and created a spatial form that is segregated by race. This situation is still visible in Zimbabwe and Kenya. Whites occupied areas closer to amenities and the CBD and now these areas evolved to also accommodate a high number of the rich people from other races. The Indian, Asian, and Coloured housing further away from the CBD while the Africans are at the outer periphery far away with no or inferior services as depicted in Figure 4- 13. These countries reflect the segregated development which now also include segregation by income. The areas that were occupied by Whites, Asian, Indians and coloureds now also accommodate the wealthy African's who moved from the African areas. The establishment of growth centres in rural areas did not remedy the situation as desired.

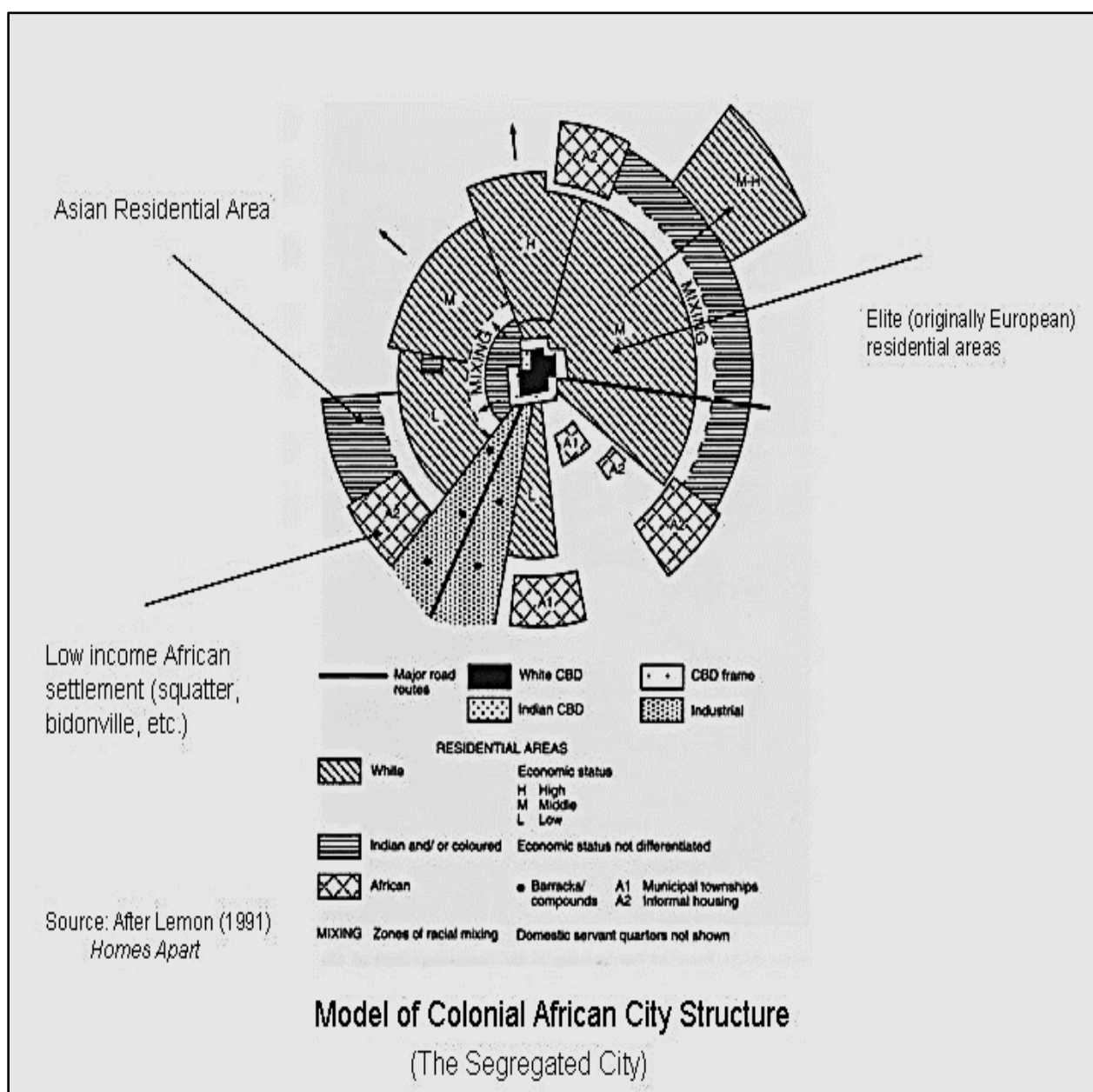


Figure 4-13: Model of colonial African city structure

Source: Lemon (1991:6)

4.8. Lessons from the above countries

The success of the growth centres is as outlined on the Table 4- 10 below. The countries are tabled according to their success. The country that was most successful compared to the others is Brazil followed by Argentina, India, Kenya, and the least successful is Zimbabwe. The details on how they implemented the centres is outlined in the table. Kenya and Zimbabwe created too many centres and did not follow the principles of the policy, and as a result, the centres did not succeed. In Zimbabwe, the continued application of the policies of the colonial government contributed in the failure of the centres.

Table 4-10: The summary of the application of growth centres

Source: Own Creation (2018)

Application of growth centres	Brazil	Argentina	India	Kenya	Zimbabwe
Followed policy principle	✓				
Misunderstood and implemented incorrectly				✓	✓
Modernisation incorporated	✓	✓	✓		
Dominated by politics		✓	✓	✓	✓
Gave little incentives and funds	✓		✓	✓	✓
Incentives worked		✓			
Infrastructure available	✓	✓			
Natural resources available	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Encouraged urbanisation	✓	✓			
Enough population and economic base	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Economic development in rural areas and outside of the cities	✓	✓	✓		
Created too many growth centres			✓	✓	✓
Innovative and adjusted the concept				✓	

The Latin American countries used a model that incorporates modernisation. In Brazil, a highly urbanised country, the introduction of growth poles incorporated modernisation to facilitate proper urbanisation in the country. In Argentina, modernisation was in the agricultural sector. India had to modify the growth centre concept so that it became relevant to the country's situation and their agricultural sector by introducing growth foci. The country also emphasised modernisation of the agricultural sector. Kenya and Zimbabwe adopted the growth foci of India, but did not modernise the agricultural sector, which created a situation where the rural community did not have alternative economic activities except farming. Those who did not want to farm had to move to the urban centres. The country did not identify subdivisions that would have been be the main sectors in their process of introducing growth poles.

Zimbabwe concentrated on the decentralisation of services more than on the economic aspects and the creation of infrastructure in rural areas. Furthermore, they did not do research to establish the viability of the centres and diversifying them according to resource base, economic activities, and the level of development required in an area. This chapter has provided a historic background into the availability of spatial laws in the establishment of growth centres, which are currently implemented as nodes in South Africa. Urban planning tools discussed in this chapter enabled the discussed previously colonised countries to redress the imbalances created by the colonial system and to tackle the persistent fragmented spatial form prevailing in those countries.

4.9. Conclusion

The chapter has examined how Brazil, Argentina, India, Kenya and Zimbabwe have created growth centres in their countries. It highlighted how Brazil, Argentina and India have succeeded to some extent in the process while Kenya and Zimbabwe have not achieved much success. Lessons learned from these countries is that growth centres should be initiated and guided by the principles and elements of the growth poles theory, even if a new model is adopted to avoid failure. There must be laws and policies to guide the development of the centres. From a spatial planning perspective, Brazil managed to relocate the capital city using the growth centre strategy, Argentina was successful in concentrating funds where the country needed to direct development. India modified the model of growth centres to accommodate their needs. Kenya created successful centres in urban areas in the process of decongesting the capital city. Finally, Zimbabwe managed to decentralise the government administrative functions.

Each country was successful to some extent in addressing the colonial spatial form using the growth centre strategy. The most successful is Brazil, which relocated its capital city inland in addressing the spatial imbalance that the country was experiencing at the time. This is an indication that cities can be moved to a different location using the growth centre strategy. Transportation networks spatially connect settlements in each country and shape the spatial form of settlements. In Brazil, Argentina, India, and Zimbabwe the road networks provide adequate connectivity for economic development in the hinterland. The challenges that exist emanate from other factors not related to the road network. Following on the growth centre strategy, Chapter 5 examines the establishment of shopping centre nodes in European countries. Due to the diminishing of natural resources, the trend is to use service sectors as leading industries. Therefore, the chapter will follow through how shopping centre nodes as growth centres contribute in spatial integration.

CHAPTER 5: THE ESTABLISHMENT AND DEVELOPMENT OF SHOPPING NODES IN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

5.1. Introduction

This chapter is aimed at analysing shopping centres and nodes and how shopping centres can be used in creating nodes that can play a role of connecting cities and their periphery to create a connected spatial form in all regions. The chapter is divided into eight sections and Figure 5-1 present a summary of the content of the chapter.

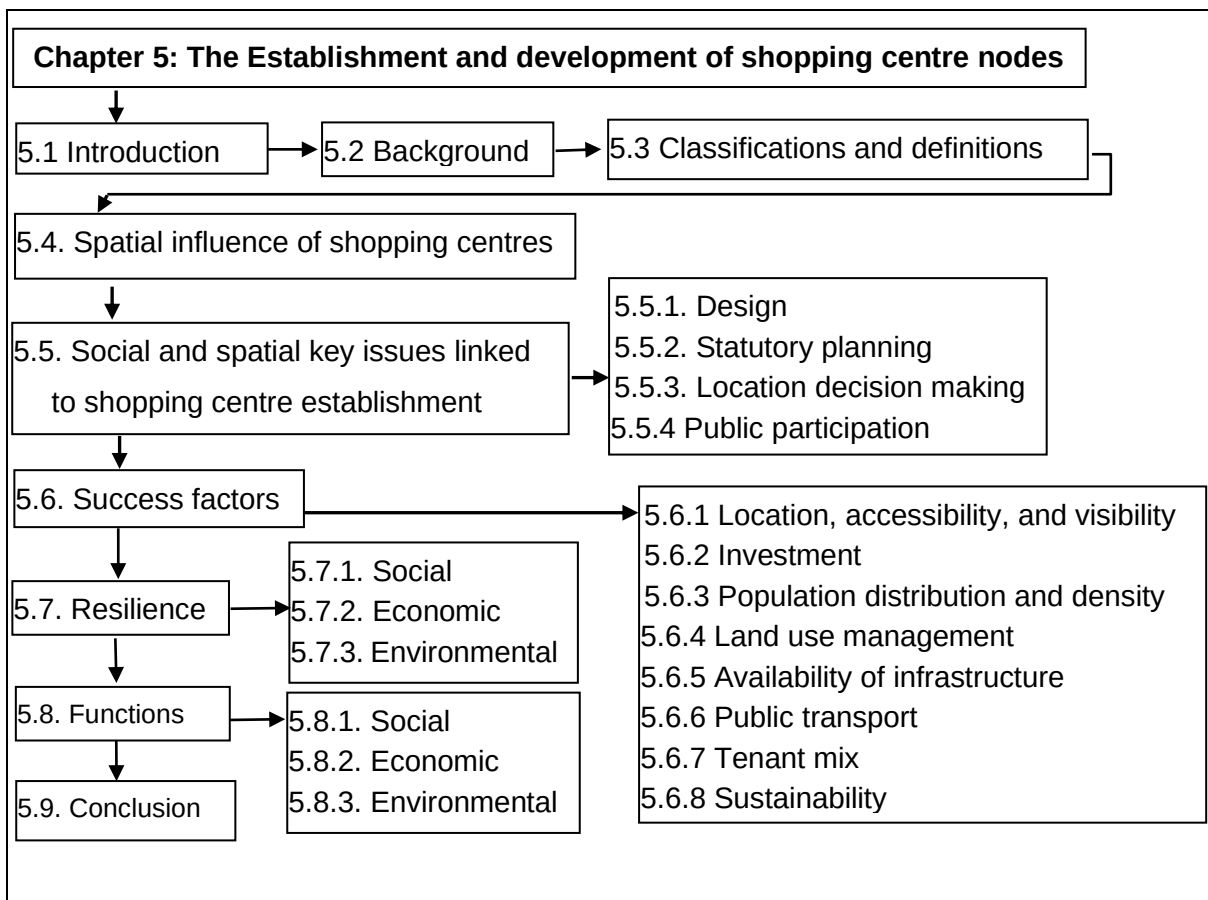


Figure 5-1: Chapter 5 structure

Source: Own construction (2018)

Section 1 introduces the focus of the chapter and also presents the overview of the chapter in a diagrammatic form in Figure 5-1. Section 2 provides the background information to the study, stating the events leading to the core discussion. Section 3 discusses how shopping centres are classified and defined so that the right type and size of a centre could be used in the right context. In section 4, the spatial influence of shopping centres and how they are incorporated in nodes is discussed. Section 5 addresses the main issues that should be considered in the establishment of shopping centre nodes. The issues include the design of the centre, statutory planning, location decision making, and public participation.

Section 6 highlights some of the factors that influence the success or failure of shopping centres. In the thesis, they are limited to the location, accessibility, and visibility; investment; population distribution and density; LUM; availability of infrastructure; public transport; tenant mix; and sustainability. In section, the resilience of the shopping centres and its impact on the resilience of the community and neighbourhood is discussed. Section 8 analyses the functions of shopping centres from a social, economic, and environmental perspective. In section 9, the conclusion about the development of nodes in European countries, and how they perform an integrative role, is presented. Furthermore, the link between this chapter and the next chapter is created.

5.2. Background

As argued in section 1.1 national development plans capitalise on natural and planned economic poles and infrastructure to construct, sustain, organise, and balance the cities and related settlement systems, including urban corridors and nodes to realise their economic capacity (UN-Habitat, 2015:2). The previous chapter clarified how the selected, previously colonised countries of Brazil, Argentina, India, Kenya, and Zimbabwe have used growth centres and nodes to restructure their spatial form. At this point, European countries will be analysed to learn how they have employed shopping centres to counteract spatial fragmentation in different areas of individual states.

All the economic, social, and spatial changes that occur in an area are the product of interaction between different forces such as the policies, and vertical and horizontal actions. Unequal distribution of natural resources, and the above mentioned forces led to the unequal distribution of the world's population, which is concentrated in urban areas rather than in rural areas. In England, economic planning and spatial planning developed along different legislations, where policies and ministries are used to solve the problem of integration. Regional Development Agencies were established with an intention of integrating economic planning and spatial planning in all spheres of government (Townsend, 2009:647).

In the 20th Century, economies of almost all of the European countries moved toward the services sector as drivers of the economy, moving away from the agriculture and manufacturing sectors. Deindustrialisation, a relapse in manufacturing and mining sector along with its employment creation capacity, and an increase in the status of the service sector is evident in European countries and in the USA. In countries like Poland, deindustrialisation is visible in all urban centres, including small towns. In developed countries, retail has outdone manufacturing as the leading sector in economic growth (Campbell, 2009:262) and the transition to service sector economy has occurred regardless of the interpretation that the service is made up of low productivity, low wage, and is monotonous (Carden, 2012:2).

The implication is that shopping centres have become one of the predominant land uses that shape the socio-economic development of different countries as well as the structure and form of mostly urban

settlements. In many of these countries, like the UK, the role of the government in planning was reduced and planning functions were transferred to the private sector, non-governmental organisations, and public-private organisations. Planning shifted towards the market and became project-oriented, concentrating mainly on large urban development and infrastructure projects. In Amsterdam, in the 1990s, the political unity on spatial planning was disintegrating due to the promotion of cities as development nodes by social democrats, while liberals favoured the development of suburbs and the less urbanised areas (Healey, 2007:57).

At this point, the establishment and development of shopping centre nodes is analysed while tracking the application of the growth pole strategy in the establishment of these nodes in European countries. The analysis is important in this study because it gives an example and a basis for South Africa which is recently adopting the creation of nodes in redressing the spatial fragmentation that was created pre-1994. The use of shopping centres in European countries to establish growth points highlight and strengthen the view that south Africa can also use shopping centre growth points to redress the imbalances that exist in the country. The success and evolution of shopping centres such as the Merry Hill, Kipa Migros hypermarket and Armada discussed in section 5.4 are significant as they illustrate how shopping centres can transform the spatial form of an area.

The manner in which these shopping centres transform their local areas' forms is linked to the way in which Elim and Namakgale shopping centres transformed both Elim and Namakgale nodes. Each shopping centre with its unique character had a direct impact on its locality physically, socially and economically. The impact differs from one area to the other. The three shopping centres are analysed as forerunner of how far shopping centres can transform their local areas and encourage integration when shopping centres are established in the context of growth nodes. Nodes are points with economic potential in a province, region, district, or municipality where economic growth and the clustering of facilities occurs or are directed.

Shopping centres play a significant role in enhancing the quality of life in cities, towns, and rural settlements, worldwide, and are regarded as drivers of local economies. They are essential in sustaining economic growth, providing an enriched quality of life, a sense of community, creating employment, and resolving environmental challenges. Therefore, the initiation of shopping centre nodes is an essential undertaking in enhancing economic growth in areas that are lagging economically (Cushman & Wakefield, 2014:2). Urban and regional planning has an impact on the economic source of municipalities by land use zoning and creating property rates income. Zoning regulate what and where people and institutions in cities, suburbs, and towns can or cannot be located or operate in. It controls "what gets built and where, it sets the basic parameters of where and thus how we live, work, play, socialize, and exercise our rights to citizenship" (Nel, 2015:82).

It also controls development according to the government's strategic goals and protects the poor and those at risk by enabling them to acquire secure, legal land rights. The economic activities and growth start off from specific points of origin within regions as purported by Perroux and Boudeville. In this study, the points of origin for economic activity are shopping centre nodes. The growth pole strategy that is instrumental in the establishment of nodes is supported by the notion that free market forces provide an environment for development by means of the trickle-down effect that converges economic forces to generate a virtuous cycle that distributes economic growth from urban to rural areas (Adell, 1999:9).

According to the International Council of Shopping Centres (ICSC) (2013:5) shopping centres have existed in various forms for over 1,000 years as bazaars, ancient market squares, and seaport commercial districts. Modern shopping centres comprise of everything from small suburban strip centres to super regional malls and have their origin in the 1920s. They are consciously designed, modified, transformed, and perfected with a purpose of providing a flawless environment that best suits large numbers of their potential customers. Over the years, they have evolved in terms of the goods offered, style, location, centres built, size, and organisation of retail companies (Robertson & Fennell, 2007:152).

They have extended beyond developed countries to the developing countries and from urban into the rural areas. Thus, the shopping centre development industry has grown to a level where it can enhance development in both developed and developing countries as well as in urban and rural contexts, creating sustainable communities. Shopping centres fit in the concept of growth poles in that they start from a core and develop into the periphery where there is a suitable environment for the centres to grow. In the 20th Century, the economy of the USA shifted to the services sector, moving away from the agriculture and manufacturing sectors (Carden, 2012:2).

The country experienced a steady structural change from autonomous, small retailers to national discount chain stores functioning as large stores that distribute broad assortments of goods to manifold markets. Consequently, retailing surpassed manufacturing as the leading sector in American economic growth (Bosworth & Triplett, 2007:445; Campbell, 2009:262;). Thus, since the start of the 20th Century, the services industries have become the most innovative and prominent sectors of the USA's economy (Triplett & Bosworth, 2004:2). In 2015, retail sales contributed 26% to the country's GDP. The value of the USA's shopping centre real estate reached \$1.3 trillion in 2016 while shopping centre sales contributed around 15% of the GDP (ICSC, 2017:2).

The narrative above revealed that the shopping centre industry in the USA is one of the core industries making the greatest contribution to the economy and contributing to the sustainability of local communities. However, there are some setbacks and negative aspects as well, such as shopping centres failing in some communities. Deindustrialisation and an increase in the status of the service sector is evident in European countries. As a result, there is an upsurge in shopping centres and an enormous growth in the entire retail

sector, while the manufacturing and basic sectors are declining. It should be noted that the development of modern shopping centres in Poland has the same circumstances as that in the rest of western Europe (Heffner & Twardzik, 2015:90, 92).

There are 4.2 million shopping centre-related jobs in Europe, with the retail industry accounting for one out of every eleven jobs. The shopping centre sector promotes social inclusion and offers flexible working opportunities, particularly for females, students, and retirees. The European shopping centre industry makes a great contribution to the European economy and society. Shopping centres are the main driver of GDP such as public revenues, investment, and private consumption. They are also key in maintaining and sustaining social vitality (ICSC, 2017:38). The discussion above demonstrates that Europe as a continent also has an advanced shopping centre industry that is shaping the spatial form of that continent and contributing to the economic and social development of the different countries. It also highlights that Poland is also experiencing the positive impact of the industry.

In 2014, Russia has surpassed France's 43-year control as Europe's leading shopping centre market (Cushman & Wakefield, 2017:22, 23). However, Russia is regarded as a commodity-based economy as it depends on the extraction and export of hydrocarbons (Drobyshevsky, 2014:149). The shopping centre industry is also performing well in economies where it plays a supporting role to the main industry like in Russia. From the preceding discussion it is apparent that the shopping centre industry is making a major contribution to most economies including economies in European countries. The sector is contributing to the social, economic, and spatial development of different countries in the world. It also has an impact on the environment in the various countries as it utilises natural resources and these resources should be utilised in a sustainable manner.

To be able to establish the right type and size of a shopping centre in an area that will thrive, guidance is sought from the classification of these centres, which is developed by different countries in line with the population's needs and size that suits specific locations. Municipalities should assess the vitality and viability as well as the health of their city centres to inform decisions about the effects of policies that deals with the location of shopping centres. They should also assess the retail and leisure needs and the capacity of an area to accommodate new development (Guildford Borough, 2010:1). In the next section, the classification and definition of shopping centres will be analysed to establish which type is suitable to address spatial fragmentation and economic inequalities in different countries.

5.3. Classification and definitions of shopping centres internationally

The hierarchy of urban and retail centres are incorporated in the statutory planning of retails in many countries including the UK. Hence, it is important to analyse the hierarchy in the establishment of shopping centres in different locations. The classification of retail stores and shopping centres is an essential method used in gaining understanding and evaluating relationships in the retailing domain. The researcher's

viewpoint and the research objectives should sensibly influence it. “A consistent and comprehensive classification system allows researchers to compare and contrast empirical findings across a variety of spaces, cultures and time periods” (Guy,1998:255).

It provides a framework for grading all the diverse forms of shopping centres into detailed classes that do not allow for ambiguity or biased categorisations (Barrera, 2012:1). Retail characteristics differ according to the local economic, social, and institutional circumstances throughout the various regions because retailing is a context-driven business (Miotto & Parente, 2015:243). The criteria used in the different countries are similar, which helps in understanding what can be referred to as a shopping centre. In recent years European, Asian, and American countries have modified the classification to suit their local areas. The USA’s classification is based on the centre and site size, centre concept, typical anchors’ number and type, anchors’ ratio to total stores, and the primary trade area geographic range.

The European shopping centre classification is based on the size and style of the centre. The centres are divided into two main categories, namely, traditional, and specialised. These categories are then divided into further subcategories, The Asian classification organises the shopping centres into general purpose centres, special purpose centres, and other major retail real estates, which are classified into sub classifications based on the size and anchor shop number, tenants, and type. Latin American shopping centres are classified into big scale commerce, small supermarkets, traditional centres, street formats, special centres, and convenience centres, which are sub divided into further categories based on the country in which they are found (ICSC, 2017: 28).

Shopping centres in Africa can be classified as traditional, informal, formal, planned, and unplanned, and are developed in various sizes (Cytton Real Estate, 2016:46-49; Prinsloo, 2016:5). Table 5-1 outlines eight main shopping centre types defined by the ICSC. The aim of the classification and the different types is to provide useful guiding principles for understanding the uniqueness of each of the basic types of shopping centres. The basic types outlined in this table can be divided into subsection that meet the criteria of a specific niche market (ICSC, 1999:1).

The classification in Table 5-1 revealed that the classification of shopping centres addresses the nature and type of the centres based on size, anchor tenant, type of product sold, site size, distance and travel time, and customer base, revealing the category of a specific shopping centre (Guy, 1998:256- 262; Vernor *et al.*, 2008:3). It can thus be resolved that a shopping centre is a grouping of profitmaking enterprises that are developed, owned and managed as a unit characterised by a shared site and architecture, divided or separate facilities, and planned tenant mix differentiated into different types based on the criteria mentioned above which is used in the classification of these shopping centres (Vernor *et al.*, 2008:22). Tenant mix, in this context, can be defined as a relationship between the percentages of different store types in a shopping mall (Marona & Wilk, 2016:52). From the above discussion it is clear that shopping

centres can be categorised in different ways and that some of the shopping centre formats that exist today fit in more than one centre type or category.

Table 5-1: ICSC Shopping centre definitions

Source: ICSC (1999:4)

Type	Concept	Square Feet. (Include. Anchors)	Acreage	Typical anchor(s)		Anchor ratio	Primary trade area
				Number	Type		
Neighbourhood centre	Convenience	30,000-150,000	3 - 15	1 or more	Supermarket	30 - 50%	3 miles
Community centre	General merchandise; convenience	100,000-350,000	10 - 40	2 or more	Discount dept. store; super-market; drug; home improvement; large Specialty/ discount apparel	40 - 60%	3 - 6 miles
Regional centre	Merchandise; Fashion (Mall, typically enclosed)	400,000-800,000	4 - 100	2 or more	Full-line dept. store; dept. store; mass merchant; disc. dept. store; fashion apparel	50 - 70%	5- 15 miles
Superregional centre	Similar to Regional Centre but has more variety and assortment	800,000+	60- 120	3 or more	Full-line dept. store; jr. dept. store; mass merchant; fashion apparel	50 - 70%	5- 20 miles
Fashion/ specialty centre	Higher end, fashion oriented	80,000 - 250,000	5 - 25	N/A	Fashion	N/A	5-15 miles

Power centre	Category-dominant anchors; few small tenants	250,000 - 600,000	25 - 80	3 or more	Category killer; home improvement; disc. dept. store; warehouse club; off price	75 - 90%	5- 10 miles
Theme/festival centre	Leisure; tourist-oriented; retail and service	80,000 - 250,000	5 - 20	N/A	Restaurants; entertainment	N/A	N/A
Outlet centre	Manufacturer s' outlet stores	50,000 - 400,000	10 - 50	N/A	Manufacturer s' outlet stores	N/A	25-75 miles

Based on the classifications from the different countries, multiple definitions have been coined to describe different types of shopping centres, which allows for the distinction of various types of shopping centres in relation to function, location, physical criteria or form, type of goods, trip purpose, type of store, ownership, size, and tenancy arrangements (Guy, 1998:256-262). An Austrian architect, Victor Gruen, who is credited as the inventor of the first shopping centre regarded shopping centres as, “constructions combining under one roof: public space, pedestrian social space, recreational and entertainment facilities, catering and trade”. Gruen perceived a shopping centre as truly being an urban environment that is gratifying for residents of both the city centre and the periphery (Berezko, 2014:6).

The ICSC (1999:1) defines a shopping centre as, “a group of retail and other commercial establishments that is planned, developed, owned and managed as a single property, typically with on-site parking provided. The centre’s size and orientation are generally determined by the market characteristics of the trade area served by the centre”. On the other hand, a European shopping centre is defined as, “a retail property that is planned, built and managed as a single entity, comprising units and “communal” areas, with a minimum gross leasable area (GLA) of 5,000 square metres (m²)” (Lambert, 2006:35).

In the context of the Asia-Pacific,

“A shopping centre is a group of retail and other commercial establishments that is planned, developed, and managed as a single property, comprising commercial multi-branded rental units and common areas. A shopping centre will have a minimum Retail Net Leasable Area (NLA) of

20,000 square feet (sq. ft.). In the context of a mixed-use project, the shopping centre excludes areas whose primary purpose is not retail (e.g., adjoined office or hotel lobby” (Lambert, 2017:3).

Reikli (2012:5) promotes the concept of a shopping centre as a, “product of the real estate industry conceived and developed by developers using those investors’ capital who see profit and gains in the realization of the respective shopping center”. The common thread in the above definitions is that a shopping centre is a retail unit offered to the market as a product in an individual property. The ICS, European and Asian definitions acknowledge that it should be planned, developed, and managed. In this way, it is established or branded to meet defined characteristics that are offered to the patrons. Developers and investors do their best to develop the shopping centres according to specification and market conditions that will help them earn the highest profit. The development of these centres requires commercial knowledge, which makes them part of a special category in the real estate industry because they link, the real estate industry’s product phenomenon with the product definition used in marketing.

Products in our time, more than ever before, are linked to infrastructures and services and successful products should exhibit a balanced relationship between relevant aspects (Christiaans & Almendra, 2012:1894). The shopping centre as mentioned above is a product produced by developers by purposefully harmonising the location, customer mix, and tenant mix, which are sustained by facility managers who progressively develop these components in a collective manner. The appropriate use and improvement of the combined effects of all of centre’s elements including the image, patronage, and retail demand externalities generated by the strategic fit of the components mentioned in the previous sentence, results in the success of a shopping centre (Reikli, 2012:5).

Shopping centres are not all the same; they have different elements and their own unique identity, which is the result of bringing together the location, customer mix, and tenant mix factors highlighted above. These factors enable each shopping centre to have a special aspect that makes each centre more valuable than the other centres that are alike. Association of Institutional Investors in Real Estate, the Netherlands (IVBN) (2016:16, 18) argue that shopping centres should be developed as brands. The present approach of retail property management should be centred on cooperative management and branding of the shopping centres as social spaces not places to be leased. Shopping centres should be autonomous brands with their own profile and forte like Nokia, Apple and Samsung. The focus should shift from too much emphasis on retail offerings, functionalities, prerequisites, and form, to the social aspect of the shopping centres (Andersson, 2010:21).

From this section it is obvious that shopping centres are comprised of shopping activity, services and catering in the same location, which are regarded as the basic components of each centre and that most retail centres have the largest portion of their activities apportion to retail sales, followed by services, catering services, and then financial services (Lukic & Jakovic, 2004:48). For this study, the term shopping centre is used to avoid confusion, the term mall will only be used if the shopping centre is known

or referred to as a mall in the locality and in its name label. A shopping centre will be defined in the South African context, which has some characteristics of the ICSC definition.

5.4. Spatial influence of shopping centres

Lloyd and Dicken (1972:262) point out that integration within national agenda in policies and laws and a thorough foundation of information and research on which these policies are constructed are two vital elements that should be considered when developing regional development plans. Growth poles are part of the strategies of various countries and are regarded as the most dynamic components of economic growth; the actual driving force behind integration on various levels such as the ideological, technological, economic, spiritual and moral development at regional, national, continental and international levels (Dobrescu & Dobre, 2014:262). Both small and large shopping centres as propulsive firms in growth centres have the capacity to influence and transform the form of an areas in both urban and rural sitting.

The extent, control and kind of effect a shopping centre has on its environment is reliant on attributes like the location, accessibility, length of operation time, size, type, and trade type. The development of a shopping centre in a specific area has a tendency of changing the function of such an area like an industrial area or warehouse converted into a commercial, or service related area such as a garage; or a buffer zone becoming a shopping centre thereby changing the function of the area (Rochminska, 2017:56). The fact that new developments like the ones described above transform the image and shape of an area in which they are located to develop into a viable area that can compete or complement areas such as the city, town and city centres is an indication that shopping centres can play a role in transforming stagnant areas and contribute positively to reducing spatial fragmentation (Rochminska, 2016:526).

Shopping centres play a central role in generating activities in localities. Neighbourhood and convenience centres in residential areas, suburbs, cities, and town peripheries as well as rural areas keep the areas active while delivering a convenient service to the residents and averting trips inside and outside the areas for everyday shopping needs. These centres are essential in that they are a vitality factor for the city centre and in their new locations in suburbs, cities and town peripheries, and rural areas where residents go for a variety of activities including entertainment, cultural, social, educational, and shopping (Urbact, 2017:6). Shopping centres have contributed positively in areas where there were no traditional town centres because they are capable of creating an area with concentrated retail and related activities such as post offices, health facilities, housing, and entertainment facilities thereby contributing to the economic and social role in their locality.

Kansas City in the USA and other areas which were affected by World War II, such as Hoogeveen and Hengelo in the Netherlands, reinvented their city centres using shopping centres (Urbact, 2017:11). Therefore, even in the present era, shopping centres can be used to create city centres in areas where there are none and to recreate the city centres in areas where they are run down and redressing spatial fragmentation that manifest in such areas. Shopping centres are now city centres, and in the USA the

centres in the suburbs are frequently referred to as the new downtowns. For many customers, these areas have developed substantially to an extent that they also perform a cultural and community role.

In Britain, these centres have also developed a wider role than the commercial function, they also perform a role of creating new towns. For example, Thurrock Lakeside in the east side of London, with the adjacent Chafford Hundred residential development, has successfully become a town and an instrument for advanced development in the region. Bluewater in Dartford, Kent, has become a retail centre for an area that includes business and accommodating a private sector close to Ebbsfleet Station, integrating retail with educational and cultural enterprises (Lowe, 2000:264-266). Merry Hill Centre (intu Merry Hill) in Dudley, West Midlands, which is composed the shopping centre, leisure areas, offices at the nearby Waterfront, and Brierley Hill District centre form a town centre in the area as can be seen in Figure 5-2 below (Lowe, 1998:63).



Figure 5-2: Merry Hill shopping centre and neighbourhood

Source: intu Merry Hill (2016:4)

The buying power of Merry Hill' customers came from large employers such as the Child Support Agency, Inland Revenue, Dudley TEC, Dudley Chamber of Commerce and Industry, service industries and electronics, Barclays, Prudential and Cable Midlands. These institutions employed over 3000 people. Sixty five percent of these employees were in clerical positions. Merry Hill had a tight catchment area with 68 % of customers living within 15 minutes' drive, 13 000 visits per week were on foot, 25 000 customers living within 1, 6 Km and 36 000 customers travelled by bus. In short, 310,000 people lived in the primary catchment area and 60% within 5 km of the site (Lowe, 2000:268).

These types of centres have the infrastructure found in a town or city centre such as railway stations, bus stations, medical facilities, banks, post offices, and entertainment outlets to name a few. Shopping centres brought spatial or structural change in most European countries such as Greece, Hungary, Poland,

Portugal, Turkey, and Spain. In Izmir, Turkey, Kipa Migros hypermarket store was established in the 1990s on the main exit of the metropolitan area along Tansas, a supermarket format of the municipality corporation. After 1990 there was an increase in population and purchase power. The fairly high growth rates of 5% on average for the period 1981-1993, changed the production and consumption patterns in Turkey. At the end of the 1990s similar shops, shopping centres, focused centres, and do-it-yourself stores developed in the adjacent main road axes creating an agglomeration of extensive retail structures on the four main road axes of the metropolitan area (Kompil & Celik, 2006:6) shown in Figure 5-3 below.

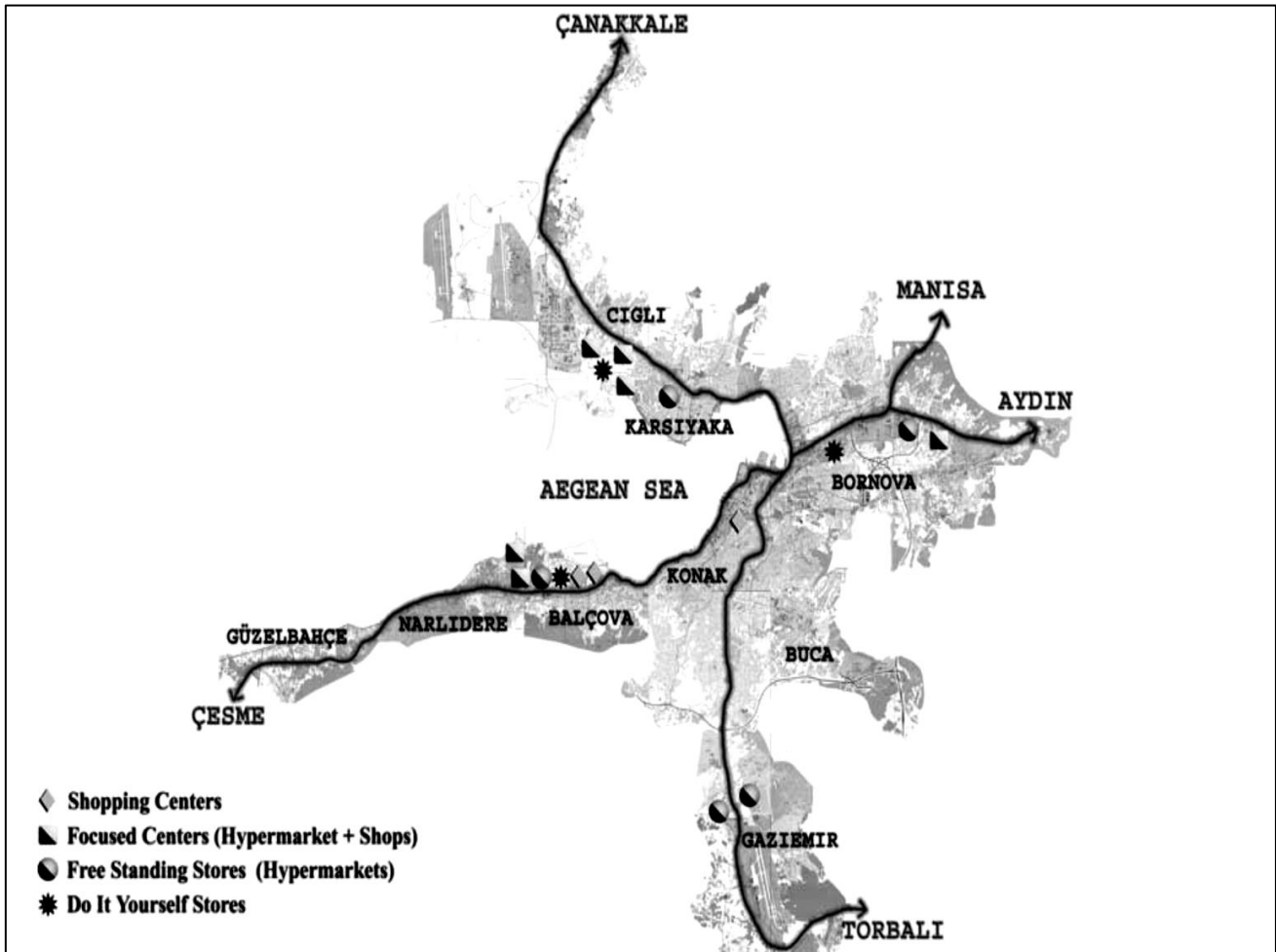


Figure 5-3: Major large retail developments in İzmir after the mid-1990s

Source: Kompil and Celik (2006:6)

These retailers are located in low-cost and large sites that are nearby high-income groups. The highly populated localities with high-income groups in Izmir have been the target of major supermarkets (Kompil & Celik, 2006:7). Since 2005, disposable income increased at a compound annual growth rate (CAGR) of 3.6 percent. Households earning below \$15,000 declined from 53% to 45 %. A large number of customers these are the youth and the middle income earners (Erkip & Ozuduru, 2015:9). The large sizes of the shopping centres in the area have changed the adjacent land uses, road patterns, traffic load and flow, retail hierarchy, and spatial patterns of other shops. The initial investments increased, and in the following

years, new, large retail developments were introduced. A number of shops listed in the Ministry of Finance list of taxpayer groceries and addresses in Izmir - 2004, increased to 17016 (Kompil & Celik, 2006:7).

No matter how small the shopping centre is, it has the capability of transforming the landscape of an area and addressing the spatial inequalities in a region. The number of shops by retailer types and store brands are detailed in Table 5-2 below. The shopping centres established on cheap, vacant land outside the urban areas transformed the area around them by the synergy they create in the area. These centres have the influence to replace the central business district (CBD) in the urban areas by creating the power of attraction through demonstrating their agglomeration influence. Armada Shopping Centre in Yenimahalle, Turkey (Figure 5-4) is an example of a shopping centre in Turkey that prompted a transformation process in the Sogutozu District, which resulted in the area being defined as the new CBD by the Ankara 2023 Plan.

Table 5-2: Retail outlet numbers by to retailer types and store brands in Izmir- 2004

Source: Kompil and Celik (2006:7)

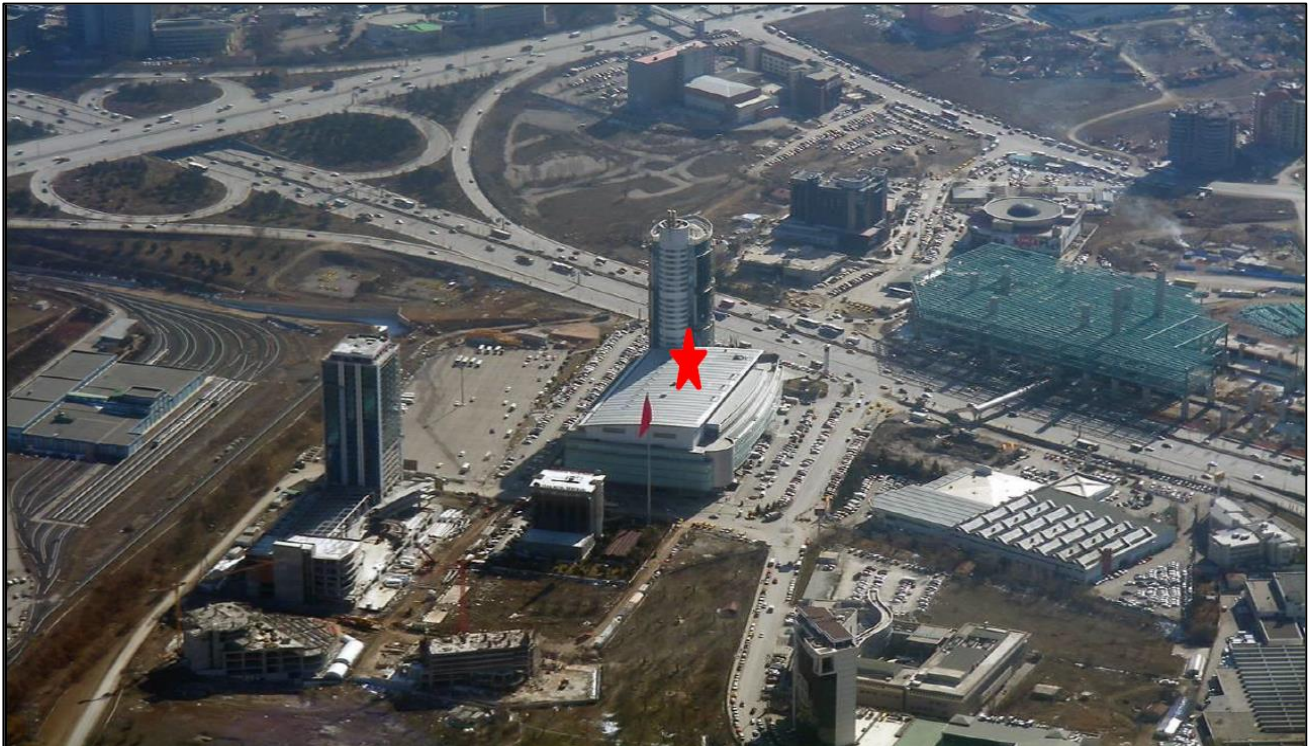
Type of retail outlets and store brands	Number of retail outlets	Outlet sizes (m ²)
Groceries	8231	
Grocery (Bakkal)	6194	< 50 m ²
Larger grocery (market)	2037	50-100 m ²
Supermarkets	183	
Small supermarkets	151	< 400 m²
Mini Tansas	48	
Pehlivanoğlu	26	
BIM	47	
Sok	30	
Supermarkets	17	400-1000 m²
Midi Tansas	12	
Migros M	5	
Large supermarkets	15	1000-2500 m²
Maxi Tansas	10	
Migros MM	5	
Hypermarkets	10	>2500 m²
Kipa	4	
Migros MMM	3	
Özdilek	1	
Metro	1	

Carrefoursa	1	

Figure 5-4: Armada shopping centre, Turkey in 2008

Source: Gurun (2009:153)

The 1990 Master Plan in Ankara introduced the decentralisation along the western axis of the province and the formation of a sub centre in the Sogutozu District. The Armada Shopping Centre made the developments successful and accelerated the transformation process in the area. Armada was named the



best shopping mall in Europe in 2004 (Gurun, 2009:158-159). Since the 1980s a different pattern of residential settlement on the peripheries of metropolitan cities become a trend in Turkey. Comprised of upper-middle and middle class suburbs characterised by the new middle classes. The successes of Armada shopping centre is also attributed to the middle class customers that residing in the edges of Ankara metropolitan area. The high income earners in this country constituted the basis of a new consumer culture and lifestyle which is supported by shopping centres such as Armada (Erkip, 2003:1075-1076).

The task of the local government is to improve the quality of the shopping context or environment. Long-term success can be achieved when public private partnerships are created that merge public planning, coordination, infrastructure, and public financing tools with private sector entrepreneurial knowledge, development expertise, retailing skills, and private capital (Beyard *et al.*, 2003:3). The processes described in this section support the notion of growth centres that growth centres develop in certain areas first and successively develop in the periphery where the conditions are suitable for growth. The fact that both small and large shopping centres have the capacity to be influential, and transform neighbourhoods and regions, attests to the fact that points of growth develop in diverse concentrations, spread throughout areas with

economic potential using different means, and have different total results or effects in a particular region or locality.

This view is true in shopping centre developments. Shopping centres started in the city or town centres referred to as the CBDs area based on the German economist, Johann von Thünen's model, which most countries in the world adopted when developing their cities. von Thünen created a model that predicted land use around a central market as depicted in Figure 5-5 below. The von Thunen model is a forerunner of the Christaller (1933), Perroux (1950), Boudeville (1961) as well as the corridors and nodes strategy. The model predicts a series of concentric rings surrounding a central market, with each ring producing a different kind of crop. He projected the urban landscape as an isotropic plain, with a single core, the CBD, as the most profitable location.

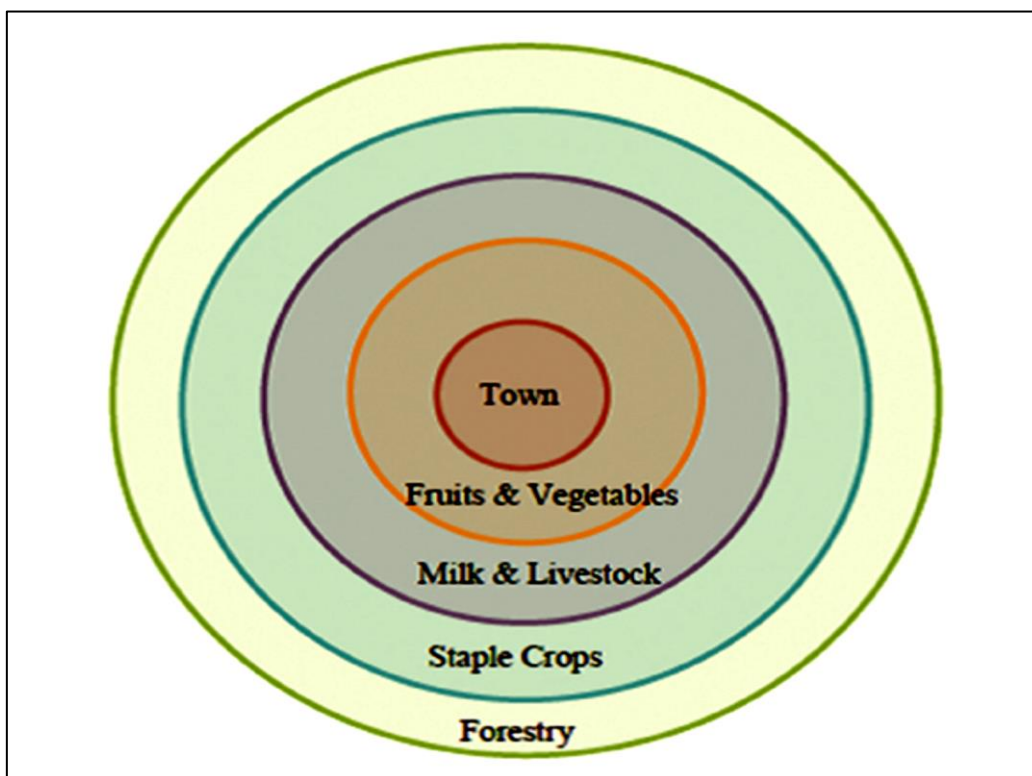


Figure 5-5: von Thunen model of agricultural land use

Source: Buckmaster *et al.* (2014:3)

This core is regarded as an unplanned shopping centre, which dominated the shopping centre industry. The model succeeded in predicting the land uses of the USA. Cities continued focused on the CBD, usually located near the railway station, factories near transportation for shipping in and out products, and to transport workers to work. The spatial layout of the city changes completely when the middle class began buying cars after 1920. Being middle class means to be free from poverty, having the funds to buy basic goods for today and tomorrow and economically (Schotte *et al.*, 2017:1). By means of spill over from the core (in this case the CBD) to the periphery, shopping centres were developed in the suburbs and

peripheries of urban areas. The development of the centres and other large retail outlets outside the city centre promoted suburbanisation and new developments at the peripheries of cities, transformed the urban system and development around the globe (Jeong, 2010:136).

Suburbanisation refers to the development of settlements and out of town shopping centres at the edge of the cities which is predominantly influenced by car ownership, availability of cheap land outside the city and the congestion in the cities (Bailey & Minton, 2018:1). In the USA, the car oriented suburbs were established outside the traditional city boundaries because people were able to buy homes away from the city road networks and railway stations thereby increasingly decentralising the cities. Suburban shopping centres formed part of these residential satellites, combining large amounts of new housing together with the shopping centres, which serviced the community's needs. The global motorisation offered an effective incentive to the speedy development of the cities' periphery.

In late 20th Century, the availability of cars created a new urban form at the edge of the city in the form of areas with dense urban development outside the boundaries of the city, referred to as 'edge cities' and suburban downtowns. They are located at intersections of major interstate highways, comprised of shopping centres, office complexes, industrial parks, hotels, restaurants, and high-rise apartment buildings. These urban forms displaced the CBD as the destination of choice whether for work or leisure. Shopping centres are still significant as a vitality aspect of the city centre. Currently, the centres are also very important in creating activities in the suburbs and neighbourhoods (Urbact, 2017:6).

European shopping centres did not initially develop on the urban outskirts or in suburbs. The out-of-town or out-of-centre shopping centre developments started as part of suburbanisation and counter urbanisation in Britain in the 1960s. The process changed the spatial pattern of retail activity as the core of commercial and employment activity changed. The core changed from the traditional city centre to locations outside the city centre, decentralising the CBD or the urban core. The land outside the city centre was cheap and shopping centres started to meet the customer's packing needs as well as good road access for customers and suppliers' delivery facilities. Habitat and Mark & Spencer started trading out of the city centre in 1984 (Guy, 1998: 292). The development of the centres started with the development of supermarket and hypermarket out of the centre and out of the city in the 1960s -1970s, followed by the purpose built development of retail warehouses between the 1970s and 1990s.

The centres were developed adjacent to highways and major routes, and regional shopping centres emerged. In Germany, urban development like in many of the extremely industrialised countries such as Spain, the Netherlands, and Asian countries such as China, are characterised by trends of spatial de-concentration. The decentralised shopping centres started as a result of this process. The process first transformed large agglomerations where outmigration of people and increased employment created extensive suburban zones around the central cities. Correspondingly, an increase in economic activities' de-concentration occurred because of the suburbanisation of the population and the inherent locational

dynamics of economic activities such as manufacturing and a search for accessible sites (Burdack & Hesse, 2007:82).

Since the 1980s, growth dynamics in large agglomerations have progressively moved from the CBD (old cores) to the urban peripheries, suburbs, and rural areas. Medium-sized towns outside the metropolitan areas started to form their own suburban circles. City centres and surrounding areas fused into efficient urban regions that formed the spatial basis of everyday activity systems for the population. New economic poles of superior city-like proportions emerged at the peripheries of metropolitan areas of the above mentioned countries. New economic poles that developed include the Budaors-Torokbalint area, west of Budapest with its upsurge of commercial activities and offices, and Tres Cantos north of Madrid with a high tech-manufacturing profile (Burdack & Hesse, 2007:87).

France is one of the first European countries to experience economic concentration and spatial suburbanisation of shopping centres, and also to have strong political measures for the centres. In the UK, shopping centres have evolved from basic retail properties into multifunctional centres with increased dining, leisure and entertainment, and public services. The aim is to create centres that are more integrated within the local community. There is an increase in the mixed use shopping centres, which combine residential and office space. It is expected that older centres, particularly those in secondary locations, will be redeveloped or replaced with residential leisure schemes. For example, Westgate shopping centre in Oxford, the Netherlands, and France bring together shopping, housing, offices and cultural spaces (Cushman & Wakefield, 2017:30).

Improvements in city transport and development of decentralised residential zones have also stimulated retail development in the suburbs of key Chinese cities. Over 80% of supply in these cities are in decentralised areas. The catchments of these suburban shopping centres are mostly restricted to families in the neighbourhood (CBRE (Coldwell Banker Richard Ellis), 2015:7). The development of shopping centres away from the city centre affected the vitality and viability of traditional shopping areas. Overall, planned centres are far more prominent than unplanned developments. Most of the new suburbs did not provide for residents' commercial and retail needs, which lead to strategically located shopping centres at highway intersections or along the busiest major road (Cohen, 1996:1052).

In the context of the growth pole strategy, shopping centres form part of planned growth centres and to sustain the long-term viability of these centres as localities for retail and local services, it is essential that these centres continue to attract customers. Visibility and accessibility should not be the only attractions, there must also be genuine collaboration of activities, which is instrumental in enhancing the attractiveness of the centres and make them profitable. Shopping centre spill over effects are not spatially limited to the nearby neighbourhood and have a different sequence, for example, the competition between the city centre and suburban centres.

Suburban centres adversely affect the city centre some kilometres away. Tenants in city centres are moving to the more attractive shopping centres at the periphery of the CBDs and in suburbs. Shopping centres can internalise positive spill over by strengthening the relationships among stores, which is reflected in the rent differentials among the stores. Stores that generate the most customers are charged lower rent. For example, the anchor stores and clothing stores pay less while restaurants and jewellery stores, which benefit from the customers generated by the other stores, pay the highest rent.

Successful shopping centre developments provide opportunities for socio-economic development, and are obliged to comply with legal conditions, perform meaningful consultation and constantly, communicate with the community, must be environmentally sustainable, and offer public transportation facilities, and prospects for economic inclusion and linkages to urban tourism. This results in the community owning or having a good relationship with the shopping centre accepting it as part of their community, and that the centres have special merits compared to other property investments.

The important urban planning and architectural design issues that the centre developments should take into consideration include assessing, appreciating and responding to the urban and social context of the centres; determine the level of protection needed to safeguard the character of the historic area; carry out early and continuous meaningful consultations; develop a communication strategy; achieve architectural urban design integrity and quality in relation to the historic townscape; create a public realm; balance traffic requirements and public transport accessibility; as well as promote environmental sustainability; encourage a mix of uses to sustain the vitality of the area; and link to urban tourism (Taboroff *et al.*, 2015:13).

All of the factors in the last paragraph create an area that is capable of contributing positively to the economic growth and even spatial development of a region. A new opportunity has emerged in recent years for shopping centres to contribute significantly in urban planning in that they are linked to new strategic and collaborative approaches, and their growing implication on the principles of fairness, balance, and sustainability in their economic, social, and environmental dimensions (Fernandes & Chumuska, 2014:172). In Europe, the national and local government share responsibilities, though there are conflicts in their relationship. Both the national and local government construct planning policies that influence plans and actions that affect the city centres and shopping centres, new areas of cosmopolitanism, and deprived spaces using different agents.

Shopping centre policies consider the objectives of innovation and social inclusion and spatially based planning with regards to the centres as important part of urbanism. The process of establishing these centres have taken into consideration the most important elements that resulted in their success. In the next section, key issues and factors that contribute positively to the success of shopping centres are examined.

5.5. Social and spatial key issues linked to shopping centre establishment

The shopping centre industry is an open system operated by several actors who have gone through periods of great inventions and modification followed by eras of backlash and acclimatisation. The major role players in developing shopping centres include the local governments, the community, or public and private-sector decision makers. It has always been clear to local governments that shopping centre developments should be market driven and that government intervention should be minimum to let the private sector respond to the market efficiently while the government plays a supporting role. Developers, retailers and investors face obstacles constantly as the sector progresses to embrace new market leaders such as e-tailing and multi-channel retailing, as well as growing retail globalisation and the challenges should be addressed without wavering (Cushman & Wakefield, 2014:22).

In this study the design, statutory planning, location decision making process, and public participation are selected as issues that need to be considered in the process of establishing successful centres that meet social needs of communities as well as promoting spatial and social integration. Considering these factors and making sure that they are incorporated in the process of establishing shopping centres, strengthen the creation of shopping centre nodes that contribute positively in confronting spatial fragmentation as discussed below:

5.5.1. Shopping centre design

The design of shopping centres expresses a complete sense of place to the market. The centre's architecture is one of the most influential and innovative types of design. Good designs depend on many factors and is difficult to deliver. The developer's vision, architect's talent, the municipality's guidance, consistency with the community's needs, and the availability of resources should be taken into consideration when creating the design. The design should provide a memorable experience of architecture and space to attract customers and add value to the community's environment and image. Benchmarking, peer reviews, and discussion with the community should be utilised to avoid costly mistakes (Taboroff *et al.*, 2015:16).

For example, a good design of a centre's frontage can improve the appearance and attractiveness of centre. A design that allows for restaurants to be placed at the entrance of centres attracts potential customers who are going to eat, who may be attracted to something more and go further and purchase goods in the centre. The frontage design can persuade customers to travel a long distance, leaving and passing many shops along the way to visit the centre (Waszak, 2015:467). The shopping centre design must conform to building code requirements of the local municipality and country in which the centre is built. The requirements differ for various buildings.

For example, regulations for free standing buildings without floors, single floors, and multiple floors are different. The regulations also affect plans for egress and ingress, dimensions for corridors, stairs ways, and provisions for disabled customers. They further include specifications for the shopping centre's widths, ceilings, and space around stalls (Cal & Lamia, 2014:21). The codes mentioned here impact on the tenant mix inside the shopping centres. Planners, architects, and landscape architects should ensure that the shopping centres improve public spaces, even though they on private land. The buildings of centres should blend well with the locality in terms of scale, height, and character.

The centres should be able to play an important role in cultural place making and reaffirm the neighbourhood and municipal areas' image, for example, Stadsfeestzaal in Antwerp, Belgium; and Hoochwoert shopping centre in the Netherlands. Shopping centres can be valuable landmarks and through re-created public space, attract customers, contributing to local economy development and supporting new experiences for customers, for example, Trinity Leeds and Yorkshire Sculpture Triangle (Taboroff *et al.*, 2015:17). The call for developers to establish incomparable styles and types of centres to gratify the desires of customers with unique retail tenants has a positive influence on the retail terrain. When developing future commercial units and shopping centre guidelines, planners must create an appropriate balance between the beneficial characteristics of a large retail format and the drive for sustainable community design (Beyard *et al.*, 2007:30-33).

A successful shopping centre design and layout should not concentrate only on maximising retail floor area but should also produce a space that creates a relaxing and pleasant shopping experience. It should also, "ensure, among other requirements, that all locations in the centre, and hence assigned stores (entities) to these locations, can receive maximum customer flow to increase rent, and consequently, profitability" (Fahmy *et al.*, 2017:925). The physical design elements of the general layout, landscaping, parking areas and buildings should encourage integration, social, and environmental appreciation in these centres and the neighbourhood. Walkability and economic values form an integral part of the design attributes of neighbourhood shopping centres. Town planners and developers should always be mindful of these characteristics when considering the type of centre that they wish to establish.

The centres increasingly play a greater role in the cultural life of their immediate communities. Therefore, their designs should consider features and spaces that allow for the cultural life of the local communities to be maintained. Shopping centres should be fully integrated or have a strong connection with the surrounding communities and cease to be commercial properties where goods are sold but should aspire to be centres that cater for both the economic and social aspects of the entire community (IVBN, 2016:16-17). The design should be such that the centre is connected to the surrounding environment. Elements such as the climate of the local area should be used as a design determinant. That is, the design should consider the building's orientation, prevailing winds, and trees in order to benefit the consumers in terms

of, for example, the cooling and heating effect of the sun and adjusting the heating and cooling systems of the centre accordingly (Beyard *et al.*, 2007:31).

5.5.2. Statutory planning processes

Different government have long invented instruments and political measures to guide and to control the development process of shopping centres and their spatial distribution. policies especially designed to regulate the retail sector and spatial planning related to retail in urban spaces. These policies shape the form and structure of settlements. Urban planning includes the development of large building sites that provide housing, jobs and services for a growing population within a neighbourhood. The developments should take into consideration the relationships between human settlement structure and travel or movement patterns within the area. Policy instruments such as SDF and Land Use Management System (LUMS) guide the spatial form and structure of an area.

The control of retail in the UK is achieved through the national planning system and by specific land use regulation. The rise in the significance of retail planning policies and laws started with the changes in the industry, such as, the extensive growth in the sizes of new shops, shopping centres, and the leading companies (Guimaraes, 2016:36). Statutory Planning, according to the Rural Community Council of Essex (2007:2) “is a system that sets out planning objectives and policies to guide the provision of services and the use of land”. This system guides the development of shopping centre nodes and ensure that the nodes are in line with the planning objectives and policies related to land use and the provision of services. The above mentioned system consists of spatial planning and community planning processes.

Spatial planning in this system is top down, that is, guidelines and policies in all planning documents must conform to the policies in documents of all the levels of government from the highest to the lowest. Community planning on the other hand is bottom up with the main concerns of the district Community Strategies supporting the Essex Community Strategy and contributing in the division of government funding in the area by means of the Local Area Agreement. Figure 5-6 outlines the spatial planning process described above and development in this area should be aligned with the policies in this diagram. A major development proposal in The Highland Council or the Scottish Government must apply for development as defined in The Town and Country Planning (Hierarchy of Developments) (Scotland) Regulations 2009, Reg 2, which (1) must be submitted with an application form; detailed drawings/plans (as required); a pre-application consultation report; design and access statement; and an application fee.

The legal requirements that should be followed include: A proposal of application notice that should be submitted 12 weeks before submitting a planning application and should be noted for programming of work. The applicant must conduct a pre-application consultation process within a minimum of 12 weeks for the public to make comments Then the proposal of application notice must be submitted. Thereafter a minimum of one consultation meeting must be held, and all community councils must be notified, and a

newspaper advertisement should be made at least seven days before the meeting. A report explaining the above consultation process must be submitted with the application (Proposal of Application Notice report) (The Highland Council, 2014:2).

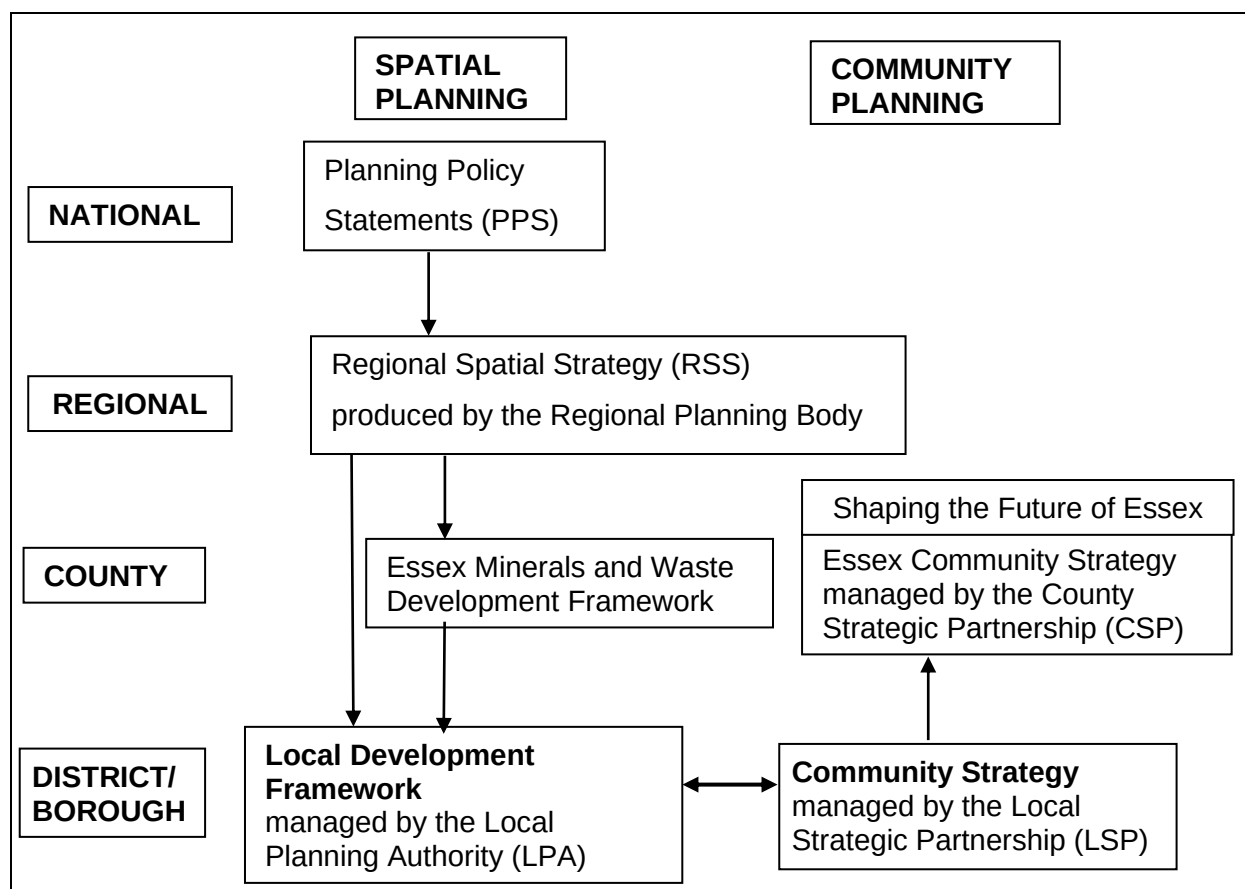


Figure 5-6: Statutory spatial planning in Essex rural

Source: Rural Community Council of Essex (2007:2)

The applications should be decided by the planning authority within four months. In more complex cases, an extension can be granted. The application can be refused or granted depending on the stipulated conditions. The development must start before the end of three years from the date on which the planning permission or consent was granted, or it expires. In the event that the application is refused, the applicant (no other parties) can appeal the decision. Supporting material to the objections can be submitted by affected parties. If the application is refused or granted subject to certain conditions, or no decision is made within the specified time frame, the applicant has the right to appeal to Scottish Ministers for non-determination.

There is no specified time limit on how long the appeal process takes. An appeal notice must be submitted within three months of the notice of the decision made, or in the case of deemed refusal, the expiry of four months from the date of validation of the major application applies. Late objections are rejected as invalid. The Court of Session in Edinburgh must hear the challenges of the planning decisions through a statutory appeal procedure or under common law, which is a non-statutory judicial review procedure. The Court

decides if the wrong decision has been made in legal terms, or whether a decision is correct or incorrect in planning language or style (The Highland Council, 2014:2-3).

The above processes are examples of what each country follows stipulated in their laws. What is covered in statutory planning is components of the theory of planning in each country. The components include for example standards, such as densities, and procedures to be followed in planning practice such as submission of development applications and public participation procedures as highlighted above. In the application procedure for the Highlands Council, it is evident that public participation is one of the main statutory processes that should take place before the application to develop the land can be approved. The other process that is a form of public participation is the newspaper advert that has to be made seven days before the public meeting.

The hierarchy of urban and retail centres became identified and incorporated in planning. Consequently, regulation in planning became concerned about the allocation of shops to distinct locations in the urban and retail hierarchy of centres and to preserve the city centres as dominant points to guarantee that retailing was located in a logical manner. The statutory process followed in The Highland Council or the Scottish Government is similar to the processes followed in South Africa based on the spatial planning and LUM regulations: LUM and general matters, 2015 Chapter 3 Section, 14 highlighted in section 8.5.2.

Land use planning became the main regulatory tool under the Town and Country Planning Act 1947 (10 & 11 Geo. VI c. 51) in UK and new forms of locational control were established following the new forms of retailing such as out of town hypermarkets and regional shopping centres proposed from the 1960s and 1970s. They were aimed at protecting small retailers, guarantying price stability, ensuring the efficiency of retailing, protecting consumers and environmental reasons. Land use planning regulated under the 1990 Town and Country Planning Act was modified by the Planning and Compulsory Purchases Act 2004, which applies in England with mostly comparable approaches in the rest of the UK, and is the framework founded on planning and decision making at national guidance and local plan making which guides retail planning processes (Findlay & Sparks, 2013:2,5).

From the time the law was introduced in the UK, land use policies restricted the availability of land for shopping centre developments. The English town-centre-first policy strives to focus shopping centre developments on particular sites and on expensive central land. In this way it increases the cost and restricts the quantity of retail space. The British system of land use planning enforces direct restrictions on land provision for different, legally defined, types of use in different locations increasing the costs of land in all categories of development including retail developments. The operation of the land use planning system in Britain was significantly higher than in any other country for the period between 1999-2005 and levied 800% of the equivalent of tax on construction costs in London's West End, the most limited

jurisdiction where demand was strongest (Cheshire *et al.*, 2011:6). Table 5-3 provides examples of retail planning policy in the United Kingdom between 1993 and 2013.

Table 5-3: Retail Planning Policy 1993-2013

Source: Findlay and Sparks (2013:11)

Date	Title	Main aims	Influential publications	Tensions
1993	Planning Policy Guidance 6; Town Centres and Retail Development	To sustain or enhance the vitality and viability of town centres which serve the whole community and in particular provide a focus for retail development where the proximity of competing businesses facilitates competition which benefits consumers. To ensure the availability of a wide range of shopping opportunities to which people have easy access and the maintenance of an efficient and innovative retail sector	House of Commons (1994), Department of The Environment (1998), Department of the Environment (1994) McKinsey Global Institute (1998)	Innovative locations v traditional locations. Equity or efficiency.
2005	Planning Policy Statement 6; Planning for Town Centres	The government's key objective for town centres is to promote their vitality and viability by: Planning for growth and development of existing centres, by focusing development in such centres and encouraging a wide range of services in a good environment, accessible to all.	Retail Strategy Group (2004)	Innovative locations and traditional locations
2009	Planning Policy Statement 4: Planning for Sustainable Economic Growth	To promote the vitality and viability of towns and other centres as important places for communities and ensure that they are economically successful recognising that they are important drivers for regional, sub-regional and local economies.	Barker (2006) Competition Commission (2008) AAPSG (2006)	Productivity v equity. Retail planning v business policy. Small shops v large shops.
2012	National Planning Policy Framework; Achieving Sustainable Development.	Ensuring the vitality of town centres. Planning policies should be positive, promote competitive town centre environments and set out policies for the management and growth of centres over the plan period.	DCLG (2011) Portas (2011) House of Commons (2011)	National v local. Physical v virtual. Economic v social.

The development of shopping centres can be regarded as a function of several policies in urban planning such as urban development controls and spatial planning policies. It is one of the main economic activities of urban areas, which generates employment, it is the main source of income for the areas through the taxes it generates, and it replicates the viability and vitality of the community (Erkip & Ozuduru, 2015:5). For example, in Hull City, Hull Local Plan: 2016 to 2032. Vitality and viability of centres Supplementary Planning Document 9. It provides additional planning guidance on Policy 9 - City Centre and Policy 12 - District, Local and Neighbourhood Centres, which establishes a hierarchy of shopping centres. It outlines how the above mentioned two policies should be implemented in order to protect and improve the vibrancy and viability of Hull City Centre, its district, local and neighbourhood centres and to ensure that new centres established the most suitable locations in the city (Hull City Council, 2017:6).

This document is in line with the National Planning Policy Framework (2012) highlighted in Table 5-3. Spatial planning is an area-related public sector task subdivided into comprehensive spatial planning, which addresses the supra local, district or regional areas and local level urban land use planning as well as sectoral planning. Countries have devised instruments and political measures on various levels and types, to guide and apply measures to manage the development process of shopping centres and other retail outlets and their spatial distribution. German federal spatial planning has no instruments for organising and developing the total national land, while both sectoral planning and local urban land use planning addresses specific uses and specific areas and sites.

In line with the federal structure of government and decentralised administration principles, regional planning is the responsibility of state spatial planning, responsible for territory subdivisions and is it different in the various states. Local urban land-use planning is a formal tool on the basis of the Federal Building Code and its function is to prepare and control the land use for building or other purposes. The Federal Spatial Planning Act and state spatial planning acts offer safeguards for spatial planning and state spatial planning to curb undesirable and unanticipated developments (Pahl-Weber, 2006:11,13).

Planning systems have an influence on the land values and the spatial pattern of shop sizes. Shopping centre developments in both city centres and out of the city centre should comply with the same planning procedures. Some countries outside the European countries like Russia and South Korea had taken the policy of tax exoneration for establishing supermarkets in municipalities. Some governments have openly invested in modern retail to simply modernise the retail chain as well as to generate revenue for government. Different countries such as Germany, Japan, France, and Belgium have land-use zoning restrictions to protect existing shopping centre types or forms, different controls on opening hours for shops, retail formats, product imports, and discount selling. They have introduced policies that discourages large scale retailing to protect small outlets (Mukherjee, 2011:176, 179).

Plans should permit for a complimentary mix of land uses close to one another and should direct future development to provide for street connections. Policies should direct business development to centres or nodes as alternatives of endless strips along corridors. The neoliberal political context is gradually limited by the socio-economic and cultural interests or activities of each country. These facts influence governance and planning structures of each country and as a consequence, the plans and policies of the different countries are significant in describing the different shopping centre structures and patterns in each and every country.

With regard to the threshold trend of the centres in London, for example, the Local Plans adopted since 2012, 10 (40%) out of the 25 towns/districts adopted a localised impact threshold. The thresholds were determined using a comprehensive or generalised method in which the threshold pertains to all the centres in the specific district or town. The threshold starts from 80m² to 1,000 m² and the widely adopted threshold is 200 m² (London Borough of Tower Hamlets, 2018:9). A summary of the adopted threshold is outlined in Table 5-4.

Table 5-4: Summary of the London Borough's (areas) impact thresholds

Source: London Borough of Tower Hamlets (2018:9)

Borough (Area)	Development Plan	Date Adopted	Policy Adopted	Local Threshold
Localised Impact Threshold				
Brent	Development Plan Document	Nov-16	Policy 2: Supporting Strong	500 m ² for main town centre uses
Hackney	Development Management Local Plan	Jul-15	Policy DM7 – New Retail Development	200 m ² for main town centre uses
Islington	Development Management Policies	Jun-13	Policy DM4.4: Promoting Islington's Town Centres	80 m ² for main town centre uses
Kensington and Chelsea	Consolidated Local Plan	Jul-15	Policy CF 1 Location of New Shop Uses	400 m ² for main town centre uses
Lewisham	Development Management Local Plan	Nov-14	DM Policy 13 Location of main town centre uses	Over 1,000 m ² for sequential and impact
Merton	Sites and Policies Plan and Policies	Jul-14	DM R2 Development of town centre type uses outside town centres	280 m ² for convenience retail

Wandsworth	Development Management Policies Document	Mar-16	Policy DMTS 2 Out-of-centre development	200 m ² for retail and leisure but excludes local convenience shopping facilities
Waltham Forest	Development Management Policies	Oct-13	Policy DM26: Retail, Office and Leisure Developments	200 m ² for main town centre uses
Hillingdon	Development Management Policies	Oct-15	Policy DMTC 1: Town Centre Developments	200 m ² for retail and 1,000 m ² for combined town centre uses
Hounslow	Hounslow Local Plan	Sep-15	Policy TC3	500 m ² for retail and 2,500 m ² for other main town centre uses

The regulation of retail locations in Sweden is achieved through the Planning and Building Act and the Municipal Comprehensive Plan, Detailed Development Plan as well as the building, demolition or site improvement permit. All decisions regarding retail location lies with the city councils through planning control. For example, the County Administrative Board is forced to get involved and act against a detailed plan that allows for the establishment of a commercial centre that risks a negative impact on commercial and traffic status quo in adjacent municipalities (Karrholm & Nylund, 2011:1050). The Planning Act in Denmark Consolidated Act No. 813 of 21 June 2007 part 2d directly deals with retail development issues (Ministry of the Environment, 2007:10-14).

All in all, statutory planning and the introduction of the different laws and policies in different countries should deal with the conflict between the private sector interests and public interest, as well as disputes between big store developers, local government, planners, and the national government. The national government often assumes the role of advising the other stakeholders as to what standard form is acceptable in relation to physical appearance and location of the developments (properties). In European countries, including the UK, there are legal authorities responsible for planning control related to property development, which incorporate complete embargos on specific categories of development in specific areas, as well as complex systems such as the appearance and site layout of individual developments. These aspects can be agreed upon based on the laws, policies, and a combination of formal and informal rules (Guy & Bennison, 2007:945,946).

5.5.3. Location decision making

Location is one of the main success factors in the shopping centres sector. The location of the shopping centre should encourage integration within the neighbourhood and also link the shopping centre node with

the municipal and regional area. In this way the shopping centre will contribute positively in reducing the spatially divided form (shape) in the local area and country wide. The location should have adequate electricity, water sources, and waste systems. Other factors to be considered in decision making include information about demographic variables, store sales, customer transaction, land-use planning, number of competitors within the trade area, and availability of qualified personnel since local people should be given first preference (Martinuzzi, 2011:1,6).

In the past, the majority of regional shopping centres were located in suburban areas, adjacent to residential areas, and on subsidiary roads that have limited access to freeways, which is still the case in this era (Nicolaidis & Wiese, 2017:4, 16). Location options are determined by a definite principle of spatial planning of activity referred to as accessibility, specifically accessibility to markets or centres. With regards to firms, high accessibility denotes easy access to a wide and varied markets for final goods and production factors, to information, and international infrastructures centres. In the case of human beings, it is accessibility to the CBD and consequently jobs, having minimum transportation costs, while enjoying easy access to a variety of recreational services confined to specific locations such as parks, museums, and libraries and close to particular services such as universities and other educational facilities without paying the high cost of long distance transport (Capello, 2011:4, 6).

Shopping centre theories contribute in deciding the most suitable location and in determining the trade area of these centres. Christaller (1933) Central Place Theory CPT, Haig (1927) Bid Rent Theory, Hotelling (1929) Retailer Agglomeration, Reilly (1931) Retail Gravitation, and Huff (1964) Spatial Interaction Model/Attraction Model Trade Area are relevant theories in shopping centre location. The CPT is the most fundamental theory of retail location and it creates a theoretical base for the spatial organisation of settlements, shopping centres, and firms. The theory was created by Walter Christaller in 1933. It proclaims that the number, size and location of shopping centres should rely on the demand threshold and market range of goods and services. Therefore, it forecasts a geometric distribution of the sums of city hubs of a descending level of size. It is parallel to a tenant mix model on a national level perspective (Yiu & Xu, 2012:525).

In the CPT, natural shapes of trade areas are identified without using natural boundaries in order to estimate a hexagonal pattern with a purpose of removing nearby trade area gaps or disparities formed in circular trade area concepts. The hexagonal trade areas create secondary trade areas known as nodes or aggregation of adjoining hexagonal trade area patterns. The linked and “equilibrating concepts of ‘Threshold’ as the minimum demand necessary to support a particular retail store type and ‘Range’ as the maximum distance a customer will travel to a particular retail store type” (Anderson et al., 2010:4) were also initiated by Christaller and are now widely used in retail location scrutiny, vocabulary and practice.

Capello (2011:15) maintains that the CPT functions as a part or aspect of the growth centre policy because a classification of cities or settlements organised in a hierarchy based on the functions carried out by each city or settlement is the main, most important method of selecting growth centres. Through the visible similarities of central place type, the spacing of the most appropriately sized growth centres can be achieved. The CPT provides a useful context for regional spatial structures in that its ideas have been used in regional planning such as spatial planning in the Netherlands and regional planning (retail and tourism sector plans) in the UK. The hierarchy guided by the theory might have weakened but it continues to be used even today. Modern regional spatial planning uses principles of this theory as a hierarchical approach (Glasson & Marshall, 2007:76)

The Bid Rent Theory by Haig (1927) is another theory that is used in deciding the location of shopping centres. The theory argues that the land is occupied by activities that pay the highest rent value and thus the land should be in its utmost and best use. Rent for the land drops concurrently with an increase in the distance from the central marketplace (Oner, 2014:6). The theory influences the location of shopping centres in that centres and stores like department stores and specialist retailers that prefer access to closer transport, attract a high number of customers from all around the city, thus these retailers pay the highest rent to be located in the centre. Suburban and peripheral shopping centres that are willing to exchange accessibility of city centre with cheap land prices will locate at the periphery.

The Retail Agglomeration Theory introduced by Hotelling (1929) is also used in determining the location of shopping centres. The theory asserts that customers are more attracted to two competing stores selling similar products housed in the same shopping centre and the shops benefit from agglomeration (Billings & Johnson, 2016:19). This theory influences developers to choose areas where other retail outlets already exist in order to benefit from the agglomeration. The Retail Gravitation Theory (Reilly, 1931) argues that customers are attracted to larger centres to do their shopping but will most probably travel shorter distances when possible (Oner, 2014:6). The theory involved only two retail markets resulting in lack of ranked estimations above or below the breaking point and did not distinguish between various types of shopping trips.

The Spatial Interaction Theory (Huff, 1964) is another theory that is useful in the process of establishing the location of shopping centres. The theory is based on the diminishing prospects of a shopping centre that radiates outward (Stefanouli, 2017:71). Distance is the main element in ascertaining the possibility and probable sales (Anderson *et al.*, 2010:3). It is criticised for being very simplistic in explaining customer support and not able to predict the changing aspects of the fluctuating retail environment (Yiu & Xu, 2012:524).

The above theories are implemented as a theoretical framework for strategies in deciding the location of shopping centres. The strategies of different governments and private institutions are implemented as guidelines for the location of shopping centres similar to the Netherlands and the UK strategies that are

compatible with the CPT. The position of growth centre or settlement within an urban network is of great importance in relation to its size and the size of its hinterland influences. At international level, the CPT reasoning still continues in areas like north-west Europe. In this region, the reasoning continues in the luxurious, expensive cultural amenities which are regarded to be of international standards (Maly, 2016:336).

The above theories applicable in the process of deciding the location of shopping centres, ensure that the centres are reasonably distributed according to the size of the settlement and the population in a particular town, city, municipal area and region. This allows the centres to meet the socio-economic needs of the residents and to smooth the inequalities that might exist in the areas. The location of the centres also attract both public and private investment in the different locations strengthening the hierarchy of settlements or cities which is based on both the growth centre theory, the CPT and the other shopping centre theories.

5.5.4. Public participation

Public participation allow citizens to participate in the establishment of the shopping centre nodes. It enables residents to make contribution that ensures that the centres and nodes are able to meet the needs of the communities and improve their quality of life. In most countries public participation is not compulsory. The process is carried out in different ways and for different reasons in various countries. For example, in Sweden where there is strong local sovereignty whereas the process is very different from France, where there is less opportunity for participation and local government independence (Urban-Net, 2010:3). When the process is carefully managed, it provides a constructive setting to discuss community anxieties, priorities and preferences; to agree on moderation procedures and ensure acceptance from all groupings in local communities.

It helps to ensure that different interests of both sexes, the young, the elderly and those who are less powerful, have a voice. In most instances public participation is required under Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) procedures, as part of the applications for developments in local authorities like in the Highland Council or the Scottish Government application procedure discussed in section 5.5.2. The market surveys that are undertaken before the construction of a shopping centre or when it starts to underperform, are also forms of public participation in shopping centre developments (Beyard *et al.*, 2006:11). Continuous consultation can be a way of being transparent to community concerns and to avoid damage to the reputation of the developer and owners. It can also benefit the developers by providing information about customers' preferences and community capacities.

Public participation demonstrates that the developers and property owners value community involvement and is beneficial in the long-term because the owners will always have a presence in the community as a business in the community. The developer and client (if they are not the same) use a variety of communication strategies, from the preparation stage of the projects, to post-construction period with an

aim of minimising potential risks and bad publicity, in addition to also building strong and trustworthy relationships with all key stakeholders from the inception of the development, and conveying benefits of the development for the local economy and urban space.

The communication strategies can involve local agents of influence such as government officials, community leaders and investors to be in touch with all significant stakeholders to ensure that the message is received, and that communication is reciprocal. The communication strategies must include:

- a) Public hearings, consultations, environmental and social impact analysis results must be communicated, concerns expressed and the foundation for trust confirmed; and
- b) Creation of community support and monitoring group comprising of members of community, urban activists, and local authorities' representatives (Taboroff *et al.*, 2015:15).

The extensively used form of public consultation in shopping centre development is the market survey used to establish if the market population will support the shopping centre. If the shopping centre is declining, market studies provide insight into what is feasible in terms of population to make the centre successful again. Psychographic analysis can also be used to establish the type of potential customers that should be attracted to restore the centre back to life. The survey also helps to identify the type of retail mix that customers need to support the shopping centre and revive it (Beyard *et al.*, 2006:11).

When all of these matters are addressed, centres' vitality, success, and viability is enhanced. The participation of all stake holders enable the government to establish shopping centre nodes in suitable areas where they can contribute positively to the needs of the community and also help the municipality to create town centres where they do not exist. Consequently, the shopping centre nodes play a crucial role in bringing about equality, create jobs, fulfil both the economic and social functions in the area.

5.6. Contributing factors to the success of shopping centres

Factors that contribute to the success of shopping centres shape the centres in such a manner that the centres contribute in a positive way to the success of shopping centre nodes. The processes that are used in applying these factors change the spatial form of an area through their functional impact because the factors influence the function of the shopping centres. The incorporation of these factors in the development process of shopping centres, transform the centres from performing only an economic function to also perform both social and spatial transformative functions. The processes also transform localities and regions by causing changes in the localities and regions' demographic, socio-economic and physical appearance or characteristics of the areas (Zivanovic, 2017:70).

CBRE (2012:5) states that, "it is essential for a shopping centre's long-term success that a thorough and comprehensive assessment of its potential is undertaken". The assessment includes the location, catchment area delimitation, tenant mix, layout of the building and renovations (value add investment). Freedman *et al.* (2016:150) identify economic, liveability, and environmental quality influences of the

centre as elements that can be of assistance to establish the suitability of a shopping centre in a community. Cooper (2016:56-58) specifies location, access, visibility, good parking, a good tenant mix and sustainability as factors which contribute to successful shopping centre design and to the centre being a profitable business for the developers, traders, and consumers.

These factors should be built on reliable, municipal government information. Shopping centres which consist of, amongst other things, large discount retail shops generate both costs and benefits to local municipalities or neighbourhoods. These benefits are unequally spread between the local workers, consumers, businesses, and government. The local government can alleviate most of the negative impacts on the local areas by using good planning, design and zoning principles. The above principles strengthen the main concerns of the local communities and offer ways of evaluating the infrastructure, environmental and financial impacts of big shopping centre developments (Irwin & Clark, 2007:53). Planning tools such as the SDF and LUMS play a significant role in the process of alleviating the negative impacts of shopping centres on localities.

5.6.1. Location accessibility and visibility

The allocation of economic activity through space is very uneven, and location in this study refers to the general area in which a shopping centre site is selected to provide the best option for a shopping centre to successfully function and operate. A very significant criterion for successful shopping centres is proper location and their location is crucial in the context of the total municipal area development for the centres to be successful. Shopping activities and their spatial manifestation have a strong correlation to the shopping centres' systems and the location of specific shops or outlets (Bilkova *et al.*, 2016:25).

According to CBRE (2012:6) the best location for a shopping centre is characterised by high-level accessibility, visibility, and parking spaces. A good location is the one with easy access, which result in the centre being attractive to more customers and having high potential sales. Accessibility means different things to different people with respect to both the type and number of destinations that can be reached and the number of trips to be taken (Duranton & Guerra, 2016:19). In this case, accessibility refers to spatial accessibility, which is the ease of reaching a specific location from a different location or locations (Kurowska & Kietlinska, 2017:50). Accessibility in different types of settlements is based on the physical concentration of people, services, economic activities, and exchange. Creating accessibility in this instance means paying attention to planning, designing, building, and managing the specific local conditions at a human scale (Rode *et al.*, 2014:4).

The location of the centres must provide adequate catchment to generate potential trade, easy accessibility by car, public transport, non-motorised transport, by foot, and by service vehicles without problems for consumers. The catchment area defines the market capacity of a shopping centre project and provides crucial information on demographics and purchasing power. The shopping centres should be in an easy to access area to attract footfalls, which entails detailed demographic research of the

catchment area and the targeted consumers. Lack of accessibility will affect customer footfalls, and efficient delivery of goods and services to the stores located in the centres. The future locations of sustainable centres should have little or no catchment area overlap (Cooper, 2016:57).

Shopping centre developers currently incorporate access as the main element of design. For example, BNP Paribas Real Estate in partnership with the Italian Association for the Blind, guaranteed that the Mongolfiera Shopping Centre design in Bari incorporated an interactive path for the visually impaired, permitting full movement and independence in the entire centre (ICSC, 2015:17). Another influential factor is the existence of high potential for the development of substantial linkages with the surrounding hinterlands. The location of a shopping centre should be visible from and link to approaching roads, highways (in some cases) and close to a goods road network that also connects the physical catchment with potential residential population. Selecting locations along main roads serve the customers and suppliers to find the easiest and the fastest accessibility to the shopping centre.

The location should allow for parking area because customers need the convenience of easy parking to contribute to a satisfying shopping trip. Though in most areas, including India where more people have cars, provision of parking space is expensive because of the high number of cars and the cost of acquiring land for parking development. Parking is one of the most important elements in shopping centre location. In suburbs, the centres are closer to the population they serve in terms of driving time and offer a large amount of conveniently located parking, which is in line with suburban living. Thus, customers accustomed to suburban shopping centres, expect a guaranteed parking space close to their shopping destination every time they go shopping. The strategic location, design, and programming of parking structures can increase attractive, well-travelled pedestrian linkages, reduce the need for cars, and decreased parking spaces (Beyard *et al.*, 2006:26).

Accessibility and parking are important in the group of site related factors because the attractiveness of a shopping centre decreases with the accessibility to the centre. Larger shopping centres, which provide free car parking are more attractive than the city centres. Therefore, an ideal shopping centre site should have the right mix in terms of location, accessibility, visibility, market potential, right size, and topography (Dolega *et al.*, 2016:81; Kunc *et al.*, 2016:28).

5.6.2. Investment

The growth pole strategy highlights that growth in shopping centre nodes should be enticed through the strategy to attract additional investment. Lloyd and Dicken (1972:118) contend that growth centres are products of a specific quantity of economic activities and agglomeration benefits in a locality. Based on the above, most developers invest in shopping centre developments that have the biggest agglomerations, because such investments are safer and are characterised by higher liquidity. Residents in areas where

there are large agglomerations are the best appraisers of shopping centres market success (Billings & Johnson, 2016:19).

The development of a shopping centre in an area brings large private sector capital investment to an area that had previously attracted insignificant investment or none. Such an investment will continue when the shopping centre is extended, refurbished, units are refitted, enhanced, or adjacent infrastructure is upgraded (Robertson & Fennell, 2007:153). The growth poles strategy involves focusing investment at a limited number of areas with the aim of stimulating economic activity as part of a deliberate decision and action to modify the spatial structure of the areas and the entire region to improve the levels of prosperity within a region. Investment in shopping centres should form part of investments made to accelerate economic activities that will improve the spatial structure of the area in which it is located (the node). Indeed, regional shopping centres can perform a basic sector function of inducing income into a locality and to retain income within the area that would otherwise be spent outside of the local area parameters (Williams, 1996:55).

Shopping centres attract investments from foreign countries worldwide (Prabhakar, 2012:219). They attract Foreign Direct Investment into a community. Foreign investment is investment in a country from another country through the purchasing of a local business or by initiating another operation in a foreign country in a new location, while Foreign Direct Investment refers to capital inflows from abroad that are invested in order to enhance the production capacity of the economy and acquire lasting or long-term interest in enterprises operating outside of the economy of the investor (Selvam & Kannaiah, 2015:2). The availability of such investment in a shopping centre improves the centre's probabilities of being sustainable.

The differences in wealth and investment, for example, across the European region, results in differences in shopping centre density per capita. The centres are a valuable investment vehicle and are the focal point of major increase in cross-border retail property investment activity. In 2014, European pension funds and insurance companies shared 11.8% of all European retail property investment. To increase the net benefits of shopping centres to the community and the local economy, owners and developers should be conscious of the necessity to have a close cooperation with local governments and architects to be able to integrate shopping centres with the current retail outlets, create urban spaces for visitors to enjoy, support the establishment of local businesses and small enterprises, and make sure that the broader community is promoted to form a stimulating shopping and trading destination (ICSC, 2015:16).

In Europe, shopping centre developments have shifted to locations with a balance of low shopping centre concentration, high customer spending, low risk, ageing stock, and redevelopment demand. Redevelopments, extensions and refurbishments of centres are in demand in Edinburgh, London and

western Europe, while Cologne, Hamburg and Lyon are locations with good development prospects (Cushman & Wakefield, 2017:3).

5.6.3. Population distribution and density

A growth pole should have a proven economic base, which can sustain growth through the exploitation of local, natural resources . In the case of shopping centres, natural resources include the population and land. In many communities, land development and population growth are indicators for economic progress. Municipalities prioritise which land is worthy to preserve, and which can be used for future land developments (Manyanhaire et al., 2011:2009). The population figures and economic status of the population help in determining the spending behaviours of the population, which is the customers, and in identifying the appropriate tenant mix which is very important to the success of the centre.

The spending habit of a mature population group is different from those of the young families or student population. Thus, it is essential to identify the demographic characteristics of the catchment population as it also contributes in selecting appropriate tenant mix that will serve the needs of different groups of the population. It is important to consider both local population data, which includes factors such as age, gender, marital status, household size, and income of the population. These factors influence the success of a shopping centre; thus, they should be carefully considered so that the centre can be able to meet the needs of the appropriate population (Erkip & Ozuduru, 2015:4).

Considering the above, the population size and income levels of the population should justify the size of the shopping centre and if there would be additional land for expansion. High density areas are preferable because the shopping centre will serve large numbers of people who can sustain it for a long period. The demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the population must be consistent with the developer's ideas or purpose, for example, the size of the development and the tenant mix (Marona & Wilk, 2016:52). Locations with high populations will always have the highest number of prospective customers.

There is a positive relationship between size of the centre and its success. Larger centres are more successful than smaller centres. Larger centres can overcome their immediate conditions and succeed even if they are established in weak local economies. Whereas smaller centres' wealth and success are closely linked to the local economic situation. The Mall of America in Bloomington Minn. serves as an example of a large shopping centre which included experiences found in national amusement parks such as Disney World that can overcome the local conditions and prosper (ICSC, 2013:6).

The target group of shopping centres are people who not only visit the shopping centres but buy goods and services that are offered in the centres. The average remuneration of working residents of neighbourhoods in which the shopping centre should be located is not enough to recognise the amount and structure of potential buyers; information about unemployment rate is also important because it

contributes to deciding whether or not it is really a good decision to locate a shopping centre in a location with high average wages. The investor should not look for the location with a few very rich people, but a location with a huge middle-class population.

5.6.4. Land use management

Land use is geographically linked to infrastructure planning and implementation in that infrastructure is developed on land and has a direct influence on land value (UN-Habitat, 2015:25). The development of shopping centres as a land use involves thorough analysis of their influence on the built environment, urban living, and spatial organisation of the area in which they are located. Shopping centres can influence spatial and social organisations outside of the municipal area at district or regional level. Selecting an unsuitable site can cause traffic congestion, environmental degradation, and urban sprawl, including disposition of employment, independent retailers, and other resources. Shopping centre sales can be considered a function of numerous urban and spatial policies. For example, urban control or regulation, the price of agricultural land, and the percentage of national, provincial, and municipal revenue from property and general sales taxes (Erkip & Ozuduru, 2015:4).

Roads or transport infrastructure as a land use, have great effects on the lands and shape of settlements. They also have an impact on the connectivity of different land uses. For example, public transport and non-motorised means of transport need high densities and mixed uses to be functional and financially feasible. Therefore, land use controls have fundamental implications for travel behaviour. Compact developments are associated with shorter distances and less use of cars and public transport like buses and taxis as motorised transport. Land use controls are essential to reduce land use intensification, traffic congestion caused by shopping centres, strip malls, and wholesale supermarkets located in the peripheries and along transport corridors.

In some cases, shopping centres discriminate against those who do not have cars, disabled, elderly, low-income households, and the poor because the centres can only be accessible by car which can be rectified by enhancing local shopping and public transportation policies (Barata-Salgueiro & Erkip, 2014:106). Public policy presents specifications on, for example, different impacts on land use and the liveability of shopping districts, which should be followed in the process of initiating shopping centres for the centres to succeed. Local governments can respond proficiently to the needs, wants and desires of different kinds of consumers within their authority. Therefore, shopping centres' location should be considered in terms of land use and environmental quality of the public space. Traditionally, urban planning practise separated land uses that were incompatible and had possible adverse externality but now promote mixed use developments (Demsey *et al.*, 2010:24). Most shopping centre developments worldwide favour mixed-use development.

In parts of North America, the retail industry itself is able to provide planned retail outlets without government regulations. Public interest is fulfilled when private investment is focused on places and land uses where private and public services are located, and the residents are benefiting from the capital invested by both sectors in a sustainable manner. However, shopping centre development planning is the function and responsibility of the local government. The local government development plans stipulate the desirable future spatial pattern of the centres' development and also makes decisions on whether to permit or reject applications by retailers and developers to build new shopping centres, stores, or any kind of retail buildings. Mixing land uses and selectively increasing densities is currently the most preferred.

5.6.5. Availability of Infrastructure

The development and maintenance of infrastructure are important to prompt economic growth and poverty reduction. Infrastructure and transport infrastructure play a vital role in economic growth and social development. For example, transport infrastructure reduced transportation costs and increased accessibility. Investment, manufacturing costs, access to markets, and employment creation rely on the quality of infrastructure. The infrastructure is developed to support various kinds of economic activities (Boopen, 2006:38). Shopping centres provide the delivery of infrastructure for efficient linkage of consumers with goods and services.

The developers and stakeholders should give proper recognition of the spatial relations between the shopping centres' facilities and its surroundings. Proper planning of the shopping centre facility before its development and later on when it is functioning should take into consideration the availability of facilities and infrastructure in the surrounding area, because shopping centres are always linked to their environment (Malec, 2014:6). For instance, a shopping centre cannot be successful in a locality where houses are dilapidated, property value is depreciating, the population is decreasing, there is increase in crime rate, there is no investment or is declining, and there is general disrepair.

Most businesses are initiated or founded in areas where infrastructure already exists because to establish new infrastructure such as roads, sewers, electricity, water and other engineering services is expensive. Access to the above mentioned infrastructure is very important to shopping centres, and businesses that are attracted by the centres and industries that supply goods and services to the centres. The centres, businesses and industries require the infrastructure for them to be efficient in tendering serves and products of the highest quality. No business or industry can thrive without these basic services, therefore, lack of infrastructure in an area can prevent developers and business owners to locate their businesses and industries in such areas or in an area where it is expensive to establish indispensable infrastructure.

Municipalities must provide infrastructure that will support the shopping centres in locations where there is inadequate infrastructure for the shopping centres to succeed. Infrastructure such as police stations in case of crime, accidents, and theft in or around the shopping centre and fire station for emergencies

because the centres host electrical equipment, gas, and other flammable products, should be close to the shopping centre; preferably within 1 km to 2 km (Mohamad *et al.*, 2015:80). Another essential infrastructure is the transportation system and network. Transportation systems and networks are infrastructures that are crucial for the prosperity and growth of shopping centres and the communities in which they are located. The transportation system is a multifaceted network of infrastructure, vehicles, power sources, communications, and human capital (Fletcher & Ekern, 2016:1).

Urban transportation systems are vulnerable to congestion, accidents, weather, special events, and other costly delays. The system must be able to respond to the above-mentioned threats that confront its performance. In the case of unexpected interruption and destructive impact on the system, a certain minimum degree of functionality must be guaranteed to circumvent lasting effects and offer swift recovery of the system (Tamvakis & Xenidis, 2012:3449). In the context of transportation, resilience is defined as,

“the ability of the system to maintain its demonstrated level of service or to restore itself to that level of service in a specified timeframe [or] the ability of a system to minimize operational loss or use the term synonymously with robustness, redundancy, reliability, or vulnerability” (Ganin *et al.*, 2017:1).

The regional inequalities between the core and the periphery can be diminished by transport improvements. The quality of transport systems plays crucial role in deciding the location of businesses and the creation and development of clusters, with the associated agglomeration economies.

Thus, transport improvements generate benefits through better use of relative gains between regions. The economy of the entire region or country benefits from transport infrastructure improvements. Again, the reductions in transport costs beyond a particular point lead to the anticipated decline in regional inequality because the cost of moving goods from the core to the periphery outweighs the gain from economies of scale (Goodbody Economic Consultants, 2003:16, 18, 20). In order to achieve a suitable spatial development pattern, the spatial distribution of infrastructure, economic activities and urban population need to be changed. Infrastructure should be distributed in an equitable manner so that it supports the success of the shopping centres and other economic and social activities.

5.6.6. Public transport

Transport is a set of technical instruments that are used to enable people, goods, and opportunities in general to access destinations that without these instruments it would be difficult and even impossible to access or reach the locations. Within both developed and developing countries, there is a high correlation between the use of various types of transport and social class, with the poor population depending on public transport, non-motorised transport, and walking. Transportation should be linked with the locality's

economic activities, including shopping centres (Rhode, 2014:16). The final goal of most transportation activities is accessibility; therefore, transport planning must be based on accessibility (Litman, 2018:2).

Effective road-based public transport is central to economic growth of developing economic centres, towns, and cities. To the large population road public transport like buses and minibuses are the only modes to get to the workplace, education, and public services. As a consequence of that, shopping centres should be in localities where they are connected to other locations like the ones mentioned above through suitable road networks and public transport. Public transport infrastructure is inadequate and in a poor state in segregated neighbourhoods, which impacts negatively on the quality of service attributes such as reliability, time, health and safety of passengers (Pojani & Stead, 2015:7789).

If a shopping centre is constructed in such a neighbourhood, adequate public transportation should be provided, which will result in the area being accessible and connected to the core urban area because the sustainability of an urban area is greatly influenced by transportation systems either directly or indirectly. Transport infrastructure and transport networks shape urban areas, which makes the availability of public transport as well as adequate transport infrastructure and networks that comes with the development of a shopping centre in an area, a tool for addressing inequality and fragmentation in neighbourhoods and regions (Jordan & Infante, 2012:537).

Lafourcade and Thisse (2009:3) and Redding and Turner (2014:1) argue that transportation cost is directly linked to the travelling distance from economic activities. The further away the customers reside from the shopping centre, the higher the transportation cost is, leading to a decrease in the number of customers who will prefer to visit the centre frequently. The existence of an efficient multimodal public transportation system that include walking and cycling links in the localities where the shopping centres are located strengthen the success rate of such centres. In areas where there is poor public transport, it is essential that it be enhanced and traffic management to and around the centre improved. A shopping centre accessible by a variety of transport provides environmentally sustainable consumer travel. A shopping centre with direct access to the national road network offers efficient and environmentally sustainable goods distribution.

Thus, access to transport, more especially public transport, and effective urban mobility (movement) of different social groups and goods reduce the impact of spatial fragmentation, while inadequate transportation intensifies spatial fragmentation. Transportation has a great impact on both urban and rural development because transportation networks can integrate spatially fragmented localities and regions, and positively influence how these areas functions and how residents use them. However, differential access to the urban core by different social groupings creates social inequalities.

Therefore, a successful shopping centre requires adequate transportation networks, different modes of transportation as well as suitable public transport for it to be accessible. In some areas, the centres result in the integration of spatially fragmented areas due to the benefits that comes with it including suitable transportation. Ease of movement, availability of suitable public transport, and adequate transport infrastructure is essential in spreading out spatially fragmented areas such as the city of Delhi, India and Cape Town, South Africa outside of the European countries network (Dupont & Houssay-Holzschuch, 2005:297).

5.6.7. Tenant mix

Tenant mix is the relationship between the ratios of shop areas occupied by various types of shops in a shopping centre. It influences the success of a shopping centre because an appropriate tenant mix can attract more customers, and therefore, increases sales for shops (Abratt *et al.*, 1998:47; Marona & Wilk, 2016:52). Tenant mix is of great value because of the one-stop shopping tendency in current society (You & Xu, 2012:527). Centres that are more successful than others offer a wider variety of shopping mix than just meeting the daily needs of local populations. These centres house a high number of destination shops, which attract a broader customer base than the neighbourhoods' residents. Shopping centres should attract or appeal to consumers, for example, by restaurants and can increase retail sales size by means of targeted, planned tenant mix with complementary tenants close to each other to increase footfall and cross-shopping (Powell & Allan, 2009:2).

Therefore, creating a wide variety of the right tenant mix is important for increasing the performance of shopping centres. According the Debek (2015:72) literature places tenant mix within the top four factors that contribute to shopping centres' success. For instance, Singh and Prashar (2013) ranks marketing and tenant-mix third on the list of the top four factors that contribute to shopping centres' success, El Hedhli *et al.* (2013) ranked functionality, which included a tenant mix, fourth on the list and Teller and Reuterer (2008) ranked it as the first on the list of the four top factors deliberated above. These rankings point to the fact that the developers should establish a suitable tenant mix that will result in the shopping centre being successful and sustainable.

With the decline in traditional tenants and a rise in contemporary (non-traditional) tenants and anchor stores such as food and beverages, leisure tenants, medical and dental services, fitness and spa facilities, as well as a wide spectrum of educational, cultural, and entertainment facilities, shopping centres are more creative in how they lease their space. For example, in the UK, the food and beverage tenants occupy 8% of shopping centre floor space with the figure rising to 15% in larger destination centres (ICSC, 2015:11). Placing complimentary tenants near each other allow them to benefit from one another. Thus, with the rise of the non-traditional tenants it is essential to cluster shops with the same, related and compatible goods and services together. For example, pharmacies can be placed next to medical and dental facilities.

Bad tenant mix results in poor sales and low tenant retention rate, which affects the value of the centre. The anchor tenant, which is the backbone of the centre, should be able to generate customers for the other shops that serves to keep the customer in the centre for as long as possible. The leasing companies and teams work hard to get suitable tenants that will meet the needs of the neighbourhood population and best complement the shopping centre (ICSC, 2017:3). Akbati Shopping Mall in Istanbul, Turkey typifies a shopping centre that has successfully incorporated a high proportion of non-retail uses alongside traditional tenants (ICSC, 2015:11).

There is no single ideal tenant mix for shopping centres because the tenant mix of the different centres should be personalised to meet conditions such as location, the demographic profile of the catchment area, size and customer needs. Therefore, when developing a shopping centre, the specific tenant mix for that specific centre should be established by analysing the above mentioned factors. The tenant mix for Atrium Copernicus and Plaza Torun in Poland cannot be the same because they have different characteristics such as size and location (Colliers International Poland, 2015:1,2).

5.6.8. Sustainability

The word sustainability is used in combination with other words like development, economy, or use. The United Nations' World Commission on Environment and Development later known as the Brundtland Commission defined sustainable development as, "development that meets the needs of current generations without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987:45). According to Gallopini (2003:21) the above definition is the most quoted definition of sustainable development.

Sustainable development moved from being an environmental issue to a socio-economic balancing concept. Sustainability and sustainable development and later resilience, governance and regeneration commenced as far back as the 1970s and was integrated within spatial planning and governance as key principles. Urban sustainability is directly linked to the general development dialogue on sustainable development. Policies related to urban development became increasingly devoted to creating sustainable cities where social and economic elements complement a natural and healthy environment (Fernandes & Chamusca, 2014:171). In line with creating sustainable cities, shopping centres have a significant impact on the sustainability of its locality.

Thus, it is important to ensure that the centres are sustainable despite the fact that the negative impact of the evolution and transformation of shopping centres and linked urban areas threaten the viability of the city centres and small enterprises (Jafari *et al.*, 2013:404). The results of research by van Leeuwen (2009) in Nunspeet, Elburg demonstrated that out of town shopping centres definitely have a negative impact on traditional town centres; most of the losses of the Nunspeet economy distressed local producers, not households (Martinuzzi *et al.*, 2011:18). As a result of situations like the one described above, a balance

should be created to ensure the sustainability of the city centres as well as the out-of-town shopping centres, which will ultimately result in a sustainable community.

According to Barata-Salgueiro and Erkip (2013:108) urban sustainability is linked to maintaining, “a balanced retail system set in diverse facilities and shopping environments that are able to respond efficiently to the needs, wants and desires of different kinds of consumers”. Shopping centres are designed, modified, transformed, and perfected with an intent of developing premium locations that can attract more customers and satisfy their desires (Debek & Janda-Debek, 2015:68). Therefore, when a new shopping centre is established, it should enhance the balanced retail system that Barata-Salgueiro and Erkip (2013) refer to in the opening of this paragraph.

The exiting centres, together with the new ones, should be designed, modified, transformed, and perfected with a commitment of creating locations described by Debek and Janda-Debek (2015) which constitute a balanced retail system revealed in this paragraph. The process of developing the centres into premium locations has an impact on the environment. Consequently, the stakeholders should take precaution and create a balance between the economic, social, and environmental aspects of the shopping centres. The main aim of shopping centres is to make profit and provide public urban service, which makes these centres have unique characteristics that create conflict between the public and private sectors. A balance between these two goals is necessary for effective and sustainable land use development and urban growth.

For municipal areas to be sustainable they should have an efficient network of shopping centres that are able to deliver goods and services within their neighbourhoods as shopping centres are components of neighbourhood liveability. A thriving retail sector along with service supply at the municipal and neighbourhood level enhance community networks, unity, as well as quality of life. At present, any kind of development or modernisation process should incorporate concepts and principles of sustainability defined in the Brundtland report. The sustainability concept is evolving as mentioned above and its evolution consists of the formation of principles, certifications, and norms for universal regulation, techniques, and strategies such as the Millennium Development Goals, Agenda 21, 100 Resilient Cities, the Habitat III, New Urban Agenda (Baldwin & King, 2017:15).

By implementing these initiatives, governments and other stakeholders strive to create strategies for inclusivity, economic well-being, community welfare and environmental protection. Along with the preceding they are also improving the resilience of municipalities from harmful physical, social, and economic challenges (Romero-Lankao et al., 2016:2). The principle of sustainability in shopping centres is at corporate level of the application processes of sustainable development, whereby the triple bottom line or the Venn diagram concept in Figure 5-7 is normally consulted.

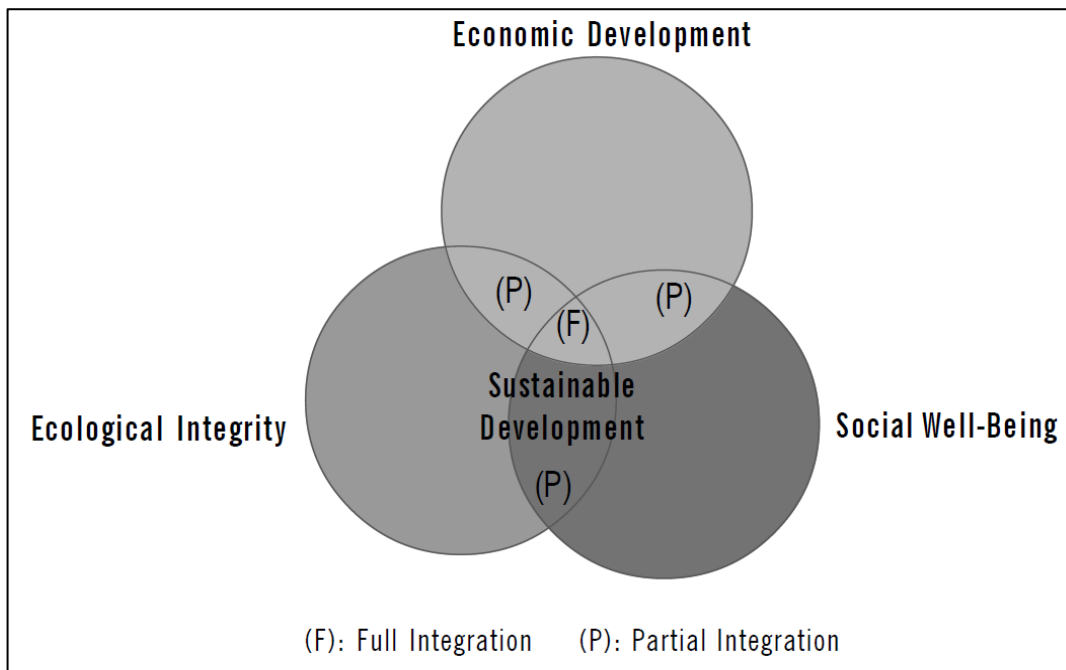


Figure 5-7: Three spheres of sustainable development

Source: Pieterse (2004:89)

The basic conditions of the triple bottom line are to pursue market continuity and in the growth of organisation or business, the conditions include economic viability, and a healthy compatible existence with the environment and society. Sustainability in the context of shopping centres, is revealed by sensible conservation of various practices, culture, and customs from both the internal and external standpoint (Kim, 2017:4).

5.6.8.1. Social sustainability

The social concept of space is important to the cultural and economic activities created by human beings in search of genuine sense of place. According to El-Husseiny & Kesseiba, (2012:792), “the social sustainability of an activity depends upon specific social relations, customs, structure and value, representing the social limits and constraints of development. Hence social sustainability refers to social preconditions required to achieve environmental sustainability”. It merges “traditional social policy areas and principles, such as equity, with emerging issues concerning participation, needs, social capital, the economy, the environment, and more recently, with the notions of happiness, wellbeing and quality of life” (El-Husseiny & Kesseiba, 2012:791).

Residents regard shopping centres as the physical and social hub of their neighbourhood (Carley *et al.*, 2001:1). According to Heffner and Twardzik (2015:88) “Modern shopping malls are becoming important centres of social life, serving for commercial, entertainment, recreational, cultural, educational, integration as well as socialising purposes”. Therefore, the existence of shopping centres in an area should enhance

social inclusion and sustain social vitality in the local area. These centres also offer varied and affordable healthy food that contribute positively to the local community's access to healthy food (Larsen & Gilliland, 2008:3). In this case, the centre sustains the community's access to food, which contributes to sustaining the local population. If these centres are able to provide the above, then they are able to play an integrative role in a local area and combat inequalities and fragmentation.

Karlsson (2012:5) maintains that in a rural setting, rural shopping centres deliver an important community function by offering the most important service to a specific group of customers both economically and socially. From a social perspective, rural shops operate as community hubs by availing space for local events and distribution of information. point out that, the economic success of a neighbourhood is co-dependent and interlinked to the condition or proficiency of rural retailing (Paddison & Calderwood, 2007:140). Opinions and feelings towards shopping centres are positively linked to the desire for self-transcendence, self-enrichment and being receptive to change exhibited by customers (Debek, 2015:74).

The challenge that arise from shopping centres is that they are privatised public spaces operating as the new public spaces for suburban and inner city areas. Nevertheless, they are not exactly public spaces because they are privately owned (Giampino *et al.*, 2017:93, 94; Fernandes & Chamusca 2014:170). They are also designed to serve only those with disposable income while excluding the urban poor. For example, in Turkey, the youth are also excluded to a greater extent as their access to the centres is controlled citing their problematic and disorderly behaviour as the reason for the restrictions, yet they are regarded as significant customers (Ozuduru & Goldman, 2013:6).

From this perspective, the centres fail to facilitate integration and enhance inequalities. If the centres are established with an intention to integrate neighbourhoods, the above should be mitigated. Changes in the retail sector, which involves the establishment of shopping centres outside the city centre poses a threat to urban sustainability because they disturb the vitality and viability of original shopping areas (Beyard *et al.*, 2006:v; Cohen, 1999:1051, 1052, 1055). This is not always the case yet is an indication that if there are no policies to create a balance between the city centre and shopping centres outside of the city centre, the original city centre will decline. Therefore, it is essential to create a balance between the two.

A high number of customers depend on cars for their trips to the centres; a situation that puts the less mobile, elderly, and disabled at a disadvantage. It also lessens social cohesion while steering the society to socially unsustainable urban living conditions due to the negative impacts that such lifestyles have. For example, the impact of carbon emission, the disadvantaged not being able to access the cheap prices in the big retail stores situated in suburban and shopping centres located away from the poor (Barata-Salgueiro & Erkip, 2014:106). In this case, effective affordable public transport is needed in order to avoid exclusion of the population that do not have cars and to reduce the negative environmental impacts of high private car usage.

5.6.8.2. Economic sustainability

From an economic development context, the role of shopping centres is acknowledged as being of great importance as they are the backbone of local economies because retail sales and property tax generate income for local economies, which makes development centred on retail a vital component of local economies. While employment has declined in manufacturing, mining, agriculture, and other industries, the retail sector continues to expand (Carden, 2012:2 because the local population is served by the shopping centres, acting as of the main resources that enhance the economic sustainability of shopping centres.

According to Ozuduru and Guldman (2013:2)

“The retail sector is essential because it provides goods and services to urban residents and visitors; employs a substantial share of the workforce, generating income for the local economy and taxes for local governments; promotes local development and supports local property values; supports a sense of urban life vitality closely related to the flow of people in retail areas; and influences the growth of urban areas”.

In this way the sector plays a positive role in improving the lives of the residents socially and economically. Retailing, which is the main activity or business in shopping centres attract consumers into an area where they spend money and, contrary to popular belief, it plays a significant role in economic development. It averts the siphoning off of income out of a local area by providing goods and services that prevent the local population's needs and desires to go outside the local area or region to buy goods.

Thus, playing a significant role in the sustainability of the shopping centres and the nodes. The shopping centres in this instance keep income in the local area as well as attract external income, which is a function that they can perform at national and local level. The centres attract businesses to cluster around them, which increases the creation of jobs and services in the area including employment in businesses that supply goods and services to the shopping centres (Williams, 1996:213, 214). Examples of areas where shopping centres performed a role of income leakage preventers and attracting income from outside include the Fenland District Council, Meadowhall, Sheffield; Metro Centre, Gateshead in UK.

5.6.8.3. Environmental sustainability

The environmental impact of shopping centres goes beyond the local area in which they are located to include the entire municipal area and locations where the products sold in the shopping centre are manufactured. Appropriate management of shopping centres developments contribute to the environmental sustainability goal and the other goals by decreasing water pollution, energy consumption, and urban heat islands. They should also reduce the negative traffic impacts, raw material usage, waste

management, and the volume of packaging and recycling. Excessive development of these facilities cannot be separated from impermeable parking areas that increase both storm water runoff and local urban heat islands with the former washing nitrogen, heavy metals, and residues into urban streams. They draw heavy traffic resulting in crowded transportation network and high numbers of accidents due to the great number of turns (Ozuduru & Guldman, 2013:6, 7).

An urban heat island in this context refers to the higher temperature or warmer air near or in an urban area that forms a difference in temperature between cities, the surrounding suburbs and adjacent rural areas (Nuruzzaman, 2015:1). To ensure environmental sustainability, the number of shopping centres in an area should be managed and should be allowed to grow as the population grows in order to avoid over supply that creates a negative impact. In addition, environmentally friendly materials and strategies should be adopted to mitigate environmental problems. On the other hand, shopping centres are clean developments because they are less destructive to the environment compared to land uses such as manufacturing and is rarely opposed by residents because of possible environmental degradation (Phillips, 2000:9).

The best renovated and new shopping centre developments enrich the retail vitality and play a role in improving the quality of life in the locality by enhancing the environment, historic building restoration, the establishment quality public space, public art utilisation, and development of public amenities such as healthy living centres (Carley *et al.*, 2001:vii). The shopping centre industry has embraced green initiatives and shopping centres' developers and owners are now implementing greener approaches into daily practices to create sustainable centres. Green methods have been integrated in present-day shopping centres starting from the land on which the centres are built to materials used in renovating, upgrading, modernising and in constructing new centres to putting energy saving devices such as solar panels on the roofs of the centres. In the going green process, most shopping centres are presently eco-friendly whilst the owners benefit from the centres' cost-efficient operations (ICSC, 2013:7).

Nowadays sustainability conversations surrounding shopping centres include the impact of buildings on the physical environment, and the health and safety of customers and inhabitants who dwell, visit or work in these centres. Examples of centres that consider the health and wellbeing of workers, inhabitants, and customers are ReTuna Aterbruksgalleria, Eskilstuna in Sweden and MAHÜ77 in Vienna, Austria (ICSC, 2017:36). In countries such as Europe, waste management regulations apply to shopping centres as well because packaging forms the largest percentage of waste. This resulted in the extensive use of selective sorting of waste, waste recovery systems, and recycling from fifty to eighty percent of waste by large stores and shopping centres.

5.7. Resilience

Social sustainability is a vital strategy of maintaining economic resilience (Ozuduru & Guldmann, 2013:5). Resilience has become a regular theme in many subject areas, however defining and measuring it depends on the problem area (Goerger *et al.*, 2014:3). Therefore, the concept of resilience is extremely context-dependent, which makes it not a straightforward process (Udaya & Maraisa, 2014:258). The discussion about sustainable development and acclimatising to climate changes, initiated the concept of resilience in urban and regional studies (Drobniak. 2017:112).The concept of resilience is useful in analysing the national, regional, and individual economic sectors, like transportation, banking, and retail.

According Dolega and Celinska-Janowicz (2015:9) resilience in the context of retail centres was first empirically considered by Wrigley and Dolega (2011), who investigated the dynamics of the performance of UK town centres and their adjustment to the shock of the global economic crisis and other forces of change. Resilience refers to the, “degree to which a certain system is able to tolerate financial, ecological, social and/or cultural change before reorganising a new set of structures and processes” (Karrholm *et al.*, 2014:121). Redman (2014:38) defines resilience as, “the capacity of a system to experience shocks while retaining function, structure, feedback capabilities, and therefore identity.”

Whereas Romero-Lankao *et al.* (2016:19) maintain that, “resilience is not conceived as a return to normality, but rather as the ability of complex ecosystems or socio-ecological systems, such as cities and urban communities to change, adapt, and crucially, to transform in response to both internal and external stresses and pressures”. The important aspects of the above three definitions is that in the built environment context, a system should either tolerate, reorganise, or be restructured. It should, to a greater extent, retain its characteristics and it is unable to return to normality but should transform to survive the shock. From the above definitions, there is no consensus regarding the application of resilience strategies in cities or urban areas. These areas are vibrant products of human processes whereby, they evolve at different paces and patterns, and do not return to their previous state (Fernandes & Chamusca, 2014:171).

If a shopping centre, which forms part of the neighbourhood infrastructure, can bounce back from shock, it strengthens the resilience of the neighbourhood and eventually contributes positively to the sustainability of the locality. Shopping centres as part of the built environment are transforming to adapt to the shocks of development, modernisation, and urbanisation, and play a positive role in the current socio-ecological system. According to Olazabal *et al.* (2012:7) resilience can be desirable or undesirable and it is a multidisciplinary concept and as such diversity is a vital principle in this concept. It is important to ask the question, resilience of what to what? in order to identify what need to be resilient so that the appropriate issues can be addressed to attain resilience as illustrated in Figure 5-8. Multidisciplinary concerns as outlined in the diagram need to be carefully considered.

In the case of shopping centres, all the identified issues should not be ignored by the centres to make a significant contribution in urban and locality resilience. The challenges that arise in resilience practices is to reconfigure the changing aspects of a system and improve the abilities of people who manage the system so that they are collectively capable of responding effectively to forces of change experienced in the past and predict future changes. In order to promote resilience, it should be ensured that the responses are designed in such a way that the system remains within preferred perimeters and directs change towards a new desirable status (Redman, 2014:39).

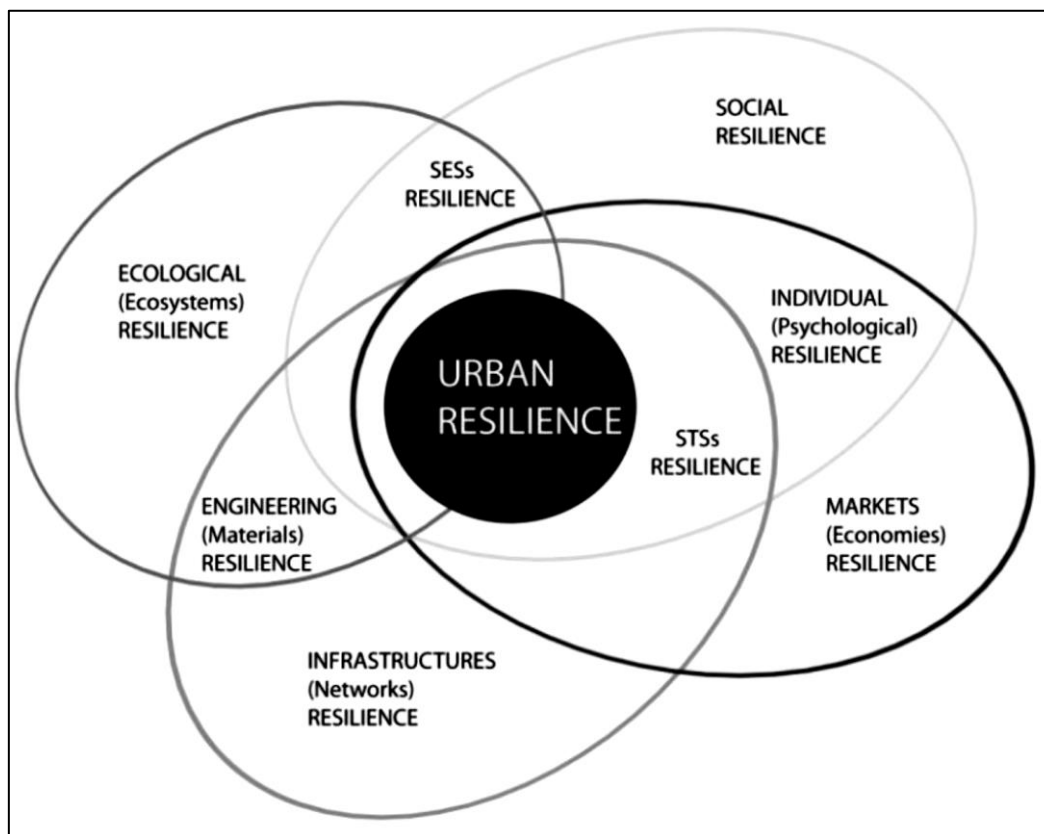


Figure 5-8: Multidisciplinary perspective of urban resilience

Source: Olazabal *et al.* (2012:8)

In the case of shopping centres, which are always evolving to keep up with the needs and expectation of customers, managers of these sectors should keep up with the continuous and rapid changes in the industry in order to respond effectively with to the task of improving the resilience of these centres. In line with the general concept of resilience, shopping centre resilience is the ability of the centre to identify, accept and efficiently adjust to the changes and the risks thereof. Therefore, resilience is key to the perpetual existence of shopping centres in an environment whereby business and outside environment is complex, volatile, and constantly being transformed (Jafari *et al.*, 2013:404).

In the retail sector, diversity in aspects such as retail and service mix, ownership, size, prices just to mention a few, is of outmost importance in making the centres resilient (Wrigley & Lambiri, 2014:3,5,8,18).

For example, if a shopping centre has proper tenant mix, the performance of other shops allows a new shop, which is underperforming, to bounce back. Where related shops are located close to each other they strengthen each other by sharing customers. Another aspect in this regard is transportation resilience, which was briefly discussed in section 5.5.5. Transportation resilience in relation to shopping centres involves the capability of the transportation system to transport people from place to place even in situations where there are major hindrances to the normal operation of the system design level.

This means that transportation systems have specific, innate features that enable the system to handle excessive demand, as well as acute and unexpected problems, for example, the provision of enough space outside of the yellow lane on the road that can allow traffic flow when there is an accident; a storm water drainage system that is capable of handling floods; equipment and infrastructure that is not prone to failure when there is stress situation such as fire hydrants; and SOS infrastructure along major routes and freeways. The key aspect in transportation resilience is that the system should be able to provide commuters with alternatives to get around even when there are obstacles or other issues in the system such as strikes in the transport industry.

The transportation network should allow for future growth, changes in usage, and access patterns. Transportation should continue to function in cases where one or two modes of transport in the area faces challenges. The rail should be able to accommodate road users in times of challenges. When petrol prices are high or there are job losses and economic hardships, the public transport system should be able to serve the increased number of users resulting from the population reducing the use of private transport. The system should be able to cope with bad weather, accidents, traffic congestion, and electricity outages.

5.7.1. Social resilience

The physical layout and infrastructure of localities, including urban built environments, are closely linked to the social configuration of their societies. Social resilience is associated with the, “existence, development, and engagement of community resources by community members to thrive in an environment characterised by change, uncertainty, unpredictability, and surprise” (Baldwin & King, 2017:35). According to Jha *et al.*, (2013:22) social resilience refers to the capacity of a community or society to cope with and adapt to disturbances and changes. It covers the ability of communities to self-organise, adjust to stresses, and increase their capacity for learning and adaptation.

A resilient community can respond positively to change or stress and continue to perform its core functions. In the above definitions of social resilience, the society is responsible for their impact and response to environmental disturbances. In every effort they make to build resilience they should take into consideration social factors and apply indigenous knowledge and systems for coping and cutting down risk. Social resilience concepts and activities are properly assimilated into projects cycles because they correspond with social development goals. Shopping centres should improve social inclusion and sustain

social vitality in the communities where they are located because resilience thinking requires that the poor, vulnerable communities, and informal places should form part of metropolitan areas (Ozuduru & Guldmann, 2013:5).

A resilient community should have limited social inequalities and fair distribution of resilience resources, offer enhanced urban and local governance, poverty reduction, provide growth and employment, offer greater social equity, new business opportunities, balanced ecosystems, improved health systems, and better education (Jabareen, 2013:222). Shopping centres are resilient to urban transformation because they are able to attract suppliers, capital and instrumental discourses that enables them to set aside planning rules and influence political debate and discursive practices (Tulumello & Picone. 2016:113). The centres' integrated premises are now shopping destinations and places in which social and cultural, entertainment, recreation, sport or relaxation needs are satisfied, which makes centres resilient.

5.7.2. Economic resilience

The recent financial crisis in 2007 to 2008 has stimulated new attention to the concept of economic resilience (Dolega & Celińska-Janowicz, 2015:9). The concept is now valuable in analysing the whole economy as well as individual economic sectors and utilised in gaining understanding of the social ecological systems and challenges in areas that experience disaster, in rural areas, developing countries, and in improving the livelihoods of individuals (Jabareen, 2013:221). According to (Drobniak, 2017:114) "Urban economic resilience refers to the extent that a city is able to maintain socio-economic structure of accumulation or to the extent that a city is able to make a rapid transition from one socio-economic structure of accumulation to another".

Therefore, economic resilience is an issue that needs the attention of local governments, local shopping centres in the city centres areas, and shopping centres that are not doing well in the suburbs, threaten the resilience of their location and they need to be addressed (Ozuduru & Guldmann, 2013:5). The resilience of broader city centres is closely associated with the notion of vitality and viability. Shopping centres located outside the city centre destroy old commercial areas such as the city centre, while increase retail employment and reduce wages considerably. Shopping centres and their anchor stores that have low prices create problems in the rural areas, because they have excessively increased in number and have a negative impact on rural town's main street firms resulting in the decline of rural retail activities and employment in the wholesales and small stores division. To promote economic resilience, the municipalities must create a balance between shopping centre development outside the city centre and the resilience of the city centre as well as sustainability (Ozuduru & Guldmann, 2013:5).

The resilience of shopping centres is related to local economic resilience, which is, "the extent to which local places and local government are capable of riding the global economic punches, working within environmental limits, dealing with external changes, bouncing back quickly, and having high levels of social

inclusion” (Dolega & Celinska-Janowicz, 2015:11). The shopping centre and the local government should be able to face changes brought about by globalisation in shopping centres. The centres in this case should be able to respond effectively to markets and local political systems that have an impact on the retail industry.

Shopping centres should be developed as multipurpose facilities developments, they should combine retail facilities with a few of other uses such as post office, library or information centres, universities, churches, and theatres. They should be constructed to bring synergetic effects by combining the appropriate functions that will make them resilient (Heffner & Twardzik, 2015:90). For instance, the Zlota Taracy in Warsaw, Poland maximised natural environment in the indoor space and through the atrium making the space enjoyable. The centre maintained the natural and cultural functions by introducing a new appearance or public image and vitality within the city (Kim & Han, 2016:10, 12).

5.7.3. Environmental resilience

The most familiar goals of environmental sustainability and ecological resilience besides the protection of natural ecosystems, consist of the reduction of air and water pollution, the efficient use of energy resources, and the induction of efficient solid waste disposal systems including recycling. The development of shopping centres, like most development activities, have a direct impact on the environment, therefore, they are subject to EIA to determine the probability of environmental impact linked to their construction and operation (Ozuduru & Guldmann, 2013:6).

Shopping centres are always closely linked to their adjacent and distant environment at different levels and diverse strengths and scope. Most of the times, the adjacent environment is comprised of residential land uses, undeveloped land, and compact urban settlements. As a result, it is crucial to design and locate shopping centres in such a way that they do not have a negative impact on the resilience of the adjacent land uses (Malec, 2014:6) (ref. 5.6.5). Shopping centres can impact negatively on the adjacent and remote environment by generating high volumes of traffic and associated problems of harmful effects of vehicle emissions and high levels of noise.

In some areas, the centres change the whole transport system in the neighbourhood and the public transport arrangements. The road network system is transformed in a manner that accommodates the shopping centre development including local streets, local distributors, regional distributors, or supra-local roads within the nearest population centres, cities, suburbs, and surrounding villages. Some centres establish their own free bus networks, which provide an efficient transport connection with the city and the locality. The availability of free transport has an influence on the number of regular visits by customers to centres and it diverts customers from the city centres. (Malec, 2014:6,8). The way retail resilience can be measured should be considered and the best apparent pointer and the simplest to use is change in vacancy rate. Another indicator is the dynamics of retail turnover.

However, it is not easy to obtain this information because of the privacy associated with financial data. An additional indicator when resilience is measured from a broader perspective is the utilisation of tenant structure as an indicator. The customers and their consumption habits are additional measurements used in measuring the vitality and resilience of shopping centres. This is because of the transformation of shopping from an activity that meets the functional needs of the customers only, to an activity that meets both the functional needs and leisure experience of customers. Shopping centres play a vital role in retaining the viability of urban areas and city life once retailers of diverse hierarchies are placed in suitable locations, integrated within urban development plans, and are properly linked or aligned to other land uses (Jafari *et al.*, 2013:404). The centres play a vital role in the concept of the reuse of areas inside the cities which promote the resilience of CBDs as shopping centres.

5.8. Functions of shopping centres

The functions of shopping centres are shaped around sustainable development principles because the retail sector reflects the society. Social, economic, political, and sustainable retailing striving to be profitable should embrace the way individual societies mould and are moulded by international and local shopping cultures (Christiaans & Almendra, 2012:1894). Kunc *et al.* (2016:28) argue that shopping centres are worlds in themselves consisting of shopping services, social and cultural activities that inspire the society to be attracted to the centres.

5.8.1. Social function

Shopping centres reflect social, cultural, and economic processes, grown into spaces that offer new ways of consumption and social behaviour, and in most instances integrated consumption and leisure. Customers patronise shopping centres for socialisation and window-shopping rather than real shopping where exchange of goods and money takes place (Sohail, 2013:373). The social functions of these establishments are broadened by cultural and charitable events hosted in the centres on a continuous basis. Most people who go to shopping centres are accompanied by family members, friends, co-workers or by other people and they can also be meeting such people at the shopping centre, which makes the activity more leisurely (Erkip, 2003:1083).

Fraczkiewicz (2013:335, 341) emphasizes that shopping centres perform a cultural function that satisfies all the needs of the clients under one roof, citing the C.H. Silesia shopping centre in Chorzowska Street, Katowice, where customers are afforded with a place of worship in the form of a Catholic Church whereby they can spend the entire Sunday at the centre, “starting with a morning Mass in the mall followed by the possibility of doing shopping, visiting a hairdresser or a beautician, having dinner with the family or going to the cinema.” Many shopping centres provide entertainment facilities such as cinemas, clubs, bowling alleys and even pubs.

Developers included restaurants, cinemas, attractive environments, water-fountains, and sitting places to motivate the customers to shop while spending time socialising, eating and sight-seeing, which adds a social element or characteristic to the centres (Sadeghi & Bijandi, 2011:566; IVBN, 2016:9). Therefore, shopping centres are not only about generating money but are also an important part of communities' social fabric in that they offer a central place to meet with friends, family, colleagues, and potential business partners. These are places where community issues are discussed, while socialising and contributing in charitable activities as well as promoting such activities. Business partnerships are forged, which contributes significantly to the growth and development of the community.

5.8.2. Economic function

The public profit from employment in retail trade, services, construction, and manufacturing created from the shopping centres and industries associated with these centres is apparent. In most countries worldwide, more people work in the retail industry than in any other industry (Christiaans & Almendra, 2012:1893). Shopping centres are commercial structures meant to make money. Customers who visit these places are induced to spend money and for most of the customers, the longer they stay, the more money they spend (Berezko, 2014:10).

The development of a shopping centre in an area normally brings large private sector capital investment to an area that had previously attracted insignificant investment or none. Such an investment will continue when the shopping centre is extended, refurbished, when shopping units are refitted, enhanced, or adjacent infrastructure is upgraded. From the construction phase of the centre, jobs will be created and even though these initial jobs are temporary, some of the construction and related jobs will be ongoing at the centres over time, others supported in renovation of retail units and in the constant maintenance of buildings (Robertson & Fennell, 2007:153-154).

Shopping centre building permits the facilities to meet the functional or economic needs of the local people, allowing the local customers to acquire goods efficiently and promptly with less inconvenience (Khare & Rakesh 2010:126). The centres offer convenient shopping resulting in customers buying goods, services, obtaining specific information, and reducing costs in terms of money, time, and effort. Seasonal, permanent full-time, and part-time jobs are created when the shopping centre is operational. Shopping centres further support indirect jobs originating from the spending of individual businesses in the centres on goods, supplies, and services from companies within the local and regional economies. They boost job creation and support these jobs in the local shops and services from the wages of the shopping centre-based employees and employees in the supplier companies that serve the centre spend in the local shops and services (Robertson & Fennell, 2007:154).

Additional jobs that are created in the localities because of the existence of the shopping centres in the vicinities involves jobs in buses and taxis, petrol filling stations, hotels, nearby shops, restaurants, bars,

used or visited or exclusively because of a shopping trip to the shopping centres (Robertson & Fennell, 2007:155). Most customers are looking for lower prices, convenience, diversity of products, a variety of shops, and the availability of food and beverage options, which saves them money and shopping centres can provide that. Shopping centres attract income from outside the local area into the economy. They attract foreign direct investment mostly at national level.

At local level, customers from surrounding areas outside the centre's neighbourhood come to the centre to spend money in the centre buying goods and services. The centres prevent leakages of investment and income by preventing the local population going outside the local area to spend money buying goods and services. In this way, the centres are serving the local retail sector by retaining income in the locality and allowing circulation of money within the neighbourhood or local area. Therefore, the centres play a role of both attracting income into the neighbourhood and preventing its leakage out of the neighbourhood (Williams, 1996:55).

5.8.3 Environmental function

The shopping centres have good structures, and most are completely enclosed or covered and as a result the inside of these places have no weather effects, which a great benefit to the customers, more especially in countries that experience extreme weather conditions. Shopping centres have controlled environments with air conditioners that allows the customers to enjoy their visits to these facilities. The ambience, colour, decoration, music, and layout create an atmosphere that attract customers to the centre and act as environmental indicators that customers use to refer to the quality of shopping centre (Ahmad, 2012:102).

The above-mentioned elements appeal to the customer's sensory stimulation, encouraging the consumer to have physical interaction with the products and shopping environment, which results in the customers' shopping to be more attractive. The environment includes the aesthetic features of a shopping centres, which are appealing to the customers. Consumers who are inspired by the aesthetic features of a centre are inclined to appreciate all the physical features of the building including the ambience, lighting, music and displays and colours used in the centre (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:590).

Chithralega (2016:1460) identifies the air conditioning, toilets, layout, aisle placement and width, floor cover and architecture physical features that the environment of a shopping centre include. These features have a positive stimulus on the consumers' shopping behaviour and inspire the customer to extend their shopping and stay longer in the centre and lure them to visit again for leisure, social, community activities, and shopping (El Hedhli *et al.*, 2013:858). Rajagopal (2009:102) concurs with the above assertion by stating that, "the ambience of the shopping mall, architecture, ergonomics, variety and excitement motivate the shopper to stay longer and make repeated visits to the mall".

Miotto and Parente, (2015:248) also support the discussion by declaring that the environment created by aspects such as store layout, flooring, lighting, colour, music, and merchandize layout invent unique and exclusive shopping experiences for the customer. Therefore, customers are attracted to shopping centres by their environment, by elements such as spatial design, concentration of essential goods and services in a small area, and the proficiency to access them in a comfortable environment (Berezko, 2014:6). The layout of shopping centres and spatial distribution of furniture, goods and services in these centres are planned to create a special relationship with customers with an aim of stimulating the customers' desire to buy and increase sales in the individual shops within the shopping centres (Goidanich & Rial, 2012:148).

The environmental role or function of the shopping centre should be strategically planned and developed in such a manner that it strengthens the centre's appearance giving it a unique appearance that makes it different from the other centres that are regarded as competitors (Ahmed *et al.*, 2007:335). A broader environmental function of the centres is to increase the local green infrastructure by creating leisure areas in their local areas. According Cilliers and Cilliers (2016:10) "Green infrastructure refers to the entire urban green network, including all natural, semi-natural and artificial ecological systems within, around and between urban areas and at all spatial scales".

The foregoing functions are the generally recognised functions of a shopping centre. The centre also performs a function of integrating urban areas as well as urban and rural areas through its decentralisation or decongestion effect that it has on the CBD. In that way, the shopping centre decongests the CBD to form other secondary towns outside of the centre in strategic areas where it can exact its agglomeration effect to start a transformation process that integrates segregated areas and reduces fragmentation in a region as discussed in section 5.4 above.

5.9. Conclusion

The creation of shopping centre nodes in Europe has been examined and it was established that shopping centres exist in many forms. The classification of these centres is significant in defining them. These centres are, in general, places where groups of retail business that are owned, planned, developed, and managed in one component are found. They have evolved from performing an economic function to include social and environmental functions. They also have the capability to transform the spatial structure and function of the area in which they are located. Therefore, the centres are capable of influencing the spatial form of a region whether they are small or big.

The Thurrock Lakeside in the east side of London successfully became a town and an instrument for advanced development in the region in which it is located. Bluewater in Dartford, Kent, has become a retail centre for an area that includes business and accommodating a private sector city (Lowe, 2000:264-266). Merry Hill Centre in Dudley, West Midlands, also became a town centre in the area where it is located as discussed in section 5.4 (Lowe, 1998:63). Armada Shopping Centre in Yenimahalle, Turkey had the

strength to replace the CBD in an urban area by attracting other businesses and prompted transformation in the Sogutozu District, which resulted in centre and its surroundings defined as the new CBD by the Ankara 2023 Plan.

The centres, regardless of their size, are able to change the function of an area (Rochminska, 2017:56). The creation and development of the centres must be guided by the laws and policies of the particular region in which they are located. The creation and development processes should also take into consideration all the factors that contribute in the success of these centres discussed in this chapter. The centres also play a big role in place-making, and in the sustainability and resilience of the community. They can transform the image and shape of an area in which they are located to develop into a viable area that can compete with or complement areas such as the city, town and city centres.

Therefore, if the centres are developed as discussed in this chapter, they can play a role in transforming stagnant areas and in reducing spatial fragmentation in a region. The spatial transformation achieved in Europe and internationally using the shopping centres give support to the fact that Elim Mall and Namakgale Crossing are capable of transforming the spatial structure and development in their locality. Spatial transformation in this case is referring to the process of transfiguring the spatial economy and spatial structure of settlements with an aim of counteracting undesirable spatial fragmentation. This underscores the significance of the European shopping center review as a background study for the above mention South African shopping centres. The next chapter concentrates on the creation or construction of growth centres and shopping centre nodes and their development during the apartheid era to trace the special impact of the nodes on South Africa's spatial fragmentation .

CHAPTER 6: THE ESTABLISHMENT AND DEVELOPMENT OF GROWTH CENTRES IN SOUTH AFRICA BEFORE 1994

6.1. Introduction

This chapter serves to introduce and analyse the application of the growth pole strategy in South Africa before 1994. Section 1 of this chapter provides a link between the previous chapter and the subject of current chapters as well as presenting the chapter's line of thought, which is demonstrated in Figure 6-1. Section 2 gives a socio-economic background of South Africa followed by a discussion of the planning instruments, policies, and laws used pre-1994 in section 3. Section 4 discusses the growth pole strategy during the same period while section 5 outlines the experiences or knowledge that can be learned from this period followed by the conclusion in section 6, which provides a link between this chapter and the next chapter.

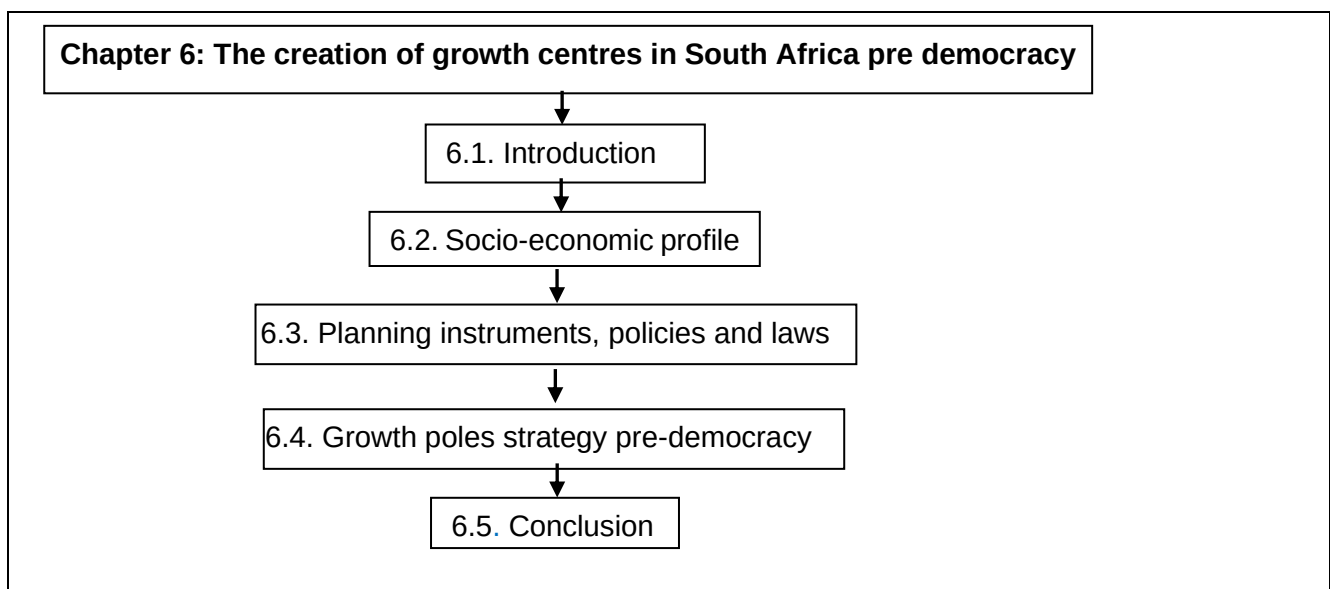


Figure 6-1: Chapter 6 structure

Source: Own construction (2018)

The chapter explores the use of the strategy during the apartheid period in South Africa which progressed from the foundation laid by British colonialism whereby western dominance was supreme. It extends the analysis of the growth pole strategy in the previously colonised countries presented in Chapter 4 whereby the application of the growth pole strategy in the previously colonised Brazil, Argentina, India, Kenya, and Zimbabwe during the period when the mining, agriculture and manufacturing sectors were the main sectors in the establishment of growth centres. The chapter present a local context because South Africa like the above mentioned countries was colonised. The chapter also addresses the shopping centre as a service sector pre-1994

It gives a South African context to the application of the strategy in the period when countries transitioned to utilising the service sector, specifically the shopping centre industry, as a propulsive industry in the establishment of growth centres discussed in Chapter 5. The chapter reflected on how shopping centres can be used as propulsive industries in a growth centre. Like in the international setting in chapters 4 and 5, this chapter provides the South African context to the application of the growth pole strategy. Chapter 7 serves to highlight the transition towards including the shopping centre industry in the establishment of growth centres in South Africa in line with the theme in Chapter 5. Chapters 6 and 7 serves to present the growth pole strategy in a South African context before and during the shopping centre industry as a propulsive industry in the establishment of the growth centres and how these centres/nodes can serve to address the spatial fragmentation and inequalities in South Africa.

6.2. Socio-economic profile

Governments throughout the world have tried to influence the spatial patterns of human settlement towards their desired political or economic end (Kerby, 2015:6). In the 1990s, the British government put restrictions on the development of shopping centres to influence the location of these centres and eventually influence the spatial patterns of Britain. In South Africa, from the colonial period up to the apartheid era, the government has controlled the spatial patterns of settlements to suit its political goal of separate development. Racial segregation in South Africa had been practised since the colonial period until the end of the apartheid government in 1994 (King & McCusker, 2007:6).

In 1948, the National Party came to power and declared apartheid as the statutory ideology and government policy of the country (Saayman, 2008:5; Rich, 1983:6). According to Bell (1984:6) The apartheid policy commenced with brutality, legalising segregation from biological - (Mixed Marriages Act No. 55 of 1949; Population Registration Act No. 30 of 1950), spatial - (Group Areas Act No. 41 of 1950), and political - (Bantu Self Government Act No. 46 of 1959). The political compromise reached between the Afrikaner republics and the British colonies at Union in 1910 represented a reconciliation between disagreeing colonial elites. The above mentioned laws resulted in South Africa being divided into homelands and the main, white South Africa as illustrated in Figure 6-2.

6.3. Planning policies and laws used in economic growth

The instruments used in economic growth and development, pre-democracy, were influenced by the separate development policy. They are responsible for the fragmented spatial form that the country continues to experience even in the post-apartheid era. The planning instrument, policies and laws used to entrench the fragmented spatial structure in South Africa using the growth poles strategy are summarised in Table 6-1.

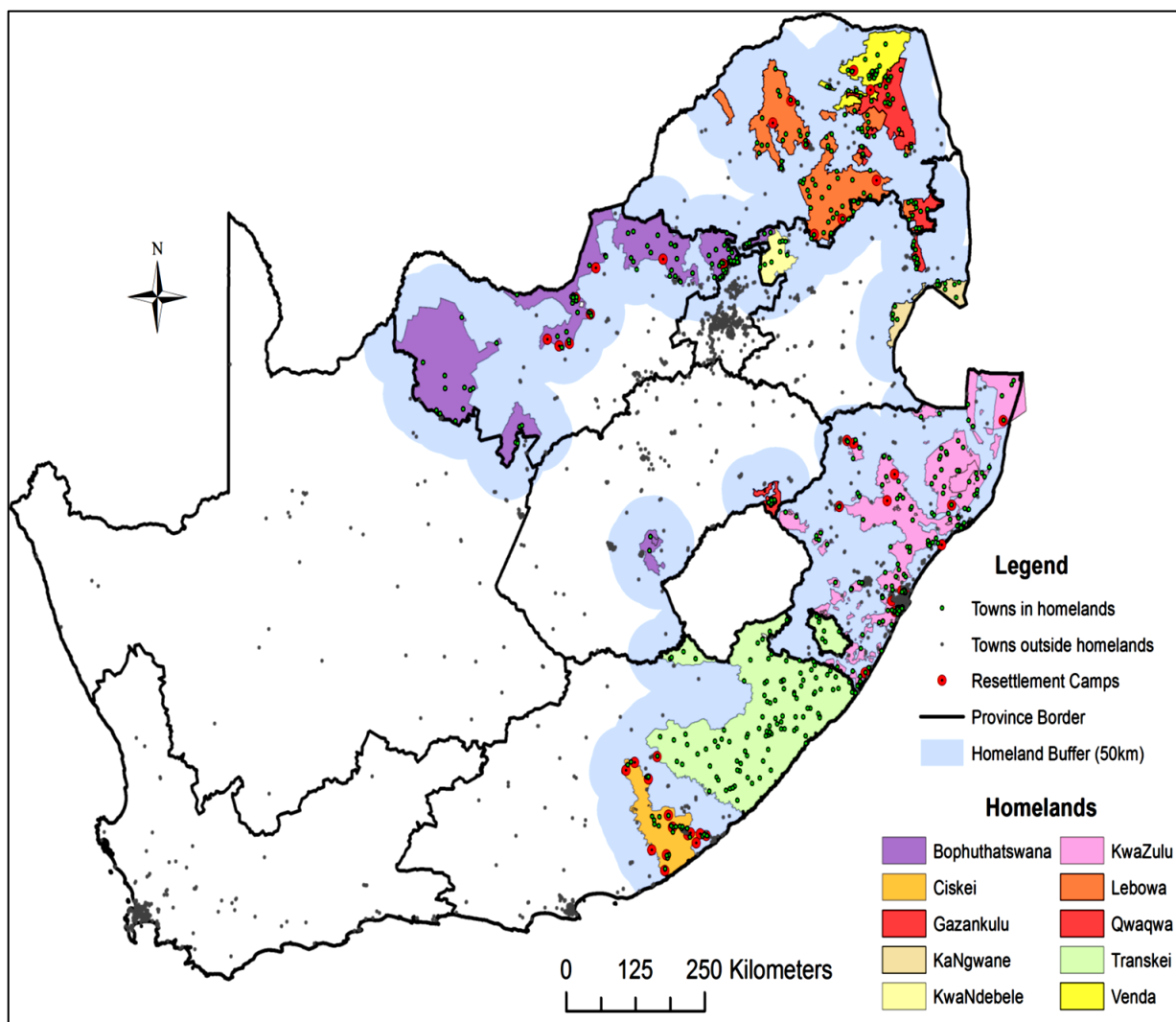


Figure 6-2: South African former homelands

Source: Abel (2015:5)

Table 6-1: Apartheid era planning policies and laws

Source: Own Construction (2018)

Policy/ Law	Impact
The Group Areas Act No 41 of 1950	Provided for the formation of group areas, for the control of the acquisition of immovable property and the occupation of land and premises. Created a hierarchy of tribal, regional, and ultimately “territorial” authorities. Forced residential segregation by creating different residential areas for different races. Effected forced removals of races living in areas they were not allowed by the law (Cottrell, 2005:87).
Prevention of Illegal Squatting Act 52 of 1951	Provides for the prevention and control of illegal squatting on public and private land.

Bantu Authorities Act No 68 of 1951	Provided for the creation of Bantu authorities and define their functions. Established homelands and defined their purpose. Reinforced barriers between white people and non-white people (King & McCusker, 2007:7).
Reservation of Separate Amenities Act No 49 of 1953	Legalised the racial segregation of public premises, vehicles, and services. Promoted unequal allocation of resources. Only public roads and streets were excluded from the Act (Cottrell, 2005:87).
Promotion of Bantu Self-governing Act No. 46 of 1959	Provided for the establishment of black homelands and regional authorities, with the aim of creating greater self-government in homelands. Blacks were classified into ethnic groups for whom the respective homeland would be established (King & McCusker, 2007:7; Nel, 1994:15).
Bantu Homelands Citizenship Act 1959; Bantu Homelands Citizenship Act 1970	Declared no-white as aliens in urban areas and declared blacks to be citizens of their tribal homelands and could only live in urban area after receiving special permission. Created 10 homelands and removed citizenship from black people residing in white South Africa and gave them citizenship in homelands (Turok, 2012:9).
Physical Planning Act 88 of 1967	Used for the co-ordination of environment planning and the utilisation of resources. Facilitated control over industrial expansion in metropolitan centres and regulation of employment of native South Africans. Restricted the zoning of metropolitan industrial land and the percentage of non-white workers, metropolitan firms could hire to force labour-intensive firms to relocate to the growth points. Repressed economic growth by discouraging investment and promoting greater levels of capital intensification in the metropolitan centres (Wellings & Black, 1984:5).
Removal of Restrictions Act 84 of 1967	Empower the Administrator of a province to alter, suspend or remove certain restrictions and obligations in respect of land in the province and facilitated the removal of restrictions on land.
Black Communities Development Act 1984	Provided for the purposeful development of black communities outside the national states and to provide for matters connected therewith.
National Physical Development Plan of 1975	Controlled urbanisation of non-white people by placing limitations on new industrial land in major urban areas, and the number of non-white people that could be employed in urban areas (Oranje & Merrifield, 2010:32). Justified segregated townships using growth poles, development axes, growth points, and deconcentration points to prevent over-concentration of development in metropolitan areas and frustrate out-migration of rural white people. Promoted segregated economic and social spaces (Todes, 2013:11). Focus on decentralisation ignored the reality that cities and growth poles would

	continue to attract people to urban areas, irrespective of policy and therefore national planning should develop other areas throughout the country to promote a balance urban growth.
National Building Regulations and Building Standards Act 103 of 1977.	Provide for the promotion of uniformity in the law relating to the erection of buildings in the areas of authority of local authorities; for the prescribing of building standards. Does not support vernacular architecture and the use of non-standard building materials for enterprise purposes.
Land Use Ordinance (Cape of Good Hope), Ordinance 15,1985	Regulated land use and township development.
Town Planning and Township Ordinance 15,1986	Regulated land use and township development.
Abolition of Racially Based Land Measures Act 108 of 1991.	Repealed certain laws to abolish restrictions based on race or membership of a specific population group on the acquisition and utilisation of land rights and promoting racially based residential areas.
Upgrading of Land Tenure Rights (Act 112 of 1991)	Provided for the upgrading and conversion into ownership of certain rights granted in respect of land; for the transfer of tribal land in full ownership to tribes for upgrading and conversion into ownership of certain rights granted in respect of land; transfer of tribal land in full ownership to tribes; and land matters related to the land.
Physical Planning Act 125 of 1999	Replaced the Physical Planning Act of 1967 and removed all the restrictions imposed by this act paving way for the current planning system.
The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 2000 of 1993 (Interim).	Introduced the new Constitution for the Republic of South Africa.
Upgrading of Land Tenure Rights Act 112 of 1993	Used for upgrading of the different forms of land tenure after property rights (Steenkamp, 2013:13).
Provision of Certain Land for settlement Act 126 of 1993	Provided for the designation of certain land; to regulate the subdivision of such land and the settlement of persons thereon; to provide for the rendering of financial assistance for the acquisition of land and to secure tenure rights; allocated land for settlement and financial support (Steenkamp, 2013:13).

The laws and policies as outlined in Table 6-1 created the spatial planning system that endorsed white supremacy. The laws enabled planners to establish proper residential settlements for white people followed by Indian and coloured people as can be seen in Figure 6-3 below.

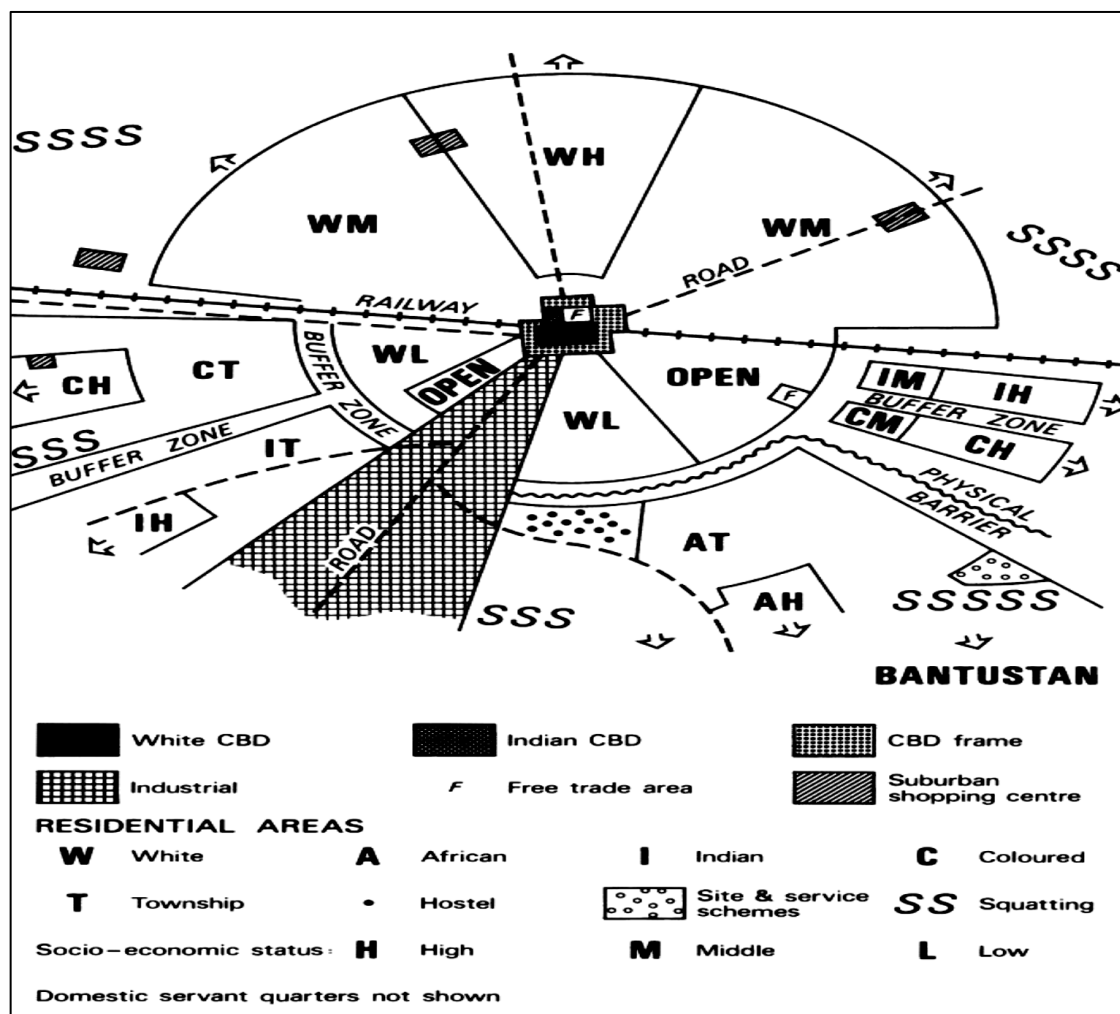


Figure 6-3: The apartheid city

Source: Simon (1989:193)

The laws, political, and economic policies that existed during this period created the apartheid (separate development) urban form illustrated in Figure 6-3. Black people were located far from white people and the urban centre as it can be seen on illustration. The rationale was that non-white people were located a distance from the white population for the latter's security, while providing labour in the urban areas. Townships were connected to city centres and industrial areas by a single road and in the large cities with an additional one railway line.

The peripheral location of these settlements and their inadequate transport connection to the cities were the most damaging characteristic of spatial segregation, which to some extent still prevails. In Alexandra (Johannesburg) and Duncan Village (East London) the cities have grown to incorporate these townships; they are no longer at the periphery but have proper access to the two cities. Since the 1990s, large cities

in South Africa have new economic activity nodes outside the historic CBDs. The cities have multiple nodes with economic activities and workplaces clustered in several locations. Inanda (Ntuzuma) and KwaMashu (Durban) are closer to Umhlanga Ridge, a new economic node but it is inaccessible from these townships because it was planned without public transport to connect them. Soshanguve (Pretoria), Mdantsane (East London) and Botshabelo (Bloemfontein) have inadequate public transport and remain far from the cities, nodes and work opportunities (South African Cities Network, 2009:5).

The small suburban shopping centre nodes shown in the figure above started in 1959 and were decentralised to the current pattern that is across the country. These property developments were developed using the investment of surplus cash in the growing economy. Over time, decentralised shopping centre nodes increased on the periphery of the north areas of Johannesburg. Sandton City was established in 1973 in the suburbs of Sandton and two more in Randburg and Bedfordview. Additionally, in 1979, Eastgate Mall opened targeting white customers as well (Hendler & Wolfson, 2013:8).

Planning is a social practice and the layout design should aim at addressing social problems but in this case, it was not addressing the issue of accommodating the non-white community in an inclusive, fair manner or close to work (Bigon, 2012:2). The main law that facilitated the apartheid city is the Group Areas Act No 41 of 1950 that allocated the different racial groups and provided for the separate residential and business sections in urban areas. Township shopping centres started in the 1990s, the centres were much smaller than those in the white suburbs. The shopping centres are listed in Table 6-2. In Soweto, the total retail space of shopping centres built between 1987 and 1994 was 31,549m², which is the size of a minor regional centre in South African shopping centre classification (Viruly, 2004:13).

Table 6-2: Formal shopping centres in Soweto between 1988 and 1994

Source: Viruly (2004:13)

Name	GLA	Location	Anchor Tenant	Development date	Owner	Classification	No of shops
Dobsonville Centre	17,317m ²	75 Mnesi Park, Dobsonville	Shoprite Checkers, Truworths, Markhams	1994	The Centre City Investment (Pty) Ltd	Community Centre	80
Meadow Point	4,600m ²	Zone 2 Meadowlands	Score	1988	Apex Hi Properties Limited	Local convenience centre	30
Pimville Square	3,657m ²	Modjadji Street, Pimville	Shoprite	1989	Apex Hi Properties Limited	Local convenience centre	29

Dobson Point	3,102m ²	Zone 7, Dobsonville	Score	1987	Apex Hi Properties Limited	Local convenience centre	22
Protea Point	2,873m ²	Ndaba Drive, Protea Glen	Score Supermarke t	1987	Apex Hi Properties Limited	Local convenience centre	29

These designs ignored the South African ethnic settlements outlook. The inadequate supply of housing in the townships lead to squatting and informal settlements. The National Building Regulations and Building Standards Act 103 of 1977 is perpetuating the standards the Le Corbusier, and Ebenezer Howard concepts, which are not applicable in South African villages that are part of municipalities. Shopping centre development as shown on Figure 6-3 reflected social and spatial segregation of that period. The African zone had no shopping centres, only the upper and middle social strata based on race were provided with shopping centres. Thus, the provisions of the shopping centres were controlled by the same laws that controlled development in the country.

From the above it is obvious that the apartheid ideology was aimed at changing the South African society through manipulating the environment, specifically the space. Planned spatial fragmentation and the harsh implementation thereof separated the society by racial lines. The racist hierarchy manifested itself in the way the apartheid cities were organised. The use of townships as a racial concept is strengthened by theoretical movements within architecture and planning. Le Corbusier's concept of temporary workforce housing, presented the Ville Contemporaine (1922), inspired the apartheid controlled movement of a black population as temporary labour. The Ebenezer Howard's Garden Cities visible in township plans, which normally included skilfully drawn road networks and localities laid out in attractive systematic grids (Findley & Ogbu, 2011:2).

The higher a racial group in the government's hierarchy, the closer to the city centre it may reside. The hierarchy influenced every aspect of access to the city such as landownership, urban amenities, skilled jobs, and education. Therefore, socio-economic status also relied on race. Non-white people had limited opportunities like jobs and faced high unemployment. The racial differences and planned spatial fragmentation whereby townships are spatially isolated in marginal underserviced locations, created enormous social division. Non-white people faced massive poverty, while white people benefitted from protected and privileged jobs, state allowances, and financial credit (Dupont & Houssay-Holzschuch, 2005:289). The disjointed spatial structure created during this period still exists, which is a cause for concern because there must be equal distribution of resources and all citizens must benefit from the economic and social growth in the country.

6.4. Growth poles strategy pre-democracy

In South Africa, like in many countries, the growth poles theory has been implemented since the 1950s. Although there had been a negative response toward the growth pole theory in the 1980s, most countries, including South Africa, continue to embrace the strategy as an instrument of realising regional development objectives (Higgins, 1983:3; Boshoff, 1989:43-45). The concept of growth poles and growth centres played a great role in the decentralisation of economic activities in the country. It also provided regulatory and key principles for policies and laws relevant in resolving the regional inequalities that existed in South Africa at the time. Decentralisation policy based on the growth pole strategy played a major role in the South African development thinking that existed since the introduction of the development of peripheral regions in the 1950s (Drewes & van Aswegen, 2013b:195).

The Industrial Decentralisation Strategy in South Africa has its starting point from the establishment of the Industrial Development Corporation in 1940 and the appointment of the Social and Economic Planning Council in 1942 (Krugell, 2014:6). The enforcement of white and black people's land was in line with the decentralisation policy and the establishment of growth centres in the country. In this case the Union of South Africa had multiple main growth centres as the then metropolis and the periphery as the homelands. The situation served as a foundation for the growth centres that were created in South Africa during the apartheid era. The core-periphery relationship was such that the metropolitan areas in white South Africa were the core and the homelands and surrounding areas the periphery.

By 1950, the growth pole strategy became the foundation of the industrial development policy when growth centres in and adjacent to the homelands were created by the government over the years with an intention that the centres will serve as attractive areas that will encourage industrial decentralisation from the major urban centres. The strategy acted as a political instrument to discourage the black people to relocate from the homelands (Drewes, 2000:83). Table 6-3 below outlines the policies and their impact.

Table 6-3: Apartheid era growth pole strategy policies and laws

Source: Own creation (2018)

Policy/ Law	Impact
Separate development strategy (1948)	Promoted racial and tribal discrimination; established 10 homelands based on political reasons that economic capacity and ensured residential segregation, at times by means of forced relocations.
Industrial Development Policy (1954)	Kept black people in homelands and facilitated the identification of the growth centres adjacent to the homelands.
Industrial Decentralization policy (1960)	Discouraged the flow of black people from homelands to metropolitan areas in white South Africa. Introduced a range of incentives given to those who invested in growth points created next to homelands, incentives

	included overhead capital, tax concessions, low interest loans, labour concessions, transport subsidies and tariff protection. (Hart & Todes, 1997:5; Bell, 1984:5, 9, 16).
Industrial Decentralisation policy (1971)	Encouraged the expansion of growth centres into homelands and was a tool of equalising industrial development in the main industrialised areas incentives associated with this policy were increased (Wellings & Black, 1986:143). The challenge was it created a high number of centres, some of which had no realistic growth potential (Drewes & van Aswegen, 2013a:22).
National Physical Development Plan (1975)	The country's first spatial plan based on a spatial rebalancing characterised by growth poles and growth centres. Facilitate the achievement of more balanced spatial poles. Divided South Africa into 38 created regions (Drewes & van Aswegen, 2013b:195).
Good Hope Plan (1981) Regional Development Strategy (1982)	Provided industrial development guidelines and focused on effecting the industrial decentralisation policy. Designated 47 industrial development points and 11 deconcentration points to be developed concurrently. Growth centres located in impractical locations, too many points were identified, and incentives were spread over too many geographical areas (Drewes & van Aswegen, 2013b:95). Facilitated self-sustaining economic growth and development of an integrated economy. Created 8 Functional Development Regions.
Regional Industrial Development Programme (1991)	Created 2670 industrial development points; 502 deconcentration points; 259 metropolitan areas; 619 other industrial points, and 167 ad hoc cases. All with a total of 4217 points, 196191 jobs and R 5477 206.53 investment. Succeeded in some of the bigger urban centres (Naude, 2003:35). The unsustainable factor was that it had a high number of points receiving incentive, e.g., 50 points received 100% incentives; points did not have the most essential characteristics growth centres should have (Drewes & van Aswegen, 2013b:196; Naude, 2003:37).
Small Regional Industrial Development Programme (1993)	Assisted 496 firms; metropolitan areas and secondary cities attracted 60 % of new investment, small towns outside the homelands attracted 28% and the homelands 12% (Nel, 1994:22).

The spatial distribution of the growth centres established by the above policies is outlined below to graphically demonstrate the spatial fragmentation created by the physical location of these centres and the agglomeration of economic activities in certain parts of the country while other regions are disadvantaged. Figure 6-2 depicts the physical location of the ten homelands, the growth centres

established by separate development strategy (1948), and enforcement by the industrial development policy (1954). The map also shows the growth centres initiated inside the homelands following a call by the government for investment in growth centres located in these areas allowing time white owned industries for the first to be located in homelands (Nel, 1994:15). The Industrial Decentralisation policy of 1971 created a high number of growth centres some of which had no realistic growth potential (Drewes & van Aswegen, 2013a:22).

In 1971 and 1975 the incentives associated with this policy were again increased and according to Wellings and Black (1986:143) “it is state intervention in the form of incentives which seems to have played the most important role in promoting decentralisation”. Too many growth centres were created at this stage which bears a resemblance to the Zimbabwean situation. The Regional Development Strategy of 1982 introduced eight Functional Development Regions. The process of implementing growth centres during the apartheid period resulted in a situation where too many growth centres were established resulting in the weakening of investment and less agglomeration. Most of the centres were poorly located and the high cost of establishing them was not acceptable on economic grounds (Drewes & van Aswegen, 2013b:195; Naude, 2003:35).

The success and sustainability of some of the centres was due to the extremely generous incentives associated with the decentralisation policy and these incentives were abused by being allocated to beneficiaries in an incorrect manner. The incentives strategy was also used in Argentina, where it was successful, while in South Africa the incentives were too costly such that the government had to continually adjust them until they were abandoned. The industrial decentralisation strategy that was in place before 1994 was based on the growth pole theory but has marginalised the theory’s principles. Like the Zimbabwean situation, most of the centres were chosen for political not economic reasons and as a result they were not really growth centres as the theory proposes.

According to (Wittenberg, 2003:24) decentralisation was designed to fragment the opposition by creating regional and ethnic interests that obstructed African nationalism, and to relinquish power in certain areas to gratify the political desires of the majority. In South Africa as well, the establishment of growth centres were dominated by political matters, there was lack of balance between the political and economic reasons. The failure of the policy in South Africa is also ascribed to an extremely large number of erroneously selected growth centres just like in Zimbabwe and Kenya.

According to Kerby (2015:6) “the Regional Industrial Development Programme (RIDP), sixty-seven RIDP zones were established between 1955 and 1992”. Industrial decentralisation is not an ordinary product of apartheid policies coupled with incentives, it mirrors much wider trends in universal capitalism and adopts a range of organised arrangements in diverse regions of the global economy while creating a broad

spectrum of distributional outcomes (Hart & Todes, 1997:47). The industrial decentralisation policy was implemented in creating growth centres in all the developing countries as discussed in Chapter 3.

South Africa's mineral driven industrialisation in the first half of the 20th Century increased demand for labour in cities, leading to growing African urban settlements (Trade & Industrial Policy Strategies, 2016:9). The apartheid system was firm but did not adhere to a direct development path and over time it disintegrated. The laws applicable in former white areas were detailed, complex and implemented by well-trained planners in adequately resourced municipal planning departments (Bollen, 2013:175). The residential segregation policies formulated during the system created racially divided cities and towns, with unequal access to jobs and amenities. The legacy of the separate development and homelands policies formulated during this period is still evident in post-1994 South Africa. The former homelands areas are beset with unsustainable settlements, which are the results of the apartheid spatial planning (Department of Environmental Affairs, 2012:64).

As argued in 4.7.3, Fair summarised Friedmann's core periphery model in terms of political, socio-cultural, economic and physical traits. It is anticipated that the inequalities between core and periphery would decrease over time. There must be a gradual reduction of physical, economic, social and political inequalities between core and periphery to safeguard the future stability, growth and development of the system (Fair, 1982:12, 15-16). According to Fair (1982:5), the developing countries must follow the path taken by the developed countries over the past 100 years and more to become developed.

Friedmann's (1966) core-periphery model has been modified to suit the Southern African economy by Browett (1980) and Fair (1982). The evolution of the South African economy through Friedmann's pre-industrial, transitional and industrial stages of growth was examined. Special attention was given to the industrial stage during the period between 1955 and 1975, using data on the gross domestic product by magisterial district. Fair found that there are three main developmental areas that matched Friedmann's core, upward periphery and downward periphery zones. Namely, the core, inner periphery and the outer periphery.

The development areas are organised in a hierarchy of core-periphery correlations focused on the Pretoria/Witwatersrand/Vereeniging cluster. In the context of the South African national economy, the Natal regional economy was regarded as one of the main peripheral regions. The eight main metropolitan areas of (a) Pretoria/Witwatersrand/ Vereeniging, (b) Cape Town, (c) Durban-Pinetown, (d) Port Elizabeth, (e) East London, (f) Kimberley, (g) Bloemfontein and (h) Pietermaritzburg formed the core. The inner periphery was made up of the area between the main metropolitan areas and the homelands, namely, the rest of South Africa under White, Coloured and Asian ownership (Fair, 1982:57). The outer periphery was composed the Black homeland including the national states of Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda and Ciskei. Spatial interaction is strong between the core and the inner periphery through advanced

infrastructure that facilitates trade and communications; and weak between the outer periphery in terms of trade and communications (Fair, 1982:55).

The development of South Africa's space economy is shaped by the metropolitan areas' rapid growth which is to the disadvantage of the periphery. Through each stage of economic development that a country passes through in its development, there is a reorganisation of the space economy which is comprised of nodes, networks and surfaces that matches the development (Fair, 1982:11; Hanekom, 1982:12). The implication of the growth pole strategy executed at the time is that chances of autonomous growth for growth centres adjacent to and in homelands were slim. Whereas industries in the former white (towns) growth centres are more closely linked to their local markets and their expansion potential is determined by the expansion of the town area.

The government adopted the growth poles theory but did not follow the principles of the theory that are highlighted in Chapter 2 of this dissertation, it used the strategy for political reason which is discussed by Fair (1982). The application of the growth pole strategy continues post-1994 and this study concentrates on growth nodes which emanate from the growth poles theory, hence in the next chapter, the laws and policies that guide the development of nodes that play a positive role in reducing the spatial inequalities that continues from the previous era are discussed.

6.5. Conclusion

The chapter highlighted the apartheid period in South Africa and how the growth centre strategy was used in creating growth centres that promoted separate development and uneven development in the country. The laws and policies during this period created prosperous metropolitan areas and poor homelands. The establishment of homelands and dormitory townships and the restriction of movement for Africans resulted in densely populated settlements in the homeland areas that were poor. The establishment of growth centres in South Africa during the apartheid era created centres that still define the spatial configuration of South Africa today. The impact of homelands on the country is still affecting the poor South Africans. The current metropolitan areas are growth centres that the previous government has promoted. The fact that the country is still affected by the spatial arrangement of that period points to the fact that the previous government established successful growth centres guided by the separate development policy of the time.

The apartheid policy failed but the growth centres established then and their spatial implication is still affecting the country up today. The establishment of shopping centre nodes at the time succeeded in promoting growth and development in the former white areas and depriving the homelands and township of development emanating from such nodes. The Sandton (City) Shopping centre and the Eastgate Mall demonstrate the success of such developments. Like the European shopping centres discussed in Chapter 5, the centres have managed to transform the spatial configuration of their local area. Sandton City is now regarded as the most developed square mile in Africa. This is a demonstration of the impact

that shopping centre nodes have. The following chapter analyses the current laws and policies that guide growth centres as well as shopping centre node development in South Africa. The chapter provides instruments that are currently employed and assess if they are able to undo what the previous government's policies and laws have achieved.

CHAPTER 7: THE ESTABLISHMENT AND DEVELOPMENT OF SHOPPING CENTRE NODES IN SOUTH AFRICA AFTER 1994

7.1. Introduction

This chapter introduces South Africa's implementation of the growth pole strategy in the period whereby the service sector is one of the main drivers of development, particularly economic development. This sector plays a role in the establishment of nodes. Section one of this chapter explains the content and arrangement of the entire chapter. In the second section, a background study on the origin and evolution of shopping centres in South Africa is discussed. Then the discussion on the South African classification of shopping centres follows. The fourth section presents main aspects of shopping centre development in the country. Followed by a process framework of the characteristics of South African shopping centres and it ends with a summary of the chapter, which also links the content of this chapter with the next chapter. The present section concludes with a visual summary of the chapter as presented in Figure 7-1 below.

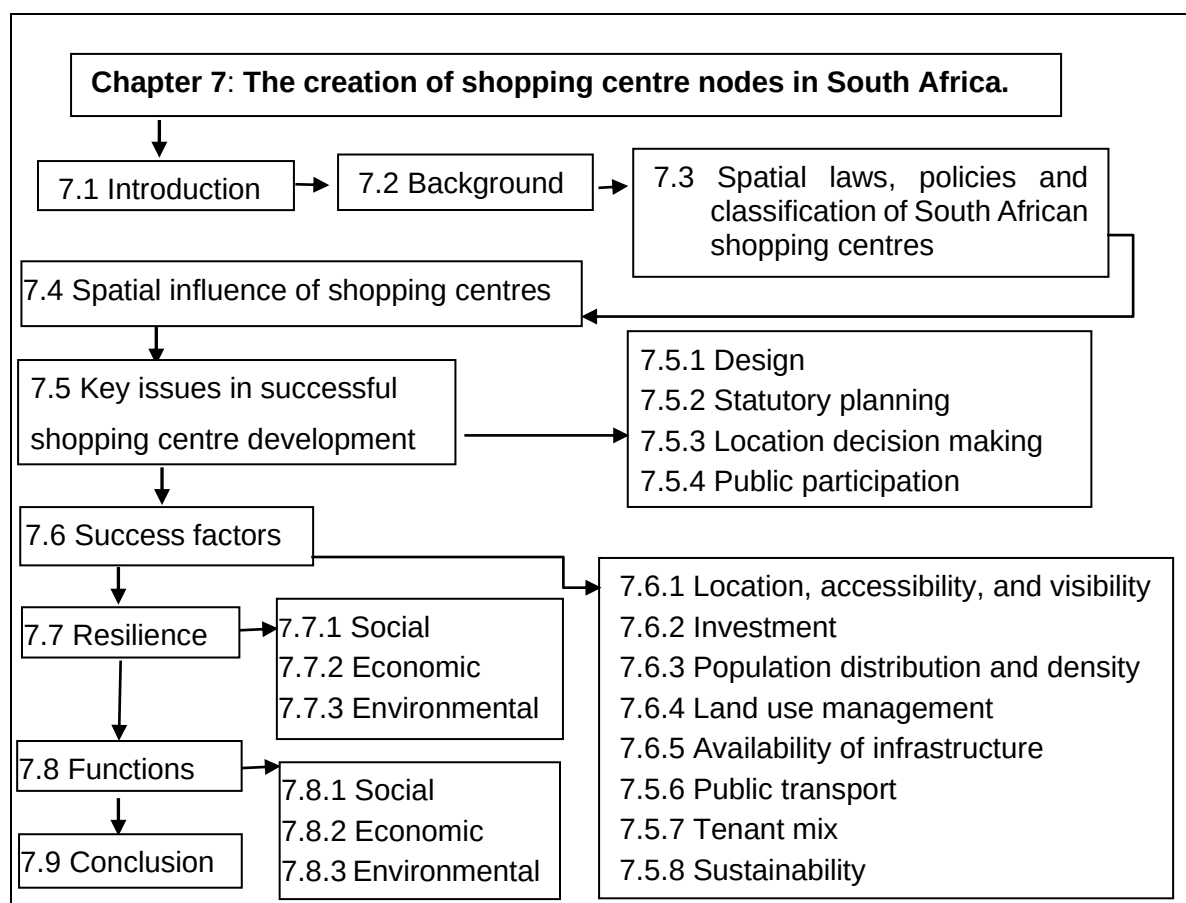


Figure 7-1: Chapter 7 structure

Source: Own construction (2018)

7.2. Background

In this chapter, the intention is to demonstrate that the creation of shopping centre nodes in the right locations, specifically the previous homeland areas, can play a significant role in rectifying the socio-economic and spatial problems created in the past and aid in creating functional integrated settlements. It is also aimed at examining the shopping centre sector as the main industry in the creation of the development nodes in the previously disadvantaged areas. In Chapter 6, the emphasis was on growth centres in South Africa pre-democracy, whereby centres were established and developed using the primary sectors as firms or propulsive industries. During that period, the growth centres were mostly politically motivated rather than based on economic aspects.

The main purpose of the policies and the growth centres was to attract manufacturing firms closer and later inside the homelands. The centres were to start an agglomeration processes that will create long-term positive economic effects and create job opportunities for the homelands' population while reinforcing the separate development strategy. Regrettably, the centres resulted in the spatial fragmentation that currently exist in South Africa. This chapter also presents the applicable laws and policies that guide the establishment and development of the nodes in the present.

Limpopo Development Plan (LDP) 2015-2019 defines development, "as broad based improvements in the standard and quality of living of people throughout the province, to which all institutions, including government, business, organised labour and citizens contribute" (Limpopo Provincial Government, 2015:5). In the context of this plan, the shopping centre nodes under discussion have the potential to reduce the spatial fragmentation in the Limpopo Province and eventually in the country at large through improving the standard and quality of life of residents. Spatial planning in South Africa takes place within the three spheres of government, namely, national, provincial, and local (metropolitan, district, and local), which are distinct and interdependent. Strategic spatial planning during the South Africa apartheid era was carried out through comprehensive or master plans.

The process was too rigid, it did not embrace rapid urbanisation and promoted racial separation. The current strategic spatial planning system in South Africa focuses on urban restructuring by using instruments such as nodes and corridors. According to Prinsloo (2014:15) the advantage for shopping centre development offsets the negative impacts of urbanisation and should be embraced as an opportunity to formalise urban development and gratify the demand of new urban dwellers found in townships. Therefore, there is currently a change in shopping centre development in the country towards building shopping centres that cater for low income households.

The shopping centres are closer to informal settlements at the edge of urban areas and in rural areas. With the decline in agriculture and mining sector most small towns in South Africa are economically

declining and the development of shopping centres play an important role in the provision of other services and creating employment in these settlements. The shopping centres also play a significant role in the former homelands where social grants income is transforming the economic structure of these areas by creating buying power amongst the poor (Prinsloo, 2014:11). These shopping centres should be developed along corridors and in development nodes in line with the current strategic spatial planning system mentioned above.

Planners should be empowered and should also make a conscious decision to transition from the old planning system and its laws and embrace the new systems. The centres should be developed in context of regional and spatial planning policies and laws that are discussed below. The policies and laws are designed to promote growth centres that endorse integrated development and are formulated to correct the inequities of the past and to guarantee justice. In the quest to address the fragmented spatial form of urban and rural areas, the National Development Plan (NDP) cautions that the,

“fundamental reshaping of the colonial and apartheid geography may take decades [and] there are no quick fixes for transforming the functioning of human settlements and the working of the space economy” (National Planning Commission, 2012:260).

Therefore, it requires cumulative effort rather than a single action to reshape the colonial and apartheid geography that currently persists in the country. The major reason the spatial fragmentation persists in South Africa is that the former apartheid government policies promoted the core-periphery concept in the country's spatial development and inequalities are related to uneven economic development in addition to only the separate development promoted by the apartheid policy. Inequalities will continue even if the spatial form created by the apartheid separate development policy is address. This means that the inequalities will be reduced, not entirely eradicated. The previous government's laws and policies reinforced white areas as the core and the homelands as the periphery, formal towns created at the time as core centres and townships as peripheral areas a practice which strengthened spatial fragmentation in South Africa.

The homeland and townships are downward transitional areas whose economies are stagnant, or regressing compared to the entire country. Continuing to apply laws and policies of the past will not improve the current spatial situation. Even in the current government, the overcrowded homeland areas do not have major urban centres and are overlooked with regards to the provision of physical infrastructure and services. Unemployment and poverty are still high in these areas which result in residents migrating to urban centres though the current policies promulgate that resources should be used and concentrated in specific areas (growth points) that have a potential to grow economically. The SPLUMA (Act 16 of 2013) and related instrument and principles of the NDP and IUDP can result in eradicating the fragmentation provided they are continually amended to close the gaps in the instruments. The periphery should now be

treated as the core to directly counteract the impact of the past era's laws and policies. The current spatial policies and laws as well as development policies are analysed below.

7.3. Spatial laws, policies and classification of South African shopping centres

In this section, the spatial laws, policies, and the shopping centre classification that guide the creation of shopping centres in South Africa are analysed. Their implication in the creation of shopping centre nodes in the previous homelands and township areas is traced.

7.3.1. Spatial planning laws and policies

Spatial development laws, policies and planning instruments in South Africa have undergone major reforms and revisions since the change of government in 1994 with an aim of restructuring the spatial form in the country, specifically in the cities and towns. The main goal currently is to attain compact mixed use and higher densities development that will be able to accommodate the low income areas closer to economic centres while spatially integrating the rich and the poor. Since 2011, the Guidelines for the Development of SDF has incorporated the concept of functional integration as one of the main principles of good spatial planning practice. Such concepts are included because of the desire to eradicate spatial fragmentation in the country (Du Plessis, 2015:218).

7.3.1.1. SPLUMA (Act 16 of 2013)

The SPLUMA (Act 16 of 2013) is currently the main Act applied in addressing spatial planning matters nationally. The Act applies to the entire country and is useful in guiding the national, provincial, and local government spatial planning. It is intended to address the fragmented, unequal, and incoherent spatial planning and LUMS that existed in South Africa even post-1994. The main objectives of the Act are to provide for a uniform, effective and comprehensive system of spatial planning and LUM for the republic; ensure that the system of spatial planning and LUM 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 LUMS (The Presidency, 2013:3).

The above objectives incorporate the principles of integrated and sustainable development and Section 3(45) of SPLUMA Act 16 of 2013, explicitly make mention of the government's intention to, "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" as can be seen in objectives of the Act. The provinces must develop Growth and Development Strategies (GDS) that have a connection with the NDP and SPLUMA (Act 16 of 2013) and should also formulate provincial SPLUMA (Act 16 of 2013) by-laws (Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, 2014:11). The view in this study is that compliance with this law has a potential of eradicating the application of parallel procedures by national and provincial government that

caused problems in municipal planning departments. Section 12(1) of this Act requires that the national and provincial spheres of government and each municipality must prepare SDFs which is a policy document drafted in terms of the requirements of the MSA (Act 32 of 2000) and the SPLUMA (Act 16 of 2013).

The National Spatial Development Framework (NSDF), Provincial Spatial Development Framework (PSDF), Regional Spatial Development Framework (RSDF), Municipal Spatial Development Framework (MSDF), Precinct Plan and the Integrated Urban Development Framework (IUDF) are the instruments that should be used to guide the establishment and development of the shopping centre nodes to enable the nodes to address the spatial fragmentation in the country by integrating the economic, social, and spatial aspects of cities, towns, and rural areas. Municipalities are required by law to prepare SDFs as spatial components of the IDPs. This instrument, if implemented properly, can serve as an effective tool that enables municipalities to shift from the historically segregated, fragmented, and uncoordinated planning to adopt holistic, integrated, and coordinated development planning pronounced in the SPLUMA (Act 16 of 2013) objectives. The above mentioned instruments linked to the SPLUMA (Act 16 of 2013) are analysed next.

7.3.1.2. NSDP (2003, 2006) and the NSDP 2018 (NSDF)

The NSDF (2018) draft was made available in June 2018, and final draft in September, 2018. It was prepared following the requirements of the SPLUMA (Act 16 of 2013) in a participatory and collaborative manner, including a wide variety of stakeholders such as government officials, agencies and associations, professional bodies and Non-Governmental Organisations as mandated by Section 5(3)(a) and Sections 13(1) of the SPLUMA (Act 16 of 2013) and Chapter 8 of the NDP. It is intended to contribute in fostering a peaceful, prosperous and transformed South Africa, pronounced in the Freedom Charter, Reconstruction and Development Programme and the NDP. It is based on a transformative agenda that is guided by the SPLUMA (Act 16 of 2013). The NSDF is regarded as a tool for spatial transformation. The document is not yet applied, and its initial implementation will start in 2019, the Implementation Cycles are outlined below in Table 7- 1.

Table 7-1: NSDF (2018) Implementation cycles

Source: Department of Rural Development and Land Reform and Department of Performance Monitoring and Evaluation (2018:175)

Initiation	2019 – 2023: establishment of a championing capability and organise for implementation (including monitoring framework; establish and roll out communication plan; and alignment of national sector plans, PGDSs and municipal SDFs/IDPs).
Alignment, budgeting	2024- 2043 / 2029-2033 / 2034- 2038 / 2039-2043: institutionalisation (MTSF and MTEF), embedding (sector plans, PGDSs, SDFs/ IDPs) and actions (budget allocation)

and execution	with five yearly review in alignment with MTEF; moving from alignment of vision to budgeting and implementation alignment (built in IDPs, PGDSs sector plans and infrastructure plans; deepening reflection in MTSF and MTEF, deepening application through strategic plans and performance plans, PGDSs and IDPs.
Renewal and re-do	2044- 2048: NSDF review and renewal, three years process of new NSDF and adoption for 2049-2053 MTSF; and closed out phase.

The new NSDF (2018) has potential in dealing with the spatial, economic, and social inequalities in the country as its content is directly aimed at addressing this issue. The alignment and reviews that will be continuously performed will ensure that it is relevant. An important aspect that gives hope that the framework if properly implemented can bring change to the current spatial form lies in the interpretation of inclusive growth that support should be given to “growing economic nodes in previously forgotten and ignored regions and ensure a more diversified economy” (Department of Rural Development and Land Reform & Department of Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation, 2018:82). Both private and government support in these nodes will result in vibrant economic hubs that will change the structure of these areas in support of integrated development. This is seen as a better way of confronting the current situation in a more positive way than concentrating in cities which perpetuate the apartheid spatial form.

NSDP (2006) is currently implemented to confront the inequalities and spatial fragmentation. The NSDF proposed by the RDP Office in 1995 failed and the NSDPs initiated in 2003 and 2006 was introduced as a response to the failure of the NSDF. The strategy is said to be an “indicative guideline that will encourage creative interaction and coordination between departments and spheres of government about the nation’s spatial priorities. It will function as a basis for discussion and negotiation...The NSDP will function not as a policy that prescribes expenditure choices, but an instrument for discussing spatial development priorities for South Africa within government” (The Presidency, 2003:38).

The NSDP is aimed at coordinating infrastructure investment, development spending and addresses the spatial fragmentation inherited from the apartheid planning system (Oranje, 2010:60). It emphasises corridors and related nodes as the main features of the South African cities’ spatial development. The NSDP is not a failure it has paved way for the new NSDF (2018) and there is positive change towards the eradication of fragmentation in the spatial economy in the country.

7.3.1.3. Limpopo Spatial Development Framework (LSDF) (2007) and LSDF 2016 (PSDF)

The Provincial SDF is planned to be the spatial representation of the Provincial Growth and Development Strategy that guide metropolitan, district and local municipal IDPs and SDFs as well as the provincial and municipal framework plans (Department of Government Communication and Information System, 2017:5). The PSDF stipulates that future spatial patterns in the Limpopo Province should be shaped by political and economic forces and processes. It is developed as a tool aimed at guiding the province to achieve its

spatial development objectives in a focused and spatially synchronised process. The PSDF's role is emphasised as, to coordinate all spheres of government, sectors and municipalities (Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, 2014:12). The LSDF (2016) which is the current effective PSDF in the Limpopo Province was adopted in terms of Chapter 4 of the SPLUMA.

The LSDF (2016) has a vision of creating a provincial spatial structure, which has a natural environment and valued agricultural land in rural areas protected for future generations. The proposed spatial structure should have a strong, diverse and growing economy concentrated in various nodal areas that provide residents with a high quality of living conditions and good job opportunities in a sustainable manner. The framework should be able to create an ideal and efficient spatial pattern in the province that will effectively eradicate the current spatial disintegration. It should identify growth points where future growth should be directed within the province in order to meet its aim of encouraging social, economic and environmental sustainability throughout the province and to ensure that it is applicable to the development needs of all the scattered urban and rural communities in the province it represents (Vhembe District Municipality, 2016:30-31).

The LSDF (2007) is a provincial SDF for the Limpopo Province is still effective in most municipalities including the MLM and BLM. It is aimed at accomplishing the province's spatial development objectives in a focused and spatially organised way. Its objectives include to formulate a spatial framework which guides and encourage equitable distribution of investment in terms of a functional settlement hierarchy; to achieve spatially balanced development across the Limpopo Province and support investment in sustainable settlements; establish an optimal and functional spatial pattern for districts and the Limpopo Province over time; to rationalise and promote the optimal use of land and protection of natural resources; to establish a functional spatial pattern with a hierarchy of settlements which provides a sound basis for long-term sustainable economic growth; to provide guidelines for the development of transportation and utility networks; and the successful integration of planning across national, provincial and local levels (Vhembe District Municipality, 2016:30-31).

The document is of great importance in this study in that it is used to designate growth points in the province. These growth points are areas where the largest variety of specialised land uses and services in an area must be located (Limpopo Province Office of the Premier, 2007:109-123). The current designated growth points in both MLM and BLM originate from this SDF. Both the MLM and BLM SDFs are aligned to the LSDF (2007), therefore, it forms the core of the spatial pattern of both study areas and it informs the location and distribution of shopping centre nodes within the province, districts and local municipalities. The revised LSDF (2016) has not yet implemented in full in the study areas.

7.3.1.4. Mopani and Vhembe Districts SDFs 2018/2019

The district SDF is aligned to the provincial SDF and requires that the local municipality SDF should also be aligned with it, if they are not aligned, they can have a negative impact on both the district and local municipality. The SDF is the main element of the IDP that gives spatial expression to the vision of the municipality. It creates a framework for decision making within the municipality in LUM (Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, 2014:9; National Department of Tourism, 2018:189). The district SDF identifies DGPs. Each district in the country is compelled by the law to develop district SDFs and local municipalities should prepare local municipal SDF (Abrahams & Berrisford, 2012:19-22).

The Mopani and Vhembe districts' SDF are significant frameworks that play a role in the establishment and development of shopping centre nodes within the MLM and BLM. The Mopani and Vhembe SDFs identify the spatial development objectives and strategies for the both the districts municipalities and are aligned with the LSDF (2007) which is the current applicable PSDF in the Limpopo Province as mentioned above. The district SDFs provides in detail the strategies and guidelines of the local level SDF. In this case the Mopani and Vhembe SDF offer in detail the strategies and guidelines of the BLM and MLM SDF.

The latter set of SDF governs the land-use management within the municipalities which control the size, shape and use of land for development. Section 12(2) of SPLUMA (ACT 16 OF 2013) requires that the national, provincial and municipal or local government must take part in the spatial planning and LUM processes that have an influence on each other to ensure that plans and programmes are harmonized, consistent and in agreement with each other. However, the Act gives municipalities more power in making spatial planning decisions. The strategies, guidelines and LUM process from this policy should guide the creation and development of the nodes.

7.3.1.5. Ba-Phalaborwa and Makhado Local Municipalities SDFs (MSDF) 2018/2019

The IDP and the SDF are intertwined and the MSA (32 of 2000) states that the SDF which include the provision of basic guidelines for a LUMS for the municipality, should form the content of the IDP. The SDF represents the physical or spatial component of the IDP. An IDP is a legislative policy document or plan that has a legal status that surpasses that of all other plans that direct or order development at local government level. The South African Constitution, (Act 108 of 1996), the Municipal Structures Act (117 of 1998), the MSA (32 of 2000) and SPLUMA (16 of 2013) are current laws that enforce the IDP as a tool for the municipalities in performing integrated development planning. Section 53(1) (b) of the Municipal Financial Management Act, requires the mayor of a municipality to manage the annual revision of the IDP and decides the extent to which it must be revised for the purposes of the municipal budget.

The IDPs are strategic plans for district and local government and they can be regarded as a form of regional planning because of their complexity. Since the restructuring of the local government in 2000 they cover the municipalities land areas from one end to the other, huge populations, and encompass both rural

and urban areas. When municipal boundaries were reconstructed in 2000 the IDPs became embedded in the current planning system (Todes, 2004:1). Local government restructuring was necessary as the impacts of the apartheid spatial and economic planning systems are most evident at the local government level where race groups were separated by law in every sphere of life and the white communities enjoyed privileges at the expense of the other communities (Harrison, 2014:11, 44).

It is in this context that Local Government was reorganised. IDPs are based on a holistic consideration of the socio-political, economic, and environmental conditions in a municipal area. They are instruments of improving the well-organised and informed prioritisation of matters to be addressed, the formulation of projects, linking projects with the available budget, attracting extra funding, and executing projects. Accordingly, IDPs can be viewed as the local manifestation of the global discourse of sustainable development. They can be considered as the South African planning and development reaction to Local Agenda 21 because they tend to address the interlinked environmental, social and economic conditions in local and district municipalities (Fuo, 2013:230- 233).

The IDP concept is a process and a programme with spatial planning as its central element. It is a strategic planning instrument that applies in the territorial aspect of the municipality based on the principles of sustainability, equality, efficiency, integration, fair and good governance and adopts integrated development approach to promote the creation of liveable, integrated cities, towns and rural areas. It is a normative concept intended to redress apartheid legacies, build a new culture of local governance and foster co-operative governance. The IDP is a multi-faceted participatory planning concept derived from global trends of democratisation of planning decisions, governance as enablement for service delivery to the people, integration for equitable sectoral development and sustainability for economic development that benefit the local environment and quality of life, rather than undermining it. The IDP process consists of five phases, namely; analysis, strategies, projects, integration and approval.

In terms of Section 26(e) of the MSA (32 of 2000) all municipalities in South Africa should formulate municipal SDFs. Municipal SDFs support strategic spatial planning, sector alignment and spatial targeting of government investment. The main objective of the municipal SDF is to facilitate the integration, coordination, alignment and articulation of development policies and plans originating from the diverse sectors of the national, provincial, district and local government applicable in the municipal area (Olivier, 2013:254). The role of the municipality in LUM implies that the successful application of the SPLUMA (Act 16 of 2013)'s transformation levels is the responsibility of local government (Padarath, 2015:69). Both SDFs and LUMS are aligned to the SPLUMA (Act 16 of 2013), NSDF, LSDF and the district municipalities SDFs for the municipalities to guide all decisions involved in the use and development of land or planning for the future use and development of land. The LUMS are execution instruments for the SDFs.

The tools define the desired patterns of land use within municipal area and promote spatial integration in terms of defining integration of formerly disadvantaged areas, identification of development nodes, direction of growth, major transport and movement routes, conservation of the natural and built environment, identification of specific development zones and densities, proposed nature areas and location of future development in conjunction with the, Integrated Environmental Programme of the municipality, and basic guidelines for a LUMS within the municipal area (Makhado Municipality, 2018:1; Ba-Phalaborwa Municipality, 2018:186).

7.3.1.6. Precinct Plan

According to Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (2014:85)

“a precinct is a geographically smaller area with specific characteristics (areas that require economic, physical and social renewal, or areas likely to be subject to large scale development within the planning horizon of an SDF)”.

The precinct plan should provide the following accurate information about the area: preferred land use patterns and main guiding principles for implementation; specify projects and programmes, features that will assist in land development; stipulate an explicit execution plan and related costs; and identify prioritised areas for public investment and specify investment from private and other sources. The emphasis of precinct plans differs according to their local circumstance and specific issues because they are formulated for both urban and rural locations of municipalities and that each municipal SDF process should stipulate the exact scale and size of the precinct.

Therefore, each shopping centre as a precinct should address the local circumstances within the ward and municipal area, such as integration, job creation, and other specific issues within the locality. In the case of a shopping centre, it is also because it is a unique land use and a retail property product that incorporate in some cases offices, retail shops, services, churches and such like services. Within the local municipality perspective, a shopping centre is perceived and implemented as a precinct in the context of the municipal SDF. The main obligation and emphasis of precinct plans is to ensure that comprehensive strategic spatial objectives defined in the Provincial SDFs, Regional SDFs and Municipal SDFs are implementation at the local level. It makes sure that the objectives are expressed physically on land by implementing these objectives in the project implementation and construction stages (Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, 2014:84).

This type of plans forms part of the legal aspects (e.g. Statutory planning process) in shopping centre development because they are an integral part of the local SDF, which is prescribed by law that municipalities must formulate. Therefore, the precinct plan processes should be followed when constructing and establishing the shopping centre growth centres. The precinct plans for Elim Mall and

Namakgale Crossing are relevant local plans that should be implemented to ensure that the Elim/ Waterval and Namakgale DGC play a role in addressing the inequalities created in the past.

7.3.1.7. LED

LED “is an approach towards economic development that allows and encourages local people to work together to achieve sustainable economic growth and development, thereby bringing economic benefits and improved quality of life to all residents in a local municipal area” (Department of Government Communication and Information System, 2017:6).

The MSA (32, 2000) proposed the concept of promoting integrated development planning with LED as a key element of the process. The LED strategy supports the development of local economies, focuses on local economic growth and poverty reduction in the area and ensures that matters are integrated into traditional planning processes (Nel, 2001:1010). It also provides technical support to nodal economic development planning. (Department of Government Communication and Information System, 2017:6). Therefore, municipalities should use the strategy in stimulate economic and social development.

It is a strategy built on the concept of enlisting resources and communities to construct a coalition of interest to benefit localities and create the capacity to empower communities and individuals to access opportunities. It is designed to foster and speed up economic growth, employment, and to achieve an unbiased distribution of development (Koma, 2012:109). Guided by the LED, the municipality mobilises the local business community, stake holders and interest groups to work together in achieving economic growth, to generate jobs and eradicate poverty. Limpopo Spatial Planning and LUM by-law; the Municipal Building Regulations by-law that deals with buildings, sewerage and water connection, operation and maintenance and installations in new and existing building; and SPLUMA (Act 16 of 2013) municipal by-laws, allows the municipality’s spatial planning to be aligned with the SPLUMA (Act 16 of 2013). The by-laws are prescribed by the SPLUMA (Act 16 of 2013).

Table 7-2 below highlight laws that support the SPLUMA (Act 16 of 2013). These laws specify principles for integrating and aligning government plans, such as SDFs, IDPs, Built Environment Performance Plans, growth and development strategies, and sectoral plans. They are aimed at ensuring that there are set priorities, resources allocation and there is integrated, effective, efficient, and sustainable implementation. Even with reformist laws and policies, spatial fragmentation remains. Integrated planning failed to meet the preferred development outcomes (Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs, 2016:44).

Table 7-2: Laws that are in line with the SPLUMA (Act 16 of 2013)

Source: Own creation (2018)

Laws	Significance
Local Government Transition Act (209, 1993)/ (97,1996)	Requires municipalities to develop IDPs supporting the legal validity of IDP and SDFs (Perret, 2007:1-2).
Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act 108, 1996	Requires that all spheres of government collaborate in eradicating poverty, inequality, and other apartheid unjust legacies. Assigns municipal planning responsibility to municipalities. Impose cooperative government among the three spheres of government (Olivier, Van Zyl & Williams, 2010:110, 116, 117).
Local Government: Demarcation Act, 27, 1998	Demarcate municipalities' boundaries that enable integrated development, effective service delivery and participatory local democracy (Pieterse, 2007:5).
Municipal Structures Act 117, 1998	Outlines how local government must be structured and how it should function (Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs, 2009:58). Have an impact on the spatial development pattern of the municipal area.
Municipal Systems Act 32, 2000	Requires municipalities to implement IDPs and SDFs to perform forward planning, matching resource distribution and budget to achieve projected developmental municipal vision (Abrahams & Berrisford, 2012:19).
The National Environmental Management Act 107, 1998	Ensures sustainable development by demanding that an EIA be carried out before large development projects are passed.
The National Environmental Biodiversity of Act 10, 2004	Provides for protection and conservation of ecologically viable areas, intergovernmental nexus and public dialogue on protected areas matters. Influences DPs and SDFs.
The National Environmental Management Protect Areas Act 50, 2003	Provides for the protection and conservation of ecologically viable areas, intergovernmental collaboration and public consultation on matters concerning protected areas.
Municipal Finance Management Act 56, 2003	Preventing corruption and ensures that there is transparency in public finance accounting (Joubert, 2008:20).
Promotion of Administrative Justice Act 3, 2000	Giving effect to the scope and meaning to the constitutional right to procedural fairness (Brynard, 2011:104).
Municipal Property Rates Act 2004	Provides for "frameworks and key requirements for municipal operations, planning, budgeting, governance and accountability" (Department of National Treasury, 2011:73).

Municipal Fiscal Powers and Functions Act 2007	Provides for “frameworks and key requirements for municipal operations, planning, budgeting, governance and accountability” (Department of National Treasury, 2011:73).

7.3.1.8. The National Development Plan 2030 (2012)

The National Development Plan 2030 (2012) is South Africa’s recent socio-economic policy plan that provides an integrated strategy for accelerating growth, eliminating poverty, and reducing inequalities by 2030 (National Planning Commission, 2012:24). Chapter 8 of the plan concentrates on reforming human settlements and the national space economy by enabling the majority the people to be located closer to their workplaces; provide improved quality public transport; and more jobs in around townships. To accomplish the above-mentioned targets, the NDP endorse the use of resilient methods in ending the continuous construction of housing in poor peripheral areas, providing incentives for economic activity in and next to townships, utilising the private sector in the gap housing market, and enhanced urban densities that promote support for public transport (Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, 2014:10).

The chapter also promote the idea that all spatial development should conform to principles of spatial justice, spatial sustainability, spatial resilience, spatial quality and spatial efficiency, and should clearly indicate how the requirements of these principles would be achieved. The discussion above highlights that the policy intends to eradicate the apartheid city model by promoting integration between the space economy and settlements. It also creating linkages and easy access to economic activities in the previously disadvantaged areas. The aspect of incentivising economic activity in and adjacent to townships as well as chapters 3, 4 and 6 focusing on economic transformation issues makes the NDP relevant in the establishment of shopping centre-based growth centres, because it is important for South Africa to invest in an effective network of economic infrastructure that is planned in such a manner that support the medium- and long-term economic and social objectives of this country (National Planning Commission, 2012:160; Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, 2014:10).

The NDP also acknowledges the need to transform rural economies in the country and recommends that the spatial planning system should be transformed. Rural economies should be stimulated through improved infrastructure, service delivery, review of land tenure, service to small and micro-farmers, a review of mining industry commitments to social investment, and tourism investments. Furthermore, it unambiguously declares the retail sector as ‘Drivers of Change’ which support growth and job creation strategies. It revealed that the retail sector will be encouraged to acquire goods and services with an objective of encouraging local producers and particularly small and growing firms (National Planning Commission, 2012:152).

7.3.1.9. Integrated Urban Development Framework (IUDF) (2016)

The IUDF guides future growth and management of urban areas and is based on the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) more especially Goal 11, which is about “making cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable” and Chapter 8 “transforming human settlements and the national space economy”. The overall outcome of the policy is to attain spatial transformation by guiding urban growth towards a sustainable growth prototype of compact, linked, and harmonized cities and towns. Its goals include spatial integration, inclusion and access, growth, and governance (Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs, 2016:7, 8).

To achieve this transformative vision, four overall strategic goals are introduced, namely, spatial integration, to forge new spatial forms in settlement, transport, social and economic areas; inclusion and access, to ensure people have access to social and economic services, opportunities, and choices; growth, to harness urban dynamism for inclusive, sustainable economic growth and development; and governance, to enhance the capacity of the state and its citizens to work together to achieve spatial and social integration. According to the Department of Government Communication and Information System (2018:2) the IUDF provides a strategy for putting into operation the NDP vision for spatial transformation, addresses densification, provision of basic services, infrastructure development, and rural-urban linkages matters

The above-mentioned laws and policies that are relevant share the same principles with this policy. It also reinforces the needs of South Africa, which are strongly entrenched in the NDP and the NGP. The challenge is that this policy does not specify in detail how and when to achieve the set goals and lack of intergovernmental alignment (Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs, 2016:12). The IUDF is a good policy enabler but it has not yet been fully implemented and the policy must be assessed on its influence and results, not its objectives. The policy provide a mechanism for revitalising the city centres which will allow the development of shopping centres in the former homelands’ densely populated areas not to affect the vitality and viability of the small towns. Policies outlined in Table 7-3 form the foundation of and support the policies that are relevant in the establishment of shopping centre nodes.

Table 7-3: Development related policies

Source: Own construction (2018)

Policy	Relevance of the policy
Provincial Growth and Development Strategy (PGDS)	Focus on the spatial economy of the country, availed principles and guidelines for guiding public infrastructure investment and development costs. Contributed in lessening spatial exclusion and inequality in the country (Oranje, 2010:64).

Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (2009)	The Comprehensive Rural Development Programme's goal is to attain social cohesion and development of rural areas by ensuring better access to basic services, enterprise development and village industrialisation (Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, 2013:ix, x).
The Medium-term Strategic Framework (2014-2019)	Aimed at guaranteeing policy coherence, alignment and coordination across national, provincial and local government plans, and alignment with budgeting processes (Department of Trade and Industry, 2015:6).
National Infrastructure Plan (2012)	Ensures that there is prioritisation and targeting of infrastructure investment and maximise socio-economic benefits in support of the NDP (Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs , 2016 (b):115).
Rural Development Policy Framework (2013)	Aimed at addressing the effects of the dispossession of land and deprivation of land use rights, culture and social cohesion of rural black South Africans (Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, 2013:4).
The National Transport Master Plan 2050 (2016)	"promotes better integration between land use planning and transport planning to encourage densification and sustainable development in supporting high volumes of travel required for public transport" (The National Transport Master Plan 2050, 2016:1). It aim at providing a vibrant, long-term, and sustainable transportation systems.

The common factor in the intentions and purposes of the above policies is that they are focused on eliminating the social, economic environmental and spatial disparities created by the colonial and apartheid policies in the country. They should be used to support the NDP in the establishment and development of the growth centres. Their relevance lies in the fact that their purposes are related to the NDP and should be used to augment the NDP in the process of establishing and growing the centres.

Provincial development plans and strategies are meant to link national and local development strategies. The Limpopo Provincial Growth and Development Strategy (PGDS) is the main policy that performs that role (described in Table 7-3 above). This policy is mainly coordinating regional development activities and does not have a detailed spatial framework for government service provision instead it is district and local plans that have detailed spatial framework. The current situation in South Africa requires that the development of shopping centres should conform to relevant laws and policies and the provisions of the municipality within which the centre should be located.

Therefore, the developer should know the legislations, policies and by-laws that impact directly on the development. The municipality should guarantee that assistance and support will be provided to the developer with regards to the regulatory context in which the development should take place. The required development conditions should be conveyed to the developers well in advance in order to afford them with

the necessary time and opportunity to incorporate these conditions and requirements in their plans, thus saving additional time and costs that can be incurred when development is delayed. The municipalities should schedule timelines and adhere to it as well as alerting the developer about the timetable of the conditions for the development to be ratified (Adatia, 2010:10).

From the foregoing analysis it can be deduced that the laws and policies promulgated and adopted after 2010, more specially the SPLUM and municipal SDFs have potential of playing an important role towards the acknowledgement of the constitutional socio-economic rights and the realisation of social justice endorsed in both the constitution and the SPLUMA. The principles of the Act are in harmony with the existing policies like IDP, SDFs, IUDF, and the NDP developed and implemented at all levels of government. It is important to have proper alignment between all the levels of government and within these levels between all relevant departments.

The alignment between and within the different levels of government have the capability to contribute significantly in the processes of reducing the fragmentation of the relevant laws and policies applicable in spatial planning and in the phenomenon of spatial fragmentation *per se*. The SPLUMA made it a legal requirement that from now on spatial planning, land development and LUM must agree with the principle of spatial justice. This principle strengthens the capability of the Act to alter the spatial forms created in the past. The next chapter demonstrates how local government in line with the provincial and national government implement these laws and policies and it remains to be seen how the government will address the potential challenges that can be prompted by the implementation of these laws and policies (Olivier, 2013:253).

The current laws and policies has the potential to redress the spatial form created by the apartheid laws. Table 7-4 highlights the link between the laws, policies and instruments used in spatial planning and that they can transform the current situation. They are rated according to how they can facilitate change in spatial planning with the aim of addressing the current situation. The challenge that the country faces is how to successfully implement these laws, policies and instruments to achieve spatial integration.

Table 7-4: Current laws, policies and tools that can transform the current spatial form

Source: Own construction (2019)

Laws, Policies and instruments	Rating (High -1, Moderate – 2)	Alignment with other laws and policies.
SPLUMA (Act 16 of 2013)	1	Principles cascaded IDP, SDFs, IUDF, and the NDP.

NSDP (2006)	2	Principle 5 aimed at overcoming the spatial distortions of apartheid by creating corridors and nodes. Has link with the NSDF (2018) and SPLUMA.
NSDF (2018)	1	Focus on redressing the past spatial form and inequalities directed by the SPLUMA principles.
LSDF (2007)	2	Identify where specialised land uses and services in an area must be located in line with the NSDP.
LSDF (2016)	1	adopted in terms of Chapter 4 of the SPLUMA
Mopani and Vhembe Districts SDFs 2018/2019	2	Aligned to PSDF and SPLUMA through this law's by-laws.
BLM and MLM SDFs (MSDF) 2018/2019	2	spatial component of the IDP linked to the District SDF.
Precinct Plan	2	Preparation guided by Chapter 4 Part A of SPLUMA like the other SDF products at the various levels of government.
LED	2	Component of the IDP.
NDP 2030 (2012)	1	Spatial development should conform to SPLUMA principles.
IUDF (2016)	1	Operationalise the NDP vision for spatial transformation.

7.3.2. Classification of South African shopping centres

The significance of shopping centre classification in the South African context is that it provides a hierarchy of shopping centres that are developed in different settlements of varying sizes conforming to the hierarchy of settlements designated by the NSDF and the PSDF to form a network of shopping centre nodes that have the potential to deal with the existing unequal development and defragment the current spatial form. Shopping centres in South Africa are found in both urban and rural areas and they display a hierarchical order of structures or facilities ranging from a spaza shop to a shopping centre. The phrase spaza shop is a township slang phrase for a small grocery shop or convenience store which means “an imitation of a real shop” (Liedeman *et al.*, 2013:2).

Township dwellers perceive small grocery stores as imitations of convenience stores. Shopping centre facilities start from shops which are visited regularly for products that are used or consumed daily, to stores that need a reasonable number of consumers to survive as well as the most specialised shops and department retailers at regional level (Prinsloo, 2010:1). Retail outlets in South Africa consist of diverse formats that are comparable to those found in the USA, namely, cafés, general dealers, specialty stores,

exclusive boutiques, chain stores, department stores, cash and carry wholesale-retail outlets, the co-operative stores, shopping centres and malls. Nonetheless, South Africa like many developing economies, has shifted progressively towards shopping centre-based retailing (Gauteng Province Treasury, 2012:4).

In common with the international situation, shopping centres in South Africa are classified in many ways using different criteria similar to the classification discussed in section 5.3 and can be categorised as planned, unplanned, urban, or rural. The size of a shopping centre is a major criterion in the classification of these centres. Their sizes are influenced by their location and ability to attract consumers. To bring clarity on which structures can be labelled as a shopping centre in South Africa, Prinsloo developed a comprehensive hierarchy of shopping centres which extended and modified the previous hierarchies of shopping centres in the country. For example, the hierarchy of South African shopping centres in metropolitan areas is an adjusted version or an upgrade of the Hierarchy of South African Shopping Centres in mainly metropolitan areas (Adjusted Model Kahn and Prinsloo) and the hierarchy of South African shopping centres in mainly rural areas and large towns (model by Prof. Kahn) (Prinsloo, 2010:4,6; Prinsloo, 2016:6, 7).

Currently, South Africa has an extensive diversity of retailers which have advanced to fulfil the needs of various groups of prospective customers characterised by race, income and culture (Terblanche *et al.*, 2013:26). The new hierarchy of shopping centres in South Africa outlines the different shopping centre types and fully describe each one of them. The description of these different types of shopping centres outlines how shopping centres are defined and should be understood in the context of South Africa as a country. The classification provides detailed definitions of nineteen different types of shopping centres which are found in South Africa.

These definitions assist in understanding shopping centres from their location, the size of population they serve, the distance that customers must travel to access the centre, the size, and type of community they service. The shopping centres are classified into three main types, namely, the core category, focus/niche centres, and unplanned/incremental group. Though some of the shopping centre types have some similarities with the international types of shopping centres they suit the South African context and the hierarchy is solely based on the South African situation. Table 7- 5 below outlines the core classification of shopping centres in South Africa. This classification is closely related to the international classification of shopping centres.

From the classification outlined in the Table 7- 5 it is apparent that there is no one size fits all approach that will work in the development of shopping centres in the country. Large shopping centres will not succeed in localities where the population is small and classified as low income. Each shopping centre is unique based on the tenant mix of retailers, the type of products offered and size of the centre which should be purposely arranged to suit a specific site based on their desires and needs (DEMACON,

2010:75). The trade area outlined in the table indicate that each shopping centre size need a specific size of population that correspond to its size to succeed

Table 7-5: The core classification of shopping centres in South Africa

Source: Prinsloo (2016:53-57)

Type of Centre	Size of centre (m ²) GLA	Trade area	Role and Function	Geographic Segmentation
Small free standing and Convenience Centre	500 – 5 000 5-25 stores	Serves part of a suburb	Offers express convenience	Part of metros and city suburbs
Neighbourhood centre	±5000-±12 000 25-50 stores	Centrally located for a group of suburbs	Convenience and express convenience role	Part of metropolitan, city suburbs and townships
Community centre	±12000-±25000 50-100 stores	Strategically located to serve a suburban community	Larger variety of convenience products to more households	Metros, cities, large towns and rural areas
Small regional/ Large community centre	±25 000- ±50000 75-150 stores	Specific sub region of city (can be large self-contained community, e.g Chatsworth)	Larger community and much wider tenant mix. More a community than regional role	Metros, cities, large towns and rural areas
Regional centre	±50 000- ±100000 150-250 stores	Large region of city /or whole city/ rural towns	Large primary and secondary trade areas. Also support from tertiary trade area.	Part of a business node. Metros, large cities and metro township areas
Super regional centre	>100 000 >250 stores	Large region in city and surrounding areas/Tourists	Serves whole metro region, national and international visitors offering widest tenant mix	Metropolitan suburban

Consequently “developers develop specific products enabling them to occupy a specific niche in the market” (McGaffin & Gavera, 2011:54). Thus, developers and all stakeholders should be realistic and pay attention to the status quo in the area within which the centre will be constructed to enable the centre to benefit the local people and play a catalyst role in the LED of that locality. In short, a shopping centre is a

product that the developer presents and constructs for a population of a specific area and size. Hill (2014:18) maintains that,

“malls are brands in their own right and historically have not necessarily been treated with the same respect that for instance big consumer brands with big budgets have been treated with. This has changed significantly with each individual mall demanding and requiring a personal and crafted brand identity that positions it uniquely in the minds of consumers.”

The notion concurs with IVBN (2016:16, 18). The classification discussed in this section influence the size and location of shopping centres in South Africa within the growth points defined by the NDSFs, PSDFs and MSDFs though it is not endorsed in a formal manner by the government.

7.4. Spatial influence of shopping centres

Shopping centres in South Africa started in the 1950 as small establishment in the white suburbs as discussed in section 6.3 and depicted in Table 6-2. The previous government has succeeded in establishing growth centres in the country, the problem is they were established for political reasons that resulted in the current situation. The current metropolitan areas, towns, townships and previous homeland areas are a result of growth centres development in South Africa guided by the previous laws and policies. The first regional shopping centre in the country is Sandton City opened in 1973 (African Telately Association, 2014:2).

It was developed as a 53 000m² Shopping centre which included a 20 000m² high rise office tower in the northern suburbs of Johannesburg. An additional 40 000m² of retail space was added including a further 20 000m² of office space was built in 1982 creating the largest complex of its type in South Africa. In 1984, the Sandton Sun Hotel, with 330 rooms, was finalised placing Sandton City amongst the largest mixed use retail developments internationally. In 1991, the shopping centre was refurbished to meet international standards and an additional 5 star hotel the Sandton Sun Towers with 230 rooms linked with old complex by an overhead bridge was established. In 1995, Holiday Inn Garden Court hotel with 450 rooms and 6000m² free standing retail store was opened. The northern side of the complex was developed into a unique leisure restaurant and retail centre (African Telately Association, 2014:2; Liberty Two Degrees, 2017:1,3; Liberty Two Degrees, 2018:1).

The creation of Sandton City facilitated the transformation of Sandton as an area from a farming community into an international vibrant business district. It transformed from sandy horse trails and grassy estates and is now one of Johannesburg's best shopping centres as depicted in Figure 7- 2. It opened on 12 September, 1973 as a 50 000m² shopping centre and developed into a 146 803m² centre that includes the 215 000m² Nelson Mandela Square, office space and the Sandton Sun Hotel following the refurbishment completed 2011. The original centre fits into the new centre more than four times as it

transformed to be amongst the most prestigious shopping centres in Africa (King, 2014:36). Table 7- 6 provide a chronological development of the centre from 1973 to 2018 to illustrate the evolution of the centre from performing an economic function to include the spatial and socio-economic function that it has performed. The centre has influenced the spatial form of the areas positively.



Figure 7-2: Sandton City shopping centre today

Source: The Cavaliers Group (2017:6)

Table 7-6: The development of Sandton City from 1973 to 2018

Source: African Telately Association (2014:1-3); Sandton Central Management District (2017:1-3); Liberty Two Degrees (2018:1-5).

Year	Development
1973	Sandton City had a GLA (gross lettable area) of 50 000m ² , 120 stores over four levels and 2500 parking bays. The Office Towers had 21 levels and 25 000 m ² GLA.
1983	44 000m ² of space was added increasing the total area to 94 000m ² . 250 stores, the 5-star Sandton Sun and Intercontinental Towers were introduced with 8 000 parking bays.
1992 - 1995	Major refurbishment was done on the common areas in the centre.
2001	Underwent a R35-million development comprised of 295 retail stores which increased the GLA to 128 000m ² , 10 000 parking bays, new food court, a giant video wall, and a 6 metre complete.
2002	A new level was created, the home living retail level (level 2) and the cinema complex were refurbished.

2011	Had a R1.77 billion refurbishment and expansion which included a new Protea Court and 70 new stores.
2015	A R185-million luxurious Diamond Walk was opened in the link between the centre and the Sandton Sun hotel comprised of international luxury brands such as Arque Champagne Crescent, Billionaire, Bvlgari, Ermenegildo Zegna, Gucci, Giorgio Armani, Jimmy Choo, Burberry, Dolce & Gabbana, Prada, Louis Vuitton, Cartier, MontBlanc, Salvatore Ferragamo.
2016- 2018	R90 million refurbishment, opened Sandton City's Fun District, (29 March 2018). Kids only cinema theatre (14 April 2018). Currently has a retail and leisure space of 147 940m ² and over 300 local and international retailers and presents in the exclusive Diamond Walk.

7.5. Social and spatial key issues linked to shopping centre establishment

In order for a shopping centre development to be successful and sustainable, contributions and collaboration between various role-players is essential. In the South African context, the role players include the developers, investors, local municipality, provincial government, tribal authorities, tenants, NGOs and locals and professionals who are involved in retail property development. The three spheres of government play a significant role in this regard. Tshangana (2011:120) argues that shopping centre development does not depend on inputs from the developer only but also from the local municipality, provincial government, tribal authorities, the private sector and NGOs. Municipalities contribute to the development by means of town planning, regulatory instruments and bulk infrastructure and services. Municipalities also perform a major task of guiding the centre's development to make sure that it has a positive impact on the local businesses and localities. The inputs of the government and each stakeholder that ensure that shopping centres in townships and rural areas are successful are sketched out in Table 7- 7.

Table 7-7: The role of government and the private sector in shopping centre

Source: Tshangana (2011:122-123)

Role	Municipality and District	Province	Tribal Authority	Private Sector
Make land available	✓	✓	✓	✓
Provide for economic nodes in local area layouts	✓			
Streamline application processes	✓			
Prioritise service delivery in the areas	✓	✓		
Ensure public sector commitment	✓	✓		✓

Ensure critical mass and tenant mix	✓			✓
Involve the local community	✓	✓	✓	✓
Ensure local taxi association involvement	✓			✓
Ensure local trader involvement	✓		✓	✓
Improve safety and security	✓		✓	✓
Determine potential market	✓			✓
Ensure a suitable location for the development	✓		✓	✓
Invest in the local area	✓	✓	✓	✓

Both the government and the private sector as can be seen on the table above have a significant role in the establishment of the centres. The distribution of these roles shows that there is fragmentation in the process. It is essential that the municipalities should have the ability to perform its duties proficiently to avoid interruptions in the course of the development process because disruptions can add considerable costs to the developer's expenditures. The municipality must ensure that there is coordination and alignment of internal stakeholders within their area and should be involved in providing input or views with regards to the long-term suitability of the centre, and the centres' contribution to the future development of the locality.

It should also be dedicated to accomplishing all its obligations that will results in the success of the centre. They also have a pivotal role to play in guiding the development of shopping centres in townships and rural areas. They should ensure that the impact of these centres is constructive for the main reason that the success of the centres in these areas will contribute in LED, reduction of poverty and spatial development matters (Adata, 2010:13; McGaffin & Gavera, 2011:53). Discussed below are the other key issues in addition to the above that the government and the private sector as role players should take into consideration for the centres to prosper.

7.5.1. The design of the centres

The design issues are also important in the South African context for shopping centres to be sustainable and successful. Both open and enclosed designs are viable subject to the size of the centre. Large shopping centres are mostly enclosed to reduce the walking distances that can be created by the open design. Small centres are normally successful in an open design while they tend to fail if a multiple story design is used. The design of the centres should have a positive connection with the wider community's environment. Parking facilities for the centres should match the size of the centre, the context of the local areas, and the availability of public transport amenities. The design of the centre should provide for the construction or improvement of public transport facilities such as taxi ranks that are properly integrated with the centre and the broader landscape in the node (McGaffin & Gavera, 2011:55).

A successful design should provide for a positive connection between the centre and the surrounding local small businesses such as the street vendors because most of these retail initiatives cannot be housed in the centre. It is also not possible to accommodate them all in the centre due to, amongst other factors, the rent and the design of the centres. However, they benefit from the appealing power of the shopping centres and they contribute to the provision of an inclusive retail service to the immediate neighbourhood. If the designs accommodated the Small Medium and Macro Enterprises (SMME) and vendors positively, they can additionally contribute to the establishment of a prosperous node whereas if they fail to do this, they can prevent the node to growth (Adatia (2010:29, 36). Examples of shopping centre designs that accommodate vendors at the centre include, Pan African in Alexandra, Johannesburg which has permanent vendor facilities inside the centre; Jabulani in Soweto, Johannesburg which provides gazebos outside the centre's building; and in Hubenyi in Elim/ Waterval, Makhado, which provides stalls for vendors.

Regional shopping centres normally have enclosed designs with air-conditioned pedestrian courtyards which tenants, customers and shops have direct access to. All centres should be attractive enough to attract and retain customers, with the least maintenance possible, both for the owner and tenants, so that competitive price can be established. Shopping centres are emphasising design to maximise security for shoppers and tenants, by using cameras, security staff (companies), and better-quality lighting, mostly in parking areas. Parking garages in shopping centres that have adequate lighting eliminate shadier areas that can be unsafe to customers and other stake holders. Centres should be built to maintain their future value.

7.5.2. Statutory planning processes

The government in this period of free market economy in South Africa has contributed in this sector since 1994 through institutional restructuring and legal frameworks (laws, policy and regulations) reform to create a conducive environment for all relevant institutions to work together in supporting the development of the centres and small businesses. The purpose thereof is to create a viable environment as vehicles to address the challenges of job creation, poverty alleviation, economic growth and equity (Rogerson, 2004:765).

Section 7 (a)-(e) of the SPLUMA (Act 16 of 2013) contains the statutory framework for agreements with communities aimed at enhancing their right to the city. Namely, principles of spatial justice and spatial sustainability which validate strategies for supporting advancement of the working class's access to cities and quality of life enhancement which add to real individual and community empowerment. The above principles including the principles of financial sustainability, administrative sustainability, efficiency, transparency and public interest, form an overall guide for the approach and governance of municipalities in developing spatial plans and LUM that support the development of working class urban spaces for living, working, and recreation.

Each sphere of the government has legal obligations to implement the IDP/ SDFs, Housing Sector Plan and the Integrated Transport Plan (ITP) because it is a legal requirement for each sectoral plan to be incorporated in the IDP in an integrated fashion. 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. The Department of Provincial and Local Government (2010:320) states that 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).

The ITP is required to support the IDP/SDF by including specific plans projected in the SDFs. This plan gives direction to the SDF while the SDF provides guidance to the plan. The Integrated Environmental Management (IEM) is another plan required by Environmental Conservation Act (1998) which should be compiled within the process of establishing shopping centres. The EIA prescribed by the National Environmental Management Act (NEMA) (Act No. 107 of 1998) should be carried out at all stages of planning and implementing major development projects. The Environmental Conservation Act (1998), NEMA, MSA (Act 32 of 2000) and SPLUMA mandate that public participation must be carried out in the processes that they provide for. In case of the IEA, it should be done before the development is carried out and a post-impact assessment monitoring and management be done as well in major land developments (Sowman *et al.*, 1995: 50-55).

Some of the statutory process that are required are the submission of land development and land use applications provided for in the Act. They include, requirements for deciding the application (section 42), conditional approval of application (section 43), time frame for application (section 44), Internal appeals (section 51) and development applications affecting national interest. The municipality and the traditional leaders have legal power to regulate the processes that relate to land acquisition including land use, public participation, intergovernmental participation, and site inspection. The traditional leaders control the land that is under their authority only. The transport sector should apply the ITP which is used to set up a comprehensive analysis of the current and future transport system in an area to plan for the future transport needs in terms of the provisions of Part 7(Section 27) of the National Land Transport Transition Act (Act 22 of 2000). Conforming to SDFs a precinct plan is relevant in the development of shopping centres and should be developed for the different nodes by municipalities.

The key outcome of the IUDF is spatial transformation, it aims at enabling the creation of dense, coordinated and linked cities utilising the transit oriented development together with other strategies to deliver the required social, economic and environmental results proposed in the NDP. The implementation of the strategy should result in the reduction of travel costs and distances and enhancing public transport and the coordination amongst means of transport. The above will be achieved by linking and aligning

resources in a manner that enriches the urban form. In this way the special fragmentation, more especially the urban fragmentation that currently exist in the country (Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs, 2016:36). The provisions in the laws and policies discussed in this chapter should be taken into consideration when establishing shopping centres. However, currently, there is no specific policy or law directed at the development of shopping centres only.

The LED strategy should be unbiased and should employ existing local businesses and spatial patterns to enhance specialist economies, establish multiple nodes, make sure that there is integration by ensuring that there is effective public transport and other infrastructure within the municipal area. The LED strategy should ensure that shopping centres are developed in townships and rural areas in order to create more mixed, sustainable neighbourhoods and intensify economic activities in the form of shopping centre nodes in these areas. The establishment of shopping centres should comply with the LED, IDP and SDF in line with Section 21(d) of SPLUMA Act 16 of 2013 which stipulates that,

“the municipal SDF should “identify current and future significant structuring and restructuring elements of the spatial form of the municipality, including development corridors, activity spines and economic nodes where public and private investment will be prioritised and facilitated”.

Therefore, the municipality is able to designate the nodes, corridors and spines in areas where they foster integration with a purpose of eradicating the spatial fragmentation that currently exists. This is not always possible as some of the municipalities are dysfunctional. In May 2018, 87 (about 31%) of the country's municipalities were dysfunctional. A situation that makes it difficult to redress the inequalities and fragmentation caused by the past government's laws.

7.5.3. Location decision making

The current spatial structure in South Africa, which originated during the apartheid era is shaped by Christaller's The hierarchy of settlements as outlined in the LSDF is influenced by these theories (Limpopo Province Office of the Premier, 2007:110-122). Christaller introduced the concept that human settlements can be differentiated by size, economic position and other related characteristics, and conceptualised as a hierarchy of settlements as outlined in the LSDF of 2007. The theory maintains that the size of a settlement is based on the type of goods and services it provides. Larger settlements provide 'higher order' goods and services while smaller settlements provide 'lower order' goods and services which is reflected in the LSDF (John, 2012:6). CPT in combination with the growth poles theory, which was dominated by the idea of separate development.

Not disregarding the fact that shopping nodes in this study should be created in the context of the national, provincial, and regional planning SDF's and economic development frameworks; CSIR guidelines for the provision of social facilities in South African settlements (2012) which is also influenced by CPT should

also be taken into consideration. The hierarchy of settlement in the guidelines are outlined in Table 7- 8. The guidelines should be used as a planning tool to set priorities within the prevailing financial resources though they are not legal requirement for municipalities, provinces and national departments. The guidelines are useful in the location and distribution of facilities because they ensure that citizen have better access to services at both provincial and national government levels (Green & Argue, 2012:5).

The guidelines provide a classification of settlements to be used as a foundation for making decision about the provision of social facilities for each settlement depending on the type or size of that particular settlement. The CSIR classification is similar to the settlement classification in the LSDF (2007 and 2016). The distance recommended by the CSIR is even longer than what is found in the actual situations in different settlements. For example, police station (16Km peri-urban), community health centre (5km), community hall (15km) (Green & Argue, 2012:34,35).

Table 7-8: CSIR classification of settlement types and catchment sizes

Source: Green and Argue (2012:11).

	Hierarchy of settlements	Catchment size (no. of people)	Examples of settlement types
A	Metropolitan cities/regions	> 1 000 000	Johannesburg, eThekweni, Cape Town
B	Large cities/small metros	350 000 - 1 000 000	Port Elizabeth, Bloemfontein, Pietermaritzburg, Welkom
C	Large towns/regional service centres	100 000 - 350 000	Nelspruit, Witbank, Krugersdorp Newcastle, George, Stellenbosch
D	Small to medium towns/regional service	60 000 - 100 000	Ermelo, Harrismith, Mossel Bay, Bethlehem, Bronkhorspruit, Grahamstown
E	Small towns/isolated regional service centres	25 000 - 60 000	Mount Fletcher, Delareyville, Beaufort West, Graaff-Reinet, Kokstad
F	Dense dispersed settlements (Large continuous development with 10+ persons per hectare and up to 10 km ² in extent)	10 000 - 100 000	Ingwavuma, Jozini, Acornhoek
G	Villages	5 000 - 25 000	Merweville, Stella
F	Remote villages (>20 km from larger settlements)	500 - 5 000	Prieska, Pofadder, Loxton, Keiskammahoek

The current position in municipalities is that development should be channelled to the growth points identified by the government. Since 1994, spatial planning in South Africa commenced from the need to

coordinate and integrate development and amend the historically biased spatial patterns (Harrison & Todes, 2001:394). The location of shopping centres should be in conformity with the municipal SDF. The NSDP has provided an indication of concentrations of economic activity by specifying areas with medium to high degree of proved economic potential throughout the country (The Presidency, 2007:40).

The PSDF further identifies these areas within the context of the province following the NSDP. In the case of the Limpopo Province, the LSDF outlines a hierarchy of settlements which is influenced by the NSDF (Limpopo Province Office of the Premier, 2007:110-122). The sizes of the settlement are defined based on the type of goods and services they provide. The province has developed a new SDF which became effective in 2016. This SDF revised the growth points designated by the LSDF of 2007 to conform to the SPLUMA and the new NSDF of 2018. As mentioned before, the NSDF 2018 is still in the process of being approved and it is not implemented at present. Nonetheless, in future the nodes have to conform to the LSDF 2016 as outlined in Figure 7-3 below.

However, both the MLM and the BLM are still using the 2007 LSDF and their current IDP and SDFs comply with the LSDF (2007) not the LSDF (2016) designation. It is for that reason that in this thesis the growth points according to the LSDF 2007 are discussed. The distribution of the growth point in the province that are according to the LSDF of 2007 is outlined in Figure 7-4. The difference between the two LSDFs is that the 2016 LSDF includes a new category of growth points the Provincial Growth Points (PGP) that concentrate on Special Economic Zones. None of the PGP (Special Economic Zone) is within the municipal areas within which Elim and Namakgale are located. Currently there are two types of Provincial Growth Points. The plan as illustrated in Figure 7-3 identified 90 urban and rural nodal growth points and the 2007 identified 127 nodes. The nodes are outlined in Table 7- 9 below.

Table 7-9: Outline of the different nodes in both the LSDF (2007) and LSDF (2016)

Source: Own creation (2019).

Nodes Type of growth node/point	LSDF (2007)	LSDF 2016
PGP (Special Economic Zones)	None	4
PGP	17	6
DGP	16	10
Municipal Growth Points	38	23
Rural Nodes/ Service Points	None	47
Population Concentration Points	56	None

The 2016 LSDF reduced the number of nodes in each category as well as the total number of nodes in the province. This has reduced fragmentation in the province by consolidating some of the growth points. Within the VDM the growth points and the municipal boundaries have been restructured as a result of the

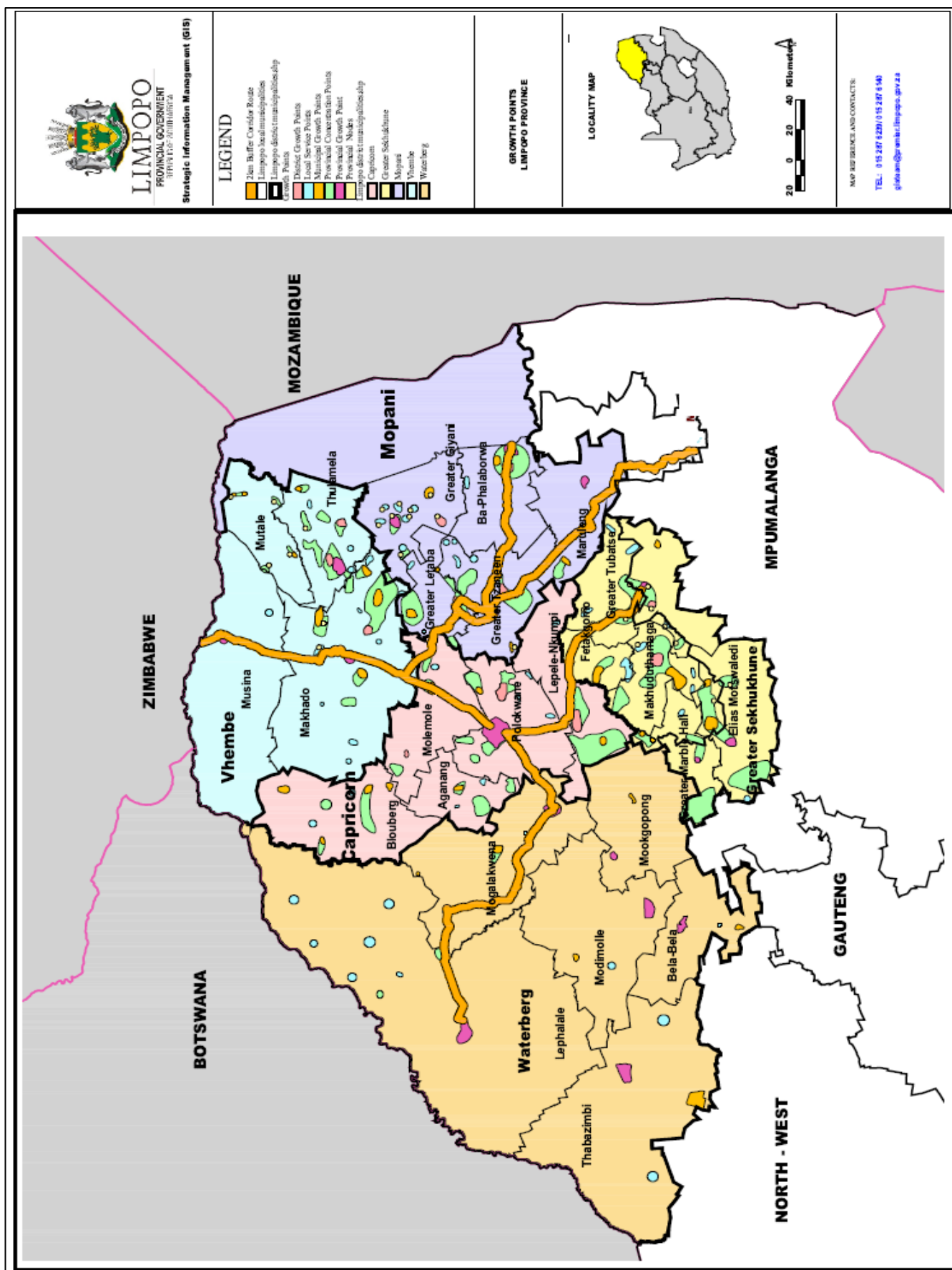


Figure 7-4: Map illustrating growth point distribution in the Limpopo Province

Source: Limpopo Province Office of the Premier (2010:1)

creation of the Collins Chabane and dismantling of Mutale municipality. This had an impact on Elim as it is no longer a DGP but a Municipal Growth Points (MGP). Namakgale is no longer classified as a growth point which reduce the number of nodes in BLM to three nodes, namely, provincial, municipal and rural nodes. The process of choosing suitable location for shopping centres in both BLM and MLM is still guided by the NSDP at national level, the LSDF 2007 at provincial level and the municipal SDF at district and local municipality level according to their IDPs.

The settlement hierarchy as outlined in the LSDF (2007) which guide the selection of sites for shopping centres has the following hierarchy of settlements:

- a) First Order Settlements (Growth Points) – are settlements with natural growth potential which have major economic, social and institutional activities with a high population. They are divided into PGP, DGP, and MGP (Limpopo Province Office of the Premier, 2007:112). Each of these growth centres are describe as follows:
 - i. PGPs have a large economic sector which is able to create jobs for the majority of residents, have both regional and provincial service delivery function as well as a large number of social and institutional facilities, e.g. government offices, local and district municipal offices, and a sizable population.
 - ii. DGP have a significant economic sector that can create job, different higher order social facilities, for example, hospitals, health centres, tertiary educational institutions, regional government offices, district and local municipal offices, as well as a large population.
 - iii. MGP have small economic sector compared to the district and PGPs, a substantial business sector that can which provides a reasonable number of jobs, few higher order social and institutional activities, a large population. Should be located in traditional rural areas composed of villages with a small economic sector comprised of local businesses and should demonstrates a natural potential to growth if growth is encouraged positively (Limpopo Province Office of the Premier, 2007:113).

Second Order Settlements (Population Concentration Points) have a small or no economic base, a number of social and institutional activities large population.

- b) Third Order Settlements should have development capacity based on population growth and service function, with a small or no economic base, approximately 5000 people and should not form part of any settlement cluster.
- c) Fourth Order Settlements (Village Service Areas) are predominantly traditional rural areas with a few settlements that are reliant on each other and are linked together through specific social infrastructure such as a clinic or secondary school. The settlements should be equally dependent on the facilities and normally have a population of less than 1000 people in each village.
- d) Fifth Order Settlements (Remaining Small Settlements) are largely residential rural villages comprised of less than 1000 people without an economic base and have a potential of being unsustainable from a socio-economically standpoint (Limpopo Province Office of the Premier, 2007:114-115).

The municipal SDF identifies the desired spatial form of the municipality, including development corridors, activity spines, and economic nodes where public and private funds are invested. Therefore, the location of the shopping centres nodes should be aligned with the municipal SDF which should conform to the provincial SDF and the NSDP. In the case of developments in the Limpopo Province, the above discussed Limpopo SDFs apply. In this way the centres will be able to deliver the economic function as well as play a significant role in redressing the spatial fragmentation in the province and eventually the in country. The fragmented spatial pattern referred to above started during the past era of separate development and had a huge impact on the spatial distribution of shopping centres in the former republic as discussed in Chapter 6.

In the past, retailers and customers were separated by race and the land rights, provision of infrastructure, facilities, services and shopping centres were inadequate in townships and rural areas while many were located in cities, towns and suburbs in the previously white areas (Terblanche, 1998:27). Nonetheless, the centres can be used as one of the tools of creating integrated development. The centres can also provide a retail service which is able to create jobs for the low income earners in the retail and related sectors. Furthermore, they are able to attract the informal sector mostly in the form of vendors. These vendors can be utilised by the municipalities to create jobs. Moreover, these municipalities can enhance their economic base by assisting the traders to formalise their businesses. Which can be done by assisting the traders to access formal facilities and structures for their businesses.

Currently, the neo-liberal philosophy in South Africa has politicised the planning process by diverting the focus of plan implementation through non statutory and broad directional planning methods. Creating the idea or mindset that the success of planning firmly relies on strong political guidance for sound policy formulation and execution (Todes, 2012:162). Most of the shopping centres are driven by political motives and the private sector financial investment intentions with less municipal policy guidance. For example, some of the locations of these centres are not guided by the municipal SDF. Figure 7-3 in this chapter provides an indication of how the above defined settlements are placed throughout the Limpopo Province, including the corridors that connect them together.

7.5.4. Public participation

In simple terms, public participation is the participation of residents in programs, activities and matters that have an impact on their lives. According to Thwala (2006:754) “participation is a process through which stakeholders influence and share control over development initiatives, and the decisions and resources which affect them”. In South African context it is “an open and accountable process through which individuals and groups within selected communities can exchange views and influence decision-making” (Public Service Commission, 2008:8). This process allows the citizens to contribute in the creation of shopping centre nodes that play a significant role in changing the current spatial form in the country.

The South African definition is linked to Section 195 (e) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act, No. 108 of 1996 principles which declare that the needs of the people “must be responded to, and the public must be encouraged to participate in policy making.” There are various forms of public participation such as, passive participation a top-down announcement by authorities, participation in information dissemination, participation by consultation, participation for material reward, interactive participation, and Self-mobilisation (Public Service Commission, 2008:10). From the above it is clear that there are various forms of public participation in South Africa and platform available for citizens to present their views that should be included in development planning and policy making processes. The process is vital and compulsory in local, provincial and national government processes including the policies and laws formulation.

It is also compulsory in the land development and use processes. Municipalities ensure that the desires of the community are understood and play a critical role in creating relationships and improving their image by improving communication between them (municipalities) and the community including the citizens’ access to local government. The public is urged to participate in the many different public meetings and other consultation initiated by all levels of government to present their needs and request support from the different government departments. The contribution of public participation in the spatial planning processes including the SDF is important because it decentralises decision making to the local or the lowest level of governance where it is effective. The fact that the public is involved to present their needs and request ensures that the shopping centres will meet the economic and social needs of the communities.

Section 152 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act, No. 108 of 1996, places emphasis on involving communities in decision making. At municipal level, the MSA (Act 32 of 2000) stresses the need for fostering the culture of public participation. Section 195 (1) (e) of Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act, No. 108 of 1996, requires that the needs of people “must satisfied, and residents must be encouraged to participate in the policy making process”. Section 16 (1) (a) of the MSA (Act 32 of 2000), requires municipalities to promote a culture of municipal governance that balances formal representative government that have a structure of participatory governance and must promote and establish a suitable environment for the local community to participate in the matters concerning the municipality which encompass the preparation, implementation and review of the IDP.

It also contributes to developing the ability or skills of the local community so that they are able to participate in municipality matters. Section 19(3) of the Municipal Structures Act (32 of 2000) mandates municipalities to create means of consulting the community and community organizations in about matters pertaining to municipalities executing their functions and applying or utilising their powers. Section 54(j) of the SPLUMA (Act 16 of 2013) requires that public participation should take place in the preparation, adoption and amendment of the Land Use Scheme and in carrying out any functions that are guided by this Act. According to Theron (2009:132) policy guidelines only provide an environment in which public

participation should take place. Genuine and empowering public participation is possible only if it is a procedure created from within the community.

Public participation should be considered from a decision making processes perspective in that the implementation of developmental plans and projects, the monitoring and evaluation of these programs and participation and the sharing of the benefits. This should be done with regard to disadvantaged or marginalised groups in accordance with the conditions and capacities of a municipality (Davids, 2005:19). Proper engagement with the public through public participation guarantees justice in decision making ensuring that the community has a voice and influence in collective decision making. Within the public participation process the views of the public influence decision making which might not be the case with other processes such as consultation. In the processes of establishing shopping centre nodes in South Africa, public participation in the manner in which the relevant legislations discussed above prescribes it, is carried out to make sure that the communities have a sense of ownership.

The other form of public participation in this case is the market survey that is carried out to establish the needs of the community, their buying power, type of customers and trade area threshold that informs the developers, owners and investors if the centre will be successful or not. It is crucial that this process should be carried out before the establishment of the nodes to enhance their success rate. All in all, public participation in South Africa is rooted in the Constitution particularly in sections 17, 59, 70, 72, 115 and 118 of the constitution. Therefore, for shopping centre developments to be accepted by the community and be successful it is imperative that public participation should take place. If the public participation process is properly implemented the nodes will promote decentralisation of services, jobs and infrastructure.

7.6. Contributing factors to the success of shopping centres

The factors in this section are related to factors discussed in section 5.6. In this section the factors are viewed from a South African perspective. They contribute to the success of shopping centres and are analysed in a South African context to highlight how they are applied in South Africa. These factors also contribute to the success of the shopping centre nodes because the nodes become successful. The factors are analysed as follows:

7.6.1. Location, accessibility and visibility

Large areas of the urban environment throughout the world is comprised of retail land uses (Prinsloo, 2010:1). Due to demand and favourable market conditions, shopping centre development in South Africa has grown rapidly in recent years. Therefore, it is important to cautiously consider the location of these centres. Based on spatial interaction models, the decision of customers to visit or choose a shop is influenced by the accessibility and location of the store. The best site or location is therefore the one with

the most pedestrian traffic (Berman & Evans, 2010:287). Most of the centres in South Africa are located close to main streets, major roads or corridors as growth nodes.

7.6.2. Investment

The retail centre development sector is very specialised with particular types of developers and funders that have focused on providing a certain type of centre for a specific segment of the market. The LED can be described as planned or intentional intervention by the local government to encourage sustainable development in the economy within a local region (Leigh & Blakely, 2013:56). It is a tool used to help create a viable local economy; improve service delivery; enable job creation for local residents (Meyer, 2014:624); address spatial inequalities (Section 2(7)(a) SPLUMA (Act 16 of 2013); and one of the main instruments of ensuring local and regional development (Nel & Rogerson, 2015:3).

Since 1994, The LED document is legally required, as it forms part of the IDP. Local government and planning laws together with the South African Constitution Act No. 108 of 1996, mandate all local government structures to formulate their own LEDs. The LED is regarded as the liberal economic element of the new local developmentalism which plays a major role in developing local economies, creating jobs and alleviating poverty through inclusive locally founded and owned economic activities. It is an instrument used by the municipalities to enable the local government, the private sector, non-profit organisations and the community to work together in enhancing the competitiveness, job creation and sustainability, economic growth, and the inclusiveness of the local economy (Oranje & Voges, 2014:33). The functions of the municipality in line with this instrument include job creation through infrastructure development, policy formulation, co-ordination, integration, support for SMME, creating a conducive economic environment, projects facilitation, preparation of strategies and providing information (McIlrath, 2004:91).

Through the LED strategy the municipalities should play a key role in guiding shopping centre developments to ensure that the centres have a positive impact on local businesses and the economy. Which is achieved by applying the principles, procedures, and development strategies in the municipal IDP and SDF. Shopping centres should be regarded as propulsive firms located in growth nodes endorsed by the Limpopo Spatial Development Framework (LSDF), the district, and local municipalities' IDPs and SDFs. Municipalities should use the existence of the shopping centre to encourage further local development and investment in the settlements and the centres while not approving more shopping centre projects than can be maintained within their boundaries (McGaffin & Gavera, 2011:54; Tshangana, 2011:116).

The shopping centres have an economic obligation to recoup the money that is invested in the development, make profit and develop local enterprises including those that are indirectly related to the shopping centre. It is imperative to balance these two opposing goals in order to achieve effective and sustainable land use development and balanced urban growth within a municipal area (Adatia, 2010:8,

34). The municipalities should use their finances to stimulate and sustain economic development and to provide basic needs to the residents (Masuku, et al., 2016:1, 9). They should have a clear and proper tax management system that allows local manufacturers and businesses to generate realistic profit (Kramer, 2011:63).

The municipalities should also concentrate on enterprises that add value to the local economy through skills development structures that will improve employment rate. Shopping centres are developed in the form of construction projects, with municipalities as land and assets owner, as well as stakeholders in communal land in charge of LED projects' implementation which include shopping centre developments. The shopping centre nodes are aimed at improving the social, economic, and environmental conditions of the local areas. They create a proper environment for both public and private investment into the area and contribute to the economic and social improvement of the locals that result in better quality of life for all.

The nodes promote the sustainability and resilience of the locality as well as influence the residential, retail, office, light industrial markets and public facilities. Initially, these nodes relied on public sector investment, but since the 1990s, private sector investment in these nodes grew. Financial institutions, mutual banks, Insurance companies, pension funds and the private sector are major investors in the development of shopping centres. Currently, rural and township shopping centres are funded by private investments though in some cases there is public private partnership (Adatia, 2010: 34; McGaffin & Gavera, 2011:17).

The private sector is making a great contribution by investing in these nodes. For example, the SA Corporate Real Estate Fund established a range of convenience shopping centres that dominate their catchment areas and high-growth small regional shopping centres. In 2013 their contribution included East Rand Galleria and Umlazi Mega City in which they had 75% interest with an investment cost of R411 million and R354 million respectively. Half of the portfolio is comprised of small regional shopping centres (SA Corporate Real Estate, 2014:7).

Shopping centres are built by developers and are sold to the institutional investment community as emphasised above. The main business of a shopping centre is first and foremost an investment. Most of these institutions are life insurance companies and big pension funds. In South Africa as well, shopping centres are also owned by pension, life insurance companies, property groups and private developers (Muller, 2008:24). Shopping centres are one of the largest investments in the townships and rural settlements and should be guided by the LED. Table 7- 10 provides examples of institutions and the investment value in each shopping centre.

Table 7-10: Institutions that invested in shopping centres and investment value

Source:(Growthpoint Properties, 2018:74; SA Corporate Real Estate, 2018:42; Safari Investment, 2018:20; Vukile property Fund, 2018:22)

Company	Examples	Amount
Vukile Property Fund	Daveyton, Moruleng Mall, Gugulethu Square	R13.2bn
Safari Investments	Thabong, Atlyn, Mnandi	R2.4 billion
Growthpoint Properties	Brooklyn Mall, Kolonnade, Waterfall Mall	R45 billion
SA Corporate Real Estate	East Point, Musgrave, Stellenbosch Square	R7.1 billion

The Public Investment Corporation also invests in shopping centres (Muller, 2008:24). The focus of the owners, developers and the investors are to secure a future income in return for their capital investment because retail property investments offer long-term security and reliable income flow to investors.

7.6.3. Population distribution and density

Population size, distribution and density play a significant role in the location of a shopping centre. The hierarchy of shopping centres consist of different ranks and layers of categories or types based on the population size and available disposable income. Table 7- 11 below outlines the categories and types of shopping centres that depend on the size of population and Living Standard Measurement (LSM).

Table 7-11: Number of households that support the different sizes of shopping centres

Source: (Prinsloo, 2016:54)

No. of households	Socio-economic Segments	Trade Area Ave Radius (km)	Median Travel time (mins)	Main tenants
LSM 1-5, <10000; LSM 6-9, <5000; LSM 10-10+ <2000 (Small free standing and Convenience centre)	All LSM groups	1–1.5	<3	small grocery store few convenience stores
LSM 1-5, (20000-47000); LSM 6-9, (9000-20 000); LSM 10-10+ (3600-8500) (Neighbourhood centre)	All LSM 4-10	2	4-9	Supermarket convenience; some small specialised stores
LSM 1-5, (44000-102 000) LSM 6-9, (15 000-46000); LSM 10-10+ (5 000-12000) Community centre)	All LSM 4-10	3	6-14	large supermarket(s) convenience; small national clothing restaurants & takeaways; services

LSM 1-5, (90 000-209 000); LSM 6-9, (40 000-90 000); LSM 10-10+, (16 000-37 000) (Small regional/ Large community centre)	All LSM 4-10	3-5	10-16	large supermarket(s), 1 or 2 large clothing anchors; strong national tenant; comparison goods component; boutiques; restaurants; entertainment; services
LSM 1-5, (180 000-420 000); LSM 6-9, (80 000-185 000); LSM 10-10+, (33 000-76 000) (Regional centre)	All LSM 4-10	5-8	14-20	large supermarkets; (even 2) or hyper; 3 or more large clothing stores; small clothing stores and boutiques; international brands; entertainment; restaurants; services; convenience
LSM 6-9, (106000-50 000); LSM 10 10+, (44 000-101000) (Super regional centre)	Above average LSM 5-10	10+	24-30	Same as regional but more emphasis on entertainment and variety

The shopping centres are defined locally by the LSM market segmentation model. The LSM dissects the population into ten LSM groups according to their living standards using criteria such as degree of urbanisation and ownership of cars and other major appliances. Level 10 denotes the highest living standard and 1 the lowest standard. There is a drive to increase spending at the upper end of the scale, especially for status purchases like expensive cars, brand goods and finest wines. There is also constant migration from the lower end of the scale to the higher end, with immediate knock-on benefits for retailers. The population distribution and density that is considered to foster the success of shopping centres in South Africa is guided by the table above together with the population density and distribution of the growth points discussed in section 7.5.3. Any shopping centre development is expected to correspond to the population numbers and concentration needed if both of the above mentioned guidelines are consulted.

In addition to the LSM discussed above, the location of shopping centres should be within the primary trading area of the centre which is an area that incorporates fifty to sixty percent of the shopping centre's customers. In shopping centres that are located in rural areas and townships, the primary trading areas is composed of the poor who receive government grants, the low and middle income earners. The majority of the customers who buy from the centres receive an income of R 3 500.00 to R 60 000.00 per month

(Burger et al, 2014:4; Standard Bank, 2016:2; Statistics South Africa, 2017:19). The above income bracket include the middle income earners who are identified as constituting the highest number of customers in the shopping centres (McGaffin et al, 2015:26).

7.6.4. Land use management

LUM manages land development processes, defines land usage, and regulates activities that take place on different portions of land (Ovens *et al.*, 2007:14). It is part of the land management process which is comprised of “the manner in which land is accessed and acquired; the process by which individuals, households and communities continue to have and to hold rights to land; the way in which land use is regulated; the systems by which land is developed; and how land is traded” (Rubin, 2008:3). LUM in South Africa, like planning, is derived from British town planning, which started as a response to the impact of the industrial revolution on urban areas with an aim of improving health and safety of urban dwellers that was threatened by overcrowding, pollution as well as inadequate services and facilities. In South Africa, LUM mainly focuses on regulations designed to control the impacts and consequences of negative activities and now of late it also focuses on encouraging desirable development.

Since 1994, policy makers, planners, and relevant stakeholders in South Africa are struggling with land management matters with the main purpose of amending the negative spatial, social, economic and political effects of the apartheid city (Zack & Silverman, 2007:6). The current preferred land use in nodes is mixed land use with related patterns of land-use diversity and land-use mix. Mixed land use in this instance refers to compatible land uses located in close proximity to one another with mixed-use developments consisting of residential, commercial, industrial (employment) and leisure uses brought together where it is possible (Du Plessis, 2015:221).

Land use has an important function in infrastructure decision making such as the establishment of key road infrastructures, for example, Trans-Limpopo, Phalaborwa and Maputo corridors. These corridors increase land and property value, and the density of development. According to Mkhize (2018:12) spatial integration is highly influenced by land use patterns and urban form, which also have an impact on the sustainability of transport systems. Transportation and land use are interlinked. Therefore, all types of land uses that constitute a settlements are linked by transportation systems, and both the land uses and the transportation systems shape the form or structure of the settlement (towns, cities and villages).

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 status quo is that municipal land use strategies and practices support private business interests more than redistribution. Municipalities sell their land which they regard as not situated in prime areas for the highest price rather than using it for the benefit of the poor (Hendler, 2015:8).

7.6.5. Availability of infrastructure

Infrastructure supports development if it is properly managed and financed to deliver the services and goods consumers require timeously at locations where they are required at affordable prices; in this way infrastructure is a means to an end. Infrastructure should be provided first in order to guide development and support development endeavours. For example, roads can be constructed with the aim of improving accessibility between industries, manufacturers, retail areas and consumers, thus, assisting local businesses to improve their profits and also facilitate economic developments in an area. Absence of roads, poor roads and maintenance, and poor infrastructure hinder progress (Rogerson, 2013:133).

Transport costs, labour costs and agglomeration factors affect the location of industries and other economic activities. Transport infrastructure needs to be prioritised in order to minimise costs. Section 31 of the National Land Transport Act (Act 5 of 2009) stipulates that land transport planning must be integrated with the land development and land use planning processes. As such, the corridors established in South Africa are aimed at minimising transport costs and fostering development. In South Africa, former homelands should be provided an opportunity to develop economically as a way of addressing the current situation. Corridors are used as instruments of stimulating development in these areas and incorporating them into the whole country in terms of job creation and distribution of economic activities.

The purpose for transport infrastructure should be to provide an integrated, well-managed, viable and sustainable transport infrastructure that meets national and regional goals in order to create a coherent springboard for promoting accessible and safe, reliable, effective movement of people, goods and services. The creation of nodes in South Africa as transport infrastructure in the context of dealing with the current spatial fragmentation should not only focus on fulfilling the basic needs of the population. It should also aim at accomplishing social and spatial integration in order to create stability in fragmented areas. Corridor development should be implemented with an aim of linking the divided municipalities, districts and provinces within the country as well as linking the country with the neighbouring countries.

A corridor is closely connected to a region's transportation system and should improve the transportation systems of that region. Proper development planning along corridors and sub-corridors should link growth and accessibility. For example, Mall of the North in Polokwane, Limpopo along the Trans-Limpopo Corridor plays an integrative role in that the R81 links Polokwane with Giyani to the east; the N1 links the area with Pretoria to the South and Musina to the north. It also links with the R71 to Tzaneen to the south east. Public transport used in the routes include buses and minibus taxis. Corridors include economic growth, job creation, development of human resources, development through urban construction, investment or recreation of investment opportunities, linking shopping centres and related activities, and improving roads extensions and connectivity.

For example, the Trans-Limpopo, Phalaborwa and Maputo corridors link areas of urban economic activities such as the Gauteng Province and Polokwane in Limpopo to the rest of the province and the neighbouring countries. Mall of the North alone, which is along the Trans-Limpopo Corridor, has created 2000 jobs. In 2015, the mall attracted 5 million customers and had a turnover R 2 billion encouraging growth in the area (de Ridder, 2016:cover). Corridors are sustained by promoting public transport along them as they help to integrate people with areas that are outside of their workplaces and address community issues such as shopping centres that meet the retail needs of the communities. The centres are accommodated in a major linear route and along the corridors.

A transport system is essential in terms of economic development and is one of the key instruments of providing infrastructure in municipalities. Johannesburg's Rea Vaya system, Areyeng in Tshwane, Cape Town's MyCiTi system, Go! Durban, Gautrain, electronic ticketing and improved security in the public transport system are the new transport systems and infrastructure that have a positive impact in reducing urban fragmentation in South Africa. An example of the link created by the Areyeng Bus rapid transit in Tshwane is outlined in Figure 7- 5 below. It provides a complete framework for a broad planning approach that describes evolving transport matters at provincial, regional, district, and local government levels. The major aim of accepting this type of planning is to ensure that appropriate, safe and linked transport infrastructure, and diverse transport modes are provided (Department Of Transport, 2011:12; National Planning Commission, 2012:34, 47, 183).

7.6.6. Public transport

In the South African context, land transport refers to the, "movement of persons and goods on or across land by means of any conveyance and through the use of any infrastructure and facilities in connection therewith" (National Land Transport Act, 2009 (Act No. 5 of 2009). Transport, more especially land transport, organises and links various sizes and patterns of settlements and within an individual settlement, town, city, region and country. Land based transport systems influence the land use patterns of a city and the entire region. Public transport is a suitable mode of transport in the low income settlements while people who reside in affluent suburbs prefer private transportation. Road-based transport is vital to economic growth of developing human settlements as it links the settlements together and increases their cooperation.

Most township and rural area residents have no private transport and depend on public transport to travel for work, economic activity centres such as shopping centres, hospitals, schools and to other essential areas. Minibus taxis are the most widely used form of public transport. Buses and trains are used in other townships and rural areas but are mostly used in urban areas (McGaffin *et al.*, 2015:31). The transport mode used to travel to a centre is influenced by the type of centre, its geographic location, and the customer profile as well as car ownership in the locality of the centres. Most residents in townships and rural areas do not own cars thus they dependent on customers who use taxis as public transport and

pedestrians. In metropolitan areas like Johannesburg customers use cars, taxis, buses or the Gautrain to commute to the centres. The type of transport used regularly are private cars (43%) and taxis (43%) and the other modes like train (8%), walking (5%) as well as cycling, bus and others (1%) are not heavily used (Prinsloo *et al.*, 2014:14).

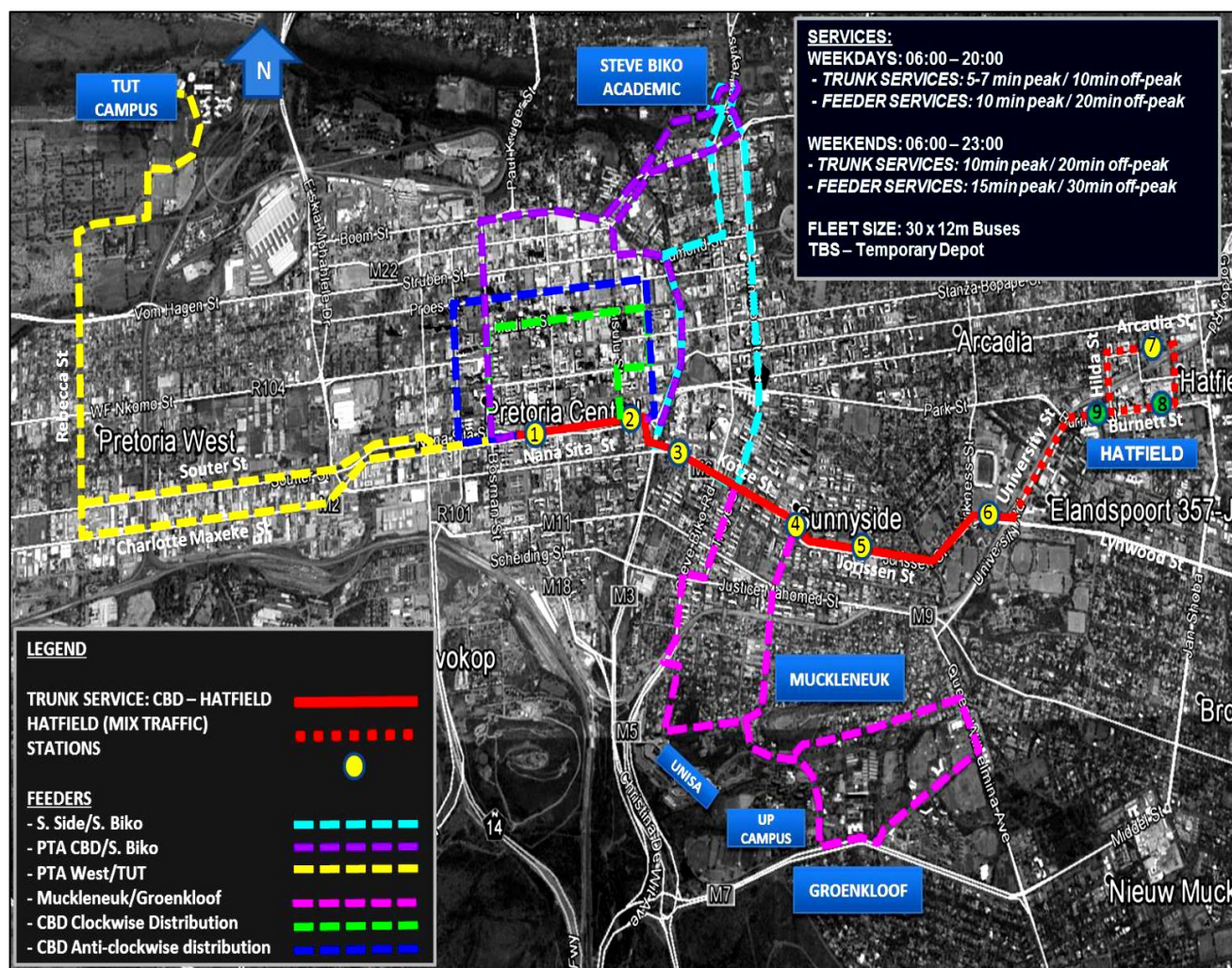


Figure 7-5: Areyeng Bus Rapid Transit in Tswane CBD routes

Source: City of Tswane (2014:7)

The Gautrain (80 km long) mass rapid transit railway system links Johannesburg, Pretoria and OR Tambo International Airport transporting more than 60 000 people per day (1,2 million people per year) has 19 new stations planned by May 2017, which will increase the number of people using trains as a mode of transport to work and shopping centres as most of the stations are closer to shopping centres like the Sandton station which is near the Sandton City shopping area (Department of Government Communication and Information System, 2017:17). For the centres to be successful, public transport should be made readily available and in the case of South African taxis, buses and trains should be integrated to provide a fully integrated transport system for customers. In rural areas, buses and taxis are the only modes used and almost all the shopping centres provide space for taxi ranks within their premises. The centres should consider taxis, busses, trains, bicycles and walking as means of transport to the

centres and contribute to the development of a transport system that integrates all these types of transport or some of them where possible.

Shopping centres already support the taxis as public transport for their customers by building taxi ranks in their properties. In metropolitan areas, the incorporation of Bus Rapid Transit and train systems like the Gautrain can improve the success of the centres depending on the unique situation of each centre. The current system of public transport is fragmented with different means of transport being the responsibility of different institutions and there are no integrated provisions for commuters. Transport subsidies are biased towards the buses and trains and exclude the minibus taxis, used by most low income commuters.

The inefficient transport systems are caused by the spatial form which settlements that are far apart and municipal areas that covers large areas have. In these spatial forms, people have to travel long distances to go to economic activity centres for work and to access other services. The fragmented settlements, cities and municipalities that exist currently are composed of areas where the residents of each type of settlement who have divergent/opposite lifestyle vigour in different spaces rarely meet with residents from the other types because of lack of adequate transportation networks and public transport modes that promote integration of the settlement types (Dupont & Houssay-Holzschuch, 2005:298).

7.6.7. Tenant mix

Tenant mix is a valuable factor in the success of a shopping centre. Their success is reliant on the success of the retail and entertainment outlets within the centres, while all the shops inside the centre succeed because of the number of customers who frequently visit and buy goods as well as use the services in these stores (Kyriazis & Cloete, 2018:153). Therefore, the centres should attract a tenant mix that will attract customers who purchase goods and in the end that makes the centres financially viable. A properly developed shopping centre should have a suitable balanced of various tenant mix selected to meet the desires and needs of residents and consumers. According to McGaffin and Gavera (2011:19) what can be successful in one area does not automatically work in other areas; the size, tenant mix and products offered must be specifically for that location. It is also not possible to generalise about what works best in shopping centres located in townships and rural areas.

In South Africa, a mix of anchor tenants, which are generally grocery stores, with the other tenants attract the much needed patrons into the shopping centre. If suitable anchor tenants are enlisted, the other minor shops are assured that a specific type of customers will surely visit the centre. Therefore, the tenants are assured of a definite quantity of foot count, which motivates them to locate to the centre. Non-retail services like entertainment companies, drycleaners, barber shops, Internet shops, travel agents and e-toll service points guarantee a complete scheme of tenant mix that contribute separately to the shopping centre's foot count. Securing appropriate tenant mix is not only important in attracting foot fall to the centre but also to the tenants, shopping centre managers, and owners too because in an ideal situation, complementary

shops should sustain each other, fulfil the customers' needs and increase revenues (Kyriazis & Cloete, 2018:153).

7.6.8. Sustainability

The country's definition of sustainable development is motivated by the Brundtland Commission and is entrenched in the country's Constitution, more especially Section 24 (b) (ii) of the Constitution (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, 2008:14; Church, 2012:517). According to NEMA (Act No. 107 of 1998) "Sustainable development means the integration of social, economic and environmental factors into planning, implementation and decision-making so as to ensure that development serves present and future generations." Sustainability in the South African context implies,

"the continuous and mutually compatible integration of these systems over time while sustainable development means making sure that these systems remain mutually compatible as the key development challenges are met through specific actions and interventions to eradicate poverty and severe inequalities" (Department of Environmental Affairs, 2011:1).

The general purpose of planning is to attain sustainable development because the conditions under which settlements exist affects the quality of life of the resident and the environment. Any massive development that take place has either a negative or positive impact on the environment. In response to the sustainable development agenda, South Africa has adopted the National Framework for Sustainable Development (NFSD) in 2008. The purpose of this framework is to pronounce the national vision for sustainable development in South Africa and specify strategic tools of adjusting development route of the country in a more sustainable way (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, 2008:7). South Africa follows the nested model of sustainability in which sustainability is approached using a system approach in which,

"the economic system, the socio-political system and the ecosystem are embedded within each other, and then integrated through the governance system that holds all the other systems together in a legitimate regulatory framework" (Department of Environmental Affairs, 2011:1).

7.6.8.1. Social sustainability

The policies and laws before the democratic period in South Africa, placed less emphasis on environmental and disaster management, including sustainability. The situation changed when the development system was revised as a result of the democratisation process. Environmental sustainability requires a balance between the quality of built environment and open space together with consumption needs and renewable and non-renewable resources. This balance must be created in the current planning practice in South Africa. Economic development aimed at the disadvantaged in both urban and rural areas should be integrated within the spatial planning process (Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs, 2016:10).

Commercial, residential, educational, information and industrial land uses should be integrated in order to provide easy access to a variety of urban resources. Infrastructure and facilities such as shopping centres should be provided in the previously disadvantaged area and in disadvantaged communities such as low income settlements at the periphery of cities to reduce disparities. Sustainable development approach in South Africa also recognise that the sustainability of urban and rural areas is intimately linked and should be considered in this way in urban and regional planning practice in this country (Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs, 2016:11,13).

In South Africa, the local government firmly encourages economic and social development, whilst also acting as a catalyst of the two processes to ensure sustainable development. From this perspective, sustainable development can be achieved by balancing socio-economic development through institutional development. Therefore, the development of shopping centres should be within the parameters of this approach. In business or commercial developments, sustainability can be incorporated into all aspect and stages of design, paying attention to waste reduction and decreasing the utilization of natural resources. The current large number of shopping centre developments in the country require that sustainable or sustainability features should be incorporated in the design, construction and interior fittings phase of every new development and renovation project. Sustainability should be implemented from the planning stage to the implementation stage of the development, as well as in the post-implementation which is the renovation phase of the centres (Mdlolo, 2014:7).

In addition, one of the objectives of IDPs is to ensure that there is integrated sustainable development within municipalities, therefore, the implementation of shopping centres should be within the context and principles of integrated sustainable development within the area. IDPs and LEDs should balance between meeting the social needs of the residents and promoting economic growth. The resources including physical resources must be used while taking into consideration the needs of future generations which is consistent with the sustainable development principles. The above discussed process should enable the creation of innovative ideas that will improve the sustainability of shopping centres economically, socially or environmentally while integrating the centres with local production and service activities (Adatia, 2010:39; Mopani District Municipality, 2018:16, 46, 78, 81).

Municipal strategies and projects must, therefore, conform to sustainable development processes and principles that promote a balance between economic and developmental needs of the population with sound ecological and cultural management of the entire environment. Shopping centres should be able to promote economic development through trade of economic goods, meet social needs of the population by improving their lives through direct, and indirect job creation while catering for their cultural needs (Mopani District Municipality, 2018:78, 81, 293).

A shopping centre is not only a place to buy goods but also to socialise whereby cultural transformation and preservation takes place. New, modern social and cultural trades are transmitted to the community. There are cultural and entertainment activities taking place in shopping centres and in this way the centres are able to meet their social obligations of providing a sense of community through affording the community with a pleasant, safe, convenient place where people shop and socialise (Adatia, 2010:18). In the development process the centre has to balance social value and profitability whereby the municipality must direct development in a manner in which it profits disadvantaged communities and the general public while improving the environmental quality of the area. At the same time, the main concern of the developer of guaranteed financial viability of the centre should be met.

7.6.8.2 Economic sustainability

The National Framework for Sustainable Development became the National Strategy for Sustainable Development (NSSD) in 2011 and was implemented in order to realise the nation's vision for sustainable development. The National Strategy for Sustainable Development recommends five strategic interventions and means of executing sustainability principles in the country as illustrated in Figure 7- 6. The fourth strategy involves building sustainable communities which is linked to South Africa's green economy strategy, which is comprised of eight key pillars, namely; green buildings and built environment; sustainable transport and infrastructure; clean energy and energy efficiency; resource conservation and management; sustainable waste management; water management; sustainable consumption and production; and agriculture food production and forestry (Department of Government Communication and Information System, 2016:179).

Growthpoint Properties (2017:14) argues that, a green building should combine design, construction and operation practices that diminish or eradicate harmful effects of developments on the environment and the population. They should not waste resource and should be ecologically accountable. Buildings that conform to the description above enable the country to develop the economy with less damage to the environment which results in the country meeting their sustainability goals. By using sustainable natural resources, a shopping centre is able to accomplish the responsibly of taking into consideration the environmental aspects while undertaking economic and social development activities. Municipalities should focus development in a direction that will enhance the environmental quality of the centre and the surrounding areas. Systems such as sewer systems, refuse removal and disposal, adequate transportation routes, building standards and regulations, other environmental regulatory frameworks, etc. should be in place to make sure that the centre delivers social and economic benefits to the community while ensuring that there is minimal damage to the environment (Adatia, 2010:18,35,39).

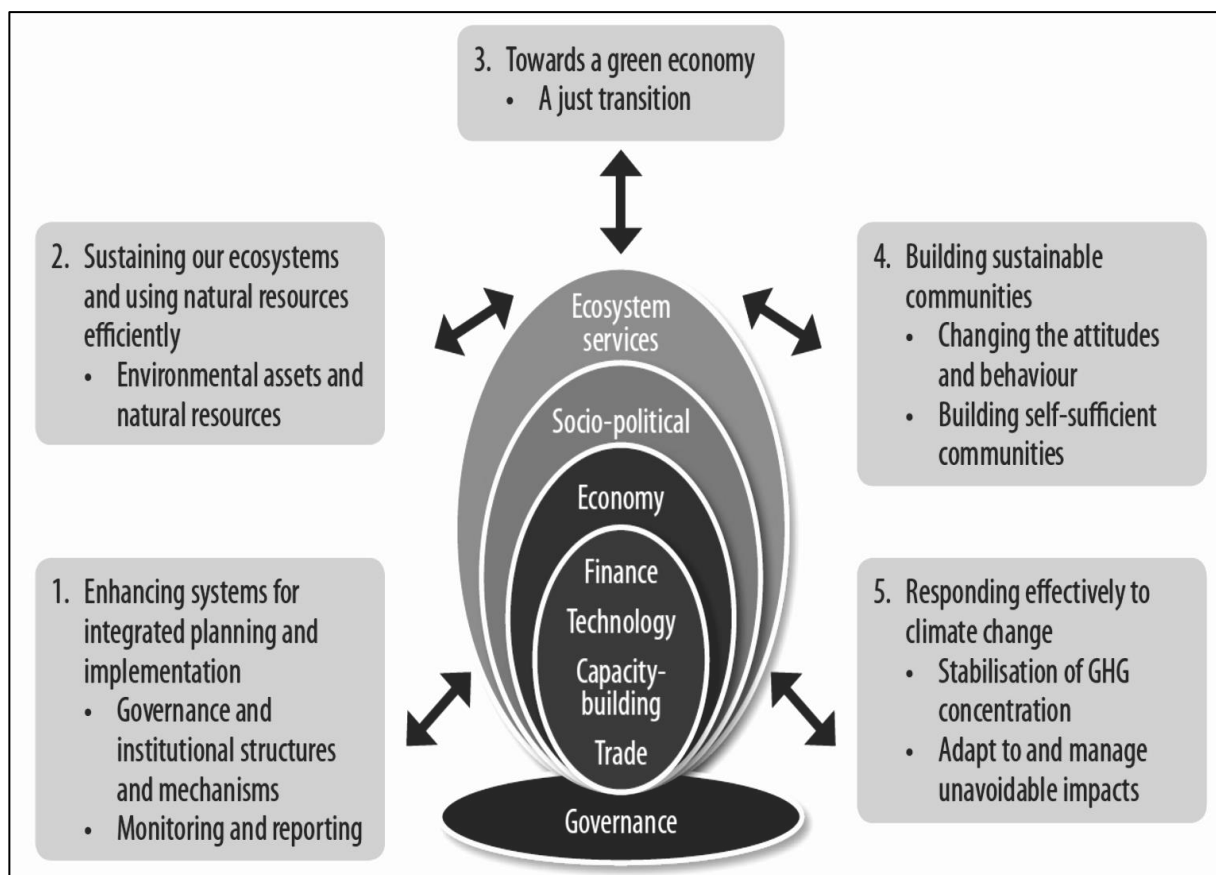


Figure 7-6: Sustainable development priorities and means of implementation

Source: DEA (2016:23)

Sustainability choices such as green shops that offers “low-impact building materials; low-flush toilets; energy efficient lighting and heating/cooling solutions; solar installations; etc.” (Limpopo Province, 2016:21) should be made available and endorsed in all shopping centres and incentives for residents to invest in these sustainability options should be developed. Buying fresh produce from the local manufacturers and offering products handmade to suit the needs of the locals with good quality and competitive pricing will reduce waste and carbon emissions from trucks that have to transport items from all over the country and we result in environmental, economic and social sustainability (Demacon, 2010:73).

7.6.8.3 Environmental sustainability

The SPLUMA (Act 16 of 2013) supports and gives direction about the alignment of spatial planning, land use and development. The act provides adequate conditions for integrated planning, implementation and development. In order to serve the local population equitably, the long-term sustainability of development choices and current needs must be balanced (Banister, 1997:437). The EIA process prescribed by SPLUMA and related laws ensure that the impact of land development (of which shopping centre development forms part of) on the environment is minimised. These tools are designed to guarantee that undesirable impact on natural and human environment is minimised.

Shopping centres in South Africa are reducing the country's carbon footprint by minimising waste produced in their premises through recycling. SA Corporate firms alone has minimised its footprint by contributing meaningfully to recycling in twelve the shopping centres that are in their property portfolio. In 2016 alone, 448 tons, which is 9 550 m³ of waste, was recycled at these centres, which was a great improvement of 60% of the volume of waste recycled in the previous year. In 2015, the recycled waste was 6 451 m³ (50%) in volume, weighing 398 032 kg (24%) (SA Corporate Real Estate, 2015:39).

At Stellenbosch Square, the company changed the 50w down lighters to 7w LED throughout the centre saving 73 kilowatt and 8.25 kilovoltamperé (kVa). Saving a total of R40 037 per annum; a building management system was installed which saved 90 000 kilowatt hours per annum totalling to R64 800 saving per annum; and installed power factor equipment which saved 6% of kilovoltamperé per annum (SA Corporate Real Estate, 2018: 56). Municipalities should encourage developers to choose buildings and land that integrate environmental impact management, efficient and flexible layout, reduced material waste, and implement recycling initiatives, and efficient management practices (Growthpoint Properties, 2017:17). The other aspect that has a great effect on the impact of transport on the environment and sustainability in this regard is the improved integration between land use planning and transport planning. The integration is through promoting densification and sustainable development, by means of establishing local economic clusters that require minimum movement.

7.7. Resilience

According to Schoeman (2017:4) resilience theory is “partial and needs to be informed by theories from the social sciences”. The social science theories provide deep knowledge and understanding about the manner in which people operate. One of the strategies in the National Development Plan (2030) is to “achieve a creative balance between spatial equity, economic competitiveness and environmental sustainability” hence there must be “interventions to ensure environmental sustainability and resilience to future shocks.” (National Planning Commission, 2012:260). The resilience component in South Africa, like in many countries, is intertwined with sustainable development. As Cilliers & Cilliers (2016:18) state, resilience though closely related to sustainability, does not have the same meaning as sustainability therefore it should not be used as a synonym for sustainability. The resilience concept, rather than the sustainable concept, is adequately applicable at precinct and project level. The sustainability concept is more suited to “broader spatial system contexts that (from a strategic management perspective) are associated with the vision and mission at larger spatial scales (national and regional entities)” (Schoeman, 2017:4).

On the other hand, “sustainability is a goal for development; resilience is a way of thinking and acting that may lead towards achieving sustainability” (Cilliers & Cilliers, 2016:18). Resilience is vital in achieving sustainability. A system is deemed sustainable when it has attained an extraordinary level of resilience. Sustainability in this regard “is a normative concept and refers to resource use and management that

benefits current and future generations... a value driven process that reflects societal preferences with urban resilience as its objective” (Cilliers & Cilliers, 2016:19). The resilience of the centres should be a component in achieving the sustainability of the broader community.

7.7.1. Social resilience

The resilience of settlements, more especially urban settlements in South Africa, is threatened by the common problem of spatial inequalities, fragmentation, urban sprawl, growing inequalities amongst rich and poor, overburden basic infrastructure and services, overcrowding on road infrastructures, social exclusion, increased crime, and pressure on ecosystem services (Biermann 2011:14). Shopping centres should not only take into consideration sustainable development principles they should also incorporate the resilience component.

The concept of resilience is a multidisciplinary concept which amongst other things is concerned with the “magnitude of disturbance that can be absorbed before the system changes its structure by changing the variables and processes that control behaviour, [therefore], the ability of an urban system and all its constituent socio-ecological and socio-technical networks across temporal and spatial scales to maintain or rapidly return to desired functions in the face of a disturbance, to adapt to change, and to quickly transform systems that limit current or future adaptive capacity.” (Schoeman, 2017:3). The above definition can be regarded as the view accepted in urban and regional planning contexts and shopping centre developments should conform to the pattern of resilience as outlined above.

7.7.2. Economic resilience

A resilient economy is an economy that is able to recover quickly or withstand the impact of negative shocks (Harrison *et al.*, 2014:76). South African space economy incorporates both formal and informal economic activities, inadequate transportation systems, housing for the poor, and differing standard in quality of life. These issues put the fragile social cohesion that exists currently in jeopardy and also increases the number of violent service delivery unrests and xenophobic attacks. To create a resilient local economy that will provide almost adequate job opportunities, the economic activities should be expanded into townships and rural areas. This will provide the population with social and economic opportunities. The spatial pattern of economic growth and development should be transformed through state intervention and public private partnerships (van Niekerk, 2013:3). Spatial planning can encourage sustainability, liveability and inclusion by managing growth and transformation urban and rural areas which will build economic resilience (Todes, 2011:128).

The creation of shopping centres and major infrastructure in townships and previously disadvantaged areas will address urban sprawl, spatial inequalities, inequalities between rich and poor as well as fragmentation, that threaten the economic, social and environmental resilience of settlements in South Africa (Biermann, 2011:14). In the past black South Africans were prevented from participation fully in the

economy of the country and the direct and indirect jobs created by the centres will encourage economic growth in the previously disadvantaged areas and foster resilience in these areas. Investment that comes with the creation and development of these centres will increase the economic and tax base of the disadvantaged municipalities (Financial and Fiscal Commission, 2013:4). Combining the centres with non-market services (government departments, education and health facilities for example) as the major economic contributors will enhance the resilience of the economies of the disadvantaged municipalities and settlements; because cities with significant nonmarket service sectors are resilient than those that are rely on consumers (Harrison et al., 2014:78).

7.7.3. Environmental resilience

Shopping centres in South Africa play a positive role in ensuring that the natural environment is not damaged by having retailers who advocate for renewable energy use and the reduction in the exploitation of natural resources. Shopping centres incorporate green infrastructure, which should be planned to form a central part of the neighbourhood and the entire municipality's infrastructure and green network. The green infrastructure in shopping centres, if it is properly incorporated, makes the centres more resilient and adaptive to change and disturbance. For example, in case of heavy rain the infrastructure absorbs the water from the paved surface and increase the centre's ability to cope with natural disasters such as floods. It is vital to have the green infrastructure in the centres more especially in areas like Durban where a report on climate change by the municipality advised that over time, Durban would experience increased temperature and infrequent but heavy rainfall, which will cause high tide levels flooding (van Niekerk, 2013:4).

Shopping centres plant street trees, plants as mentioned before, have walls, interior and landscaping, recycling, reuse of energy, water, sewerage and waste, incorporate green infrastructure and building principles that makes them resilient and further improves the resilience of communities in which they are located. Comaro Crossing Oakdene, Johannesburg is an example of a shopping centre that installed solar panels on their roofs to reduce the use of electricity from the city electricity supply. Table 7-12 details solar energy initiatives related to shopping centres (SA Corporate Real Estate, 2017:54).

Umlazi City in Umlazi Kwazulu-Natal is an example of a centre that uses green space and plants in their properties (SA Corporate Real Estate, 2009:86). Other examples include Woolworths' reduction of their "relative electricity usage by 40% across stores and by 31% in corporate buildings, against targets of 40% and 35% respectively" (Cooke et al., 2016:22). Pick 'n Pay has voluntarily submitted their 2015 report to the Carbon Disclosure Project which includes information on energy efficiency, carbon emissions and their future targets (Cooke *et al.*, 2016:24). According to Wilhelm-Rechmann and Cowling (2013:2) land-use planning procedures in South Africa are means of fostering conservation and influencing land transformation which conforms to Sections 7(b) and 7(d) of the SPLUMA that relate to principles of spatial sustainability and spatial resilience.

Table 7-12: Gauteng Province shopping centres with solar energy

Source (Growthpoint, 2007:66-68; SA Corporate Real Estate, 2016:54)

Name	Size of power	Name	Size of power
Montana Crossing, Montana	900kW	Willow way, Pretoria	400kW
Eastrand Mall, Boksburg	924kWp	Vaal Mall, Vanderbijlpark,	1.132.8MWp
Denlyn Mall, Mamelodi	510kWp	Greenstone, Greenstone Hill	630.54kWp
Clear Waters Mall, Struben Valley, Rodepoort	2.9MW	The Zone Rosebank, Johannesburg	862 599 kWh
Northgate Mall , Randburg	1.056 kWp	Randridge Mall Randpark Ridge, Johannesburg	1.2MWh
Mall of Africa, Waterfall	4.755MWp	Epsom Downs Bryanston, Johannesburg	271kWp
Shopping Centre Centurion, Pretoria	2,925MWp	Cambridge Foods Tembisa, East Rand	420.8kWp
Faerie Glen, Faerie Glen, Pretoria	3.6kWp	Brooklyn Mall, Pretoria	1.2MWp.
Pinnacle Africa, Midrand	108,16kWp	Midway Mews, Midrand	200kW
Comaro Crossing, Johannesburg	380 kW	Kolonnade Mall, Pretoria	290.4 kWp

Shopping centres as land uses should be designed to incorporate these principles and the use of EIA and traffic impact studies enable them to be well structured to avoid overcrowding, congestion and pollution. These factors result in negative impacts on the environment while reducing the resilience of the centres. The above mentioned measures are undertaken before the development of the centres enabling them to absorb disturbances before the community's system changes its structure. The variables and processes that govern the performance of the shopping centres and eventually the community will be altered to avoid the negative impacts strengthening the resilience and ultimately the sustainability of the entire community.

Consequently, resilience of these centres should be a result of a combination of the unique retail characteristics, access to public transportation, pedestrian traffic, parking facilities, architecture and safe streets as well as policies, plans, laws, and regulations. Incorporating resilience values in policies, plans, laws and regulations requires greater caution because of how resilience theories are interpreted from natural science into the humanities where concepts of justice and fairness are embraced and thus resilience cannot be applied in the same way in all situations; and it should be considered that there are also challenges and limits in executing this concept (Cilliers & Cilliers, 2016:20).

Green infrastructure help improve water quality through improved storm water managing; provide recreational facilities around swamps; storm water drainage systems near where it falls to create a water feature or natural topographies to create an attractive land scape for the centres while contributing to the preservation of nature. The infrastructure also forms a main component of sustainable communities because it helps communities protect the environment and human health at the same time offering social and economic benefits. The Quarry, Hilton, KwaZulu Natal adjacent to a water feature (dam) and Boulders Mall in Midrand, Gauteng incorporates the rocks found in the area in their main entrance design, provide examples of such practice where the shopping centres contribute to their environmental resilience and that of the immediate environment around them (SA Corporate Real Estate, 2009:24; May 2016:1).

7.8. Functions of shopping centres

7.8.1. Social function

Shopping centres perform a social function that impact positively on the communities in which they operate. They perform a socio-economic development and transformation function by encouraging and supporting various social and community events. Some of the shopping centres that are known to perform this function are summarised in Table 7-13.

Table 7-13: Shopping centres socio-economic contribution

Source: (SA Corporate Real Estate, 2017:52)

Shopping centre	Events
Bluff Towers, Hayfields Mall, Value Centre East Rand Galleria, Pinecrest	CANSA Shavathon – raised R42 261
Umlazi Mega City	Food and gift drive for orphanages; Pop-up stores for local fashion designers; As part of a first African Bridal Fair SA Corporate it gave five emerging local designers the chance to showcase their designs.
Davenport Square	Rotary Christmas Tree project to raise funds for Durban's Children's Home; CANSA Shavathon; Battle of the Schools initiative raising Funds to supporting various charities such as Donate to a child, the SPCA, the aged and recycling and CANSA Shavathon.
Musgrave Centre	Rooftop Night Market for entrepreneurs Sunflower Fund Flower Show auction; CANSA Shavathon.
Stellenbosch Square	Financial sponsorship of Die Burger Mountain Bike Challenge which attracted over 4 000 respondents.
Midway Mews	Supported and participated in SANBS blood drive, collected 36 pints of blood in two days.

7.8.2. Economic function

The economic function of shopping centres at local level is to operationalise the economic success factors of the centres including those that contribute to the economic sustainability and resilience of these centres. In the locality they bring in the largest investment in the area as analysed in section 5.2, 5.6.2 and 5.8. The centres accommodate national and local shops and the local portion empowers local entrepreneurs. The centres reshape the landscape of the neighbourhood, attract infrastructure, bring retail activity closer to the community, create town centres and or shopping centre nodes and retain income within the locality elaborated in section 5.4 and 7.4. All of the above attest to the fact that shopping centres create and enhance development in their local area.

Table 7- 14 provides an example of an investment made in Atteridgeville and Mamelodi townships outside Pretoria. From the table, it is evident that the company has made a large investment in the townships and boosted economic development in this area. It also managed to attract a reasonable number (10.75%) of local entrepreneurs as tenants in the centres. The investment portfolio created clusters of shops comprised of 309 shops occupying 115 733m². The investor made R1,367,948,436 billion initial investment in the area to transform the locality in order to bridge the economic and social inequalities between the townships and the metropolitan areas (Safari Investments RSA, 2017:20-21).

Table 7-14: Investment in shopping centres in Atteridgeville and Mamelodi area

Source: (Safari Investments RSA, 2017:20-21)

Name of centre	GLA	Shops	Investment	Local tenants
Mnandi Atteridgeville	10 550m ²	31	R103 500 000	14%
Atlyn Atteridgeville	41 200m ²	95	R484 400 000	10%
Denlyn Mamelodi	43 450m ²	109	R693 800 000	9%
Nkomo Village Atteridgeville	20 533m ²	70	R86 248 436	10%

The development of the centres contributes in empowering the previously disadvantaged communities. For instance, in 2010 Sizovuna Trust representing the local community in Umlazi acquired 25% of Umlazi Mega City from the developers through the National Empowerment Fund. In 2016, when Umlazi Mega City was valued at R641.3 million, Sizovuna was paid R19.2 million in distributions towards their 25% co-ownership. The money should create wealth, development, job opportunities for the community, and economic growth in the township (SA Corporate Real Estate, 2016:51). The SMMEs entrepreneurs' stores for local fashion designers in Umlazi, the rooftop night market for entrepreneurs in Musgrave Centre, informal trading in Pan Africa Alexandra and Jabulani Mall Soweto, Johannesburg are examples of economic activities in shopping centres that empower the previously disadvantaged in shopping centres by creating job opportunities.

7.8.3. Environmental function

Shopping centres in South Africa play a major role in preserving the natural resources and protecting the environment. Shopping centres are generally associated with creating heat islands and flooding, but locally shopping centres are using their rooftops including parking rooftops to harness the solar energy for their own consumption. In Table 7- 12 examples of shopping centres in Gauteng Province with solar panels on their roofs which contribute to their electricity consumption, are offered. The centres also contribute in conserving water and benefiting the local community. In Durban Umlazi Mega City a borehole was installed to supplement Umlazi Municipality's water supply. The borehole supplies uninterrupted filtered, potable water to the ablutions and the centre's heating, ventilation, and air conditioning system reducing water utilisation from the municipality by 30% to 40% at the centre (SA Corporate Real Estate, 2016:54).

From a social point of view, they function as means of creating mixed, sustainable neighbourhoods, while allowing centres to continue with their economic activities (McGaffin & Gavera, 2011:32). From an economic perspective, the centres function as constructive means for extending commercial growth, services and in the end, employment growth (Prinsloo, 2014:2). They act as focal points for further development by attracting additional development into their locality (Adata, 2011:7). McGaffin and Gavera (2011:32) agree by stating that the centres are able to attract people and function as impetus for nodal developments, local job creation, skills transfer and procurement. They enable municipalities to redress the social economic and spatial inequalities created by the apartheid government.

In the South African context, there is added emphasis on shopping centres improving the lives of people in townships and rural areas. Local government as the main role player should use shopping centres to encourage other local development and investment in the nodal area located in the previously disadvantaged areas. In the next chapter policies and legislation of the current government relevant in the establishment of growth centres and shopping centres will be discussed while emphasising how they give direction to the establishment of these centres, which has a positive impact on social and economic development in both townships and rural areas.

7.9. Conclusion

South African Shopping centres' classification, definition, construction process, role players, and functions are in line with international standards with a slight area specific aspect (that is, while taking into consideration local conditions). Until recently (from the year 2000 onwards), shopping centre nodes continued to be constructed in the urban areas like during the apartheid period. This resulted in the persistent, imbalanced spatial patterns and inequalities in the country. However, there is a reasonable number of centres constructed in disadvantaged areas such as next to informal settlements, in townships and rural settlements. The current laws, particularly, the SPLUMA facilitate spatial integration in response

to the past injustices and the spatial fragmentation. The laws encourages the creation of more shopping centre nodes in township and former homeland areas.

The NSDP provides guidelines on spatial planning and infrastructure development, but it does not include the real spatial development plans per se. If the development of shopping centres nodes in South Africa are guided by the current laws and policies, allow for public participation, and follow the relevant principles and guidelines when making decisions about their location; the centres can succeed in confronting the country's current fragmented spatial form. The great impact of the nodes is more evident in metropolitan areas like in Gauteng Province. Shopping centres like Mall of the North which are along corridors are evidence of the Limpopo Province government's effort to deal with inequalities and spatial imbalance in the province. The continued success of Sandton City indicates that there is a good environment for shopping centre nodes to prosper in South Africa.

From the discussion about sustainability, resilience and functions of the centres, there is enough evidence that the centres have the capability to create employment, distribute wealth, increase income and tax base for municipalities and regions. The centres improved efficiency, accessibility, safety and security, as well as social interaction in the shopping milieus. They contributed to the modernisation of undeveloped or less developed areas, reduce land use conflict by encouraging mixed use developments. In the next chapter, two case studies are presented to investigate the prospects of shopping centres in creating town centres that can transform the previously disadvantaged areas, reduce if not eradicating the inequalities and spatial imbalances in the Limpopo Province and the entire country.

CHAPTER 8: THE SPATIAL IMPACT OF SHOPPING CENTRES ON SOUTH AFRICAN GROWTH NODES

8.1. Introduction

The establishment of shopping centre nodes discussed thus far are in urbanised areas where there is suburbanisation. In Chapter 7, laws and policies that guide the establishment of shopping centre nodes in South Africa were analysed and the status quo about the establishment and development of nodes in the country were analysed. In this chapter, two case studies are used to trace the aspects that make the initiation of shopping centre nodes prosper and mitigate the spatial fragmentation that exist in South Africa. This chapter scrutinises the case studies' geographical, social (demographic), economic and urban development in their local areas. The chapter starts with an introductory section which introduces the subject under discussion and outlines the structure of the entire chapter. The second section provides background information on the subject of the chapter. The third section presents the impact of Elim Mall on the spatial form of the local area and the entire municipality. The fourth section analysis Namakgale Crossing and how its growth changes the spatial form of Namakgale and BLM. The fifth section concludes the chapter and also provides a link between the current chapter and the next chapter. Figure 8.1 summarises the content of this chapter as an overview of the entire chapter. The case study analysis commences in the next section.

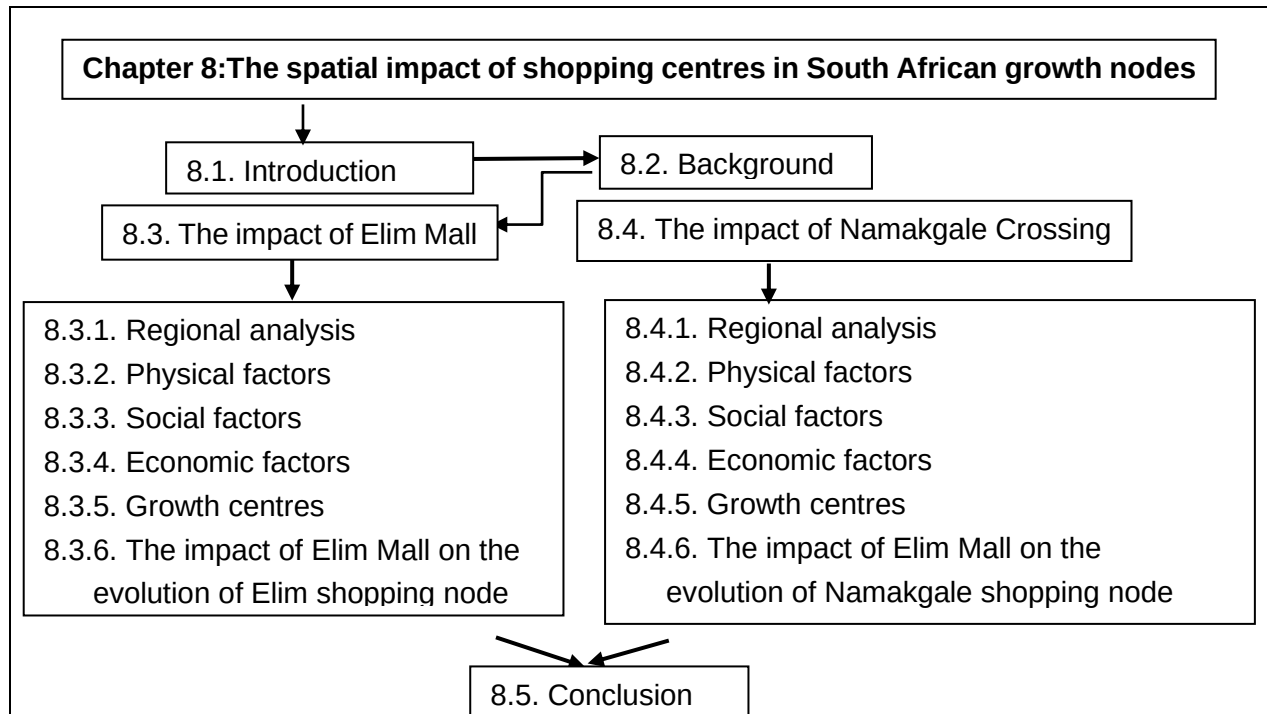


Figure 8-1: Chapter 8 structure

Source: Own construction (2018)

8.2. Background

Most shopping centre nodes are established in industrialised settings where their land use is included as large commercial land use zones (precincts). Elim Mall and Namakgale Crossing are in a province that is classified as rural. A province where there is no metropolitan area the size of Tshwane or Johannesburg. The economic structure of the Limpopo Province has been greatly affected by the apartheid spatial structure and the greater population does not have access to economic opportunities. It has four former homeland areas within its borders and 71% of the population live in these areas compared to 27% for the entire country. The province has one secondary city, out of a total of 30 municipalities, which accommodates 9% of the province's population. Under the previous government, African areas did not include natural resources and were largely deprived of infrastructure and government services. The above situation indicates that the Limpopo Province is deeply fragmented and has a high rate of inequalities.

The transformation of local areas more especially the former homeland areas and townships is of great importance in order to address the apartheid spatial form in the province and eventually the rest of the country. According to Williams (1996:55) the growth of a local economy is reliant on attracting external income and averting the leakage of capital and income out of the area. Therefore, both Elim Mall and Namakgale Crossing in their respective nodes should contribute in encouraging growth of the local economy by attracting income and retaining such income in the local area, the region and the province. As discussed in section 5.4, both small and large shopping centres have the capacity to influence and transform the form or structure of an areas. Elim Mall a small regional/ large community centre and Namakgale Crossing neighbourhood centre, both have the capacity to change the form and structure of their localities and contribute in transforming the current undesirable spatial structure in South Africa.

Namakgale shopping centres is used to support the fact that shopping centres strategically located in the previously disadvantaged areas, whether small or large play a significant role in transforming the spatial structure of South Africa. It also support Elim Mall in that it demonstrate that the centre is not the only centre that can transform the structure and form created by the previous government policies. However, if the shopping centre nodes are carefully positioned in the former homeland and townships, they can play a great role in changing the current situation. This does not mean that shopping centre nodes alone play a crucial role, it demonstrate that if they are used together with other strategies, under suitable conditions and environment the current spatial fragmentation challenge can be solved.

The spatial structure of most areas is subdivided into specialised industrial sites, service industry sites, transport nodes and links. The changes that occurred in Elim include the structure of the area around the junction, buildings and their different functions, densities and the general layout of the area. The geographical setting, social influence, land values, income and demographic patterns are important in analysing the transformation of an area. For example, people in the high income group occupy large erven,

as the area grows and transform the land use patterns changes and narrow roads are enlarged. Some of the above mentioned aspects will be analysed as a prelude to the transformation of both Elim and Namakgale.

8.3. The Impact of Elim Mall on the evolution of Elim shopping node

Spatial structure in any settlement expresses the form and interaction between human beings as well as human beings and their environment. Before examining the evolution of Elim Mall and Namakgale Crossing even and their impact on the spatial transformation of their localities, it is essential to analyse the factors that have a direct impact on their land use, development and spatial transformation. The factors include the geographic setting (regional context), topography (physical factors), social influence (social factors), income and demography (economic factors) and land values (in this case the node context provide the aspect of land value).

8.3.1. Regional analysis

Elim Mall is located in MLM which shares boundaries with Musina, Thulamela, Collins Chabane, Greater Giyani, Greater Letaba, Molemole and Blouberg municipalities as illustrated in Figure 8-2. The municipality is located at coordinates 23° 00' 00'' S 29° 45' 00'' E and has an area of 8310,586 km² (Makhado Municipality, 2018:4). After the rearrangement in 2015, the province remained with the five district municipalities while the local municipalities were restructured into twenty-two municipalities. The new demarcations of municipalities resulting in the formation of the new Collins Chabane municipality on the 3rd of August 2016. MLM remained part of the VDM together with, Musina, Thulamela and the new Collins Chabane municipalities (MLM, 2018:4).

The new municipality includes Malamulela, Tshikonelo, Mulenzhe, Piet boy and Khakhan'wa which were within the boundaries of Thulamela Local Municipality. Vuwani, Masia, Mashau, Vyeboom, Tshino, Davhana, Tshimbupfe, Ramukhuba, Masakona, settlements which were in MLM (South African Police Services, 2016:3). MLM remained part of VDM together with, Musina, Thulamela and the new Collins Chabane municipalities (MLM, 2018:4). The rearrangement of the municipalities had an impact on the study area because some of the areas adjacent to Elim Mall are now included in the new local municipality. The restructuring has reduced the population, physical size of the shopping centre's neighbourhood and it impacts on the provision of services, in that the municipality has to channel development to areas that are designated as growth points in the LSDF.

These areas as highlighted in section 7.5.3 and are categorised based on population concentration and the natural potential of an area to grow. In the revised LSDF(2016) Elim is a MGP which means it is now at a lower hierarchy than before, which implies that the level of services and development channelled to the area has decreased because of its downgraded status. Nonetheless the development and spatial

transformation of Elim have a direct impact on the municipal area and in the neighbouring municipalities. It plays a significant role in changing the fragmented spatial structure that prevails in the district.

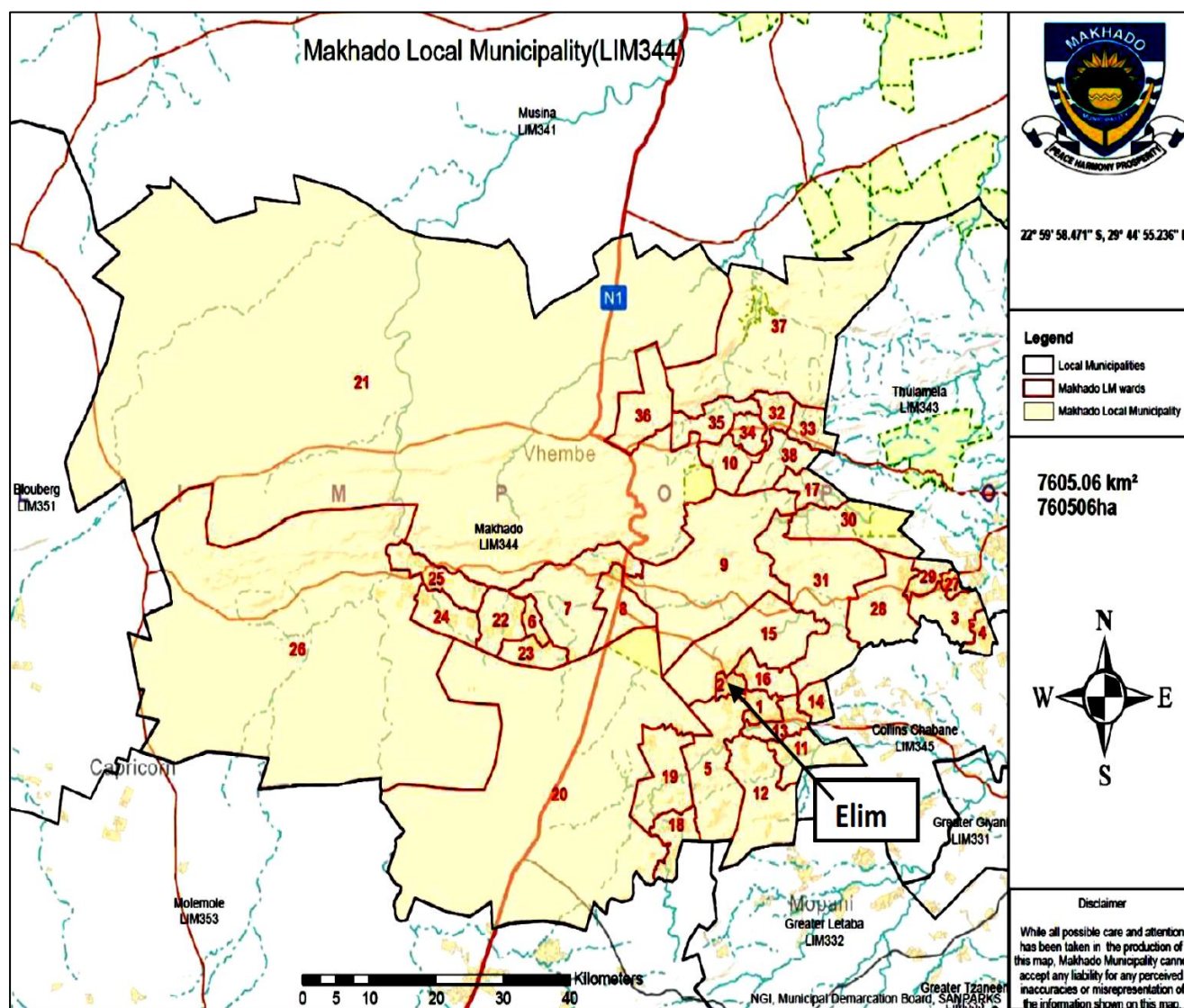


Figure 8-2: The location of Elim

Source: Statistics South Africa (2018:33)

8.3.2. Physical factors

8.3.2.1. Land cover and topography

The topography in Elim is mainly mountainous, however, most settlements are on gentle slopes with some of the urban areas on steep slopes (Makhado Municipality, 2018:46). Elim is adjacent to Waterval which can be seen in Figure 8-3. The natural context which include the topography as well as soil quality and suitability, influence how a settlement is established, from its foundation and affect how it evolves. The topography in Elim shows that the area is located on a terrain that does not impede physical growth and connectivity in the area.

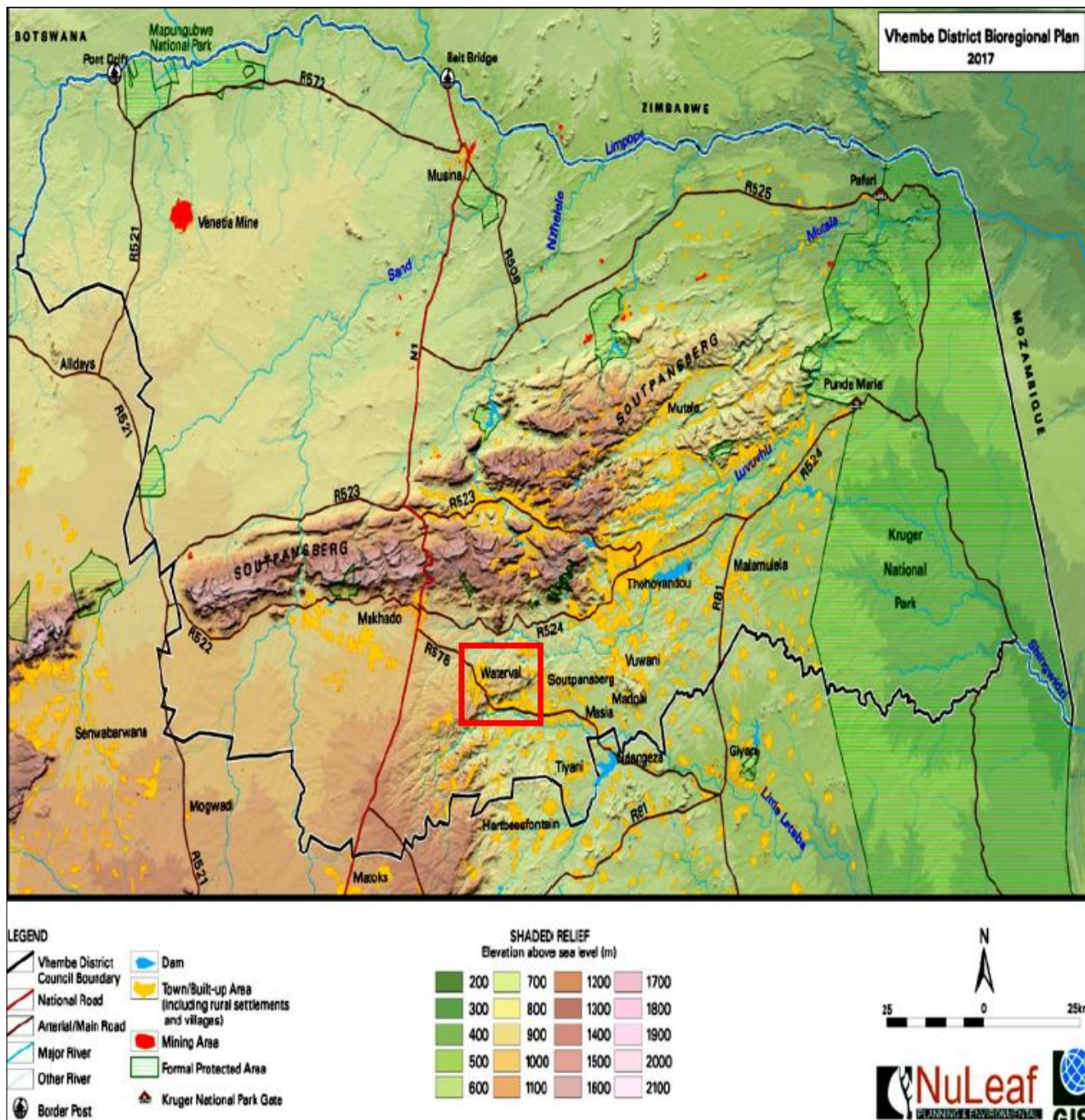


Figure 8-3: Road networks within the MLM

Source: Makhado Municipality (2018:25)

8.3.2.2. Road network and traffic flow

Transportation is one of the main infrastructure that is needed for the community to operate. Currently, the National Land Transport Act (Act 5 of 2009) has the most serious influence on the development of corridors and nodes as it is the overarching Act that deals with land transport and its infrastructure as already mention in section 7.6.6. Therefore, the planning of corridors and nodes must be integrated with land development and use planning processes. The road network that connect Elim with other settlements in the municipal area is outlined in Figure 8- 3. The area is well connected to the villages, towns and other areas outside of the municipal area as depicted in the same figure.

The demand for transport and movement patterns are shaped by the nature and location of human settlements and their correlation with the main facilities and places that have economic potential. The road network in the municipality is based on The National Land Transport Act (Act No. 5 of 2009). Chapter 4 of the Act provides principles for transport planning. It reveals how the principles should be integrated in land-use and development planning. It also outline integrated transport plans that provide a structure to planning activities of municipalities prescribed by Part B Schedule 4 of the Constitution. The Limpopo Province has four main provincial development corridors, namely, the Phalaborwa Corridor, the Dilokong Corridor, the East-West Corridor and the Trans-Limpopo Corridor.

Elim is close to the Trans-Limpopo corridor which proceeds along N1 from Polokwane in the south pass through Louis Trichardt and Musina into Zimbabwe in the north (Makhado Municipality, 2018:27). It is also close to the Makhado- Musina Special Economic Zone. The industry will also improve job creation within the municipality. The impact of this industry is not traced in this document due to the fact this study is focused on the retail industry which can be used in areas where there are less natural resources that can support the creation of the primary sector industries. Therefore, discussions on the Makhado- Musina Special Economic Zone are recommended in section 11.4.

The corridors are linked to the growth pole theory of economic development and the corridors in both MLM and BLM promote the application of this theory in both areas. The corridors are used to spatially arrange and regulate the growth of settlements and distribution of resources to commercial areas. The Trans-Limpopo Corridor contributes to organising the spatial structure of MLM connecting Elim Mall with the entire country and neighbouring countries such as Zimbabwe. The corridors are also used to spatially organise and structure economic and social space where the local people reside. They function as instruments of stimulating and attaining global trade competitiveness, economic development, and impartial regional development as discussed in 7.6.5 and 7.6.6.

From 2003, 83% of commuters in the Limpopo Province use taxis while 37% use buses and there are no significant changes since then. These modes of transport are used to access the shopping centres. There is no rail passenger transport in most settlements in the province. Passenger transport usage is growing in provinces such as Gauteng and KwaZulu Natal. Growth in all provinces is not as fast as anticipated by the NDP 2030 or Integrated Rapid Public Transport Networks. The main transport mode in Elim and surrounding areas is mainly road transport comprised of private buses subsidised by the government, government operated North link buses and taxis. All the routes as discussed above and outlined in Figure 8- 3 connect all the development nodes and growth points within the municipality and with other major development nodes outside of the municipality.

The interconnectedness allows ease of movement of both goods and people within and outside of the municipality allowing for economic development. These routes serve as major public transport corridors

within the local area and are in line with the discussion in 7.5.6 and 7.6.6 that deal with the availability of infrastructure and public transport correspondingly as factors that lead to the success of shopping centre nodes. Observation by the researcher revealed that between 9:00 am and 10:30 am 591 vehicles passed through the Elim road intersection (R578) and in the afternoon between 15:00 and 16:30, 933 vehicles passed through the same intersection.

Traffic count done during peak hours (6:00 to 9:00 and 16:00 to 18:00) along the N1/Elim (R578) intersection in December 2014 recorded 348 cars in the morning and 574 in the afternoon (Chakwizira *et al.*, 2014:814). The traffic count indicate that there is an increase in traffic volume along the R578. This is because of the increase in economic activity in the area close to the junction. Public transport in the form of mini-bus taxis and buses transport residents to work, schools and every location in the municipality including trips to towns, and shopping areas because most residents do not have private transport. The transport system also connects the residents with economic opportunities and serves an important role of integrating the informal economy into the formal economy.

Public transport affects all areas of development which means an integrated and inclusive approach in transportation issues is essential. There are formal and informal bus and taxi ranks and eleven formal taxi ranks including those in Louis Trichardt and Elim. Developers of shopping centres In Elim requires the assistance of the taxi industry and the centres provided land on which taxi ranks were constructed within the shopping centres. There is also other mode of transportation that is heavily used compared to the road network, namely, the railway line that connects the municipality with areas in Polokwane (the only city located the province) and Gauteng, the economic hub of South Africa.

The railway transport is mostly used to transport goods It also connects the municipality with neighbouring Zimbabwe. The municipality is also connected with other areas more especially Gauteng via the airport, which is mainly used by the military; it does not contribute in connecting the public with other areas and for economic activities. All these transport modes make the municipality and the economic activities in the municipal area more accessible, though there are still challenges in some areas. The connectivity of the shopping centre and the neighbourhood relies on the road network discussed in this subsection.

8.3.2.3. Availability of land for use in spatial transformation

Land is an essential resource on which the settlements, infrastructure, economic activities depend upon. Land within the municipality is owned through individual title hold and traditional communal tenure. A large portion of land is owned by the municipality for residential development and there are areas earmarked for urban development. There is lack of integrated human settlements development, however, the municipality has a LUM scheme which is in use within the urban area and a densification policy. Tribal land management differs from the normal modern land ownership and development procedures. The main form of land ownership within tribal/ communal land is the permission to occupy form of ownership. Delineation

and allocation of land by traditional authorities obstruct municipal service delivery (Makhado Municipality, 2018:69).

Land claims and restitution process constrain the development and growth of the urban centre, investment and the general development of land within the municipal area. 49.31% of the total land in MLM is held under private ownership. The land owned by government (374400.923 ha) 29.91%, parastatal (34977.659 ha) 2.79%, private owners (617106.097 ha) 49.31%, and unspecified (2577.179 ha) 1.00%. 898 land claims were settled and 124 are outstanding. The total land cover of the outstanding claim cannot be confirmed as the size of land of some of the claims is not recorded (Makhado Municipality, 2018:30). Land in Elim falls within tribal/ communal land ownership which has a potential of constraining the physical expansion of the commercial area at the junction of R578.

8.3.3. Social factors

This section provide the social characteristics of the consumers in Elim. It outlines the age distribution of MLM and Elim which serves as a major indicator for consumer demand, behaviour and preferences, especially the dominant age groups. The population size and income levels of the population should justify the size of the shopping centre (Marona & Wilk, 2016:52). Townships and most rural areas in the previous homelands including the Elim area have large populations and most people receive government grants. The large number of people who receive the grants together with a growing middle class residing in these localities indicates that the size of retail markets in these areas have grown over the years. Moreover, the populations residing in these localities are consumption oriented with most households spending large amounts of their income on food and beverages, clothing and footwear, home electronics and furniture.

The situation results in the retail sector being the dominant economic activity in these localities (McGaffin *et al*, 2015:26) and the Elim/ Waterval area is not an exception in this regard. The growing population density of Elim created an opportunity for the settlement to become self-sufficient shopping, transport and services centre rather than being a satellite area for Louise Trichardt town. In 2005, Trade & Investment Limpopo did a market research to identify areas where shopping centres can be constructed in rural areas in the Limpopo Province. Elim forms part of these areas in which small towns or CBDs, economically driven by shopping centres (trade sector), within growth points (centres) and population concentration areas were introduced (The Presidency, 2014:47; Alibar *et al.*, 2013:249).

MLM has a total population of 416 728 people and 116 371 households (Makhado Municipality, 2018:4). Approximately 37.1% of the population is unemployed and the municipality has a 72% dependency rate. To reduce both unemployment and the dependency rate, the municipality and the private sector should create employment. This will also help the area to enjoy healthy development (Statistics South Africa, 2012:65, 84). The construction of shopping centres in the locality is to a large extent a private sector initiative that create jobs to local people as well. Only 46% of the population is economically active and

54% is economically inactive which has an impact on service delivery because 46% of the population will not afford to pay for service provision (Makhado Municipality, 2018:7).

The number of households in MLM is 116 371 with an average household size of 3,6 people. From these households 37.7% of the population is between the age of 15 and 34 years. Detailed population composition is outlined in Table 8-1. Out of the outlined population, Elim has a population of 16,538 which is 4% of MLM total population. From Elim' population, 32% are children between 0-14 years, 62,9% is people of working age (15-64) and 5% is the elderly (65 years and above). The dominant population in both MLM and Elim is between the 0- 34 age groups, which means the dominant consumer group is young people. This indicates that the area has a youthful market which has well defined ambitious standards, like fashion and have a high level of brand consciousness. The area also has a dependency ratio 58,9% which is 13.1% lower than the municipality's ratio and the population density is at 1160 persons per km². 11,3% of those aged 20 years and above have no schooling and 38% have matric and higher education.

Table 8-1: MLM population by age group

Statistics South Africa (2016:88)

Age group	Population	Percentage
0– 14	141 373	33,9%
15–34	153 240	36,8%
35–49	60 376	14,5%
50–59	28 782	6,9%
60+	32 957	7,9%
Total	416 728	100%

The population in Elim has people who need or occupy semi-skilled jobs. The growth of a node is dependent on its population and its interaction with other areas and establishments outside of node. Therefore, the growth of Elim as a shopping centre node depends on the population in Table 8-1 and interlink with other areas and institutions as discussed in section 8.3.6. The node covers eight villages which is a wide catchment area for the node and allows for growth and is determined in line with the criteria in sections 7.3.2, 7.5.3, 7.6.3 and all the factors in 7.5 and 7.6.

8.3.4. Economic factors

The economic factors serve amongst other things to highlight the buying power of the customers of Elim Mall. The economy of Elim has challenges in terms of delivering enough job opportunities to meet the needs of the economically active population. The income of the population is based on the 2011 Census. Income categories of MLM and Elim outlined in Table 8- 2 revealed that the majority (68,44%) in the municipality earn between R4,801.00 and R76,4000. The income bracket indicate that the majority of the customers in MLM shopping centres fall within the above mentioned salary bracket. There are also income

remittances from other areas of the country to the area mostly from parents and family members who work outside of Elim and MLM.

Table 8-2: Income categories in Elim and MLM

Source: Statistics South Africa; Makhado Municipality (2018:100)

Elim		MLM	
Income	Percentage	Income	Percentage
No income	10,2%	None income	12,4%
R1 - R4,800	4,8%	R1 - R4,800	7,1%
R4,801 - R9,600	8,8%	R4,801 - R9,600	12,5%
R9,601 - R19,600	19,3%	R9,601 - R19,600	25,1%
R19,601 - R38,200	18,6%	R19,601 - R38,200	22,1%
R38,201 - R76,400	11,3%	R38,201 - R76,4000	8,7%
R76,401 - R153,800	10,7%	R76,401 - R153,800	5,3%
R153,801 - R307,600	10%	R153,801 - R307,600	4,1%
R307,601 - R614,400	1%	R307,601 - R614,400	2,1%
R614,001 - R1,228,800	0,5%	R614,001 - R1,228,800	0,4%
R1,228,801 - R2,457,600	0,2%	R1,228,801 - R2,457,600	0,1%
R2,457,601+	0,5%	R2,457,601+	0,1%

The sectors which contribute most to the economic development of the area is community services, finance sector and trade sector which contribute 33%, 26% and 15% correspondingly. Community service and the trade sectors are the major employers, employing 27.45% and 19.30% of the work force respectively. Followed by Agriculture (17.40%), the construction sector (8.34%) and finance (5.30%) (Makhado Municipality, 2018:98). The income distribution in Elim outlined in Table 8- 2 indicate that 69,9% of the population earns between R9,601 to R307,600 per year.

The income levels match the LSM groups needed to sustain a small regional/ large community centre, which is the size of Elim Mall. The threshold values and market support required to support a small regional/ large community centre are LSM 1 - 5 89 000 - 208 000, LSM 6 - 9 39 000 - 92 000, and LSM 10 - 10+ 16 000 - 37 000 households outlined in section 7.6.3, Table 7-11 (Prinsloo, 2016:18). The income of the local population determines the services and infrastructure that should be provided in the area. The population income outlined in Table 8- 2 above informed the outcome of the market research conducted by Twin City Developers around 2012 and 2013 before the construction of Elim Mall.

The research revealed that there is a need for specialised retail services for the residents of Elim residents and the shopping centre was constructed to provide such a service to the community (Makhado Municipality, 2013:32). The income level as highlighted above means the population in Elim under normal

circumstances is able to sustain both Hubiyeni and Elim Mall and stimulate further economic growth within the area. The shopping centres' customers are residents in Elim, Waterval and the other five nearby villages. The customer base is comprised of the poor who depends on government grants and remittance from family member who work outside MLM; the low and middle income earners; and a few high income earners as can be seen in Table 8-2.

8.3.5. Growth centres

The growth centres highlight the hierarchy of settlements within the MLM and reveal the level of Elim as a settlement within the hierarchy system. The establishment of growth centres in MLM is based on the provincial LSDF, IDP/SDF and LED of the municipality. The growth centres are outlined in the 2018/2019 municipality's IDP/SDF and LED spatial profile. They generally show natural growth potential if they are properly stimulated (Makhado Municipality, 2018:21-22). Elim Mall is located in an area that is designated as a DGP conforming to the criteria in section 7.6.3. In the LSDF (2016), Elim is a MGP, designated at a lower hierarchy than in the previous LSDF.

The IDP and SDF provide for enhancing the transport linkages to individual nodes or precincts, improving efficiency of the total transport system and creating a functional sustainable structure for future land use development. The criteria outlined in the IDP/SDF are the same criteria used in the LSDF (2007) (Limpopo Province Office of the Premier, 2007:116-117; Makhado Municipality, 2018:31-32). Elim shopping centre node is in line with the SDF of the municipality. It is strategically positioned to confront the spatial fragmentation that exist in the locality. The importance of the designated growth centres in this regard, is that the municipality provides infrastructure and services for the Elim area based on its hierarchy in the settlement hierarchy.

The other factor is that each growth centre type must have specific institutions, businesses, services and population size to be classified in a particular category. In this case, Elim area includes Elim District Hospital (400 beds), schools, Elim Nursing College, Home Affairs offices, police station, and magistrate offices which support the development of the area. The institutions also provide jobs for Elim Mall customers. In addition, the settlement has a natural potential to grow which is one of the criteria of designating a growth node.

8.3.6. The impact of Elim Mall on the node

According to the South African shopping centre classification in section 7.3.2, Elim Mall is classified as a small regional/ large community centre because of its size, location and number of shops in the centre. Elim Hospital, Hubiyeni Shopping Centre and Elim Mall are situated at the junction of R578 Makhado to Giyani road and D4 to N1 Bandelierkop to Levubu and Malamulele in the Elim community. The shopping centre has an impact on the evolutionary nature of the spatial elements of Elim.

8.3.6.1. Period before 2006

Pre 1994 the area did not have a formal commercial centre. Elim was established as a Swiss mission station in 1880s. The first influential structure to be located along the R578 is Elim hospital. Since then local farmers sold their produce along the R578 influenced by the presence of the Swiss Missionaries' activities and Elim hospital along the route. The Elim settlement is surrounded by 8 villages and an urban township of Waterval (declared township in 1980). Around 1990, the government upgraded the R578 and D4 which improved access to the hospital and encouraged traders and small businesses to located around the Elim junction.

The area was comprised of a small shopping centre consisting of BP filling station, Eskom pay point, butchery, dressmaker's shop, general dealer, Ellerines and a post office; small local shops buildings and semi-permanent structures; and approximately 800 stalls (mostly vegetables and fruits) (Aliber *et al*,2013:249) highlighted in Figure 8-4 below. The above discussion signifies the area's history, function and connection with adjoining areas. The structure of the area highlighted contributed to the interest and productivity of new developments in locality. Furthermore, it promoted the area's capability to adapt to further changes in future especially the roads.



Figure 8-4: Elim junction before 2006

Source: Own construction (2018); Ikwete Construction (2018:8)

8.3.6.2. Period between 2007 - 2012

As a consequence of the changing demand and supply side factors, Hubiyeni Shopping centre was opened opposite the Elim Hospital in 2007. From 2007 to 2013 Hubiyeni was the only formal shopping centre in the node. The centre is comprised of 47 shops, ablutions, 50 permanent stalls, a 22 taxis capacity rank, and a parking area (Synergy Income Fund Limited and Capital Assessment Management, 2014:1). The shops in the centre contributed to the growth of the node. As a national standard, the shops in the centre should employ 80% locals and 20% from the national workforce (Prinsloo, 2016:11).

Thirty six of the 47 shops in the centre are occupied by local tenants mostly entrepreneurs who own franchises. All the 50 vendor stalls are operated by hawkers from the neighbourhood. The centre created 500 permanent jobs and 635 construction related jobs during the construction phase. The Elim/Shirley community has a 10% shareholding in the shopping centre's development. These jobs allowed skills to be transferred to the local community employees and construction workers (Kerr Group, 2008:1). The shops found in the centre are listed in Table 8-3 and the front view of the centre depicted in Figure 8- 5. The leasing plan is attached as Annexure B.

Table 8-3: List of shops in Hubiyeni shopping centre

Source: Own creation (2019)

	Shop name		Shop name
18	2Loan CC	1	Furnmart
3	ABSA ATM	19	Link Pharmacy (Rex Dlamini)
26	Ackermans	16	King Pie
34	AutoPax-City to City Services	33	Dunns
9	Azazi Fair Price	18	Pep store
53 and 54	Capitec Bank	25	Rage
33	CB Stores	45	Russels
37	Charmers Cosmetics	18	Pep store
21	Chesanyama	29	Jet
46	Dr Mkansi	4	Sleebok tombstones
43	KFC	34	Sedglo Hair Salon
35	First National Bank	9& 10	Spar Tops
32	Fish & Chip Co	38	Standard Bank
27	Friendly General	39 &40	Webbers
2	Pep Cell stores	19	Dr Maake General Practitioner
5	Midas	48	Mutandanyi Optometrist, Dr
30	MTN	15	Super Spar
42	Post Office	41	Vodacom Express

23	Dr Baloyi	47	Nkwinika Dental Therapist
51	African bank	7&8	HHS Boutique
28	Barcelo	29	CB Stores
45	Barnetts	22	Barcelo
23	Dr Baloyi	12	Food store



Figure 8-5: Hubveni Shopping Centre

Source: Synergy Income Fund Limited and Capital Assessment Management (2014:1)

The presence of the centre change the spatial form of the area as depicted in Figure 8- 6 below. Before 2007 few small commercial facilities existed marked in blue in Figure 8-6 together with the vendors. The erf marked with yellow remained vacant (used by vendors), and a small shopping centre existed in the adjacent erf to the south of the plot. The centre extended the trade area below the D4 road linking both sides of the road. It also attracted vendors who located at the boundary of the centre to the west along road D4 which augmented the number of traders along D4 towards the junction.



Figure 8-6: Elim – R578 and D4 junction

Source: Synergy Income Fund Limited and Capital Assessment Management (2014:3)

The introduction of the centre gradually transforms the commercial activities in Elim from informal trading to form retail shops. Again, it transform the local economy from informal to a formal economy. Local residents who previously travelled to Louis Trichardt to shop, buy locally and increased the customers that support commercial activities in the area. The centre attracted private investment in the intersection, including doctors' rooms and a hardware store owned by a province-based chain. It also induced an increased demand for residential accommodation which is visible through higher density zones around the (R578 and D4) town centre. Car repair, dressmaking vendors, food stalls and other vendors occupied open spaces surrounding the town centre close to the old shops and the shopping centre to form a cohort of informal businesses. The residents have extended their houses, other constructed additional buildings and temporary shelters in their plots/erven to provide extra accommodation. These changes are depicted in Figure 8-7.



Figure 8-7: Hardware store, vendors and improved housing

Source: Own creation (2018)

Rental for accommodation at the time was R300.00 per single room per month which generated income for those who tapped into the rental accommodation business. The 22 taxis capacity rank transformed Elim into a retail, services and transport node for people and goods. Taxis and buses are used as a means of public transport, and the R578 route between Elim and Giyani was served by more than 60 taxis.

Agricultural produce, furniture, building materials and other goods were transported to and through Elim by both the D4 and R578 routes. The transport industry more especially the taxi industry grew as a result of the shopping centre.

The Elim Spar buy 75% of its fresh produce from black farmers in the local area. The shop buy fresh fruit and vegetable at low-cost locally which result in affordable products sold to the consumers. Buying from local producers reduce the number of trucks transporting goods from Gauteng in the Spar's distribution centre. This has cut costs and play a significant role towards reducing gas emissions form vehicles. From 2009 the Elim Spar employed 50 local producers, who together earned R5,4 million per year in 2009. Individually they earned an average of R120 000 each. The amount is changing every year depending on the business agreement with the Spar and other factors such as inflation rate. Local tiles firm, hand-made 10 000 tiles for the centre during the construction of the shopping centre (The Presidency, 2014:47).

The above activities support the fact that the centre is retaining income within the local area. The economic activities have also improved the lives of local people, created jobs and provided a source of affordable food. The shopping centre transformed the area and provided a public space for the surrounding villages, where people meet and socialise in the centre, the eateries run by the vendors and informal businesses. The area is a workplace for those who work in the centre, the vendors, nearby retail shops, and institutions. It is also a place where local people access health facilities including pharmacists, public heath from Elim, District Hospital, postal services (South African Postal services), car services, hair salon treatment, funeral parlour services, transport services, government services such as Department of Home Affairs services, petrol station, building material just to mention a few (for more see Table 8-3). The area provided services that are found in a town centre.

8.3.6.3. Period 2013 - 2018

After 2011, Elim experienced increase in population and purchasing power as highlighted in sections 8.3.3 and 8.3.4 leading to a suitable environment for a larger retail development. Elim Mall a 25 000 m² shopping centre with 73 shops, a filling station, a taxi rank with 61 bays, serving above 110 taxis, a bus drop-off and collection area as well as 414 parking bays opened on the 28th of March, 2013. The Twin City Developers in partnership with Ribola Property Development the former owner of the land constructed the shopping centre. The centre is located diagonal to the Hubenyi shopping centre, next to the Elim Hospital in the south east of Hubenyi. The development brought in an investment of R220 million (Mabasa, 2015:4) and 140 local workers were employed during the construction phase of the centre. The retailers in township and rural areas' shopping centres are encouraged to hire local people in their shops.

The 47 shops in Hubenyi were added with new 73 shops in Elim Mall, providing the community with 120 shops. The shops are listed in Table 8- 4 and its front view in Figure 8-8. The leasing plan is attached as Annexure C. The shops formed a compact town centre enclosed in both shopping centres. The Elim Mall

has extended the cluster of retail services along the junction of R578 and D4 and play a significant role in LED. The centre created approximately 1453 permanent jobs based on the number of tills in each of the shops, which are attended to everyday in the 73 shops housed in the shopping centre. According to the centre manager in an interview with a local newspaper the main tenants, Shoprite and Boxer have committed to employing 80% locals and 20% from the national workforce (Mukwevho, 2013:4).

Table 8-4: List of Shops in Elim Mall

Source: Own creation (2019)

Shop No	Shop Name	Shop No	Shop Name
22	Amber Cellular	14	Boxer
20	Calvin Electronics	1	Shoprite
2	Pep Cell	40	Debonairs
48	Voice Africa	38	Fish & Chip Co
50	V-Tech	39	Galitos
54	Absa	37	Hungry Lion
51	African Bank	DT1(Drive through)	KFC
3&4	Standard Bank	29	King Pie
24A	FNB	28	Roots
42	Capitec Bank	37	Hungry Lion
18	Nedbank	41	Pitaland
21	Old Mutual Finance	45	Rage
54a	Old Mutual Life	30a	Shoe Zone
05	Ackermans	12	Chanson
7	Edgars Active	44	Arthur Ford
16	Egoli Fashion	31	Chinese Herbal Tea
19	Exact	15	Lemana Pharmacy
13	Express Store	47	Patience Hair Saloon
5	Fashion Freak	16	Signature Cosmetics
8	Foschini	26	Bradlows
10	Identity	52	Ok Furniture
3	Jet	46	Sheet Street
11	Legit	30	Sleepmaster
34	Markhams	53	Ellerines
6	Mr Price	25	Bears
4	Pep Stores	44	The Fashion People

43	Power Fashion Factory	27	Liquor City
17	Skipper Bar	25a	Autozone
35	Studio 88	53	Betabets
32	The Fix	Outside building	Engen
33	Total Sports	49	Fun Lovers Coaches
9	Truworths	23	Nu Clean Dry Cleaners
36	Dynamic Vision	25	Wisani Burial Services
30	Electric Express	24	ATM Foyer
41	Grillers	40	Black Steer
15	Rex Dlamini Pharmacy	-	Roots Braai facility
20	Muzo		



Figure 8-8: Elim Mall

Source: Ikwete Construction (2018:8)

The centers have transformed the R578 junction into an urban centre in a rural communal area. This has increased the activities in the area around the junction. It resulted in a massive growth of the taxi industry. The expansion of the trade business and extension of economic participation in both the formal and informal trade in the centre (junction). Increased the dependence of Elim rural households on the centres for food purchases, clothes and other essential goods. The increase in activities added more traffic than before and put pressure on both the R578 and D4 roads. To respond to the challenge, R578 was upgraded again and maintained by the South African Road Agency which improved its condition so that it can cope with the high volume of traffic close to the centre.

The growth of the taxi industry in the area encouraged by the 21 taxis and 61 taxi capacity ranks in Hubiyeni and Elim Mall respectively brought the Elim residents and those from the adjacent rural area (villages) closer to the junction (town centre) and other towns outside of the neighbourhood such as the Louise Trichardt town, Malamulele and Giyani in the adjacent Mopani district. The improvements in the local area during this period are highlighted in Figure 8-9. The growth of Elim town centre characterises a linear pattern along the R578 and D4 roads. The growth includes Rico Deco centre next to Hubiyeni, built on the open space marked with a purple green star adjacent to Hubiyeni, Shoprite U Save opposite the hospital and adjacent to Hubiyeni, marked with a yellow and red star.



Figure 8-9: Evolution of Elim 2013 to 2018

Source: AfriGIS (2019); Synergy Income Fund Limited and Capital Assessment Management (2014:3)

It also incorporates Elim Mall opposite the old commercial area, constructed on the empty space marked with a yellow star, Midas hardware store close to Buildit behind Elim Mall which was an open space next to Buildit marked with a green purple star. The shops draw more customers to the town centre because

they are national brands. As reflected in Figure 8- 9, the junction is now a growing town centre that urbanise and modernise the area. There is an increased decentralisation of main urban activities and functions that are were found in Louise Trichardt the main town, such as retail and commercial functions, services and residential leasing activities.

The other land uses in the node include: (a) the Elim District Hospital that grew from a small hospital built by missionaries in 1899 to a district hospital of 400 beds and 40 doctors. The hospital is 120 years old and has been declared a monument. Department of Home Affairs as indicated in Figure 8-9. (b) Private Clinic/Hospital adjacent to Home Affairs built in the open space between Rico Deco and Home Affairs. (c) Elim High School opposite Home Affairs. (d) The residential areas with improved houses that resembles suburban houses in South African towns and cities. (e) The different vending stalls operating in the node that expanded the informal trade/ economy in the area.

At a very low level, a town's structure includes streets, street blocks, erven and buildings. These elements are gradually becoming urbanised. More define streets and blocks are now visible in Elim junction as illustrated in Figure 8-9 above. Each block is comprised of a shopping centre or cluster of commercial buildings as can be seen in the same illustration. Figure 8-10 provide examples of houses in the residential area that transform Elim from an area with houses built with traditional building material to urban or modern houses and rental gated housing complexes. It also highlight national shops such as Shoprite U Save, Midas and Buildit. In the following years several SMMEs and vendors increased because of the existence of Elim Mall in the locality (Makhado Municipality, 2018:104). Table 8- 5 below provides detailed information about the type of the businesses, number, and products they sell. Figure 8-10 provides examples of the businesses, SMMEs and vendors established after the construction of Elim mall.

Table 8-5: Businesses established after the founding of Elim Mall

Source: Own creation (2018)

Type	Number	Type of products/ business
SMME	14	2 accommodation, 3 medical doctors, 1 gym, 1 Pharmacy, 1 liquor store, 1 hardware and building material, 2 furniture stores, 3 cooked food/ restaurants.
Vendors in shacks	85	8 cooked food/restaurants; 4 groceries; 10 hair salons and hair products; 4 car repairs, carwash, and car parts; 3 electronics; 3 Internet café, printing, photo copying, scan, lamination, and binding, cell phones; 2 funeral services; 4 general dealers; 2 live chicken stalls; 2 driving schools; and 1 iron gates vendor.
Street vendors	126	14 assorted vegetables and fruits; 3 live chicken; 8 clothes; 3 airtime, prepaid electricity, public phones; 1 gas; 5 refreshments, sweets, cookies; 3 shoe

		repairs; 6 accessories; 5 hair salons mobile/portable; 2 used car tires; and 2 car washes (use a bucket- mobile)
Vendors in vans/bakkie and small trucks	63	8 vegetables; 2 kitchenware, detergents; 2 traditional food - ground peanuts, maize meal, dry vegetables, mopani worms, dry fish, and drinks; 3 traditional utilities - wooden spoons, grass and wild rooibos brooms; 3 clothes; and 2 goods transportation.



Figure 8-10: Examples of businesses and vendors along R578 and D4

Source: Own creation (2018)

The establishment of vendors close to Elim Mall and Hubenyi is an indication that the centres are also addressing the unemployment of those at the lower levels of income who cannot afford a registered company and also do not have the necessary education to run the business. The 288 SMMEs and vendors tabled above created 577 jobs for the local community. The densely populated villages in this area provide a potential workforce for the centre and the SMMEs which link into the local value chains (e.g. Agri-processing, manufacturing and small farmers). It reduce costs in serving the local markets and create a

positive local image as well as linking the informal economy with the formal economy such as the financial system.

The farms that supply the retail shops with fresh produce adopted the standards of the main shops' suppliers from their head offices; use the technology utilised by the main suppliers and the centres. The above practise are vital in transferring skills to the new suppliers, SMMEs and the disadvantaged communities. The businesses in Figure 8-10 above, those in Hubyeni and Elim shopping centres contributed to the physical and economic growth of the node. The growth of the town centre allows the settlements to promote development that meet the needs of the residents. Although the population is less educated and rely on government grants, it is proactive in creating jobs for themselves and they benefit from the town centre.

The high number of people involved in informal trading is evidence that the population is not dependent on being employed by government and private sector employers, but they also create employment for themselves. The catchment area of the people employed in the case study can be established first by considering the criteria used in the tenant mix of the shopping centre. The mix should be 70% to 75% national tenants, 15% regional tenants, and the rest should be local entrepreneurs. The town centre created at the R578 junction represents a core development that provides Elim with an original key enhancement (upgrading) strengthened by the advancement in the road infrastructure between Louise Trichardt and Giyani as well as between the N1 and Malamulele.

8.4. The impact of Namakgale Crossing on the evolution of Namakgale shopping node

8.4.1. Regional analysis

Namakgale Crossing is in Namakgale within BLM on the north-eastern part of South Africa in the Limpopo Province. The municipality shares borders with Greater Giyani, Greater Tzaneen and Muruleng municipalities as well as Mozambique (Ba-Phalaborwa Municipality, 2018:18). Namakgale is in an area that includes a mining town and part of the Kruger National Park. The location of the area is as illustrated in the map in Figure 8- 11. Like most townships in South Africa, Namakgale was established as a dormitory settlement for the African mine and related industries' workers. Most of them worked in the Palabora Mining Company, Foskor and Bosveld in the town of Phalaborwa (South African Cities Network, 2009:4).

The township is 14km away from the main town of Phalaborwa and is surrounded by five villages, Makhushane, Mashishimale, Maseke, Ben and Buyelang. Urban and rural settlement patterns and their economic activities are all interconnected (Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs, 2016:25) thus it is equally important to assess the viability of shopping centres in both urban and rural areas. In addition, establish how the centres contribute to the townships and rural economies with an aim of contributing towards eradicating inequalities in these settlements.

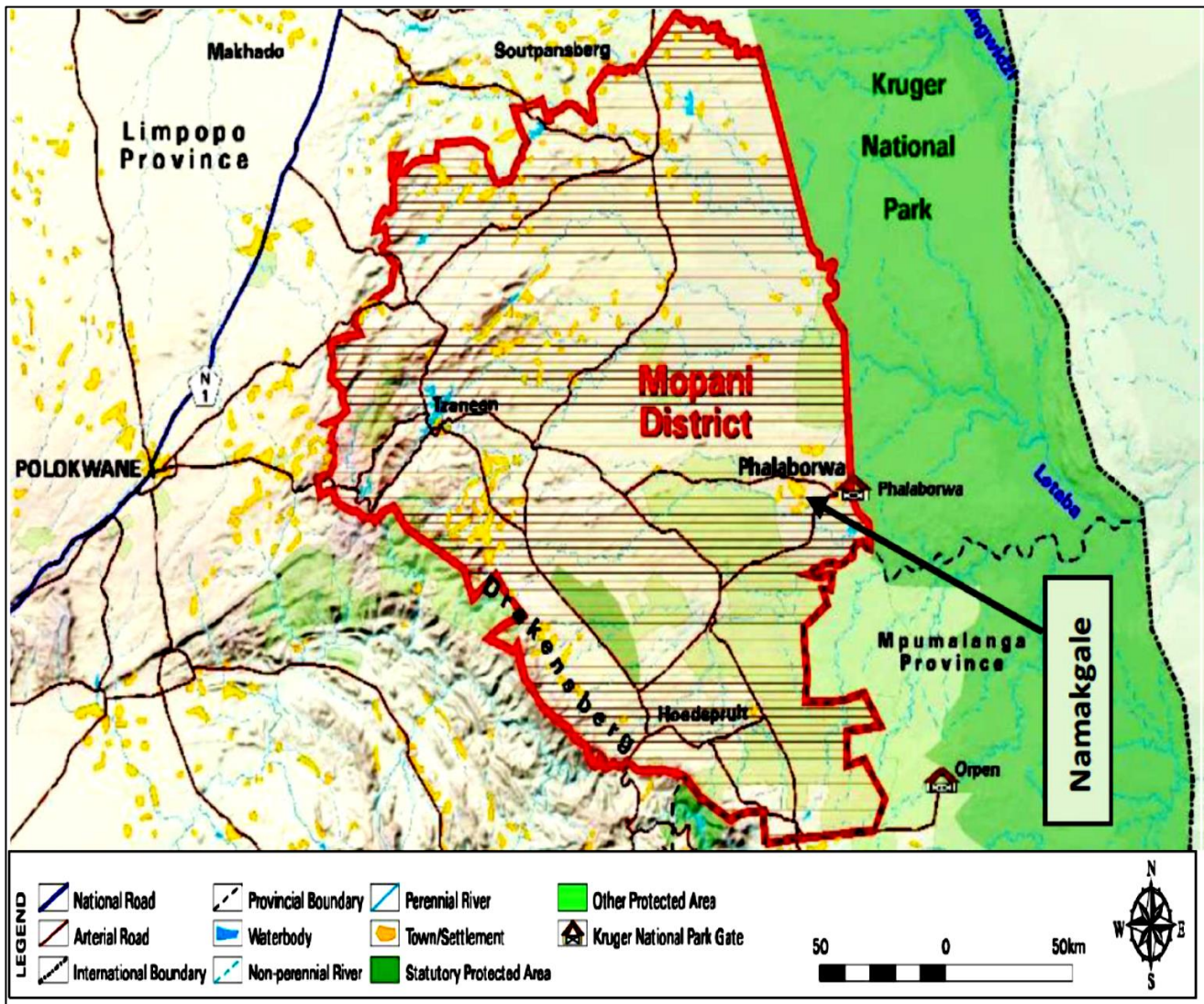


Figure 8-11: Location of Namakgale within the region

Source: Statistics South Africa (2018:33)

8.4.2. Physical factors

8.4.2.1. Land cover and topography

BLM covers 7461.6 km² area and it has suitable physical features that do not hinder physical growth in the area (see Figure 8-12) (Ba-Phalaborwa Municipality, 2018:18, 22). Land use patterns in any location area is a consequence of constant interaction between physical factors such as the topography, soil, climate and human endeavours directed by socio-economic conditions. In the case study area, the land cover and topography do not obstruct the physical development of Namakgale. What limit growth in this locality is land ownership because suitable land for development is owned by the private, tribal authorities and it is under the land claim process. Land if available should be used according to the needs of the community, and as a known fact the different utilisation of land result in land use patterns.

8.4.2.2. Road network and traffic flow

The local area has a developed road network, a railway line and airport. The shopping centre is in close to the Phalaborwa corridor along the R71 that links Namakgale with Mozambique to the eastern side, Greater Tzaneen, Capricorn District Municipality. The route links the shopping centre node further with the Trans-Limpopo corridor, that links it with the rest of South Africa to the west and beyond. The corridor is also linked to the Greater Giyani area to the north from the corridor via the R529. The R40 links the area with Maruleng Local Municipality and the Mpumalanga Province to the South. The routes make Namakgale an easily accessible location that is good for business. On the western side, the Phalaborwa corridor links Mpumalanga (Hazyview) with Phalaborwa through the R40 and Tzaneen via the R40 and R36.

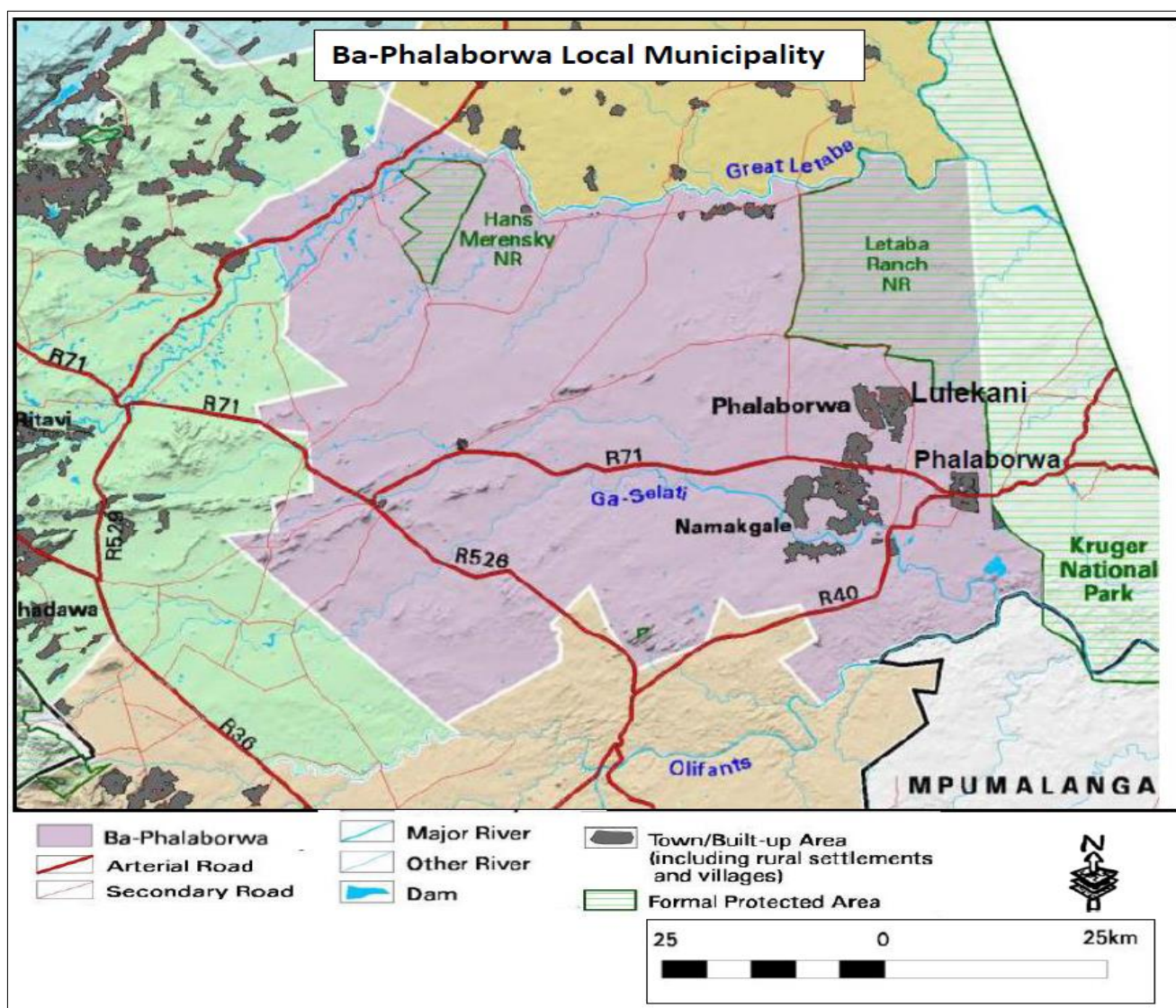


Figure 8-12: Namakgale arterial and secondary roads

Source: Limpopo Department of Economic Development, Environment and Tourism (2016:5)

There is a passenger rail station for trains from Hoedspruit via Nelspruit to Gauteng and a few people use the train to commute to Gauteng or Nelspruit. The rail transport is mainly used for goods from Phalaborwa

via Hoedspruit to Nelspruit and Richards bay. The rail transport is transporting mining products to Komatipoort and Richards Bay for processing (Mopani District Municipality, 2018:130). The road network is the most prominent transport infrastructure in the area. It connects the municipality with the rest of the province. Most people in the municipality use public transport and there are formal bus and taxi ranks in Namakgale, however, there is no link between the taxi and bus services (Ba-Phalaborwa Municipality, 2018:62, 64). Table 8- 6 outlines the routes and transport fares that enable the residents to move around in and outside Namakgale. Figure 8- 12 above shows how Namakgale is linked to adjacent villages, Lulekani township, Phalaborwa town and adjacent municipalities

Table 8-6: Main roads in BLM

Source: Ba-Phalaborwa Municipality (2017:56)

Name	Description of the route	Bus taxi fare
R71	Phalaborwa to Polokwane (220km) via Gravelotte (78Km) and Tzaneen (114km)	Phalaborwa - Polokwane (R150.00); Phalaborwa -Tzaneen (R60.00 taxi and R20.00 bus); Phalaborwa - Gravelotte (R30.00 taxi and R10.00 bus)
R526	Gravelotte to Mica in Muruleng municipality	No public transport
R40	Phalaborwa to Nelspruit (220Km) via Mica and Hoedspruit (72km) in Muruleng municipal area	Phalaborwa – Nelspruit (R230.00 bus). Phalaborwa – Hoedspruit (R120.00 bus, R30,00 taxi)
R529	Western border, links Greater Giyani to Greater Tzaneen areas. Giyani to Phalaborwa via Letaba Ranch	R60.00 taxi

Observation made by the researcher along the Calvin Ngobeni Street in front of Namakgale Crossing shopping centre revealed that between 9:00 am and 11:30 am 743 vehicles passed in front of the shopping centre and in the afternoon between 15:00 and 17:30, 693 vehicles passed through the same road. The passengers are potential customers of the centre, who buy goods on their way to their various destinations. The availability of the above mentioned public facilities in close proximity to the shopping centre strengthen the potential of the area to grow because it makes the centre accessible. The road connectivity is helpful in that it allows ease of movement of goods and people. Therefore, it has a great role in the success of the shopping centre. The connection with adjacent municipality encourages integration and eliminates fragmentation.

Namakgale Crossing is highly accessible and draws a large volume of pedestrians as patrons. It is servicing the shopping requirements of the villages adjacent to Namakgale as well. The connecting routes in Figure 8- 12 make the centre the central point of the villages and a hub for the township area. This

means there is interconnection between Namakgale Crossing and the other centres within the municipality in Lulekani and the main town of Phalaborwa. There are local routes that connect the centre with the its hinterlands Ben, Mashishimale, Makhushana and Selwane.

8.4.2.3. Availability of land to address fragmentation

Land in the local area is owned through private ownership and communal land tenure. The current land tenure status in the municipality consist of rented (16,4%), owned and fully paid (54,6%), owned but not fully paid (7%), occupied rent free (21,1%), other (0,9%), urban land (1,7%), and tribal/traditional land (98,3%). The municipality has a Land Use Management Scheme that traditional authorities do not understand how it affects land use in their areas (Ba-Phalaborwa Municipality, 2018:19, 100). Consequently, settlement development in traditional areas adjacent to Namakgale and Lulekani is problematic. Traditional leaders allocate residential sites without proper infrastructure and properly planned social amenities creating unplanned and uncoordinated residential areas (Ba-Phalaborwa Municipality, 2018:109).

Land for future development for residential and business use is available alongside the Phalaborwa corridor, R71 to Gravelotte, between Namakgale, Lulekani and Phalaborwa. The land is identified in the Township Regeneration Strategy document of the municipality and is owned by Makhushane and Majeje Tribal authorities. The land described above is available for use in effectively dealing with the fragmented spatial forms within the locality. Tribal land which was within the former homeland areas and private land in townships that were dormitory settlements within the former white South Africa should be integrated. However, the process is seriously affected by land claims and the restitution process. Out of the 101 farms located in the municipality, 77 farms are affected by land claims (Ba-Phalaborwa Municipality, 2018:21,102). Table 8- 7 provides the details of the land claims as outlined in the 2018 BLM IDP.

Table 8-7: Farms affected by land claims in BLM

Source: Own construction (2018)

Claimant	Number of farms
Mashishimale community	16 adjoining farms
Selwane community	15 adjoining farms
Makhushane community	22 adjoining farms
Maseke community	7 adjoining farms
The above four communities	5 farms where Phalaborwa and its mines are located
The above four communities and the Makhuva-Mathevula Royal Council	3 adjoining farms and part of Kruger National Park
Maenetja and Balapye-Kgoatla communities	22 adjoining farms west of the Municipality

A significant amount of land belongs to tribal authorities in BLM and illegal land occupation of both communal and municipal land also has serious consequences in terms of proper planning. These huge tracts of land under land claims and the illegal occupation of land poses a very serious problem for the municipality to address spatial fragmentation within the municipal area. The above outstanding challenges, more especially the land claims make economic growth very difficult because they have a great impact on investment and development initiatives within the municipality. The challenges enables the current fragmentation to continue socially, economically and physically.

8.4.3. Social factors

This section provide an analysis of the social attributes of the population in BLM and Namakgale the primary consumer base for Namakgale Crossing. It also reveals the age distribution an indicator for consumer demand, behaviour, preferences, and the dominant age groups in the local area. The mining sector is the largest sector that creates most job opportunities in the area. Agriculture, Manufacturing, and Tourism are additional key economic sectors. The retail sector in the area started to grow between 2014/15. The sector is comprised of both the formal and informal sectors and a total of 130 SMMEs supported by the municipality (Ba-Phalaborwa Municipality, 2018:44, 52, 53, 102). The breakdown of the population is highlighted in Table 8-8 below.

Table 8-8: Population of BLM by age group

Source: Statistic South Africa (2018:88)

Age group	Population	Percentage
0–14	52 982	31.36%
15–34	66 490	39.35%
35–59	40 482	23.96%
60+	9 033	5.34%
Total	168 937	100%

In 2011, the area had a population of 150 637 people. Ninety four percent of the population was located within a 14km radius of the Phalaborwa urban complex. Phalaborwa accounted for 20% of the population, 43% were in Namakgale and Lulekani, and the remainder 31% is made up of rural population. Six percent of the population was comprised of the populations of Gravelotte, Grietjie and Selowane. Most of the people in BLM are young people who constitute 63% (94 617) of the population. From this youth population, 50.2% are unemployed and most of them receive child support social grants (Ba-Phalaborwa Municipality, 2018:33).

The South African Statistics' Community Survey of 2016 indicates that the population of BLM has increased to 168 937 people outlined in Table 8-8 above (Ba-Phalaborwa Municipality, 2017:13).

Namakgale alone has a population of 38 443 people. Of this population, 33 695 people are employed and 20 196 are unemployed. The municipality has an unemployment rate of 37, 5% and a youth (15-34 years) unemployment rate of 50, 20% (Ba-Phalaborwa Municipality, 2018:14, 16). The current population of Namakgale is capable of supporting a healthy growth of the township and the shopping centre despite the fact that there is high unemployment among the youth.

Employment and unemployment levels in the consumer market affect the disposable income patterns in a locality. The employment levels in Namakgale and the entire BLM municipality indicate that the consumer market demand in the area is oriented towards the lower end of the retail services and product band which is provided by Namakgale Crossing. The dominant age group in the local area is between the ages of 0-34 years, which means that the large portion of Namakgale Crossing customers is comprised of young people. The group that prefers to keep up with current trends and brands sold in the shopping centres.

8.4.4. Economic factors

This section outlines the income levels in Namakgale to determine if the population has money that they can spend in the shopping centre. The municipality is regarded as a medium-sized mining economy, which is outside of the main mining belts, but one of the major contributors to the national economy (Harrison, 2014:23). The global warming and insufficient rainfall impact negatively on the economy of this area. It affected amongst others the Marula tree produce which drives the Marula Festival, an annual event that has a positive effect on the local economy and represent the municipality as a tourism destination (Ba-Phalaborwa Municipality, 2018:51). Income distribution in Namakgale is outlined in Table 8- 9 and it indicates that 63% of the population earns between R9 601.00 to R153 800.00.

Table 8-9: Namakgale income levels

Source: Statistics South Africa 2011, Ba-Phalaborwa Municipality (2018:11).

Namakgale		Ba-Phalaborwa	
Income	Percentage	Income	Percentage
No income	9,7%	None income	12,5%
R1 - R4,800	4,8%	R1 - R4,800	5,5%
R4,801 - R9,600	9,4%	R4,801 - R9,600	10,7%
R9,601 - R19,600	16,1%	R9,601 - R19,600	18,7%
R19,601 - R38,200	17,2%	R19,601 - R38,200	18,9%
R38,201 - R76,400	13,6%	R38,201 - R76,4000	11,9%
R76,401 - R153,800	15,7%	R76,401 - R153,800	10%
R153,801 - R307,600	9,2%	R153,801 - R307,600 7	1%
R307,601 - R614,400	3,5%	R307,601 - R614,400	3,7%
R614,001 - R1,228,800	0,4%	R614,001 - R1,228,800	0,8%

R1,228,801 - R2,457,600	0,1%	R1,228,801 - R2,457,600	0,2%
		R2,457,601+	0,2%

The income levels match the LSM groups needed to sustain a neighbourhood shopping centre, which is the size of Namakgale Crossing. The threshold values and market support required are LSM 1 – 5(20 000 – 47 000), LSM 6 – 9 (9 000 – 20 000), and LSM 10 - 10+ (3 600 - 8 500) outlined in Table 7-11 (Prinsloo, 2016:14). The population can be classified as low-income as most of the employable youth are unemployed and rely on social grants and allowances from parents and family members. The services and infrastructure provided in Namakgale correspond with the level of income of the community so that they can be affordable to the community.

8.4.5. Growth Centres

The growth centres are significant in that the criteria followed in designating these areas promote the vitality and viability of the shopping centres. The type of infrastructure and institution required for an area to be assigned as a growth centre are essential for an area to be called a shopping centre node. The Namakgale Crossing trade area is placed within the contest of the BLM growth centres. The BLM growth centres are designated according to the settlement hierarchy for the province as outlined in the LSDF (2007). Before 2016, the town of Phalaborwa was designated as a PGP while Namakgale and Gravelotte as DGPs and Lulekani a MGP (Ba-Phalaborwa Municipality, 2018:41). The growth points' population and their economic role in BLM are outlined in Table 8- 10.

Table 8-10: Growth points in BLM

Source: Ba-Phalaborwa Municipality (2018:41)

Status of settlement		Areas	Population	
LSDF (2007)	LSDF (2016)	Phalaborwa	13 976	50 341
First order - PGP				
Second order- DGP	Part of Phalaborwa PGP)	Namakgale	36 365	
Third order - DGP		Gravelotte	1 098	
Fourth - MGP		Lulekani	40 225	
Fifth MGP		Selwane	12 326	
Total Population		-	103 990	

In the current LSDF (2016) Namakgale is no longer a growth point but part of the Phalaborwa Provincial Growth Point. The importance of highlighting the growth centres in BLM is to reveal that the area in which Namakgale is located has a natural potential to grow. It is able to, “create jobs for the majority of residents, have both regional and provincial service delivery function as well as a large number of social and institutional facilities, e.g. government offices, local and district municipal offices, and a sizable population”(Limpopo Province Office of the Premier, 2007:113). The significance of the area is not about

the shopping centre but the centre together with other economic, social and institutional facilities that enables the locality to develop into a node. Some of the facilities are outlined in Table 8-12.

8.4.6. The impact of Namakgale Crossing on the node

Since the establishment of the shopping centre in the area, the structure and form of the township has evolved.

8.4.6.1. Period before 2013

The centre that existed pre 1994 stopped operating. For example the Spar centre and Mogodu centres. Before the construction of Namakgale Crossing, there was no shopping centre in Namakgale but retail outlets in the form of local general dealers and spaza shops. Erf 337-339 in Calvin Ngobeni street was empty until the construction of the shopping centre (Phalaborwa Hoedspruit Herald, 2011:1-2). (see Figure 8-13 below).



Figure 8-13: Erf 337-339 Calvin Ngobeni Street

Source: Own creation (2018)

8.4.6.2. Period from 2013 - 2018

Namakgale Crossing is a centre with 30 shops, 10 taxis capacity rank and a petrol station that started operating on the 23rd of August, 2013 (Phalaborwa Hoedspruit Herald, 2012:1). The centre is the largest shopping centre in Namakgale with a leasable area of 12 300m² and is classified as Neighbourhood centre because of its size. Shoprite and Cashbuild are the main shops in the centre and occupy the biggest floor area. It has a tenant mix that includes fast food outlets, banks, clothing stores, food stores, petrol station, post office, and a building material store. The shopping centre has changed the function of the open space

to commercial use. The population of Namakgale has since grown to 38 443 people as discussed in section 8.4.3 who reside in the primary trade area of the centre. The shops that are found in the centre are listed in Table 8- 11 below and the front view of the centre in Figure 8-14.

Table 8-11: List of shops in Namakgale Crossing

Source: Own creation (2019)

Shop Number	Shop name	Shop Number	Shop name
22	African Bank	40A & 40B	Cash Build
30	Capitec Bank	39	Crossing Medical Centre (Optometrist)
15	Akerman	34	Namakgale Pharmacy
19A	Dunns	4	Russels
47 & 58	Jet	24	Ok Furnitures
18	Mr Price	16a	Shoprite Liquor
17	Pep		Total garage
15A	Rage	1&2	Post Office
20	Skippers Bar	14	Fish & Chips Co.
16	Shoprite	21	Pie's & More
37& 38	OBC chicken and meat	9	KFC
12 & 12 A	Captain De Regos	11	Chisa Nyama
25	RJ Comms & Stationaries	13	Just 4 Babies
4	Top Bet Power	27	FNB ATM, Absa ATM, Nedbank ATM
7	Tekkie town	6	Power Fashion Factory

The shops listed above provide a variety of products that the community had to travel to Phalaborwa to buy pre 2013. The centre serves those who cannot afford to go to Phalaborwa on a regular basis. The shops provide employment for local people changing the function of Erf 337-339 Section B to be a place of employment and trading area. The fast-food outlets (Pie's & Co, KFC, Chisa Nyama, etc.) create a place where the community socialise enabling the centre to perform its social functions. It also provides open air entertainment in the parking area by local entertainers which sustain the culture of the community. The clothing stores such as Pep, Ackerman provide affordable clothing brands to the community that suit the financial status of the low income people

The banks provide financial services to community according to their status. The banks that are in the centre charges low interest and have financial packages that saves the customers money. The centre also provide health service (Optometrist and the pharmacy), furniture/ home and decoration brands (Russells and Ok furniture), and fresh food (Shoprite and OBC) for the community. The centre is situated at the

corner of the main street, Calvin Ngobeni Street that goes through Namakgale Township from one end to the other and Asibasabi Street in Ward 5 Namakgale Zone B (see Figure 8-14). The shops in the centre including the restaurants are brand shops These shops provide the residents with brands that they like.

Shops such as Cashbuild, Shoprite, Jet, and the banks have a customer base from all around the municipality because most people want to be associated with a particular brand. The construction of the centre transformed the empty space into a business centre that transformed the image and spatial form of the area as depicted in Figure 8-14 above. The existence of the shopping centre in Namakgale resulted in an increased revenue generated from the local residents and people from the neighbouring villages of Mashishimale (12.5km) Makhushane (6.3Km), Selwane (39 Km) and Ben (5.5km). Local residents walk to the centre to buy goods and socialise instead of using local taxis.



Figure 8-14: Namakgale Crossing front view

Source: Own creation (2018)

Vendors trading on the street to the shopping centre benefit from people who walk to the centre from Foskop (2,5 km), Mandela (3.6km), Haniville (3km) and Makhushane settlements because they also buy from the vendors. Some of the residents use the taxi rank in the centre to get taxis to town. With the number of shops located in the centre, Namakgale crossing became the second town centre outside of Phalaborwa town in the Phalaborwa PGP area. This has changed the function of Namakgale to be a mixed used node. The township has become one of the development nodes that promotes spatial integration within the municipal area by providing residential, public, and commercial land uses together (mixed use).

It facilitates the incorporation of the former disadvantaged areas in the development nodes. The municipality directs growth and concentration of economic activities along these nodes that are joined by major transport and movement routes such as the R71 and R40 that are at the borders of Namakgale.

The SDF specify the desired spatial form of the municipality (Ba-Phalaborwa Municipality, 2018:190), therefore the center is changing the function and spatial structure of Namakgale in line with the municipality's spatial transformation aspirations. The centre is enclosed by residential erven, nonetheless, it is encouraging development along Calvin Ngobeni street (see Figure 8- 15).



Figure 8-15: Changes in Calvin Ngobeni street

Source: Own creation (2018)

At present the centre is revitalising the townships' activity area and making it viable. The area is identified in Figure 8- 16 and businesses and services located in the area are outlined in Table 8- 12. They include public and privately owned facilities. Currently, dilapidated buildings and public facilities within the area are refurbished (e.g. stadium, swimming pool and Ga-Mogodu lodging) which improve the image of the township. The facilities and businesses in the township centre provide jobs for the shopping centre's customers. This facilities are spread within the area and some like the former Spar and Ga-Mogodu centre are not functioning. Both investment and trading in the centre strengthened the economy of Namakgale by retaining the income of the population within the neighbourhood and increasing the tax base of the municipality.



Figure 8-16: Namakgale town centre

Source : AfriGiS (2019)

Table 8-12: Facilities in Namakgale town centre

Source: Own creation

Public facilities	Private facilities	Shops
Police station	Sidibeng boxing club and gym	Petrol Stations- BP and Chamakala
Magistrate offices facility	Palamine club	Former Spar and Ga-Mogodu centre (use unknown)
Department of Education District Offices	Sedibeng accommodations	General dealers- S S Nthoke upholstery and shoe repairs store, and No Mathata shop,
Sir Val Duncan Technical College	Phalaborwa Foundation-Phelang community centre, Printing shop and office	Liquor stores- Sedibeng bear garden and Ntsoseng
Ba-Phalaborwa Namakgale municipal offices		Hardware stores -Bona and Chamakala
Namakgale post office		Tshifularo Bakery
Namakgale swimming pool		Ka Xaveka Fruit & vegetable
Namakgale public library		Restaurants- Shacket and Namakgale Liquor

Mugodeni community health centre		Car wash

The centre serves as a core business within the township area and businesses that opened close to the centre since its inception in 2013 are street vendors and spaza shops. These businesses are along Calvin Ngobeni Street where the entrance of the centre is located. The number of the vendors, type of goods and outlets are listed in Table 8- 13 and the example illustrated in Figure 8-17 below. The centre also encourages mobile vendors who come and sell produce along the same street. The centre has encouraged investment from outside Namakgale, for instance, the developer is from Phalaborwa the main town, and the anchor store is a national retailer.

The increase in street vendors located closer to the shopping centre, and vegetable gardens that provide the vendors with different types of vegetable in adjacent villages, is an indication of growth in the local small-scale agriculture and informal traders. Small farmers next to Namakgale supply meat, fresh vegetables and fruits to the restaurants and Shoprite in the centre, as well as some of the vendors outside the centre. It also attracts residents of adjacent villages to spend money buying goods in the centre. In addition, the shopping centre has stimulated growth in small urban agriculture within the township that also supply the vendors in both Namakgale and Phalaborwa with fresh produce mostly traditional vegetable and foodstuff.

Table 8-13: Vendors along Calvin Ngobeni Street

Source: Own construction (2018)

Goods	No. of Vendors	Employees	Type of outlet
Brooms, vegetables, and fruits	17	23	Street stall
Cooked food	4	9	Street stall
Doors	1	3	Street
Sand	1	5	Street
Car repairs	1	3	Spaza shop
Hair Saloon	2	4	Spaza shop
Total	26	47	-

These demonstrate that the shopping centre is able to attract investment and also retain income within the neighbourhood. There still leakages though, due to the limited number of shops and services in the centre owned by local people and the national stores buying products outside Namakgale. Residents who work in the township centre and other sections of the township shop in the centre. The income level described in section 8.4.4 keep the shopping centre viable and vibrant as customers who buy from the centre earn within the income bracket highlighted in the same section.



Figure 8-17: Examples of vendors along Calvin Ngobeni Street

Source: Own creation (2018)

Most customers are adults who buy groceries, clothes, and other goods for their families. The young people are mostly from the Sir Val Duncan Technical College who use allowance money from parents and bursaries for their subsistence. The services and infrastructure provided in Namakgale Crossing and the township's economic centre area (Figure 8- 16) provide a full range of services of a small town centre. The construction of Namakgale Crossing has completed the range of services and infrastructure that Namakgale town centre lacked in the past. The centre created 550 permanent jobs (Phalaborwa Hoedspruit Herald, 2011:1-2) and the vendors stalls created 47 direct jobs for local people.

In this way, the centre has provided employment and livelihood opportunities for the local population. Most residents in Namakgale have connections with their place of origin outside Namakgale and they purchase

goods in Namakgale for their families in outside of the local area. This has created a healthy relationship between Namakgale Crossing and outside areas, making the centre to be a viable shopping centre node. Social connection, education and health contribute to the quality of life of people, the shopping centre has been operating for the past seven years and is still owned and run by the same company. Its structure is well maintained which makes the centre attractive.

The shopping centre plays a role of a place where residents socialise, work, create linked businesses, an educational place (as locals learn of new products), and a place that provide healthy food and products. All these contribute to the wellbeing of the local community. The shopping centre has contributed in reducing the cost of travelling (R20.00 return trip to town) for the low-income groups including those who depend on government social grants by granting residents the opportunity to access retail services within a walking distance (Korreveski, 2011:44). It increased the number of shopping centres within the Phalaborwa area from four to five and it is the only shopping centre outside of the Phalaborwa town within the Phalaborwa PGP.

Phalaborwa Mall, Eden Square, Shoprite Centre and Spar Kruger Park are in Phalaborwa town. The three first shopping centres revived the town centre in Phalaborwa and increased the agglomeration of shops in the city centre. Spar, Kruger Park is 700m outside of the city centre adjacent to the tourism centre, about 500m from the Kruger park gate. Spar is also along the R71 which links Phalaborwa, Lulekani, Namakgale, Gravelotte and Tzaneen, and serves to create an agglomeration of shops around the area to serve tourist and residents. The land along this road, adjacent to Namakgale, is available for commercial development. Table 8-14 provides the names, year of opening, size, location, and type of the shopping centres in Phalaborwa PGP.

Table 8-14: Shopping centres within Phalaborwa PGP

Source: Own construction (2018)

Name of centre	Opened	Size	No. of Shops	Location	Type of centre
Phalaborwa Centre	2015	17936 m ²	30 Occupied	Phalaborwa	Community
Eden Square	2008	12754 m ²	25 Occupied	Phalaborwa	Neighbourhood
Shoprite Centre	1996	8893 m ²	15 Occupied	Phalaborwa	Neighbourhood
Spar Kruger Park	1999	5603 m ²	1 Occupied	Phalaborwa	Neighbourhood
Namakgale Crossing	2013	12300 m ²	30 Occupied	Namakgale	Neighbourhood

These shopping centres form a network of centres that spread economic activities in the Phalaborwa area and encourage fair distribution of services within the area. The centres are changing the spatial form of the entire Phalaborwa PGP while fostering urban development within this area. Division of labour and

specialisation is growing, the workers in restaurants and food outlets become separated from those who work in clothing stores and grocery shops as the number of these outlets increases in the local area.

8.5. Conclusion

The legislation and policies applied in the development of both shopping centres are connected to the national and provincial laws and policies. The laws and policies cater for the conception and sustainability of the shopping centres nodes. These shopping centre nodes have changed the spatial structure and function of Elim and Namakgale settlements. The nodes are growing into suburban nodes or new towns provided that the necessary conditions that allow nodes to develop prevails. Elim Mall exerts its influence and ability to attract other business in the area and its spatial influence is like that of shopping centres located in urban and suburban areas yet it is in a rural area. It encourages urban development in the area.

It has transformed to be an out-of-town shopping centre 23km away from the traditional city centre of Louis Trichardt and created a new CBD or town where there was none. Namakgale Crossing has also created a town centre in a township where previous attempts to do this not succeed. It has transformed the function of its location from residential only as the township was created during the past regime, to include major retail use. Both centres demonstrate that shopping nodes which are strategically positioned within previous homeland areas and townships contribute significantly towards eradicating the spatial imbalances that prevails in their local areas. Their location along corridors also encourages integration in terms of the distribution of economic activities and in a social context.

CHAPTER 9: SOUTH AFRICAN SHOPPING CENTRE NODES EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS

9.1. Introduction

As mentioned in Chapter 3 the methods used in collecting data in this study include questionnaire survey and observations. In the previous chapter the data gathered from the case studies using literature review and observation methods was presented and analysed to establish if shopping centre nodes can create employment, attract investment, retain income within their local area, and attract infrastructure and services to create viable towns that discourage disjointed spatial structures within the municipal areas. In this chapter, data gathered through the questionnaire survey which is the third method used as indicated in section 3.6.2 is presented, analysed and interpreted. In this first section the structure or organisation of the entire chapter is outlined. The second section present background information about the topic under discussion. The third section reports on the data collected using the questionnaires. The fourth section provides statistical analysis of the data using the SPSS software and fifth section concludes the chapter. Figure 9-1 presents a clear picture of the entire chapter.

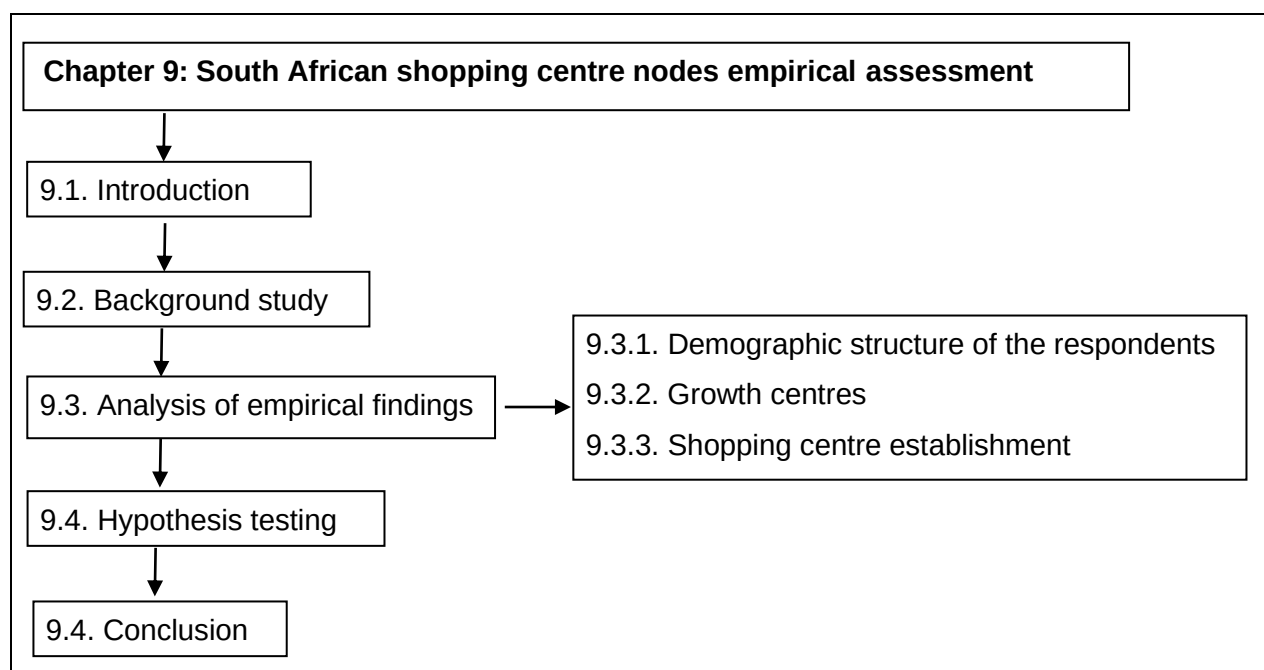


Figure 9-1: Chapter 9 structure

Source: Own creation (2018)

9.2. Background study

In this section, the link between the qualitative and quantitative methods used in the study is created. In Chapter 2, it was revealed that the growth centres are relevant in addressing spatial development in both the developed and developing countries. Currently growth centres are implemented generally in the form

of development corridors and nodes. Chapter 4 revealed that through the growth centre strategy, development can be directed to areas that a country or region wants to develop allowing it to relocate some of the growth centres in a strategic position like the case of Brazil (the relocation of Brasilia). It is also possible to decentralise government functions to newly created development nodes as was the case in Zimbabwe. The growth centre strategy can be modified to suit a country's situation as it was in the case of India which modified the growth centres into growth foci in rural areas.

South Africa, during the apartheid era, managed to create growth centres and deprived areas using the growth centre strategy. This illustrated that the strategy can be used with other policies to produce viable growth centres while depriving other areas and brand them deprived centres like the homeland areas. The metropolitan areas prospered while the homelands and the adjacent centres deteriorated. The strategy was used to create both development nodes and poverty nodes in the form of homelands, townships and small towns adjacent to the homelands. The implementation of the strategy was guided by the separate development policy which resulted in spatial fragmentation which indicates that the strategy can be used to fulfil the purpose of a country's political agenda in addition to the economic purpose.

During the apartheid period, homelands and township areas had insignificant access to formal commercial activities, especially shopping centres as discussed in 6.3. In Europe, Merry Hill, Dudley was used to create a town centre where there was none as discussed in 5.4. To achieve economic growth in former homeland areas and townships, large-scale commercial developments should be attracted or channelled to these areas. By so doing the current uneven spatial form can be reduced. In this chapter data gathered through the questionnaire survey is analysed and findings thereof are used to demonstrate that shopping centre nodes in strategic areas, in the context of South Africa, in former homelands and townships play a major role in reducing the disjointed spatial form that currently exist in the country.

The purpose of this chapter is to provide empirical evidence that the Elim and Namakgale nodes serve as adequate examples of shopping centre nodes that are capable of transforming their local area spatially and reduce socio-economic inequalities within their locality. The chapter also provide practical substantiation that both shopping centres are able to transform the spatial structure or form of their locality and reduce spatial fragmentation in municipal areas. In this study the shopping centres are transforming the form of the nodal areas. The vitality and viability of the Elim and Namakgale shopping centres are tested using statistical data gathered from Elim and Namakgale nodes. Data presented in section 9.3.2 and 9.3.3 is connected to the data gathered from the literature review and observations.

The data is essential in determining if what is documented and presented take place in practices or is reality based on the views of people on the ground (respondents). The information is summarised using graphs that present the data by indicating the exact frequency of responses from respondents in all questions in the questionnaire. This is translated into percentages and interpreted in relation to each

research question. Information gathered was used to prove that spatial disintegration can be reduced and eventually eradicated by using proper laws and policies, creating well located nodes that are capable of promoting integration and eradicate fragmentation. Furthermore, data in section 9.3.3.6 and 9.3.3.7 is analysed using the SPSS software and used in testing the hypothesis of the study. The conclusion from the survey is also presented at the end of this chapter. The questionnaire survey data is presented and analysed below following the exact sequence of the questions as they appear on the questionnaire.

9.3. Analysis and interpretation of empirical findings

Four hundred questionnaires were distributed to respondents identified in section 3.5 and only 390 were returned. In this section the views of those who are involved in the establishment of growth centres and shopping centres, as well as those who interact with these officials are outlined. As mentioned in section 3.5, the respondents in the questionnaire survey have the capability and are qualified government officials in municipalities, politicians, and professionals working in the identification and planning of growth points. The questionnaire has been tested through the interview sessions that took place before the survey was adopted.

The questions are guided by previous studies, though these studies did not have the same aim as the current study. The studies were related to shopping centres and dealt with factors that attract customers to retail centres. An academic in the same field also checked the correctness of the questions. The questionnaire is divided into three sections, namely, demographic, growth centre and shopping centre related questions. The results of data collected is divided in themes that correspond to the questionnaire section. The information is presented and analysed under the same themes in the sections below.

9.3.1. Demographic structure of the respondents

The first section of the questionnaire survey solicited data about the respondents which is comprised of the demographic, gender, and age of the respondents summarised in Table 9-1. The characteristics of the sample represent the heterogeneous characteristics of the entire population. The study is enhanced by the interests and concerns of both male and females of different age groups and orientation excluding children. It is therefore necessary to have a sample that is composed of both men and women in different age groups. None in the sample objected to being classified as male or female or declined to indicate whether they are male or female.

From the 390 respondents, 223 were male and 167 were female. All respondents were above the age of 23. The lowest number of respondents at 6.3% are in the age group 24-29 and the highest at 29.3% are in the age group 41-50. Respondents in the different categories of the participants are all customers in the Elim or Namakgale shopping centres. Therefore, the respondents are not from a homogeneous group in terms of sex and age group.

Table 9-1: Demographic structure of the respondents

Source: Own construction (2018)

Age group	Male	Female	Total count	Percentage %
24-29	18	13	31	8%
30- 40	50	52	102	26%
41- 50	67	58	125	32%
51-60	55	34	89	23%
61-70	33	10	43	11%
Total	223	167	390	100%

9.3.2. Growth centres

This section focuses on the second section of the questionnaire used in the survey to gather data relating to the creation of growth centres. The data gathered is analysed and interpreted following the sequence of questions in the questionnaire.

9.3.2.1. Laws and policies

In question1, respondents were asked to identify the laws and policies that are applicable in the creation of growth points in the municipality within which they live. All respondents (100%) endorsed all the laws and policies that were listed on the questionnaire as being relevant in the creation of growth points/ centres. Namely, the NDP 2030, NSDP, Provincial SDF, District SDF, Municipal SDF, IDP and SPLUMA (Act No. 16 of 2013). The purpose of the question was to establish if the laws and policies that currently apply in the processes of establishing growth centres are generally known by the professionals and stakeholders involved in the designation of growth centres in the study areas. The results confirmed that all stakeholders are well informed about the tools they need in performing their task. These policies and laws reflect in the IDPs, LEDs and SDFs that guide development in the provinces, districts and municipalities discussed in section 7.5.2. They are related to international laws discussed in section 5.5.2, 4.3.2, 4.4.2, 4.5.2, 4.6.2 and 4.7.2.

The results in this subsection answers the first research question “*What are the spatial laws and policies relevant in creating shopping centre nodes that can contribute positively in confronting the spatial fragmentation in South Africa?*” The respondents identified the NDP 2030, NSDP, Provincial SDF, District SDF, Municipal SDF, IDP and SPLUMA (Act No. 16 of 2013) as relevant in creating growth points which is in line with literature and outlines legislation that contribute in creating shopping centre nodes can contribute positively in confronting the spatial fragmentation in South Africa. The results also contribute in answering the third question of the study “*How should these shopping centre nodes be created in the context of the national, provincial, and regional planning SDF’s and economic development frameworks?*” Following principles in the above mention laws and policies addresses the question above.

9.3.2.2. Identification of growth centres

In question 2, the respondents were asked to identify the level or sphere of government responsible for identifying growth points/ centres. All respondents (100%) credited the province, 92% the district and 98% the local municipality as the level of government that perform the functions of designating growth centres as presented in Figure 9.2. Forty-six percent of the total respondents (of which 92% of Namakgale respondents) credited the district. 45% of the total respondents (of which 98% of Namakgale respondents) credited local government respectively in addition to the province. Forty-eight percent of the total respondents (of which 97% of Elim respondents) credited the district and 49% of the total respondents (of which 98% of Elim respondents) credited local government respectively in addition to the province.

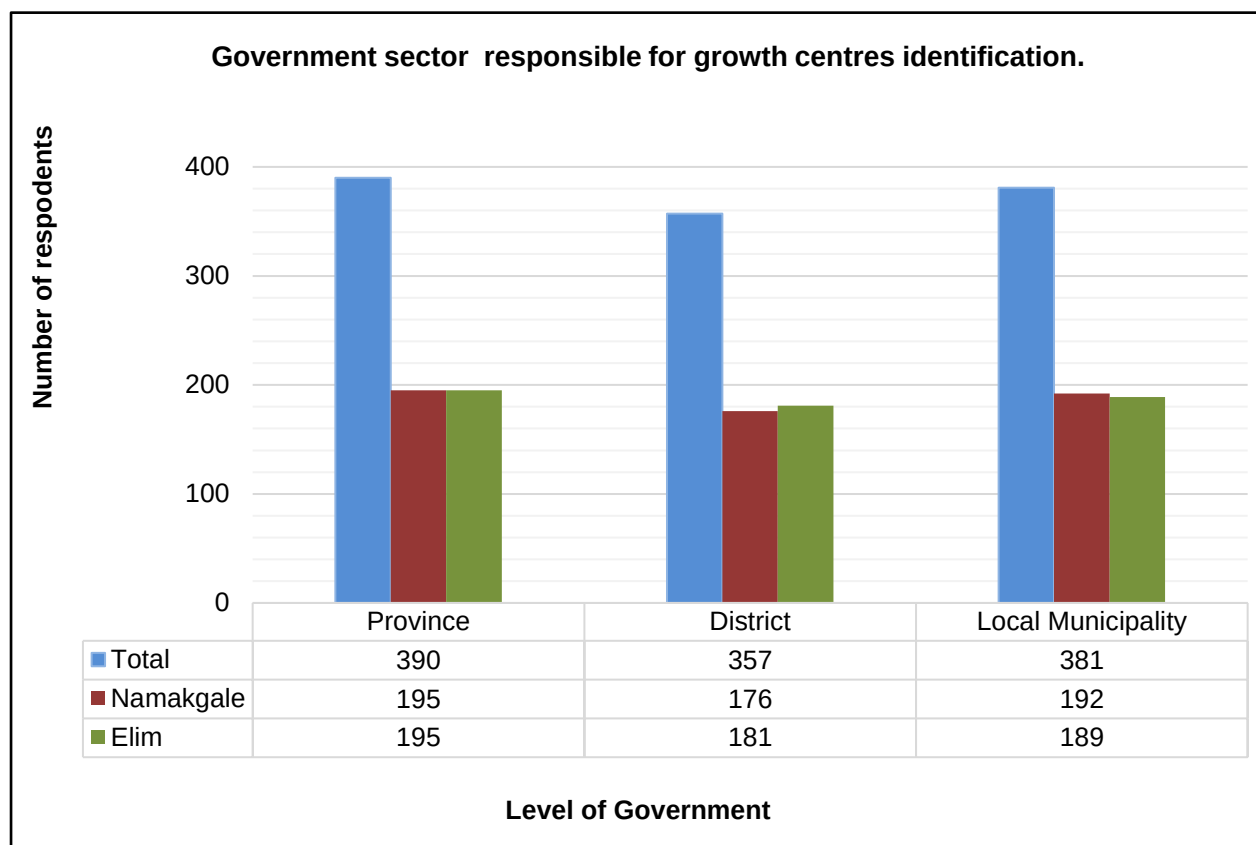


Figure 9-2: Government level responsible for identifying growth centres in province

Source: Own construction (2018)

The findings are in line with the literature review findings relating to both the districts and local municipalities in which Namakgale and Elim are located. The BLM and MLM IDPs, state that the designated growth points are in line with the LSDF (Makhado Municipality, 2018:20 & Ba-Phalaborwa Municipality, 2018:40-41). The LSDF (2007:118,111) also states that the growth points are flexible which allows for district and local municipalities to give input in the designation process. The documents state that the districts and municipalities play a role in the process as some of the respondents have indicated is correct. SPLUMA section 12 2(a) mandate all spheres of government to “participate in the spatial planning and LUM processes that impact on each other to ensure that the plans and programmes are coordinated, consistent and in harmony with each other”.

The results reflect participation by the government, private sector and the public which is in line with public participation promoted by the constitution, SPLUMA and the local government laws. The SPLUMA also state that each sector of government must participate in the other level of government development preparation of the IDPs and other policies. The results in this subsection answer the second question of the study *“How should shopping centre nodes that can contribute positively in confronting the spatial fragmentation in South Africa be conceptualised, understood and implemented?”* By following the mandate of each sphere of government in establishing growth points eventually clarify how the growth centres should be conceptualised, understood and implemented in an appropriate manner.

9.3.2.3. The role of respondents in identifying growth centres

In question 3, respondents were asked to indicate the function and level of government at which they partake in the process of identifying growth centres. The findings are summarised in Figure 9.3. Thirty-nine percent of respondents indicated that they are involved in identifying the centres, 64% give input at provincial level, 51% at district level and 68% at local level.

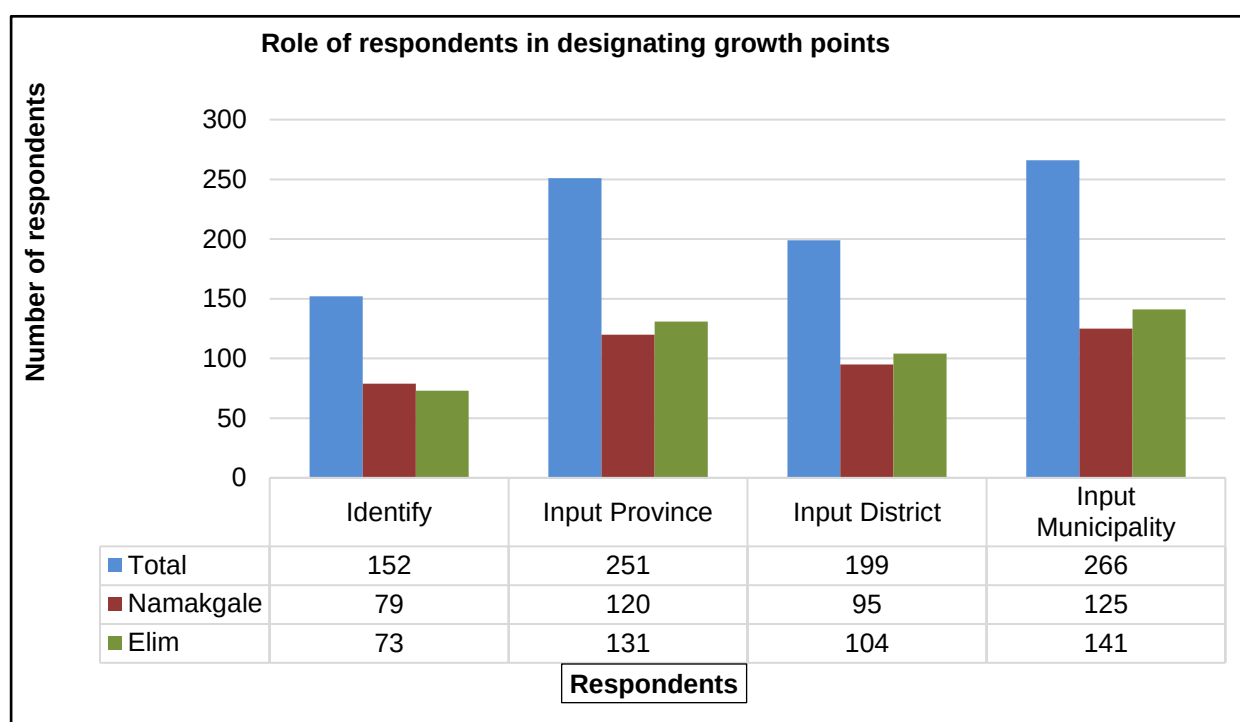


Figure 9-3: Role of respondents in identifying growth centres

Source: Own construction (2018)

The results outline in this section also confirm that the creation or designation of growth centres in South Africa is a collaborative process between all spheres of government supported by the SPLUMA and the laws and policies in all levels of government. The findings reveal that both the private and public sectors are involved in the identification of the centres. This supports subsection 7.5.4 that all sectors of the community should be involved. The results also respond to the second question of the study *“How should*

shopping centre nodes that can contribute positively in confronting the spatial fragmentation in South Africa be conceptualised, understood and implemented?” Identifying the role players provide a response to who should implement the policies and also who is responsible for the implementation of the growth centres. Consequently, the responsible party should be knowledgeable and have the mandate to create the nodes.

9.3.2.4. The role of different sectors

In question 4, the respondents were asked to identify the role of each government sector and the private sector in the establishment of growth points/centres with regard to the preparation, endorsement, application, providing input and monitor each sector with regard to the different SDF in different levels of government. Figure 9.4 presents the summary of the responses to the question asked. All (100%) agree that each sphere of government should give input in the preparation of all the SDFs. The province was excluded in the application of the District SDF and Municipal SDF and both municipality and the district were marked as applying each other's SDF. Ninety percent of the respondents indicated that the municipality monitors the district in the application of the district SDF.

All (100%) indicated that the province monitor the municipality in applying the municipal SDF, 51% included the district, 30% included both the municipality and the 96% of the private sector is involved in the preparation of the PSDF, 97% in applying the framework, 94% in preparing the District Spatial Development Framework (DSDF), 95% in apply it, 97% in monitoring the district, 98% in the preparation of the MSDF, and 59% in applying the MSDF. The results reveal that the IDP and SDF processes in both municipalities is undertaken and monitored following the correct processes by the relevant people though the study does not suggest that the process is performed in a faultless manner.

The results also indicate that the IDP and SDF is capable of “giving spatial expression to national development policy and plans as well as integrate and give spatial expression to policies and plans emanating from the various sectors of national government” (Chapter 4 section 12(3) SPLUMA). This is possible because all spheres of government and the private sector are in reality involved in the preparation, implementation and monitoring processes of the SDFs. This results also respond to the question, “How should shopping centre nodes that can contribute positively in confronting the spatial fragmentation in South Africa be conceptualised, understood and implemented? like in subsection 9.3.2.2 above.

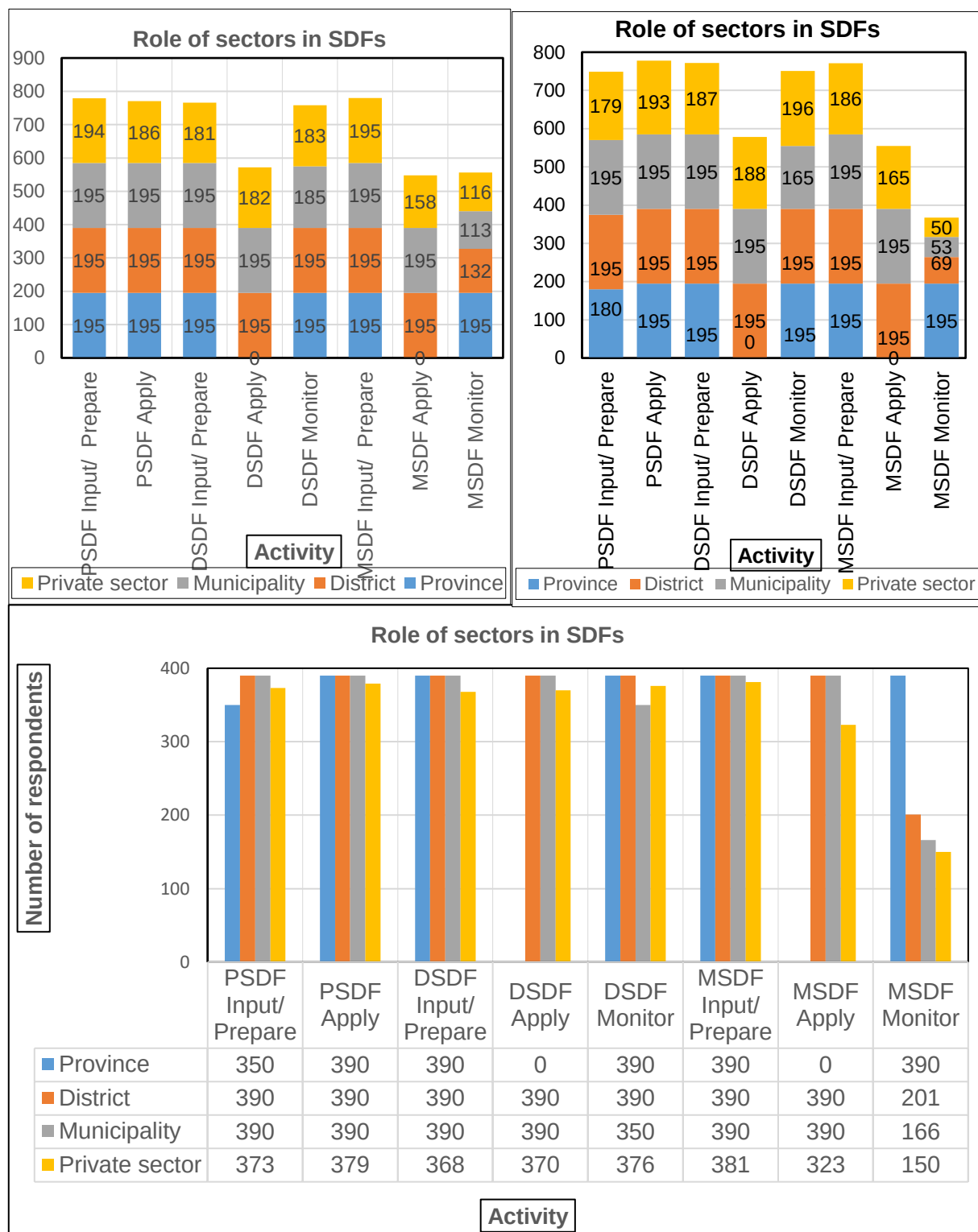


Figure 9-4: The roles of different sectors

Source: Own creation (2018)

9.3.2.5. Facilities / infrastructure provided by different sectors

In question 5, the respondents were asked to identify the infrastructure provided by each sector. Figure 9.5 presents the findings in detail. All respondents (100%) credited both the province and municipality as the sectors that are responsible for roads and 64% identified the district in addition to the province and

municipality. All respondents (100%) indicated the district and municipality as responsible for waste disposal and management and 1% identified the private sector as a role player in the function. The respondents identified the municipality (100%), district (33%) and private (10%) as sectors that provide electricity.

All respondents (100%) identified the district as a service provider for water, sewage, health, environment, offices, fire (80% indicated the local municipality), disaster management (75% added the local municipality) and markets (94% included the private sector). Seventy percent identified the municipality as a service provider for sewage services and 27% indicated the district as providing storm water services. All (100%) respondents also selected the municipality as a service provider in storm water, recreation, health (while 69% selected the private sector), environment (55% identified the private sector), offices (82% added the province) and cemeteries (95% district and 47% private); and the province in education, health, public works, housing and environment.

The private sector was credited by all (100%) respondents as providing, recreation, housing (69% local municipality), offices, business (98% added the province), and education (73%). Eighty-nine percent credited the local municipality for performing the function of delivering water to the communities. All (100%) identified the private sector, 96% local municipality and 44% the district as responsible for taxi ranks. The results indicate that the respondents answered the question based on what is taking place in their local areas and districts. The results reveals that the respondents answered the question according to what is happening in their municipality. In a municipality where the function is performed by the municipality the percentage is high as compared to the area where the function is allocated to the district.

The responses correspond to a large extent to what is documented in the IDPs. There is a shared responsibility between the province, district, local municipality and the private sector in providing services that create a suitable environment for the success of the shopping centre nodes. For example, the province has upgraded the D4 and R578 to meet the needs in terms of infrastructure of the neighbourhood and areas close to the shopping centre. The centres constructed taxi ranks that enables access to the centres.

The results support the literature review in section 7.6.1, 7.6.5, 7.6.6, 8.3.2, and 8.4.3. Again in 5.6.5 literature purport that infrastructure support various kinds of economic activities including shopping centres. Proper planning of shopping centres should take into consideration the availability of facilities and infrastructure in the locality because the centres are always linked to their environment (Boopen, 2006:38; Malec, 2014:6; Mohamad et al., 2015:80). Therefore, it was necessary in this study to establish stakeholders, facilities and infrastructure that contribute in the success of Elim and Namakgale shopping centres. In practice, despite what the findings have revealed, those who are responsible for the provision and coordination of the services tend to utilise their knowledge to create a fertile environment that allows

for socio-economic development. Development that eventually result in reducing the inequalities and assist in reducing the spatial fragmentation at municipal and district level.

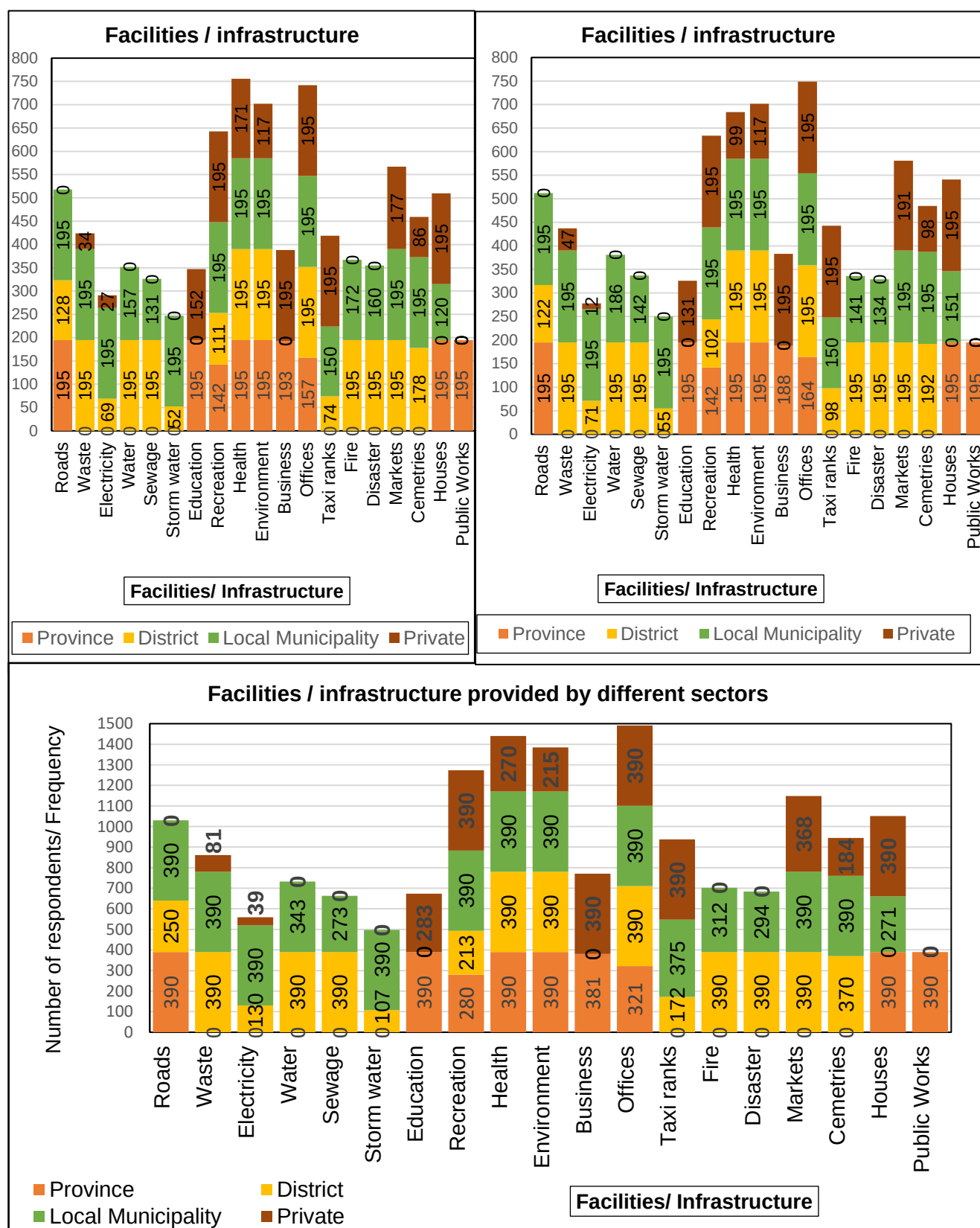


Figure 9-5: Different sectors that provide Facilities / infrastructure

Source: Own construction (2018)

The results respond to the research question, *“How should these shopping centre nodes be created in the context of the national, provincial, and regional planning SDF’s and economic development frameworks?”* The centres should be area specific, responding to the needs of the community, taking into consideration the available infrastructure and the culture of the local community. The results also answer the questions, *“How should shopping centre nodes that can contribute positively in confronting the spatial fragmentation in South Africa be conceptualised, understood and implemented?”* and *“What types of businesses are established close to these shopping centres since the creation of these nodes?”* The provision of facilities and infrastructure by both the public and private sector contribute in confronting the undesirable spatial structure and in the establishment of businesses that support the construction and existence of the shopping centres and SMMEs near the centres.

The results in this section (9.2.3) confirm that the process of identifying growth centres follows public participation processes where all stakeholders should be aware of the process and all the policies and laws that governs the process. They should also be involved in the process thus, what was established in this section should be common knowledge citizens who participate in municipal activities. More especially the businesspeople and community leaders. The public must be involved in the planning and establishment of developments that impact on their socio-economic wellbeing .

9.3.3. Shopping centres establishment

Questions on shopping centres were listed in the third section of the questionnaire. The respondents were asked questions relating to the availability of relevant legislations and policies, identification of relevant legislation and policies, roles, and responsibility of different sectors in shopping centre development, the role of the IDP in the process, and the performance of the shopping centres. The data gathered is analysed and interpreted as follows:

9.3.3.1. Availability of relevant legislations and policies

In question 1, the respondents were asked if there are legislations and policies that facilitate the existence and sustainability of shopping centres/ mall in their municipality. All respondents indicated that there are legislations and policies in place in their local municipalities. Again, in this section the results confirms that spatial planning is a public process that involves all stakeholders affected by spatial and socio-economic development emanating from this process. The developments have a direct impact on the wellbeing and livelihood of the residents therefore they should be informed and be included in the process.

It is international practice as revealed in section 5.3.2 and 5.3.4 that the community and all stakeholders should be aware of the laws and policies that are applicable in the planning and development of shopping centres especially those who are educated, involved in business and property development. These laws outlines the activities and actions that the community should undertake when applying and approving

development in their local areas. Therefore, these policies should be made known and available to the public for scrutiny and for use by the public.

9.3.3.2. Relevant laws and policies

In question 2, the respondents were asked to identify the legislations and policies that are applicable in the establishment of shopping centres/malls in their local municipality. Figure 9-6 presents the findings in detail. Respondents identified the Municipal Systems Act (72%), Municipal Structure Act (72%), National Building Regulations and Building Standards Act (98%), NEMA (96%), and SPLUMA (100%) as relevant laws applicable in the establishment of shopping centres. The implication is that all the shopping centre developments within the two municipalities and the province are guided by the above mentioned laws. The respondents indicated the Provincial SDF (100%), District SDF (97%), Municipal SDF (100%), the Precinct Plan (94%), IDP (100%) and LED (97%) policies as relevant in facilitating the existence and sustainability of shopping centres in municipalities.

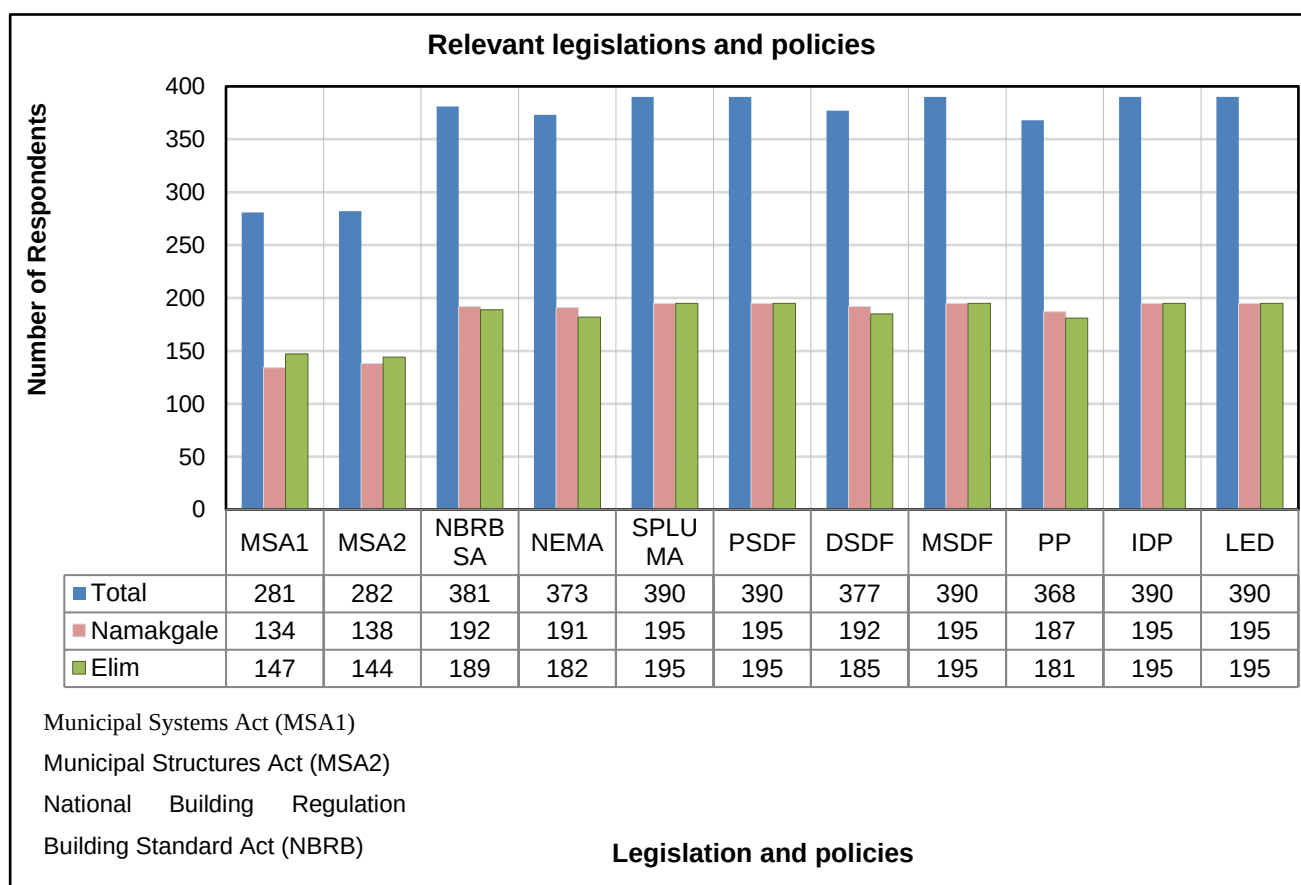


Figure 9-6: Laws for the conception and sustainability of shopping centres

Source: Own construction (2018)

The laws and policies identified in this section are identical to those in 7.3, 7.5.2, Chapter 8 and 9.2.3. The laws and policies rated 94% and higher in Figure 9-6 are frequently used to direct the current statutory planning in South Africa. In Chapter 8 the IDPs, SDFs of both the local and district municipalities in the

both case studies areas and the LSDF are the policy document analysed in the situation analysis of both case studies in sections 8.3 and 8.4 the results in this section confirms that the above mentioned policies and laws are relevant and used in the creation and in encouraging growth in the both case study areas.

The findings in both subsection 9.3.3.1 and 9.3.3.2 add to the findings in subsection 9.3.2.1 and 9.3.2.2 to provide answers to the first, second and third research questions,

1. *What are the spatial laws and policies relevant in creating shopping centre nodes that can contribute positively in confronting the spatial fragmentation in South Africa?*
2. *How should shopping centre nodes that can contribute positively in confronting the spatial fragmentation in South Africa be conceptualised, understood and implemented? and*
3. *How should these shopping centre nodes be created in the context of the national, provincial, and regional planning SDF's and economic development frameworks?*

9.3.3.3. Roles of different sectors

In question 3, the respondents were asked to identify the roles or responsibilities of individual stakeholders. The results with regards to the roles of the different sectors are reported in Figure 9- 7. The respondents (100%) identified all government sectors as responsible for all laws and the municipality (100%) responsible for buildings. The district (100%), municipality (100%) and the private sector (100%) are accountable for the land. The respondents (100%) identified the private sector as the sector that submits applications to develop the centres while the district and the municipality approve the applications.

All the respondents (100%) credited the district and local municipality for providing support and guidelines. Only 62% and 68% of the respondents also identified the province as a role player in providing support and guidelines respectively. The respondents (100%) attributed the province, district, local municipality and the private sector, as stakeholders who invest in the establishment of the centres. Only 71% of the respondents also credited the province as an investor in the establishment of the centres. The functions accredited to each sector in this section correspond with the literature review in 7.5, 7.5.3 and 7.6.2 and in Chapter 8.

The result augment results in subsection 9.3.2.2 and 9.3.2.3 respond to study questions,

1. *What are the spatial laws and policies relevant in creating shopping centre nodes that can contribute positively in confronting the spatial fragmentation in South Africa?*
2. *How should shopping centre nodes that can contribute positively in confronting the spatial fragmentation in South Africa be conceptualised, understood and implemented?*
3. *How should these shopping centre nodes be created in the context of the national, provincial, and regional planning SDF's and economic development frameworks?*

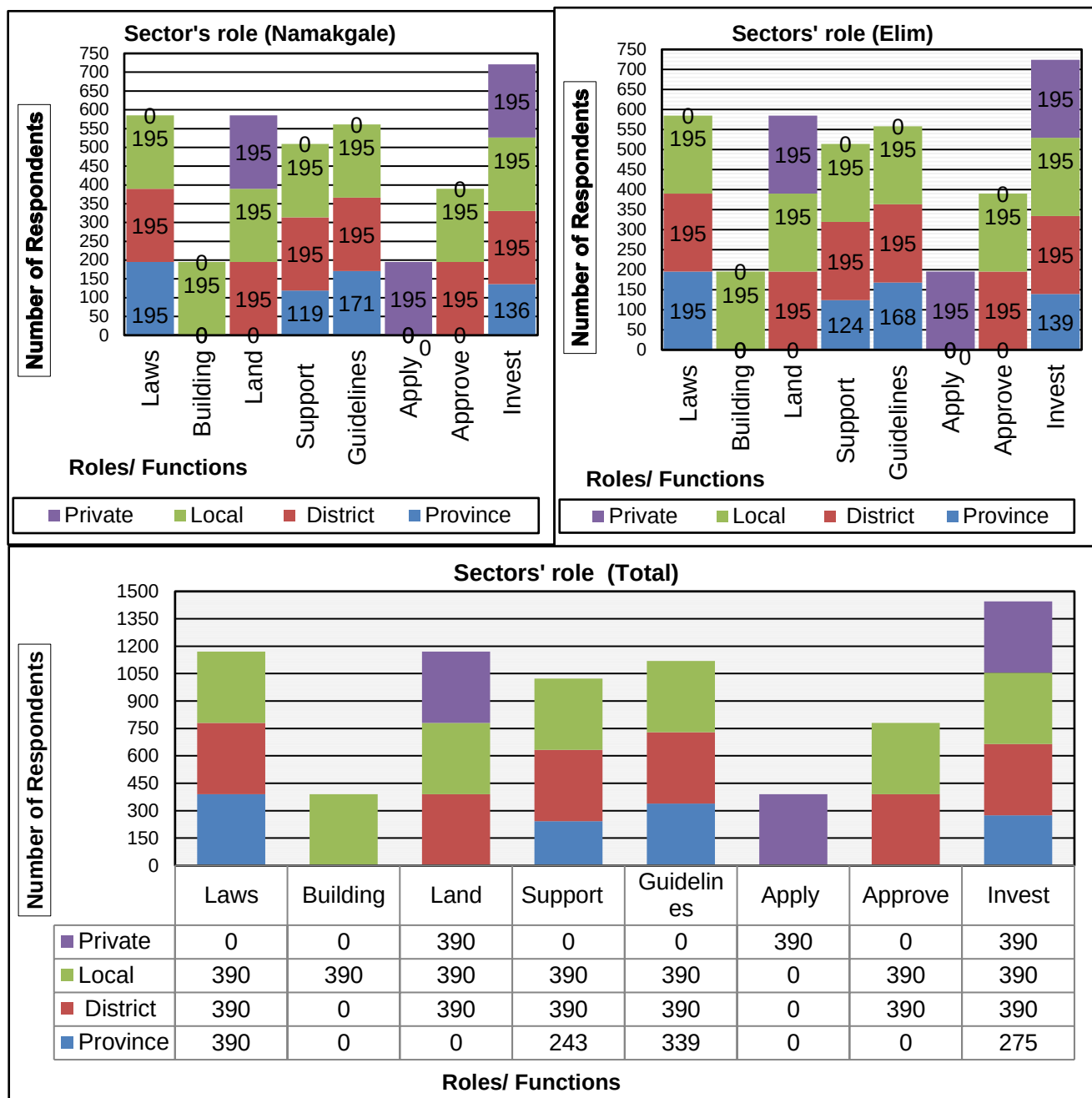


Figure 9-7: The role of different sectors in the establishment of shopping centres

Source: Own Construction (2018)

9.3.3.4. Sectors responsible for the different activities in the development of shopping centres

In question 4, the respondents were asked to identify sectors responsible for each activity involved in the establishment of the shopping centres. Figure 9- 8 presents the findings about the sectors and the different activities they are involved in. In all the activities there was an agreement across all the respondents (100%) that only the private sector is responsible for acquiring the site. The private sector, district and local municipality (100%) are responsible for the size of the centres, markets, planning and design functions. All respondents (100%) credited the province and local municipality for land rights, land provision and infrastructure development. Seventy two percent of the respondents ascribed the land rights to the district and all the respondents also ascribed land provision and infrastructure to the district.

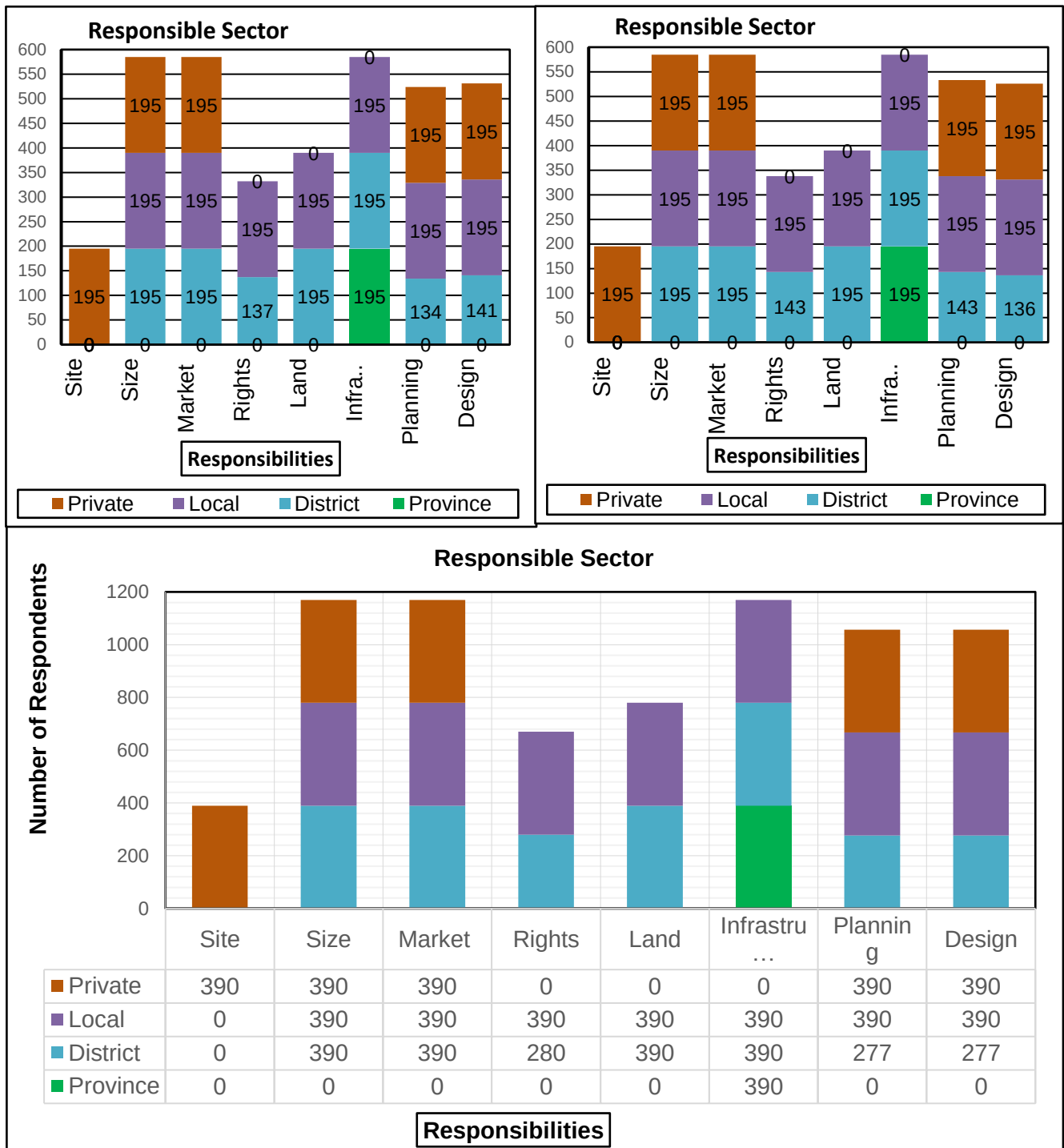


Figure 9-8: Sectors responsible for each function in shopping centre establishment

Source: Own construction (2018)

The responses correspond with the literature review in sections 7.3.1, 7.5, 7.6, and in Chapter 8. In the sections and Chapter, the national, provincial, district and local municipalities as well as the private stakeholders perform the same functions revealed in Figure 9- 8. The results in this section enhance result in subsection 9.3.3.3 above and related section 9.3.2.2 and 9.3.2.3 to respond the research questions 1,2, and 3 stated above in subsection 9.3.3.3. The findings are essential in the sense that, to transform

settlements involves spatial and social transformation needs partnership and support from business, public sector, private sector (e.g. Non-governmental Organisations), and residents.

9.3.3.5. The role of the IDP in the establishment and sustainability of shopping centres

In question 5, the respondents were asked to point out the role of the IDP in the establishment and sustainability of shopping centres/ mall. Figure 9- 9 presents the results of question 5. Almost all (99%) of the respondents acknowledged that the IDP plays a role in determining the location of the centre, 83% credited it in determining the tenant mix, 99% LUM and 99% land use patterns. Eighty-four percent of the respondents indicated that the IDP is associated with employment creation, 78% evaluating the shopping centres, and 77% with determining the size of the centres.

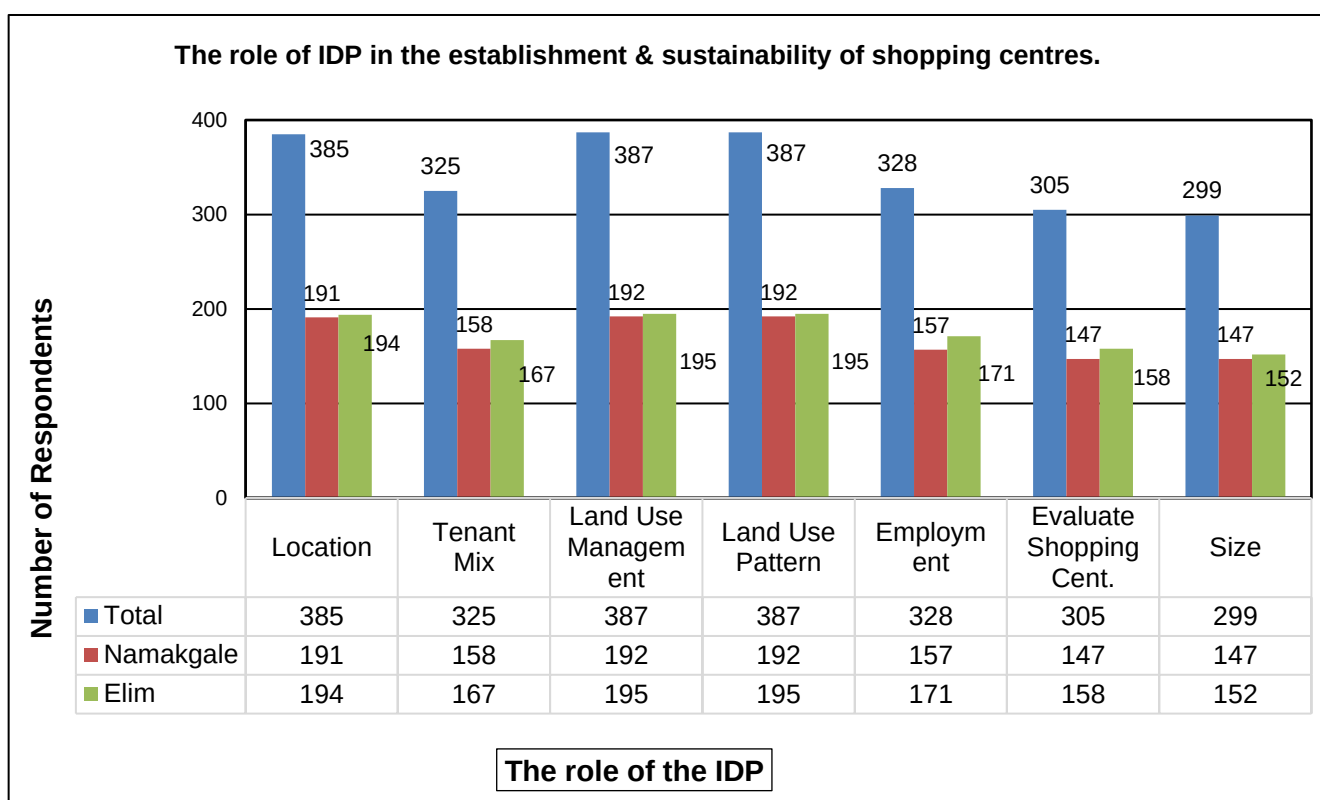


Figure 9-9: The role of IDP in the establishment and sustainability of shopping centres

Source: Own construction (2018)

The information provided here relates to the literature review about the SDF in sections 7.5, 7.3.1.5, and 7.3.1.7. Results in this subsection support results in the subsections subsection 9.3.3.1 to 9.3.3.3 above. The results answer the study question three, *“How should these shopping centre nodes be created in the context of the national, provincial, and regional planning SDF’s and economic development frameworks?”* The information from the questionnaire survey up to thus far was used to triangulate information gathered through the literature review, observations and field notes from the previous chapters. The process of triangulation is explained in section 3.6 as a process whereby two or three different methods are used in analysing the same subject. The findings above from section 9.3.2 and 9.3.3. indicate that most of the

professional and government respondents are aware of the roles of the different spheres of government in relation to shopping centres as well as the applicable laws and policies. The finding suggest that the problem is not ignorance but lack of proper implementation of the relevant laws and policies by the different stakeholders to effect development in strategic areas.

The challenge is the dysfunctional state that most municipalities in Limpopo Province and other parts of the country are in. The current persistent spatial structure created during the past government could be successfully altered overtime, if the municipalities have good governance, administration and political leadership. The greatest challenge in South Africa is lack of implementation not appropriate tools (such as policies and laws) and information dissemination or sharing. The success of the shopping centres is mostly driven by the private sector which invest in the facilities. Information in sub section 9.3.3.6 and 9.3.3.7 below was used in testing the study's hypothesis.

9.3.3.6. Performance of shopping centres

The same respondents described in sections 3.5 and 9.2 who answered all the preceding questions were required to respond to questions 6 and 7 In their professional capacity in the different work position they occupy and as business owners, they have the capacity to respond to questions in sections 9.3.2 and 9.3.3.1 to 9.3.3.5 above. They are required to respond to questions 6 and 7 because they are customers in the Elim and Namakgale shopping centres. The centres are located in the communities where they work and live. Despite the fact that they are professionals, politicians, leaders in their communities and business owners, they are also customers in these centres. They represent the upper and middle income earners who spent their money in the above mentioned centres. They also visit the centres with their families and friends for social and recreational purposes.

In question 6, the respondents were asked to rate the performance of the shopping centres based on the profile of the customers, the relevance and impact of the shopping centres in their local areas. Figure 9-10 presents the profile of customers who visit the shopping centres. The figure revealed that 45% of respondents visit the centres weekly, 31% fortnightly and 23% (lowest) visit monthly. Thirty-one percent of the respondents spend less than an hour to an hour, 45% spend one to three hours, and 25% three hours and more at the centre. Thirty-seven percent (majority) use private transport, 34% use public transport, and 29% walk to the centre. Twenty percent of the respondents visit one shop, 47% (majority) two to three stores per visit and 33% of the respondents visit four shops and more shops in one visit.

Forty-three percent of the respondents visited the centres for shopping only, 32% for shopping and socialising and 24% for socialising only. Twenty-six percent visited the shopping centres alone, 28% with friends or colleagues and 46% with family. Based on the results the majority 76% visit the centres regularly which means if there are frequent visitors to the centres, the centres are pleasant vibrant places which in turn links to the vitality of the centres. The 76% is comprised of 45% weekly visits and 31% fortnightly

visits. Another factor that adds to their vitality is that most of the customers (31% (up to an hour) and 45% (one to three hours) spent an hour to three hours at the centres.

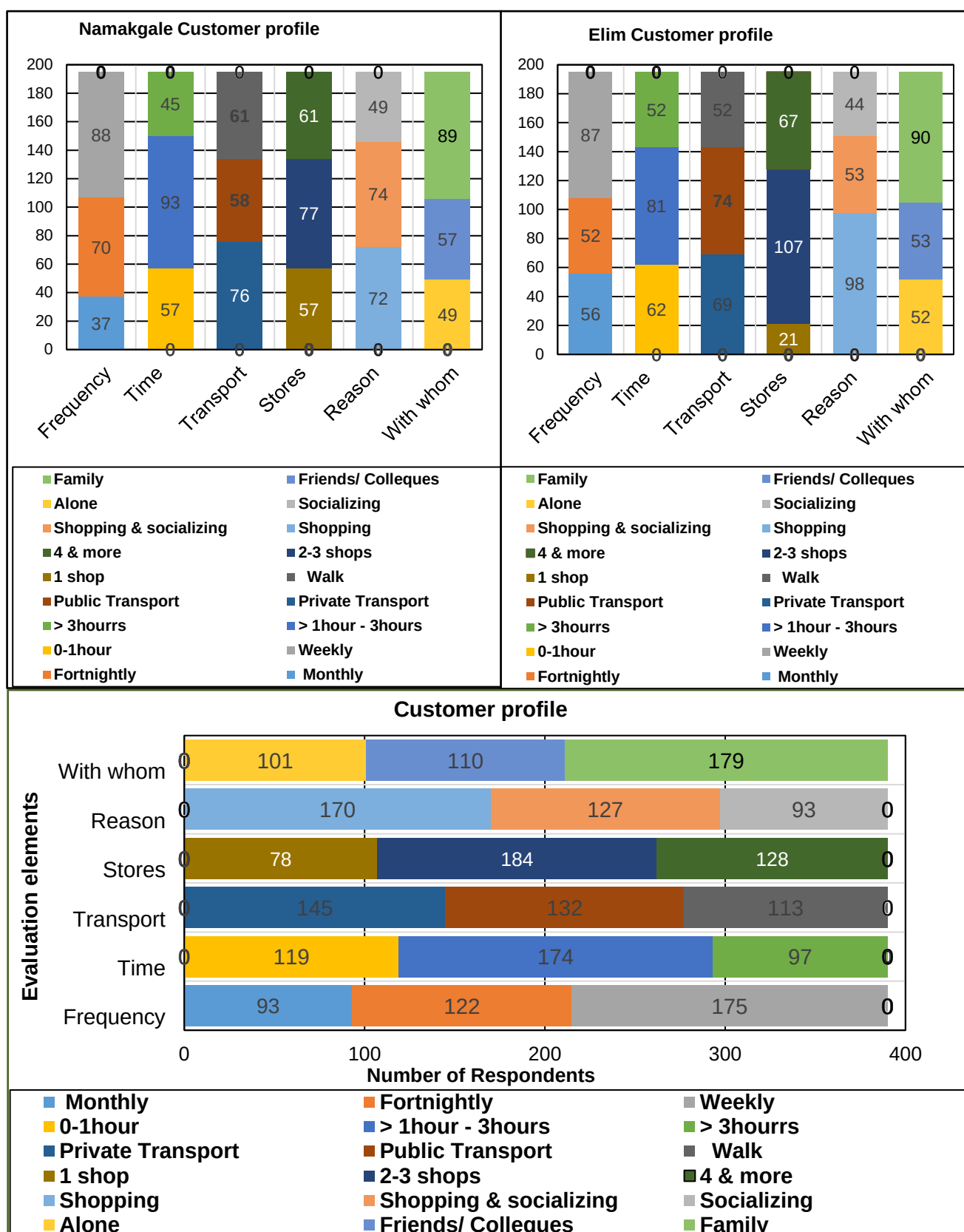


Figure 9-10: Customer profile

Source: Own creation (2018)

The majority use private transport, (34%) use public transport, and (29%) walk to the centre. Forty seven percent visit two to three shops and 33% four and more shops per visit which indicates that people visit the shopping centres to do all their shopping in one trip. It also shows that they browse or window shop before buying. Again, it revealed that the shopping centres provide a variety of shops, services and facilities that make the centres important places to visit for the varied consumers. The increased services and facilities capture the customers' shopping experience and retain spending in the neighbourhood as well as within the municipal boundaries. It is also evident that going shopping to buy goods is the major purpose for visiting the shopping centres, in that 76% of the respondents indicated that they go to the shopping centres to shop.

Only 43% of the 76% combined shopping with socialisation and 24% of the total number of respondents visited the centres for socialising only. The above correspond with the socio-economic status of the population which indicate that there are few people who are in the upper-middle and high income earners class. The figure also revealed that the owners and or developers as asset strategists concentrated on creating a proper balance in the tenant mix of stores, facilities and services to attract the local customers to the shopping centres. Forty-three percent of the customers combined shopping with socialising adding to the 24% of customers who visit the centres specifically for socialising, resulting in a total of 67% of customers who visit the shopping centres for socialising or recreation.

The number of recreation facilities in the two centres are limited to restaurant facilities. Forty-six percent of the respondents visit the shopping centres with their family members, 28% with friends and colleagues, and 26% alone. Seventy-four percent of the respondents visit the centres accompanied by family, friends and colleagues which implies that they engage in a socialising trip and is 2% lower than the results in question 5. Question 5 and question 6 results or outcome confirm that the shopping centres perform a social function in the communities in addition to the economic function; whereby the centres are regarded as institutions where financial transactions take place.

9.3.3.7. The relevance and impact of the shopping centres in the local areas

In question seven, the respondents were asked to rate the relevance and impact of the shopping centres in their local areas. Figure 9-11 presents results of how the respondents evaluated the shopping centres. The criteria used in evaluating the relevance and impact of the shopping centres in the local areas are outlined in the figure. Many (95%) respondents indicated that the shopping centres are conveniently located and 5% disagree. Most (96%) of the respondents indicated that the centres provide a wide selection and variety of goods/products while 4% disagreed. All respondents (100%) indicated that the centres are open during convenient shopping days and hours and that the centres' atmosphere and decor are appealing. Many (84%) of the respondents indicated that the stores in the centres offer reasonable/affordable prices while 16% disagreed.

Seventy-six percent of the respondents pointed out that the brands that they need are available at the centre, while 24% disagreed. Seventy-four percent of respondents pointed out that since the existence of the centre, services such as roads, public transport and other public services have improved while 26% of the respondents disagreed. Most (77%) respondents indicated that the centres improved peoples' lives while 23% disagreed.

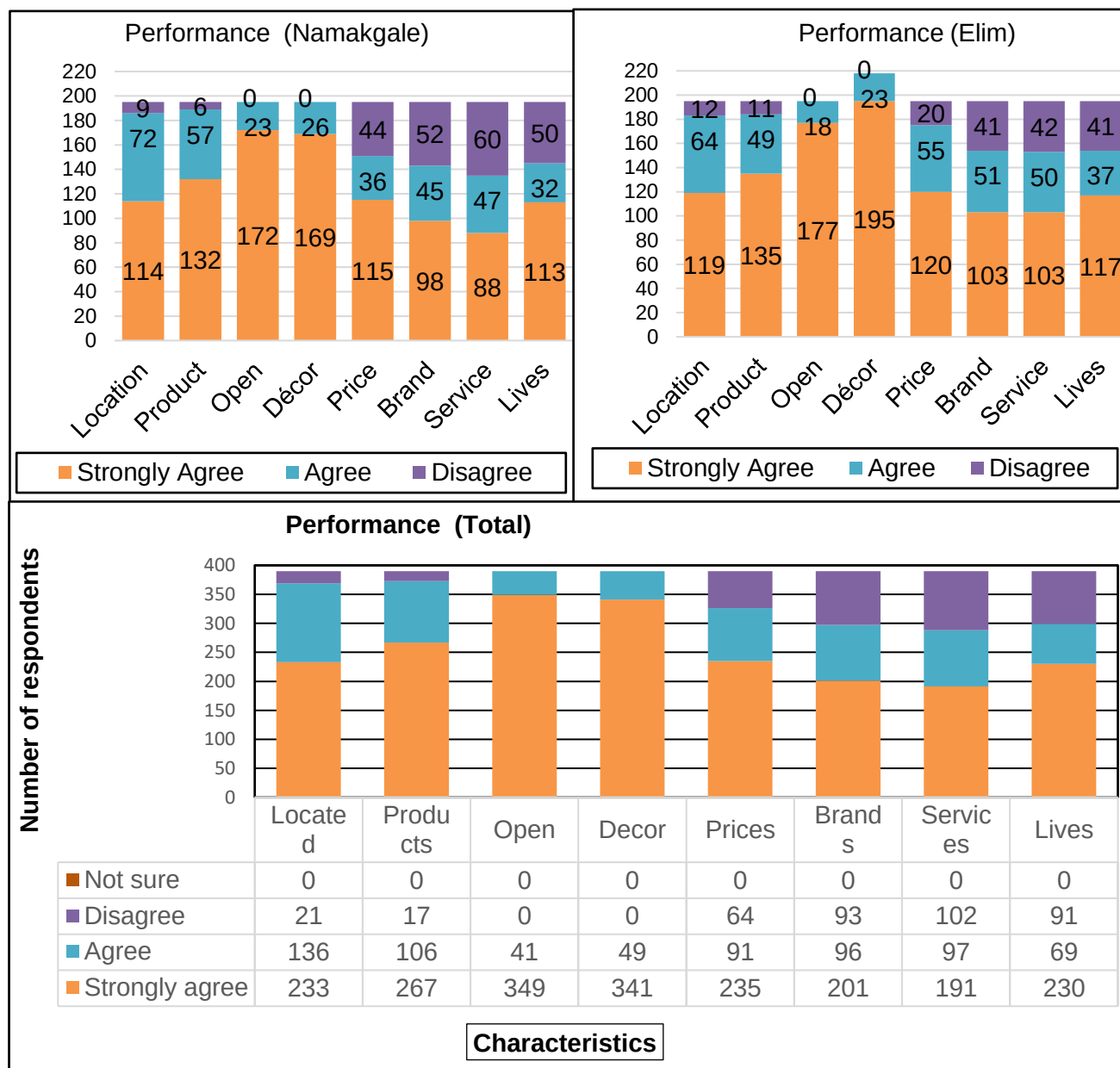


Figure 9-11: The relevance and impact of the shopping centres

Source: Own construction (2018)

Locational as well as opening hours and days of the centres connote convenience, availability of transport and that customers can walk to the centres (depicted in Figure 9.11), influence more customers to visit the shopping centres. The location's convenience is an indication that the centres are near homes and workplaces and are easily accessible which contribute to concept of place making. This adds to the centres

being capable of retaining the income in the local community and not allowing it to leak. It also creates a lively environment that is appealing to the customers changing the function of the area into an economic hub that has urban characteristics.

Satisfying customer needs and desires is important in persuading the customers to come back continually to buy goods and accesses services. The findings revealed that the centres provide a wide selection and variety of goods/products, stores offer reasonable/affordable prices and brands that the customers need are available. All of the above imply that the customers will continually visit the centres to buy goods. The above is true because the centres have reliable brand retail mix that provide national brands to the local communities. For example, Boxer, Shoprite, Clicks, KFC and Jet brands to mention a few. Mondal *et al.* (2017:7) maintain that “customers who remain generate higher revenues and margins per customer”. Respondents agreed that the shopping centres’ atmosphere and decor are appealing, which works in favour of the centres due to the fact that the centres have become important meeting places.

Thus, the centres are pleasing to the social motives and experiential needs of the respondents in that it increases their loyalty in line with the assertion that, “facility layout planning plays a crucial role in the success and profitability of any organization” (Fahmy *et al.*, 2014: 925). The shopping centres are connected to the environment around them, such as houses and undeveloped area in the vicinity as discussed in 5.7.3. The infrastructure that the municipality develop in support of the centres discussed in 5.6.5 service the local area. The above is supported by the result in this section that since the existence of the shopping centres, services such as roads, public transport and other public services have improved. Seventy-seven percent strongly agreed that the shopping centres improved peoples’ lives.

9.4. Hypothesis testing

In this section, a holistic interpretation of the data is summarised. The hypothesis of the study is tested using the statistical information in figures 9-10 and 9-11. A research hypothesis is a predictive statement that can be tested using scientific methods by relating an independent variable to some dependent variable. It is an assumption to be proved or disproved. The hypothesis of this study is divided into related sub hypotheses that will be tested with the ultimate goal of testing the main hypothesis. To be able to test the hypothesis, a null hypothesis symbolised H_0 and an alternative hypothesis, H_1 are needed. A null hypothesis is the hypothesis to be reject (disapprove), and an alternative hypothesis is the one which the researcher wishes to prove (accept) (Kothari, 2004:184).

A chi-square test was used to test the hypothesis. A chi-square is a procedure used to test hypotheses about the distribution of observations in different categories. The null hypothesis (H_0) is that the observed frequencies are the same as the expected frequencies (except for chance variation). If the observed and expected frequencies are the same, then $\chi^2 = 0$. If the frequencies observed are different from expected

frequencies, the value of χ^2 goes up. The larger the value of χ^2 , the more likely it is that the distributions are significantly different.

Considering the research aim, questions, objectives and detailed understanding of the relevant literature, a hypothesis which is stated in section 1.6 to respond to the objectives of the study, “Elim and Namakgale shopping centre nodes are suitable tools in confronting spatial fragmentation in MLM and BLM by attracting investment, retaining income and creating an integrated spatial form within their municipal areas” should be tested. The hypothesis relates to the long-term viability of these shopping centres and the nodes in which they are located. The retention of income is mainly in terms of consumers or patrons in the shopping centres, SMMEs, vendors and other retail facilities in the area buying local.

Income leakage most commonly occur as a result of local costumers spending on goods outside of the neighbourhood or region. It also include the transfer of profit outside by shops with multiple branches, manufacturers importing raw materials, and transfer of profit outside the area by industries. Thirty six shops in Hubenyi are rented by local entrepreneurs. 50 permanent hawkers’ stalls in the centre are operated by locals. The Elim/Shirley community has a 10% shareholding in the shopping centre development. The patrol guards local people provided by a local security firm. In Elim Mall the shops are required to employ local people. The taxi rank is operated by local taxi owners who employ local drivers in their operations.

The 288 businesses attracted by the shopping centre also play a role in the retention of income in the area. In Namakgale Crossing, the restaurants franchises, OBC, the health facilities are owned by local residents. The shopping centres pay property taxes to the local municipality. As defined in section 1.4 viability means the continuing ability of the city or district centre to attract investments that can be used for improvement, maintenance and adaptation to the residents’ varying needs (Dolega & Celińska-Janowicz, 2015:16; Roger Tym & Partners, 2009:v).

The main issue in viability is to attract investment. The long-term or continuing ability of Elim and Namakgale shopping centres and the respective nodes is assessed by testing the above hypothesis. Sub-hypotheses formulated from both literature review and data findings from the questionnaire survey responses will be used in this process. In this study as mentioned in Chapter 2 section 3.7.2. IBM SPSS 25 is used to analyse data and to test the hypothesis. The concept of reject or accept the hypothesis is referred to as the level of significance. The level of significance used is 5% and the confidence level is 95%.

The p-value (or probability value) is the probability that the test statistic equals the observed value or a more extreme value under the assumption that the null hypothesis is true. If the p-value is very low, below 0.05 ($p < .05$) and when $p = 0.05$, the null hypothesis must be rejected. When the p value is greater than 5% ($p > .05$), the null hypothesis is retained. The logic of hypothesis testing is to reject the null hypothesis

if the sample data do not support the null hypothesis (Aberson, 2002:37). This means that the objectives of the study are met or supported by the empirical data which together with the data from the literature review must support or answer the main question of the study.

The success of a shopping centres depends on potential consumers who are influenced by the attractiveness of the centre (Kunc *et al.*, 2016:32). To evaluate the vitality and viability of the Elim/Waterval and Namakgale nodes, the service functions of the shopping centres and these settlements are assessed using attractiveness capabilities of both the settlements and shopping centres. The assessment is carried out using the results of the questionnaire surveys conducted in these areas. To test the hypothesis, sub-hypotheses based on the results of the survey that are directly linked to the hypothesis were formulated.

What should be tested should relate to the viability and vitality of the shopping centres which adds to their ability to change the current spatial form of the localities. These shopping centre nodes have shopping centres as their main industry therefore the performance of the centres is crucial in how these nodes can change the spatial form of their local areas and region. Data used was aggregated in order to meet the minimum required sample and was computed using the SPSS software to establish the significance level of elements or variables in order to establish the viability of the centres as propulsive firms in the nodes. First, reliability tests were conducted before the data could be used. Kappa reliability test and Cronbach's alpha test were conducted to ascertain the reliability of the data.

A kappa statistic test introduced by Cohen (1960) was conducted for Figure 9-10's data. It is a statistical measure of determining how well an application of coding or measurement system works. Kappa is computed by finding and normalising the difference between the observed (p_o) and expected (p_e) agreements. Kappa values range from 0 to 1.0 though negative numbers are possible. Large numbers mean better reliability and values close or less than zero suggest that the agreement is said to be accidental (McHugh, 2012:279). Cohen's kappa is mainly used as a measure of agreement or reliability.

A Cohen's Kappa agreement of < 0 is interpreted as poor agreement, 0.0-0.20 slight agreement, 0.2-0.40 fair agreement, 0.41- 0.60 moderate agreement, 0.61-0.80 substantial agreement, and 0.81-1.00 as almost perfect agreement (Warrens, 2010:322). The Kappa results for Figure 9-10 are presented in Table 9-2. The values for items 1 above 0.81 which means there is almost perfect agreement or reliability. Items 2, 3, 4 and 5 are between 0.61 and 0.80 meaning that there is substantial agreement. Now that the reliability of the data has been established, the hypotheses utilised in the process of testing the main hypothesis are listed below, and the result of the chi-square performed are provided in Tables 9.3 and 9.4. Hypotheses 1-5 are constructed based on what motivate the customers to visit the mall. That can also be presented as how the customers behave toward the centres as well as what attracts them to the centres.

Table 9-2: Kappa results for figure 9-10 data

Source: Own creation (2018)

1. Frequent * Reason for visit			Symmetric Measures		
		Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T ^b	Approx. Sig.
Measure of Agreement	Kappa	.843	.023	23.633	.000
N of Valid Cases		390			
a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.					
b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.					
2. Frequent * Transport used			Symmetric Measures		
		Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T ^b	Approx. Sig.
Measure of Agreement	Kappa	.805	.026	22.505	.000
N of Valid Cases		390			
a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.					
b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.					
3. Time spend * No. Stores			Symmetric Measures		
		Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T ^b	Approx. Sig.
Measure of Agreement	Kappa	.659	.029	20.328	.000
N of Valid Cases		390			
a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.					
b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.					
4. Time spend * With whom			Symmetric Measures		
		Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T ^b	Approx. Sig.
Measure of Agreement	Kappa	.770	.027	22.187	.000
N of Valid Cases		390			
a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.					
b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.					
5. Reason for visit * No. Stores			Symmetric Measures		
		Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T ^b	Approx. Sig.
Measure of Agreement	Kappa	.617	.031	17.423	.000
N of Valid Cases		390			
a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.					
b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.					

Hypothesis 1: H_0 - There is no significant relationship between the frequency of visits and availability of transport to the centre. H_1 - There is a significant relationship between the frequency of visits and availability of transport to the centre.

Hypothesis 2: H_0 -There is no significant relationship between time spent at the centre and the number of stores in the centre. **H_1** .There is a significant relationship between time spent at the centre and the number of stores in the centre.

Hypothesis 3: H_0 -There is no significant relationship between time spent at the centre and the number of stores in the centre. **H_1** .There is a significant relationship between time spent at the centre and the number of stores in the centre.

Hypothesis 4: H_0 -There is no significant relationship between reason for visits and number of stores in the centre. **H_1** . -There is a significant relationship between reason for visits and number of stores in the centre.

Hypothesis 5: H_0 : -There is no significant relationship between time spent in the centre and with whom did the patron visit the centre. **H_1** : -There is a significant relationship between time spent in the centre and with whom did the patron visit the centre.

Table 9-3: Chi square test - Hypothesis 1-5

Source: Own construction (2018)

Hypothesis 1: Frequency and Transport used				Chi-Square Tests	
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Level of significance	Outcome
Pearson Chi-Square	187.144 ^a	1	.000	Significant	Very strong evidence to reject H_0
Likelihood Ratio	188.072	1	.000	Significant	Very strong evidence to reject H_0
Linear-by-Linear Association	186.664	1	.000	Significant	Very strong evidence to reject H_0
N of Valid Cases	390				
a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 35.93.					
Hypothesis 2: Time spend and number of stores				Chi-Square Tests	
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Level of significance	Outcome
Pearson Chi-Square	297.143 ^a	1	.000	Significant	Very strong evidence to reject H_0
Likelihood Ratio	325.171	1	.000	Significant	Very strong evidence to reject H_0
Linear-by-Linear Association	296.381	1	.000	Significant	Very strong evidence to reject H_0
N of Valid Cases	390				
a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 28.80.					
Hypothesis 3: Reason for visit and number of stores visited				Chi-Square Tests	

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Level of significance	Outcome
Pearson Chi-Square	53.079 ^a	1	.000	Significant	Very strong evidence to reject H ₀
Likelihood Ratio	79.214	1	.000	Significant	Very strong evidence to reject H ₀
Linear-by-Linear Association	52.943	1	.000	Significant	Very strong evidence to reject H ₀
N of Valid Cases	390				

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 28.20.

Hypothesis 4: Time spend and with whom Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Level of significance	Outcome
Pearson Chi-Square	44.505 ^a	1	.000	Significant	Very strong evidence to reject H ₀
Likelihood Ratio	67.853	1	.000	Significant	Very strong evidence to reject H ₀
Linear-by-Linear Association	44.391	1	.000	Significant	Very strong evidence to reject H ₀
N of Valid Cases	390				

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 24.86.

Hypothesis 5: Frequency and reason for visits Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Level of significance	Outcome
Pearson Chi-Square	57.735 ^a	1	.000	Significant	Very strong evidence to reject H ₀
Likelihood Ratio	85.220	1	.000	Significant	Very strong evidence to reject H ₀
Linear-by-Linear Association	57.587	1	.000	Significant	Very strong evidence to reject H ₀
N of Valid Cases	390				

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 29.89.

The p-value for the chi-square statistic is .000, which is smaller than the alpha level of .05. Therefore, there is enough evidence to reject the null hypotheses and accept the alternative hypotheses. Accepting the alternative hypotheses means that: The availability of private and public transport and that customers can walk to the centre indicate that the centres are accessible and connected to hinterlands by adequate road with public transport. The centres are located close to residential and workplaces whereby people can easily walk to the centres. Availability of transport results in customers frequenting the centres. The above factors, convenience and accessibility, have a positive significant influence on customers' satisfaction

currently and long-term. The other factor is that the centres provide a better variety of shops and have managed to create a new pleasing functional environment for customers.

In this way, attracting the customers to visit more often and stay longer as indicated in subsection (f) Figure 9.10. The scenario is also discussed in 5.8.3 and its implication is that it has a positive influence on the functioning of the centres and habit of customers to shop in the centres. This changes the function of the area in which the centres are located into both an economic and entertainment hub. Travelling to the shopping centres and other services in the vicinity is an important element of the service function of settlements. Shopping centres and other retail service influence the size of the serviced area and other functional boundaries of the local and regional service delivery (provision) systems.

The performance of these centres is closely linked to vehicular and pedestrian volume (traffic) because they represent the main modes of transport that the customers use to access the shopping centre. In this case it means the areas have good transport routes and public transport that the customers use to access the centres. The centres provide a variety of shops that caters for the needs of the customers including their needs for recreation or social facilities. The shops attract the customers to the centres and also manage to keep them for a longer period in there whether they visit the centres for shopping, socialising or both. They create a pleasant space for the customers to socialise as there are inadequate facilities in the localities.

Attracting the customers to stay longer most often translate into the customers spending money in the centres which adds to the viability of the centres. It also makes it a hub of activities which keeps the localities alive. Valuable time is spent with families, colleagues and friends in the centre for recreational (leisure), educational and business purposes. To test the reliability of the data relating to the elements of the shopping centres in Figure 9-11 a Cronbach's Alpha test was performed to measure the internal consistency or reliability of the data. A Cronbach's Alpha is the most commonly used objective measure of reliability. The test provides the overall reliability coefficient for questions used in gathering the information.

Alpha was developed by Lee Cronbach in 1951 to provide a measure of the internal consistency of a test or scale. The alpha is expressed as a number between 0 and 1. Internal consistency in this test refers to the extent to which all items in a test measure the same concept or construct and therefore is associated to the interrelatedness of items within a test (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011:53). Internal consistency must be resolved or established before a test can be used for research or examination purposes to guarantee validity of the test to establish the reliability estimates of the amount of measurement error in a test. There are different reports about the acceptable values of alpha, ranging from 0.70 to 0.95, however they are recommended acceptable values.

According to Halttu and Oinas-Kukkonen (2017:397); Moraes de, *et al.* (2018:234); Sturme *et al.* (2005:320,321); Moss (1998:173-183) a Cronbach's Alpha between 0.66 - 0.95 is acceptable. Bonett and Wright (2014:3); Sturme *et al.* (2005:320,321) and Moss *et al.* (1998:173-183) argue that a low Cronbach's Alpha value does not mean that the scale cannot work well. A high value of alpha > 0.90 suggests redundancies and indicates that the length of the test should be shortened (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011:54) while Taber (2018:1278) describes alpha values of 0.98 as acceptable. Table 9.4 presents the results of the Cronbach's Alpha test for data used in this study.

Table 9-4: Cronbach's Alpha test for Figure 9-11

Source: Own construction (2018)

Reliability Statistics for Figure 9-11.		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha based on standardised items	No. of items
.666	.655	7

The alpha of 0.666 for Figure 9.11 shows that the scale is reliable and will produce dependable results. As highlighted above, the test result must be 60% and above to be regarded as acceptable and in the case of this study is 0.666. The next step is to utilise the data since it is regarded as reliable. Hypotheses 6.10 below relates to aspects of the shopping centre itself that motivate the customers to visit the centres. They also cover the aspects of the local area and improvement in the quality of life of the local people close to the centres. The hypotheses are as follows:

Hypothesis 6: H_0 -There is no significant relationship between the location of centre and opening days and hours of the centre. **H_1** - There is a significant relationship between the location of centre and opening days and hours of the centre.

Hypothesis 7: H_0 -There is no significant relationship between a wide selection and variety of goods/ products offered and reasonable/ affordable prices offered in stores within the centre. **H_1** -There is a significant relationship between a wide selection and variety of goods/ products offered and reasonable/ affordable prices offered in stores within the centre.

Hypothesis 8: H_0 - There is no significant relationship between the prices and brands available the centre. **H_1** - There is a significant relationship between the prices and brands available the centre.

Hypothesis 9: H_0 - There is no significant relationship between the brands in the centre and the location of the centre. **H_1** - There is a significant relationship between the brands in the centre and the location of the centre.

Hypothesis 10: H_0 : There is no significant relationship between upgraded services/ infrastructure and quality of lives of local population. **H_1** : There is a significant relationship between upgraded services/ infrastructure and quality of lives of local population.

The results of the chi-square test performed for this section are reported in Table 9- 5 below.

Table 9-5: Chi square tests - Hypotheses 6-10

Source: Own creation (2018)

Hypothesis 6: Location and opening hours and days					Chi-Square Tests
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Level of significance	Outcome
Pearson Chi-Square	30.872 ^a	2	.000	Significant	Very strong evidence to reject H ₀
Likelihood Ratio	45.449	2	.000	Significant	Very strong evidence to reject H ₀
Linear-by-Linear Association	26.861	1	.000	Significant	Very strong evidence to reject H ₀
N of Valid Cases	390				
a. 1 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.10.					
Hypothesis 7: Product and Price					Chi-Square Tests
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Level of significance	Outcome
Pearson Chi-Square	219.725 ^a	4	.000	Significant	Very strong evidence to reject H ₀
Likelihood Ratio	245.757	4	.000	Significant	Very strong evidence to reject H ₀
N of Valid Cases	390				
a. 2 cells (22.2%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.79.					
Hypothesis 8: Price and Brand					Chi-Square Tests
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Level of significance	Outcome
Pearson Chi-Square	602.961 ^a	4	.000	Significant	Very strong evidence to reject H ₀
Likelihood Ratio	592.751	4	.000	Significant	Very strong evidence to reject H ₀
N of Valid Cases	390				
a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 15.26.					
Hypothesis 9: Brand and location					Chi-Square Tests
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Level of significance	Outcome
Pearson Chi-Square	231.986 ^a	4	.000	Significant	Very strong evidence to reject H ₀
Likelihood Ratio	297.163	4	.000	Significant	Very strong evidence to reject H ₀
Linear-by-Linear Association	103.541	1	.000	Significant	Very strong evidence to reject H ₀

N of Valid Cases	390				
a. 2 cells (22.2%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.77.					
Hypothesis 10: Services and Quality of life			Chi-Square Tests		
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Level of significance	Outcome
Pearson Chi-Square	385.712 ^a	4	.000	Significant	Very strong evidence to reject H ₀
Likelihood Ratio	442.506	4	.000	Significant	Very strong evidence to reject H ₀
Linear-by-Linear Association	194.286	1	.000	Significant	Very strong evidence to reject H ₀
N of Valid Cases	390				
a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 17.16.					

The results of the chi-square test present a significant level of 0.000 which means the null hypotheses should be rejected and the alternative hypotheses be accepted. Accepting the alternative hypotheses means convenient location, store variety, availability of product and brands, quality of product, availability of facility to socialise (e.g., restaurants), affordable price in store, and opening hours which are the centres attributes lead to a win-win situation. The developers and shop owners make money and customers get what they want. The demand and frequent visits to the centres translate into spending money at the centre, spending money for transport (private or public), purchasing groceries, and clothes, consulting a dentist, and eating in restaurants, which means the centres have managed to retain the residents' income in the local area and also attracted shoppers from neighbouring municipalities.

The centres have performed as economic places where financial transactions occur and as vibrant social spaces where the public socialise and also use the social facilities in the centres. The activities in the centres help to build effective relationships, increase the shopper satisfaction and increase the value of the shopping centres. The centres are constructed on suitable sites close to home, working place, high traffic places which makes customers (mostly local people) who prefer one-stop shopping to shop at the centres. The facilities/infrastructure developed by the municipalities change the layout of the locality.

Roads connect the centres, the neighbourhood and distant locations where customers reside. These developments also improve the quality of life of the people. The people have access to food, services and furniture, brands and other products that make them enjoy life. The local have a lifestyle that was

previously attained in cities in their own neighbourhood. Improved quality of life for people refers to the extent to which life is comfortable/satisfying or improving access to basic services and employment opportunities. The relationship between upgrade services/ infrastructure indicate that the shopping centres brought services/infrastructure of good quality to the neighbourhoods which resulted in the local people having access to services/ infrastructure that improved their quality of life.

For example, roads, clinics, and banks were not within reach for the local community but the construction of shopping centres in the neighbourhoods made the above services and infrastructure to be accessible to residents within their local areas. The centres are able to keep the income of people within the local area as they can buy almost all the goods and services they need within their communities. Customers understand the advantage of choice and choose the best their money can buy. The brands and products sold at reasonable prices in the centres attract customers to spend their money there. If a brand consistently delivers quality at the right price it is purchased and used by households in these areas. The shopping centre atmosphere and decor are appealing to recreational customers who wants more than a place to do shopping.

To attract this type of customer the developers and owners should make creative use of environment. These changes improve the aesthetic look of the neighbourhood, especially because the shopping centre should be designed to merge with the environment around it. Consistent maintenance and improvement of the décor help the efficiency of the centres and individual shops. The centres proved to be able to entice consumers into the local areas as demonstrated by the number of customers who frequent them.

To prove if the sample is representative of both study areas, a comparison between the number of responses in from the two areas was made. The questionnaires were distributed equally in both areas, 195 questionnaires in each area which when combined the number is 390. The matrix below present a comparison of how the respondents in the two study location have responded and how it factored into the total response in both areas. From Table 9- 6 the majority of respondents are involved from the provincial level to municipal level. A significant level of implementation takes place at district, municipal and in the private sector. The upper levels of government provide laws and policies and monitor how they are implemented by the local government and the private sector. However, the private sector also monitor how the government performs. In this instance there is agreement in both areas. The comparison revealed that there is no difference between study area A and B. The responses are similar in both study areas indicating that both areas are correctly represented. The total numbers do not represent the views of one area but both.

Table 9-6: Comparison matrix for Figures 9-2, 9-3 and 9-4.

Source: Own creation (2019)

Representation: 1- High level; 2- moderate; 3- Low level				
Facilities/Infrastructure provision (delivery)	BLM	LML	Total	No response
Figure 9- 2: Government level responsible for identifying growth centres in province				
Province	1	1	1	0%
District	1	1	1	8%
Local	1	1	1	2%
Figure 9- 3: Role of respondents in identifying growth centres				
Identify	3	3	3	61%
Input in the Province	1	1	1	36%
Input in the District	2	2	2	49%
Input in the Municipality	1	1	1	32%
Figure 9- 4: The roles of different sectors				
Province				
PSDF input/ prepare	1	1	1	10%
PSDF apply	1	1	1	0%
DSDF input/ prepare	1	1	1	0%
DSDF apply	3	3	3	100%
DSDF monitor	1	1	1	0%
MSDF input/ prepare	1	1	1	0%
MSDF apply	3	3	3	100%
MSDF monitor	1	1	1	0%
District				
PSDF input/ prepare	1	1	1	0%
PSDF apply	1	1	1	0%
DSDF input/ prepare	1	1	1	0%
DSDF apply	1	1	1	0%
DSDF monitor	1	1	1	0%
MSDF input/ prepare	1	1	1	0%
MSDF apply	1	1	1	0%
MSDF monitor	2	2	2	48%
Municipal				

PSDF input/ prepare	1	1	1	0%
PSDF apply	1	1	1	0%
DSDF input/ prepare	1	1	1	0%
DSDF apply	1	1	1	0%
DSDF monitor	1	1	1	0%
MSDF input/ prepare	1	1	1	0%
MSDF apply	1	1	1	0%
MSDF monitor	3	3	3	57%
Private				
PSDF input/ prepare	1	1	1	4%
PSDF apply	1	1	1	3%
DSDF input/ prepare	1	1	1	6%
DSDF apply	1	1	1	5%
DSDF monitor	1	1	1	4%
MSDF input/ prepare	1	1	1	2%
MSDF apply	1	1	1	17%
MSDF monitor	3	3	3	62%

Whit regards to the provision of facilities/ infrastructure there is an agreement in both areas on who should provide what or which infrastructure. The response to the questions that relates to this aspect correspond though they are influence by what is happening in both areas. Figure Table 9- 7 shows the comparison between BLM and MLM and between variables (items) regarding infrastructure provision.

Table 9-7: Comparison matrix for Figures 9- 5

Source: Own construction (2019)

Representation: 1- High level (positive); 2- moderate; 3- Low level (negative)		BLM	MLM	Total	No response
Facilities/Infrastructure provision (delivery)					
Roads	Province	1	1	1	0%
	District	1	1	1	36%
	Local	1	1	1	0%
	Private	3	3	3	100%
Solid waste	Province	3	3	3	100%
	District	1	1	1	0%
	Local	1	1	1	0%
	Private	3	3	3	79%

Electricity	Province	3	3	3	100%
	District	3	3	3	67%
	Local	1	1	1	100%
	Private	3	3	3	90%
Water	Province	3	3	3	100%
	District	1	1	1	0%
	Local	1	1	1	12%
	Private	3	3	3	100%
Sewage/ Sanitation	Province	3	3	3	100%
	District	1	1	1	0%
	Local	1	1	1	30%
	Private	3	3	3	100%
Storm Water	Province	3	3	3	100%
	District	3	3	3	73%
	Local	1	1	1	0%
	Private	3	3	3	100%
Education	Province	1	1	1	0%
	District	3	3	3	100%
	Local	3	3	3	100%
	Private	1	1	1	27%
Recreation	Province	1	1	1	0%
	District	1	1	1	28%
	Local	1	1	1	0%
	Private	1	1	1	0%
Health	Province	1	1	1	0%
	District	1	1	1	0%
	Local	1	1	1	0%
	Private	1	1	1	31%
Environmental	Province	1	1	1	0%
	District	1	1	1	0%
	Local	1	1	1	0%
	Private	2	2	2	45%
Business	Province	1	1	1	2%
	District	3	3	3	100%
	Local	3	3	3	100%
	Private	1	1	1	0%

Offices	Province	1	1	1	18%
	District	1	1	1	0%
	Local	1	1	1	0%
	Private	1	1	1	0%
Bus and Taxi Ranks	Province	3	3	3	100%
	District	2	2	2	56%
	Local	1	1	1	4%
	Private	1	1	1	0%
Fire fighting	Province	3	3	3	100%
	District	1	1	1	0%
	Local	1	1	1	20%
	Private	3	3	3	100%
Disaster & management	Province	3	3	3	100%
	District	1	1	1	0%
	Local	1	1	1	25%
	Private	3	3	3	100%
Fresh produce markets & abattoirs	Province	3	3	3	100%
	District	1	1	1	0%
	Local	1	1	1	0%
	Private	1	1	1	6%
Cemeteries	Province	3	3	3	100%
	District	1	1	1	5%
	Local	1	1	1	0%
	Private	2	2	2	53%
Housing	Province	1	1	1	0%
	District	3	3	3	100%
	Local	2	2	2	31%
	Private	1	1	1	0%
Public works	Province	1	1	1	0%
	District	3	3	3	100%
	Local	3	3	3	100%
	Private	3	3	3	100%

The variables where all respondents did not give an answer indicate that the service is not provided by that sector but where there is low response and a high percentage of non-response indicate that there is uncertainty on who provide that particular infrastructure. In some cases, it indicate that the service is not provided by the same service provider in both municipalities.

The comparison between the municipalities in Table 9-8 with regard to laws and policies also indicate that the respondents in both areas hold the same views. In this regard there is fewer respondents who did not respond to certain questions.

Table 9-8: Comparison matrix for Question 1 and Figures 9- 6 and 9- 9

Source: Own creation (2019)

Representation: 1- High level (positive); 2- moderate; 3- Low level (negative) Laws and policies relevant in the creation and development of growth centres and shopping centres.	BLM	MLM	Total	No Response
Question 1: Laws and policies applicable in the creation of growth centres in the municipality within which they live.				
NDP 2030	1	1	1	0%
NSDF	1	1	1	0%
PSDF (LSDF)	1	1	1	0%
DSDF	1	1	1	0%
MSDF	1	1	1	0%
IDP	1	1	1	0%
SLUMA (Act 16 of 2013)	1	1	1	0%
Figure 9- 6: Laws for the conception and sustainability of shopping centres				
MSA 1	2	2	2	28%
MSA 2	2	2	2	28%
NBRBSA	1	1	1	2%
NEMA	1	1	1	4%
SPLUMA	1	1	1	0%
PSDF	1	1	1	0%
DSDF	1	1	1	3%
MSDF	1	1	1	0%
PP	1	1	1	6%
IDP	1	1	1	0%
LED	1	1	1	0%
Figure 9-9: The role of IDP in the establishment and sustainability of shopping centres				
Location	1	1	1	1%

Tenant mix	2	2	2	17%
Land use management	1	1	1	0.8%
Land use pattern	1	1	1	0.8%
Employment	2	2	2	15%
Evaluating the shopping centre	3	3	3	21%
Size	3	3	3	23%

The number of respondents who responded positively is also high in Table 9- 9 where the respondents had to indicate the function of different sectors in establishing shopping centres.

Table 9-9: Comparison matrix for Figures 9- 7 and 9-8

Source: Own construction (2019)

Representation: 1- High level (positive); 2- moderate; 3- Low level (negative)		BLM	MLM	Total	No respons
Sector responsible for each function					
Figure 9- 7: The role of different sectors in the establishment of shopping centres					
Laws	Private	3	3	3	0%
	Local	1	1	1	0%
	District	1	1	1	0%
	Province	1	1	1	0%
Buildings	Private	3	3	3	0%
	Local	1	1	1	0%
	District	3	3	3	0%
	Province	3	3	3	0%
Land	Private	3	3	3	0%
	Local	1	1	1	0%
	District	1	1	1	0%
	Province	1	1	1	0%
Support	Private	1	1	1	0%
	Local	1	1	1	0%
	District	1	1	1	0%
	Province	1	1	1	37%
Guidelines	Private	1	1	1	0%
	Local	1	1	1	0%
	District	1	1	1	0%

	Province	1	1	1	13%
Apply	Private	1	1	1	0%
	Local	3	3	3	0%
	District	3	3	3	0%
	Province	3	3	3	0%
Approve	Private	3	3	3	0%
	Local	1	1	1	0%
	District	1	1	1	0%
	Province	3	3	3	0%
Investment	Private	1	1	1	0%
	Local	1	1	1	0%
	District	1	1	1	0%
	Province	1	1	1	29%
Figure 9-8: Sectors responsible for each function in shopping centre establishment					
Site	Private	1	1	1	0%
	Local	3	3	3	0%
	District	3	3	3	0%
	Province	3	3	3	0%
Size	Private	1	1	1	0%
	Local	1	1	1	0%
	District	1	1	1	0%
	Province	3	3	3	0%
Market	Private	1	1	1	0%
	Local	1	1	1	0%
	District	1	1	1	0%
	Province	3	3	3	0%
Rights	Private	3	3	3	0%
	Local	1	1	1	0%
	District	1	1	1	28%
	Province	3	3	3	0%
Land	Private	1	1		0%
	Local	1	1	1	0%
	District	1	1	1	0%
	Province	3	3	3	0%

Infrastructure	Private	3	3	3	0%
	Local	1	1		0%
	District	1	1	1	0%
	Province	1	1	1	0%
Planning	Private	1	1	1	0%
	Local	1	1	1	0%
	District	1	1	1	29%
	Province	3	3	3	0%
Designing	Private	1	1	1	0%
	Local	1	1	1	0%
	District	1	1	1	29%
	Province	3	3	3	0%

The comparison in Table 9- 10 indicate that the number of people who visit the centres once per month is higher in MLM than in BLM. The numbers of those who use private transport and those who walk are higher in BLM than in MLM and for those who use public transport is high in MLM. The number of those who visit the centre to shop is high in MLM and those who go shopping and socialising is high in BLM. Most people in MLM agree that the centre provide good prices. the number of those who disagree that the centres brought a change in their lives is high in BLM. Despite the above mentioned differences, the responses are the similar in all other questions in both municipalities and the number of those who responded positively in both areas are higher than those who disagreed.

Table 9-10: Comparison matrix for Figures 9-10 and 9- 11

Source: Own construction (2019)

Representation: 1- High level (positive); 2- moderate; 3- Low level (negative)	BLM	MLM	Total	No respons
Performance relevance and impact of the shopping centres				
Figure 9-10: The performance of the shopping centres				
How often do you visit the shopping centre in your community?				
Monthly	3	2	3	0%
Fortnightly	2	3	2	0%
Weekly	1	1	1	0%
How much time do you spend at the shopping centre?				
0- 1 hour	2	2	2	0%
> 1 hour – 3 hours	1	1	1	0%
> 3 hours	3	3	3	0%

What type of transport do you use?				
Private transport	1	2	1	0%
Public transport	3	1	2	0%
Walk	2	3	3	0%
With whom do you visit the shopping centre most of the time?				
Alone	3	3	3	0%
Friends/ Colleagues	2	2	2	0%
Family	1	1	1	0%
When shopping clothes/ household items how many stores do you normally visit?				
1 shop	3	3	3	0%
2 – 3 shops	1	1	1	0%
4 shops and more	2	2	2	0%
You visit a mall mostly for...				
Shopping	2	1	1	0%
Shopping and socializing	1	2	2	0%
Socializing	3	3	3	0%
Figure 9-11: The relevance and impact of the shopping centres				
The shopping centre is conveniently located				
Disagree	3	3	3	0%
Agree	3	3	3	0%
Strongly agree	1	1	1	0%
Provides a wide selection and variety of goods/ products				
Disagree	3	3	3	0%
Agree	2	2	2	0%
Strongly agree	1	1	1	0%
Open during convenient shopping days and hours				
Disagree	3	3	3	0%
Agree	2	2	2	0%
Strongly agree	1	1	1	0%
Shopping centre atmosphere and decor are appealing				
Disagree	3	3	3	0%
Agree	2	2	2	0%
Strongly agree	1	1	1	0%
Store offers reasonable/ affordable prices				
Disagree	2	3	2	0%

Agree	3	2	3	0%
Strongly agree	1	1	1	0%
The brands you need are available at the shopping centre				
Disagree	2	3	3	0%
Agree	3	2	2	0%
Strongly agree	1	1	1	0%
Since the existence of the shopping centre services have improved				
Disagree	2	3	2	0%
Agree	3	2	3	0%
Strongly agree	1	1	1	0%
Improved peoples' lives				
Disagree	2	2	2	0%
Agree	3	3	3	0%
Strongly agree	1	1	1	0%

The responses in the table above prove that the results of the questionnaires reflect the situation in both study areas.

9.5. Conclusion

The questionnaire results also revealed that there are spatial laws and policies that are relevant in creating viable shopping centre nodes though they do not specifically refer to retail or shopping centre development. The province is the responsible level of government accountable for the designation of growth points while the national and local government as well as the private sector contribute to the process. The private and public sector invest in the nodes and also provide infrastructure to support the growth of the nodes. The shopping centres' viability and vitality depends on the customers who buy at the centres. The attitude of customers towards shopping mall depends on many variables.

Convenience, prices, quality of goods and services, availability of brands that the customers need, availability of transport influence or attract customers to the shopping centres. They prevent the drainage of income out of the area and facilitate economic growth of economies in the local areas and promote the viability of the centres. They create jobs for local people. The centres have successfully functioned as growth nodes, attracting enterprises (vendors and SMMEs) to cluster around them. The municipality and provincial government have provided infrastructure and services and such, local facilities enhanced the overall quality of the areas (village and township).

CHAPTER 10: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

10.1. Introduction

In the previous chapter the questionnaire survey findings were reported, analysed, discussed and aligned with literature and theory. The hypothesis of the study was tested using the statistical information from the survey. In this chapter findings of both secondary and primary data sets are merged to respond to the main research question and sub questions.

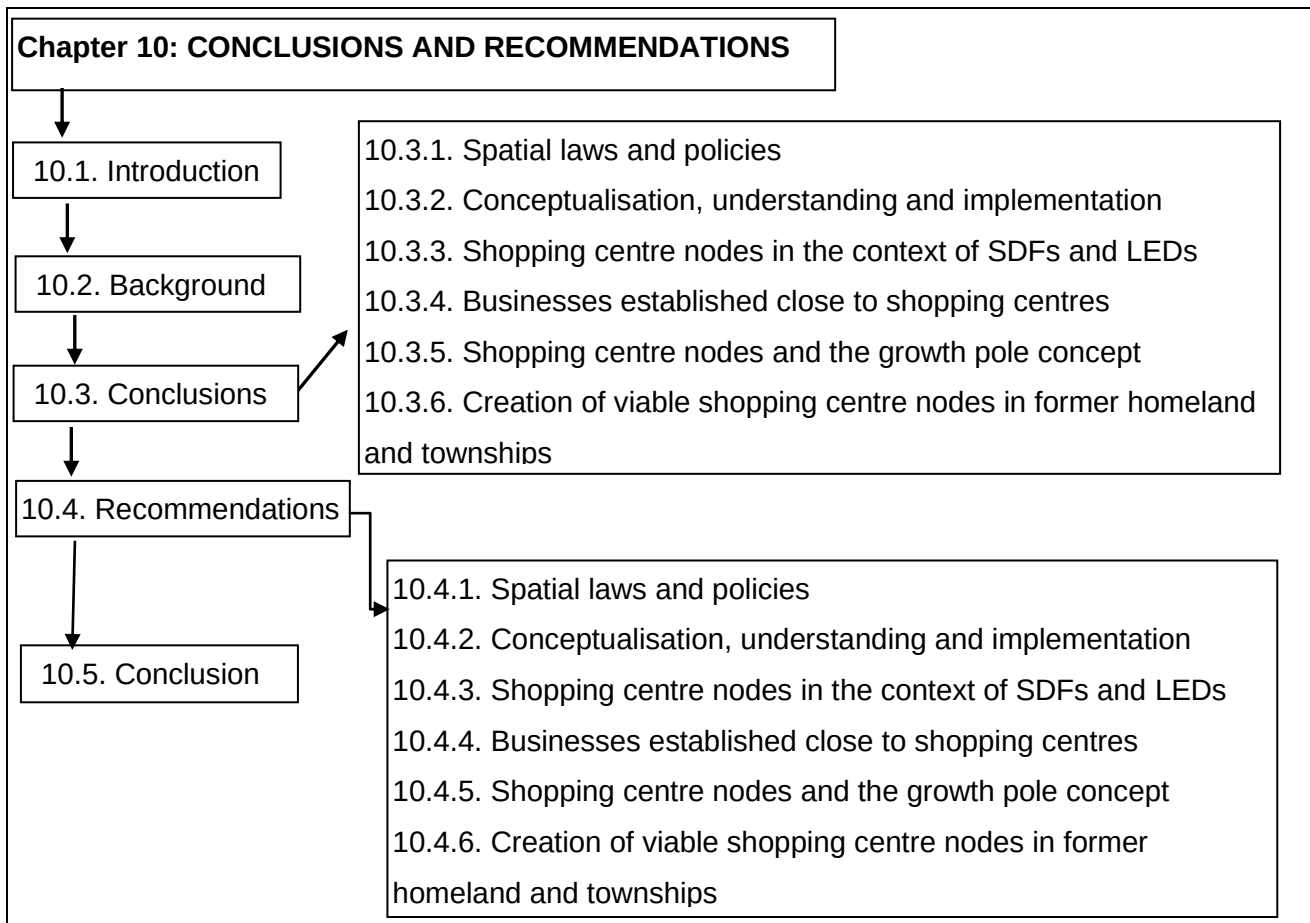


Figure 10-1: The Chapter 10 structure

Source: Own construction (2018)

10.2. Background

Going forward with the research process this chapter presents the conclusions on the entire study. The primary aim of this study was to address the research question asked in section 1.4, namely: *To what extent can Elim Mall be a long-term viable growth point in MLM?* The research questions and objectives are revisited and addressed under the themes that are derived directly from these objectives and questions. In the process, both secondary and primary data sets are merged. Aspects from both the

literature and findings from the empirical study are used in providing answers to the main research question and sub questions.

10.3. Study conclusion

This section presents the main research conclusions made in relation to each research question and objective sequentially below as mentioned in 10.2 above.

10.3.1. Spatial laws and policies

The first question is: *“What are the spatial laws and policies relevant in creating shopping centre nodes that can contribute positively in confronting the spatial fragmentation in South Africa?”* Chapter 7 and Chapter 9 provide a response to the question above. From the literature review in section 7.3.1 supported by the results of the questionnaire survey in section 9.3.2.1 the following laws and policies are considered relevant in the creation and development of shopping centre nodes that can be able to confront the current problem of fragmentation:

- a) SPLUMA guides development in a manner that the past injustices are amended. The Act provides comprehensive guiding development principles, but it does not impose a defined spatial form which is left to the local municipality as its main responsibility. The spatial planning, land development and LUM principles in this law directly confront spatial fragmentation. Therefore, shopping centre nodes created based on these principles will be capable of redressing the previous imbalances and create a better spatial structure. The principles allow for redressing through improved access to and use of land, inclusion of persons and areas that were previously excluded (informal settlements and former homeland areas), including section 7(a)(iii)-(iv); (b) the principle of spatial sustainability; (c) the principle of efficiency; (d) the principle of spatial resilience; and (e) the principle of good administration.
- b) NEMA addressing the environmental issues related to the built environment. Prescribing and regulating the EIA in major development such as shopping centre development and their surroundings, which is the entire area where the node is located.
- c) National Building Regulations Act that addresses the issues about the quality and standards of the shopping centre building, fittings and finishes, as well as the engineering services connected to the buildings (e.g., sewer pipes, electricity and water main connections).
- d) NDP, PSDF, DSDF, MSDF and the Precinct Plan addressing the adequate location, size and how the IDP and LED should address the issues of both public and private investment in the nodes. The Spatial Frameworks also deal with the hierarchy of settlements and the shopping centres in the area.
- e) The LED deals with directing investment in the nodes and Public Private Partnership investment which is crucial in the success of the centres and nodes.

10.3.2. Conceptualisation, understanding and implementation

Second question: *How should shopping centre nodes that can contribute positively in confronting the spatial fragmentation in South Africa be conceptualised, understood and implemented?* Chapters 2, 4, 5 and 6 provide literature review that respond to the second research question. The conclusion arising from these chapters is that the nodes are conceptualised as growth centres in line with Peroux's growth poles theory which provides a theoretical framework for this study as discussed in Chapter 2 and the national, provincial, district and local laws and policies as revealed in section 9.3.2.2 and 10.3.1. The concept is currently implemented as growth nodes and shopping centre nodes.

The nodes are understood to be nodes linked to corridors which have shopping centres as the main industry as is the case in Elim and Namakgale. The deduction from the study is that shopping centre nodes are understood and given meaning based on the NDP, NSDP, Provincial Growth and Development Strategies, Provincial SDF as well as the District and Municipal IDPs, SDFs and LEDs which follows the recommendation of provincial and national policy documents. The NSDP provides the methodology and principles of identifying, defining and implementing the nodes (The Presidency, 2007:i, 8).

The above policies provide the primary understanding of the capability of different areas and sectors as well as the Provincial Growth and Development Strategies which undertakes an extensive valuation of the area or sector prospects by merging the simple version presented by the NSDP with indigenous knowledge and research and requires the district and municipal authorities to endorse them in their IDPs and execute as per the provincial recommendations. The Provincial SDFs give the centres a provincial context and the IDP provides a home-grown meaning which is restricted by the local municipality's boundaries. The province and the local municipality interpretation of the shopping centre nodes is informed by the NSDP.

The province uses the methodology and principles outlined by the NSDF to define and identify nodes within the province. The district and local municipalities adopted the nodes and or growth centres from the provincial and the IDPs of each local municipality refer to the provincial framework when designating (applying) their growth points which include the shopping centre nodes. For example, the Makhado Municipality (2018:20) discloses that, the 2009 Vhembe District Municipality SDF is compatible with the recommendations and proposals made in the Limpopo SDF 2007, particularly the SDF map. It also affirms that the MLM's SDF and LUMS are related to both the district and provincial SDFs with the purpose of guiding all decisions about the current and future land use and development.

The proposed settlement hierarchy and its terminology is in the context of the current legislation and policies, which guide spatial planning in all spheres of government. It is not rigid, but it permits for the classification of settlements in district and local municipal areas since settlement pattern varies from one district to the other. The nodes should be implemented based on the current laws and policies in 10.3.1

as well as the principles of the growth poles theory. The inference in this regard is that the shopping centre nodes like any other growth centres in the Limpopo Province and all the other provinces are implemented by the provincial, district and municipal government and the implementation should be according to the hierarchy outline in the provincial SDF, for example LSDF (2007).

The LSDF (2016) is not yet effective in the MLM and BLM, nevertheless in municipalities where it is applicable the nodes should be in line with this policy. Spatial development in the province like during the apartheid era is mainly influenced or guided by political and economic forces and processes. The growth of the shopping centre nodes should be encouraged based on their status in the hierarchy like all the growth centres. Development should be directed first towards the PGPs then the district and last the MGP (Limpopo Province Office of the Premier, 2007:114). MLM and BLM should encourage growth in the different growth centres in their areas the same manner. The above has been confirmed by the findings of the survey in section 9.3.2. Therefore, the shopping centres' development must be according to the settlement hierarchy of the province, region and municipality as outlined in the LSDF and it should be suitable to the grading and function of the settlement in which it is situated or the section of the settlement in which it is developed.

Chapters 5 and 7 reviewed shopping centres internationally and locally, respectively and informed the conceptualisation and implementation of shopping centres nodes. Important aspects emanating from these chapters is that the classification of shopping centres internationally and in local context facilitate how shopping centre nodes should be understood and how the centres should be defined in the local context. A shopping centre is endorsed as a product that is conceived and developed by the developer who purposefully harmonise the location, customer mix and tenant mix which is sustained through progressive improvement of the above-mentioned components in a collective manner. The other aspect is the validation that shopping centres are not the same they have different things and their own unique identity as highlighted in Chapter 5.

Furthermore, shopping centres in the nodes should be developed as brands that have a social added value were also brought to light in the same chapter. A shopping centre should be recognised as a unique estate property, retail outlet, a land use and a private business which is an estate property product deliberated in Chapter 7. A precinct plan as formulated by the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (2014:85) considered in section 7.3.1, 7.5.2, 9.3.3 and 10.3.1 is relevant in the development of shopping centres in South Africa as it aligns the established centres with the spatial development plans of local municipalities. In the same chapter the processes of developing the centres is explained and the two case studies confirmed the process as it was demonstrated that the developers of Elim Mall and Namakgale Crossing made an investment in the respective location by constructing the shopping centres.

However, funds for the investments were borrowed from the bank and a property consultancy company respectively to fund the projects. This is in line with what literature acknowledges that to develop a shopping centre requires a large amount of money to be invested in the development, and the developer invest such capital in the project which at times it is loaned from a financial institution that charges interest on the loan or the developer has acquired money from investors as is the case in the above cases. Thus, investors are at the forefront of constructing the centres to generate profit (McGaffin & Gavera, 2011:23, 53; Tshangane, 2011:12). Thus, shopping centre development is a private economic activity that requires collaboration between the municipality and the private developer who is investing in the municipality.

Chapters 5 and 7 highlights that the developer as an individual or company identifies the business opportunity or need for retail development and constructs the shopping centre. Prior to the construction process the developer should have control over the land on which the shopping centre is constructed. The developer hires market researchers to undertake market surveys to ascertain if there is a potential market or customers to support and sustain the shopping centre. The information gathered is used to determine the suitability of the location, size of centre, and type of tenants needed to attract consumers. The process, the role players and their functions are also confirmed in Chapter 9 where Elim Mall owners developed the centre on their land that they bought from an individual and in the case of Namakgale Crossing the developer bought the land from the municipality.

It was also confirmed in the two case studies that the developers also identified the need and potential customers who are sustaining the centres by appointing specialists to do market research before the centres were developed. The questionnaire survey responses in section 9.3.3.3 and 9.3.3.4 confirmed that the role players identified in Chapters 7 are vital and their respective functions are essential in the process of developing shopping centres. Therefore, for the shopping centre to be successful all role players should be involved, and all the necessary steps should be followed as discussed in Chapters 5 and 7. It is also revealed that the local municipality should play a great role including the role of providing land, infrastructure and services. The study revealed that the SPLUMA (Act 16 of 2013), the leading planning legislative framework in the country, points out that municipalities are the key role players in relation to land use authorisation and planning matters within their individual legal boundaries.

The municipal planning operational area gives municipalities a licence or the right to manage land use planning matters and procedures on any land type within their authority. From a municipal planning standpoint, the study revealed that subdivision and rezoning as land use planning tools are regulated by SPLUMA (ACT 16 OF 2013) which gives the local municipality the responsibility of overseeing such matters. The findings in these chapters also revealed that the developer can acquire individual or communal rights to the land and the SPLUMA (Act 16 of 2013) provide for the land to be acquired under these rights. The study concludes that the land rights of the community and the developer should not be altered because of a new shopping centre development in that community. Shopping centres developed

within communal land facilitate development in the area and generate income for the community without the community paying rates and taxes to the municipality.

In this way the development promotes rural villages planning including the Local Service Points according to the IDP, SDF and LUMS aligned with the SPLUMA (Act 16 of 2013) and NDP proposals. It is important that municipalities be empowered with expertise on how to conduct their municipal planning powers of subdivision and rezoning in a manner that results in the eradication of the apartheid effects without imposing European standards that are embedded in the town planning processes and laws such as individual rights to land. To establish the viability of a shopping centre the developer should consider the success factors discussed in 5.6 and 7.6 and the development should conform to relevant laws and policies and the provisions of the municipality within which the centre is located, therefore, the developer should know the legislations, policies and by-laws that impact directly on the development.

The developer of Namakgale Crossing stated that the local municipality provided all support and necessary approvals from their side that made the project successful. The centre should be located on a suitable site which is easily accessible to the potential customers and other users in the neighbourhood and nearby areas through suitable roads network and public transport; have adequate space for the centre to be extended in future; and should not pose any apparent risks to ecological sustainability of the neighbourhood. In this context, it means the understanding, conceptualisation and implementation of growth centres in MLM and BLM is in the context of the provincial policy, namely, the LSDF which also reflect in the SDF and IDP. This is supported by findings of the survey in section 9.3.3.5. The approach in this case is still top down as opposed to the preferred bottom up approach that should be prevailing in the current democratic era. In both urban and rural areas growth centres are understood as presented in the 2007 LSDF.

10.3.3. Shopping centre nodes in the context of SDFs and LEDs

How should these shopping centres nodes be created in the context of the national, provincial and regional planning SDF's and economic development frameworks? The creation of shopping centre nodes in South Africa in the context of the SDF and economic development framework should be implemented in such a way that it counter acts the core (cities) periphery (homelands and township) phenomenon created by the apartheid policies. It should follow the principles of spatial justice, spatial sustainability, efficiency, spatial resilience and good administration stipulated by SPLUMA, Chapter 2 Section 7(a)-(e). In South Africa there had been strong decentralisation strengthened by past apartheid laws and policies.

Growth centre application in South Africa during and post the apartheid period is based on the decentralisation policies and processes applicable in the country. Industries in the main cities were decentralised to the small towns, homeland areas and areas the government designated as growth centres adjacent to the homelands at that time. Chapter 5 highlighted that in developed countries such as the US

and European countries like Poland the service sector more especially the shopping centre sector is used as propulsive firms and they are decentralised to the suburbs, small towns, and rural areas. The implementation of growth centres in rural South Africa based on, amongst others, the decentralisation of shopping centres to the former homeland, rural areas, and townships.

The centres are used to attract investment into the above-mentioned areas and to prevent the leakage of resources from the localities. Growth centres are implemented in such a way that they should support the redressing of inequalities. The process should be founded on the SPLUMA (Act 16 of 2013) principles and objectives as discussed in 7.3.1.1. The centres should promote social and economic inclusion as well as the sustainability of the neighbourhood. The shopping centre sector as discussed in chapters 5 and 7 drive economic development, create jobs, encourage social inclusion, attract related industries, and infrastructure.

Chapter 7 proved that the government of South Africa promotes the decentralisation of shopping centres to the previously disadvantaged areas such as townships, small towns, and rural areas more especially the previous homeland areas. From the above it can be concluded that currently the service sector in South Africa plays a role in introducing growth centres in rural areas. The sector plays an important and active role in LED by generating income in the area and prevents the leakage of this income out of the area. As such, the municipalities' LED policies and strategies should not view the service sector particularly the shopping centres as a sector that is dependent on the primary and manufacturing industries. Decentralised shopping centres compete with the city centre which is a challenge in terms of the municipal sustainability and resilience.

The sustainability and resilience elements should be factored in shopping centres as discussed in chapters 5 and 7 because the centres influence the sustainability and resilience of the local community and the society at large. Shopping centres affect economic development in the surrounding area (ICSC, 2017:29). Thus, their construction in rural areas should lead to economic development in these areas. The centres are constructed as economic hubs, creating town centres outside of the traditional city centre and providing a town inside a building. Yet this happens by default as there is less concentration on taking advantage of this characteristic of the centres by government.

10.3.4. Businesses established close to shopping centres

What types of businesses are established close to these shopping centres since the creation of these nodes? Chapter 8 provides relevant information needed in responding to the question. The chapter also considers businesses established after the official launching of Namakgale Crossing. Chapter 8 presents both the Elim Mall and Namakgale Crossing shopping centres in their local setting and examined their impact within their locality. As demonstrated in the chapter, the types of businesses developed in Elim/

Waternal since Elim Mall started operating in 2013 are Big business, SMMEs and informal businesses in the form of street vendors. This is confirmed in section 8.3.6.3 and 8.4.6.

These categories of businesses attracted by the shopping centres in the Elim/ Waternal area and in Namakgale where Namakgale Crossing is located are in line with the size and function of the shopping centre. These businesses are linked industries discussed in section 3.2.3.1 that cluster around a growth centre. Namakgale Crossing attracted street vendors trading along the main street in front of the shopping centre. The businesses are mainly street vendors and SMMEs and this is attributed to the fact that both cases are in low income population areas discussed in Chapter 8. These are the types of businesses that the middle and low-income groups can afford to establish. The businesses target a market group that cannot afford to buy brand packaged goods sold in inside the shopping centres. The development is a step in the right direction as the above-mentioned businesses create jobs for the local population and make a great contribution to the local and national economy.

The study revealed the success of shopping centres, one in an area that did not have a formal traditional town centre in an economically disadvantaged area that was consciously excluded in the formal economic development of the country. The other in a township designed to provide labour to the mining town of Phalaborwa. The Elim Mall is in an area dominated by communal land tenure while the urban based centre, Namakgale Crossing is in an area that was previously excluded in the Phalaborwa municipal town planning scheme and the residents leased property from the municipality perpetually. These centres created economic hubs where there was none, creating a form that encourage integrated development instead of a divided spatial form in the sense that they are decentralising the functions of the Louis Trichardt and Phalaborwa towns to Elim and Namakgale respectively. The decentralisation promote a fair distribution of economic hubs MLM and BLM.

The residents gained private ownership of land in the area towards the end of the previous regime. The shopping centres managed to strengthen LED in these areas attracting linking businesses including informal traders due to the income level of the communities. People in the low-income group cannot afford a franchise or a business location where they must pay rent. The buying power of their customers cannot support expensive products. These small-scale informal traders contribute significantly to the local economy of their localities. The centres embraced the informal sector industry which contributes to the livelihood of the street vendors.

The proximity of Elim Mall to Louis Trichardt and the major urban and economic centre in the municipality, proves to be a strength instead of a disadvantage. The proximity strengthens the flow of goods and innovation from the main town of Louis Trichardt to the shopping centre's locality which makes the area to occupy a significant position in the existing linkages of Louis Trichardt within the district. The hinterland connections of Louis Trichardt a PGP are enhanced by the existence of this shopping centre. Literature in

chapters 2 and 4 states that if the growth points are many and close to each other they become unsuccessful, therefore the existence of Elim Mall and shopping centres in the municipality followed the required population, income and related criteria for creating successful centres. Although Hubiyeni and Elim Shopping Centre are in the same vicinity adjacent to each other, they create a viable economic hub for the neighbourhood instead of affecting the growth and prosperity of each other.

The success of Elim Mall and Namakgale Crossing up to thus far, suggests that the laws, policies, strategies, and processes implemented in the creation and sustainability of the centres and their neighbourhoods serve as an example that the province can follow in creating shopping centre nodes. Nodes that can have a positive impact in confronting the spatially fragmented form of Limpopo Province and the rest of the former homelands and townships in the country. Namakgale Crossing sets an example of how shopping centre nodes of its size have a positive influence on the economy of its local area by presenting a starting point for the other nodes within the townships. It also demonstrate that no matter the size of the centre, it is capable of transforming the spatial structure of a local area. These type of nodes can shape the spatial form of the townships and surrounding areas within the different municipalities.

10.3.5. Shopping centre nodes and the growth pole concept

How do these shopping centre nodes measure up to the growth pole concept? is a question that need to be answered in this section. The Elim Mall and Namakgale Crossing will not entirely measure up to growth poles in the theoretical context according to the discussion of the theory in Chapter 2 because the theory is applied differently in different countries for various reasons. The centres only meet the main principles of the theory. This marks a difference between what the previous government adopted in the development policies at that time. According to Boshoff (1989:8) the problems and failures of the growth poles in South Africa during the apartheid was that the country's development policies which were based on the growth pole theory but have overlooked its principles. This is an example of contextualising the theory in a countries' situation and needs.

The current government's policies consider the principles behind the growth poles theory and the evolved growth centres theory credited to Boudeville's introduction of the space concept in the theory. Elim Mall and Namakgale Crossing exhibited activities which are aligned with the principles prevailing in the current policies and strategies of the government, designed according to the growth pole theory. According to the early notion of growth pole theory policy and the growth centre concept, a growth pole should attract propulsive industries. Businesses should be able to benefit from economies of agglomeration and there must be a form of an incentive package. The shopping centres are both leading business in their respective locations. They are big, modern and fast-growing.

They also form part of the most advanced sector of the economy (retail) and has a high degree of reciprocal links to other business sectors. These to their level and the class in which they are categorised in the

shopping centres classification system in South Africa. A Small regional/large community centre such as Elim Mall attracts more, and established businesses compared to a neighbourhood centre like Namakgale Crossing. The growth centre theory promotes the localisation of inter-industry linkages and argues that it is important for the centres to attain self-sustained growth.

The Elim Mall has managed to attract related industries as discussed in section 8.3.6.3. The centre has a higher level of vibrant businesses that have stronger ties with Louis Trichardt, a major urban area in the municipality and other urban areas in the district area and province. These include the national brand shops in the centre. In this case the centre has played a role in the decentralisation process. It managed to decentralise the retail activities from Louis Trichardt town to an area that is approximately 23 kilometres and area has stronger links to the town economy. Businesses in this area obtain their inputs from Vhembe and the greater Limpopo Province. Most of the inputs are from the Louis Trichardt area.

The economic agglomeration provides businesses such as banking and other financial services (small financial loan businesses), repair and maintenance services, communication services, services discussed in section 8.3.6.3 and in the case of Namakgale Crossing in section 8.4.6. These businesses provide an indication that the centres are viable. The district encourages that priority in terms of investment should be directed to the DGPs where these centres are located and services such water, electricity, road infrastructure and public works services are an indication of the financial incentive that the government make available in these areas.

Elim Mall has created jobs from the construction to the operational stages. It has 73 shops, a taxi rank and has attracted street vendors and small businesses that provide employment mostly for the local population. Jobs are also created in the linked industries and in the construction of roads and the public works programme from infrastructure and services provision by the government. The centre supports self-employment SMMEs and vendors that also employ other people in addition to the self-employed owner of the business. The shops from both centres created a node of 120 shop which attracted big brand shops like Builtit, Midas, Shoprite U save and Rico Deco centre that add to the retail shops in the node. This is also true in Namakgale Crossing, in section 8.4.6 it was revealed that employment was created from the construction stage of the centre, the vendors, SMMEs and other linked businesses such as local suppliers.

The centre has revitalised the Namakgale commercial centre delineated in Figure 8-16. Elim Mall has played a positive role in improving the quality of life of people in the local area. Under general provision of means of livelihood results in improved quality of life. Changes in the area highlighted in section 8.3 and 8.4 give evidence that there is improved quality of life. Namakgale Crossing has also succeeded as a growth centre. The difference between Elim Mall and Namakgale Crossing is that Elim Mall is Small regional/large community centre serving a larger community and having a much wider tenant mix than

Namakgale Crossing which is a neighbourhood centre performing a convenience and express convenience role in the community.

10.3.6. Creation of viable shopping centre nodes in former homeland and townships

The question to be addressed in this section is: *How can long-term viable shopping centre nodes in the former homelands and townships be created?* Long-term viable rural shopping centre nodes in both MLM and BLM, other rural areas in Limpopo and the entire country should be established as planned growth points informed by all the SDFs from national to local government. The centres should create rural-urban linkages and further enhance regional development within the municipalities and province. The municipalities should create an enabling environment for job creation by allowing for the centres to be created in the previously disadvantaged areas. Jobs lead to improvement in quality of life and development, and ultimately, economic development that grows faster than population growth which leads to an increase in per capita income.

The successful development of a region depends on the strengths of the linkages between nodes in the region and the linkage between the rural areas and nodes in the region. The shopping centres should be located strategically to have a significant role in the linkages. Their establishment should follow the hierarchy of settlements because the settlement population can only support a centre that requires a population the same size as the settlement. External linkages to other regions and nodes within other regions are also important and will assist in the strengthening of the economic base of the region. A hierarchy of shopping centres established in appropriate neighbourhoods such as in the case of Elim Mall and Namakgale Crossing where reciprocal links are created with the neighbourhood and outside of the municipal areas.

Linkages are not limited to economic links alone, but also include social and cultural linkages. These centres create such mutual ties which is possible because of the social, economic and environmental functions performed by shopping centres. Rural policies to strengthen rural-urban linkages include industrial connections, migration policies, and rural urbanisation policies. The above-mentioned play a role in the centres as they are taken into consideration in the IDP, SDF and LED policies. Infrastructure development is also a tool in the improvement of the interactions and integration of regions.

The infrastructure that the government develops and the public services that the government provides to support the centres, improve linkages and integration in the municipalities and districts. Shopping centres should be developed as unique properties that are brands and have their own niche. Replication should be avoided to strengthen the viability of the centres. The centre as mentioned in several occasions in this document should directly confront the impact of the segregated development and foster cohesion. The Elim Mall has served to reveal that centres the size of Elim can be used as economic hubs in the settlements with large populations that do not have any other sector as the driver of the local economy.

These types of settlements are mostly found in the previous homelands which had no potential to grow economically. Namakgale Crossing demonstrates that the centres serve different purposes which in the end integrate economic development in the municipality. Namakgale Crossing decentralised retail from Phalaborwa to reach people in the township. In urban areas, the centres can serve in the processes of strengthening townships to become viable suburbs. Decentralising development from the town centres created during the apartheid period which mostly have less population compared to townships. The creation of these nodes should follow the examples in 5.4, Hoogeveen and Hengelo in the Netherlands, which reinvented their city centres using shopping centres after World War II (Urbact, 2017:11). Shopping centres of all sizes have the capacity to change the function, transform the image and shape of an area, as well as generating activities in the area.

The creation of long-term viable shopping centre nodes in former homeland areas and townships should assume a broader role than the commercial function to include the role of creating new towns like in Britain. In the south African context, the town centres should be created in the former homeland and townships and in areas with different economic seething from the British context. Thurrock Lakeside has successfully become a town and an instrument for advanced development in the east side region of London. Merry Hill Centre in Dudley, West Midlands formed a town centre where there was no town centre. As highlighted in the same section, no matter how small a shopping centre is, it has the capability of transforming the landscape of an area and address the spatial inequalities in a region.

10.4. Recommendations

Following the conclusions made above, it is recommended that:

10.4.1. Spatial laws and policies

The spatial laws and policies in 10.3.1 should be utilised in creating the nodes since the laws incorporate principles that are aimed at eliminating the past injustices. Furthermore, shopping centre linkages are not limited to economic linkages but include social and cultural linkages, therefore policies such as migration, rural urbanisation and infrastructure development policies should strengthen rural-urban linkages in support of the spatial laws and policies. These linkages will aid in dealing with the disjointed spatial environment and impoverished areas that exist while other areas enjoy the benefits of the country's resources and development.

Spatial policies employed in implementing the nodes should aim at reducing rural urban inequalities. The policies should be designed to achieve the spatial redistributions of socio-economic resources and infrastructure, as well as even economic development in both urban and rural areas. That is, they should be designed to provide a spatial solution to social and economic problems.

10.4.2. Conceptualisation, understanding and implementation

The study concluded that the shopping centre nodes in the Limpopo Province and other rural areas in South Africa should be developed as growth centres. Hence it is recommended that the centres should be understood as growth centres driven by shopping centres as the main firm/industry. They should be established as products for specific communities with the intention of eradicating the effects of the past spatial distribution of retail services by creating what could be called small towns, economic hubs, or even medium size towns in the previously disadvantaged homelands areas depending on the size of the areas. In the past, the industrial decentralisation strategy guided the creation of development nodes in the form of shopping centre nodes in the previously white areas adjacent to the homelands. The current shopping centre nodes should be created within the previous homeland areas and townships with the aim of transforming the areas to become viable human settlements.

The objective is to directly confront the effects of the past policies that established the areas to be labour reserves without jobs and substantial economic activities. This practice created poverty centres/nodes (e.g. homelands) that should be eliminated by deliberately channelling development in these areas and creating economic basis by creating shopping centre nodes within the previous homeland areas and townships in a strategic manner. That is, shopping centre nodes should be created in densely populated rural settlement to create a link between the settlements and towns as well as cities since nodes are part and parcel of development corridors.

10.4.3. Shopping centre nodes in the context of SDFs and LEDs

The creation of shopping centre nodes should not conform to the “one size fit all” principle but should be adjusted to meet the needs of the local communities and each province. Since demographic factors influence customers’ attitude, it is important to match the socio-economic status of local customers with the type and size of the shopping centre. Lifestyle is also a noteworthy predictor; therefore, shopping centre managers and owners must prudently create the image of the shopping centres to match the local customers’ lifestyle. It is also important to pursue accurate pricing policies which are not in conflict with the needs of the customers. The centres should follow the hierarchy of growth points and population concentration points as proposed by the provincial SDF (e.g., the LSDF) to encourage integrated development within the province starting from municipal level.

The ownership of the land and the process of negotiating acquisition of land and obtaining the land use rights need to be clear in the current policies and legislations. Currently, rural areas experience challenges relating to land availability and acquisition which have a negative impact on economic development. Issues that necessitate clarity result from the fact that the involvement of more landowners in a development have a negative impact on the developments because it results in a more complex negotiations process. Therefore, municipalities should be committed to satisfying the duty of approving development rights,

zoning, EIA, land availability agreements, effectively and accurately plan for the delivery and maintenance of infrastructure and social services as well as other public facilities.

The developer should follow the policy guidelines as stipulated in the plans, have control over the land on which the shopping centre is constructed and should have knowledge of the legislations, policies and by-laws that impact directly on the development. The centres should be located on suitable sites which are easily accessible to the potential customers and other users in the neighbourhood and nearby areas through suitable roads network and public transport; have adequate space for the centre to be extended in future; and should not pose any apparent risks to ecological sustainability of the neighbourhood but should enhance social cohesion and make a major contribution in the sustainability, viability and resilience of both the centre and the local community.

The current proposed settlement hierarchy and its terminology is in the context of the current legislation and policies which guide spatial planning in all spheres of government. The hierarchy is not rigid, but it allows for the classification of settlements in district and local municipal areas since settlement pattern vary from one district to the other. Therefore, growth centres should be encouraged based on their status in the hierarchy. Development should be directed first towards the PGPs then the district and last the MGP to create various nodes that strengthen each other and eventually create an integrated urban area.

The growth pole theory is not a location theory; therefore, it should be coupled with a location theory. Thus, it is recommended that the spatial policies used in executing the shopping centre should be designed in such a manner that they integrate the growth centre theory and CPT principles. The current location of the nodes creates rural-urban linkages and further enhances regional development within municipalities and the province. The successful development of the provincial, district and local areas depend on the strengths of the connections between the shopping centres nodes in the local, district and provincial growth points and the links between the rural areas and nodes in the region. Consequently, the external associations of these nodes with the urban centres, other growth centres and nodes within and outside the local and district municipalities should be encouraged as it will assist in strengthening the economic base of the municipalities and in confronting spatial fragmentation.

10.4.4. Businesses established close to the shopping centres

The shopping centres have attracted SMMEs, vendors and informal traders in the locality close to the centres. To encourage agglomeration, growth and development investment should not only be channelled to the established areas and businesses but also to the vendors and informal traders with a goal of formalising the sector and create more jobs and further investment in the nodes. Currently, municipalities are providing limited facilities such as stalls to the vendors in some areas like in Phalaborwa centre and in Hubenyi shopping centre.

10.4.5. Shopping centre nodes and the growth pole concept

The study revealed that in most countries if not all regional policies' objectives are based on the growth poles theory. The aim is to promote areas that have a natural potential to act as growth poles/centres and development nodes that stimulate development within their regions and hinterlands. In developing countries, the aim is to incite development in underdeveloped hinterlands which is the case with the shopping centre nodes of Elim and Namakgale. The current shopping centre nodes should have the growth poles theory as the guiding theory because they originate from this theory. The centres are propulsive firms that influence the growth of related firms in the nodes and periphery where suppliers are located such as small farm holdings where agricultural products are sourced.

10.4.6. Creation of viable shopping centre nodes in former homeland and townships

Creation of viable shopping centre nodes in former homelands and townships should focus on creating town centre in these areas. The former homelands and townships should be linked with cities and towns through improved road networks created to support the existence of the shopping centres and through related corridor networks. Creating viable shopping centre nodes should encourage viability and vitality of these areas by creating job opportunities, facilitate economic and social development and improving the quality of life for citizens.

10. 5. Conclusion

In summary, the study concludes that there are spatial policies that are useful in the creation and development of shopping centres, but they are not designed specifically for shopping centre nodes development. Shopping centre nodes are nodes which have shopping centres as the main sector, not as supplementary sectors and should be created based on the SDFs and LEDs of the local municipality. These tools are aligned to the national and provincial laws and policies. The nodes have the growth pole theory as their basis or origin.

The Elim and Namakgale shopping nodes like growth centres that adhere to the growth pole principles have dominant firms which are the shopping centre. The centres dominate the market and result in small shops aligning with the centres to cater for those that cannot be served by the centres in terms of prices and products. The centres attracted SMME and informal traders to agglomerate nearby. The long-term viable shopping centre nodes should go beyond the commercial function and create towns (economic hubs) where they do not exist. The contribution made by this study to the field of urban and regional planning and related fields is discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 11: CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY AND FURTHER RESEARCH AREAS

11.1. Introduction

Following the conclusions and recommendations made in the previous chapter, this chapter provides the contribution of this study and suggests further areas of study. The chapter is divided into three sections: the introduction of the chapter that outlines the content of the chapter, followed by the contribution made by the study, which is a section that provides new knowledge to the field of urban and regional planning. As a conclusion, the research areas that can extend this study are provided. Below, as a conclusion for this section, is the structure and content of this chapter sketched out in Figure 11-1.

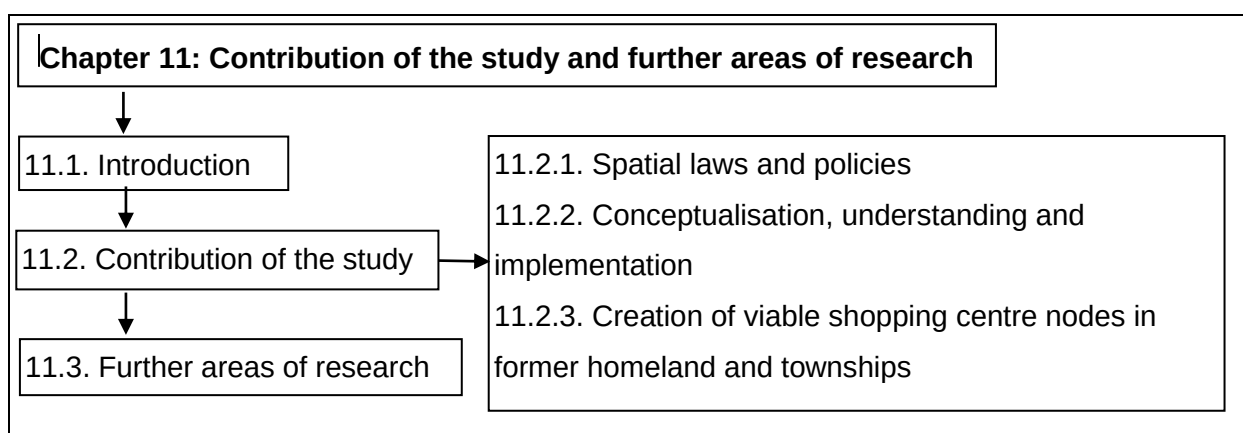


Figure 11-1: Chapter 11 structure

Source: Own construction (2018)

11.2. Contribution of the study

This section focuses on the contributions made to the body of knowledge in urban and regional planning and related fields. This study makes several noteworthy contributions to the growing body of knowledge on shopping centres nodes by giving an exploration on how shopping centre nodes can be conceptualised, developed and branded in South Africa (i.e. unique to the local area). It also contributes to the question of how the centres can add to the sustainability and resilience of local municipalities. Based on the literature review conducted, there is a gap in the field of planning, for research that presents an investigation of shopping centre nodes informed by the growth poles theory supported by the CPT. Research which examined the decentralisation of shopping centres into specific nodes that can create growth for areas in the former homelands in Limpopo Province.

There is also a gap for research that address how the shopping centre nodes can reduce the impact of the past laws which created densely populated settlements that do not have town centres, trade areas or business centre in Limpopo Province and the rest of the former homeland areas. Therefore, this study

has bridged that gap and added new knowledge in the field of spatial planning and in the debate of how the spatial fragmentation that started in the past can be confronted. The contribution in this regard also lie in the review of the relevant literature on shopping centre nodes creation and development; and the empirically meaningful insights delivered by the case studies. From an academic perspective, it serves as a basis or source for future research in the shopping centre field of study from a geographic, economic, development or urban and regional planning viewpoint. It adds to the limited source of information about spatial and regional development in BLM and MLM.

The fieldwork description and the data methods applied in the study procedure can help other researchers in doing similar studies in other developing countries and in other parts of South African settings. The study has contributed in providing clarity on the confusion that shopping centres impact negatively on small retail stores and spaza shops. In this study, it was revealed that shopping centres attract small business and informal trading that agglomerate close to the centres like in Namakgale Crossing and Elim mall. The other aspect is that the shopping centres play a role in formalising the informal retail sector such as can be seen in the Pan African, Musgrave and Umlazi shopping centres. Informal traders are provided space to trade and grow their businesses. The centres are not impacting negatively on the small and informal retailers but assist them in transitioning into the formal sector economy.

The study added to new knowledge by clarifying that spatial fragmentation in South Africa is a result of the past apartheid policies and the process of development. These two sources of spatial fragmentation should be addressed separately as the second source of fragmentation is said to be necessary because development does not occur everywhere at the same time. The inequalities and spatial form are the results of historical growth patterns as well. For South Africa to succeed in dealing with the current spatial form and the inequalities that were caused by the past government's laws, planners and all stakeholders should concentrate on the disintegration caused by the apartheid system first before confronting spatial fragmentation related to the process of development which separate the poor from the rich.

The study has also contributed in the area of nodes creation in an empirical manner rather than in a conceptual way. Most studies in growth centre development are conceptual in nature while this study has provided a practical empirical study of how shopping centre nodes can be created and sustained in order to shape the form of the area. The study has also extracted the contribution of shopping centre nodes in developed countries such as England and in urban areas like in Sandton and extended it to the densely populated former homeland areas where shopping centre nodes similar to that in Europe and Sandton can be developed over time and change the structure of the densely populated former homeland settlements into urban centres that play a significant role in the economic, social and spatial development of these areas and the country at large.

The above also denote that the study has made a methodological contribution by applying theoretical concepts and theories developed in other contexts, namely, developed countries and urban areas, appropriately in the context of a developing country, in a rural setting where the social and cultural settings is different. The study contributes towards providing examples of the interpretation of case studies from a developing country like South Africa in a rural context. It has also used a technique used in assessing the ability of a shopping centre to attract customers, to assess the viability and vitality of shopping centre nodes as demonstrated in section 9.4 - hypothesis testing.

The former homeland areas have a potential of becoming urban centres that drive the economy and development of their local areas if shopping centres can be used as propulsive industries in these nodes. The centre are capable of creating backward and forward linkages that are beneficial to the transformation of the areas through job creation that should reduce migration. Contribute in the wealth of the suppliers and customers who get goods and services closer at affordable prices without spending money to travel outside the neighbourhood to get goods. It also include the transformation of the transport system in the area, creating social and recreational facilities that did not exist in the past. Thus, they transform the function and form of rural South Africa creating urban areas.

11.2.1. Spatial planning laws and policies

The contribution made in this area is that of filling the gap. The government is responsible for developing laws, policies and strategies at national, provincial and local government level for the general development and economic development of the country. The study has revealed that the country has laws and policies that can result in reducing, if not eradicating, the spatial fragmentation that exists today. There are laws that can improve the sustainability of settlements if these laws are properly implemented. However, there is a need for a specific strategy or policy that should directly address the creation of shopping centre nodes in suitable locations while balancing these centres with the existing CBDs to avoid deterioration of the CBDs. There is a need for a supplementary attachment in the policies that deals with shopping centres directly like mining and agricultural industries.

The strategy should directly promote and give specific guidelines on creating shopping centre nodes and shopping centres that are the main businesses in the existing growth poles/centre created under the guidance of the LSDF (PSDF) and the NSDF. It should be specific like the Hull Local Plan: 2016 to 2032 Vitality and viability of centres Supplementary Planning Document 9. It provides additional planning guidance on Policy 9 - City Centre; and Policy 12 - District, Local and Neighbourhood Centres (Hull City Council, 2016:5). It should also enable the achievement of the objectives of the SPLUMA that directly focus on redressing of the past injustice. It should give priority to areas that the Industrial Decentralisation Strategy has created as decline points where labour was sourced out for the development of cities and the former white towns.

The Industrial Decentralisation Strategy resulted in uneven development and lack of shopping centres and growth nodes in the black areas referred to as the previous homeland areas with dense populations but do not have or have struggling business areas. To redress the above mentioned situation, the proposed strategy should focus in townships and the previous homeland areas because these types of development away from the cities create a greater balance in distributing income in disadvantaged areas. The distribution of income into these areas have a positive role in spatial integration that lead to an almost even development. Due to the fact that economic development is manifested in space, the proper distribution of income and economic institutions will result in an integrated spatial form that can remedy the current situation.

The SPLUMA (Act 16 of 2013) provides comprehensive guiding development principles but does not impose a defined spatial form, and this remains the responsibility of local municipalities to clearly outline the desired spatial form. Therefore, the local municipality should provide a strategy that results in a specific spatial form that facilitates spatial transformation and economic development in the previously disadvantaged areas and townships. This could be achieved through the utilisation of shopping centres as leading businesses or nodes in the growth points designated by government. The proposed strategy should assist in helping both small and large domestic retail chains over time like in other countries such as Europe. Example of such policies are in Figure 5-7 in section 5.5.2.

In this case, the local municipality should in their SDF, IDP and LED specify areas within the municipality where the shopping centre nodes should be established in line with the settlement hierarchy outlined in policy documents such as LSDF, reinforced by a strategy that outlines how it should be carried out. The LSDF has already classified the settlements and they are also identified in the municipal IDPs as is the case of MLM and BLM where both Elim/Waterval area and Namakgale were classified as DGPs. Within these DGPs both the MLM and BLM should earmark land specifically for the creation of shopping centres according to the shopping centre classification outlined in Chapter 7 which emanates from the LSDF (refer to Figure 5.7).

The hierarchy of shopping centres is influenced by the size of the settlement (Prinsloo, 2016: 53-57) as noted in section 7.6.3. Therefore, the size and location of the shopping centres should be pre-determined and specified in the proposed strategy and the IDP in advance by the municipality. This will result in the sustainability of the municipal area. Redress the economic, social, and spatial distribution of shopping centres in the municipality, district and provincial level of government. Specifying exactly where the centres should be established and developed.. Thus, confronting and resolving the gap that the SPLUMA (Act 16 of 2013) did not address, which is not prescribing a defined spatial form.

It should be considered that the SPLUMA (Act 16 of 2013) is not a plan, therefore it will not prescribe but give guidelines. The local government will clearly enforce a distinct spatial form in the new shopping centre

decentralisation strategy that will be reflected in the SDF and IDP of municipalities. The strategy will inform the SDFs and the IDPs of municipalities. The hierarchy can be adopted from Prinsloo's shopping centre classification (Prinsloo, 2016:53-57). With the involvement of the private sector in shopping centre development, spatial planning has become fragmented into a project led process.

Revealed in the study, some of the municipalities tend to allow the development of these centre even if their location is contradicting the SDF. Spatial planning should play a role in promoting and branding the local areas. Spatial policy planning has become like the local areas trying comparable "one size fits all" strategies. As a result, it is essential that the government should formulate spatial policies that are locally unique. These policies should solely address spatial issues of the municipal area in a unique manner and should be area specific.

Section 2.5 argues that a development policy must attempt to enlist the backward and forward effects (Hirschman, 1958:100). In line with the above pronouncement the IDP and LED should enlist the backward and forward linkages of the shopping centres. Equally MLM and BML IDPs and LEDs should identify and record the backward and forward linkages of the Elim Mall and Namakgale Crossing as outlined in sections 8.3.4 and 8.4.4. Meaning that the local businesses or firms that the shopping centre supply goods or services to or buy goods and services from should be detailed in the IDP and LED and their location specified in the municipal SDF.

The policy should be aimed at creating planned shopping centre nodes that will influence national and regional development goals and advocate for nodes that are linked to both government and private incentives and controls. These policies are very significant in stimulating growth in earmarked areas and are intended to intensify the spread of new growth and the benefits of the existing development. The strategy mentioned above should be based on the local, regional and national policies. The strategy should progress from the SPLUMA by allowing and guiding land use processes applicable in communal land without prescribing freehold tenure while providing mechanisms of embracing the internationally recognized sustainability guiding principles.

In this era where traditional leaders participate in the IDP process and the development of the SDF as requires by SPLUMA (Act 16 of 2013) Chapter 5 section 23(2), the strategy should provide guidelines that guarantees full participation of traditional leaders which will lead to full compliance with the SDF within the communal areas. Traditional leaders should be guided by the SDF in land use and in land allocation practices hence the strategy should define guiding principles that will assist the leaders to comply with SDFs. As mentioned above that the centres are linked to government incentives and controls the duration, nature, extent and form of investment allocations among sectors; different planning possibilities that support the establishment and sustainability of the nodes should also be clearly defined in the strategy.

It is not enough just to adopt a strategy for the shopping centre nodes, the strategy should aid in redressing the imbalances caused by the impact of the previous government's growth poles strategy. The current policies must support the strategy which is aimed at creating a network of shopping centre nodes. The centres will be able to appropriately develop urban and economic potential which will positively impact the whole province and national space. Going forward they will be able to compete internationally.

The creation of shopping centre nodes in the previous homelands and townships decentralises jobs, infrastructure, services, linked industries, housing and public facilities. It is also associated with urban decentralisation. Planned shopping centre nodes' decentralisation from the cities and capital cities will result in planned urban and economic development in areas outside of the cities and large towns in South Africa. The strategic location of these nodes confronts the fragmented spatial scenario that is currently prevailing. Locating these centres hierarchically in line with the current settlement hierarchy in Limpopo can redress the spatial inequalities in municipalities and the province.

It will foster development in all settlements and result in an almost even development because it is almost impossible to reach a state of even development. The fact that people will migrate to areas that are developed where there are jobs and services, and other factors make it difficult to reach a state of even spatial development. The proposed decentralisation strategy should directly counteract the impact of the previous industrial decentralisation strategies driven by separate development policies.

11.2.2. Conceptualisation, understanding and implementation

The contribution made relating to this aspect is that, for shopping centre nodes to transform the spatial form of the areas in which they are located, the centres as dominant firms in these nodes should be products of the real estate industry linked with the product definition used in marketing. They must have a unique identity derived from the location, customer mix and tenant mix, which makes each centre more valuable than the other centres (Reikli, 2012:5). The centres should be brands with a social added aspect (IVBN, 2016:16,18); and brands that should grow their own individual strategic niche in the same way as all other brands (Andersson, 2010:21).

The centres should be conceptualised as tools of transforming the local areas and should have the above characteristics. They should brand the local area and be branded by the local area. The centres should do different things that the other centres do not perform that meet the needs of the local population. The centres should transform into social multifaceted spaces that are capable of transforming the structure and appearance of the area and link it with the neighbouring places economically, socially and spatially. These characteristics will make the centres to be resilient and not be affected by another centre nearby. Cultural and charitable events are increasingly taking place in shopping centres which helps in fostering the cultural identity of the local customers.

The centres are progressively transferring social life from the usual and traditional places where they normally take place into their space fulfilling economic, social and cultural needs. They should project the culture of the local community which in most cases is multi-cultural in nature. The socio-cultural function that the centres should perform addresses the tribal and racial separation created by the previous laws and help the population to integrate. In this way the centres are able to address the social, cultural and spatial fragmentation that still exist.

They should be able to attract customers to their local areas and retain their income within the nodes. This will improve the living conditions in the neighbourhood and transform the structure and function of the area. The factors that contribute in the success of the centres make them to have a transformative character and to be able to connect their local areas with the nearby settlements. Shopping centres should be branded real-estate products that are unique tools for redressing the injustices of the past. Their unique spatial aspects should be that they are uniquely evolving to bring economic development by creating jobs, attracting investment, providing the much-needed retail activities in townships and areas outside of cities.

Secondly, they should address the social inequalities by playing a social role in the community in that their existence in the locality should encourage improvement in the adjacent residential areas. Their existence should lead to improved infrastructure such as road networks and provide a social service. The social function of these centres can be achieved when the centres function as social spaces where people meet and socialise as well as being places where social and cultural events take place. Events such as exhibitions, selling artefacts and hosting events that promote the cultural identity as well as the educational development of the local people should be encouraged in the centres.

The centres are unique and should be embraced as such. They are brands that should grow their own individual strategic positioning. The centres should not be the same even if they have the same stores. They should perform both an economic and social function and be recognised as unique estate properties, retail outlets, unique land uses and a private business which are estate properties that transform the function of their localities (nodes) and influence the spatial arrangement in the area. A shopping centre should not be regarded only as a collection of shops or retailers without a personal signature. The centres should be mechanisms of delivering sustainable development and ensuring the resilience of local areas socially, economically and environmentally.

11.2.3. Creation of viable shopping centre nodes in former homeland and townships

With regard to the creation of viable shopping centre nodes in former homeland and townships, the contribution made is in relation to applying, validating, and extending the example (model) of European countries and metropolitan South Africa in creating new towns and cities into the former homeland areas in a rural setting. In section 2.4, the growth poles theory introduced by Perroux was modified to suit the situation and was adapted to be growth centres. In Brazil and India, the concept was modified as well.

During the previous period in South Africa, the growth centres were introduced as a tool to decentralise economic activities and in implementing the separate development policy.

The implementation of growth centres in the former homelands and townships should be specifically tailored to decentralise development from the developed cities in order to redress the effect of the colonial and apartheid policies' development. The shopping centre nodes should be tools of creating growth and development in the above-mentioned areas. The centres should also assume a broader role of creating new towns like in Europe and Sandton in Johannesburg, and the other examples in section 5.4 and 7.4. Though each area will develop based on its natural potential and investment directed to such an area. The centres should be used to change the function, transform the image and shape of the area. They should generate activities in the localities which will allow for vitality, viability and an integrated spatial form in these regions.

Traditionally, the key economic sector was composed of the primary and manufacturing sectors. These were the main sectors that were used as propulsive industries. This has evolved into a situation whereby the service sector, which was regarded as an industry that depended on the primary and manufacturing sectors, is now a key contributor in the GDP of most countries. The creation of the nodes in the areas under discussion should utilise shopping centres as main businesses in the nodes not as supporting businesses. Mainly because the centres can contribute to economic development in these localities by attracting external income and keeping income within these settlements' economies as discussed in section 9.4. This is in addition to the factors outlined in the paragraph above. The shopping centres within the nodes are able to encourage and keep spending by both local and outside people within the local economy. The centres reduce the need for people to go and buy goods outside of the areas, which is demonstrated in section 9.3.3.7 and 9.4.

To reduce money leaking out of the local economy through the shops buying from external suppliers like the national brands in shopping centres such as Shoprite, Boxer and KFC, the municipality should encourage the shop to find local suppliers and external suppliers to partner with local business who can supply their brand products or package them in the local area to reduce income leakage. As recommended in section 10.4.4 investment should be channelled to SMMEs, vendors and the informal traders closer to the centres in order to create opportunities of formalising the sector and create more jobs and further investment in the nodes. The formalisation of the informal sector outside of the centres is an opportunity of creating formal businesses that will add to the variety and vitality of the nodes to encourage growth.

The strategy explained in section 11.2.1 should be applied in the creation of shopping centre nodes. Their location of should be based on the settlement hierarchy and shopping centre classification and hierarchy as discussed in chapters 5 and 7. During the apartheid era the industrial decentralisation policy was influenced by the separate development laws and systems. To redress the previous laws' social, economic

and environmental impacts, the proposed shopping centre decentralisation strategy should foster integrated development through the SDF, IDP and the LED and the SPLUMA (Act 16 of 2013). The above mentioned tools and the principles provided for in the Act, through this strategy should result in an almost even distribution of shopping centres (retail) in the previously disadvantaged areas while promoting the sustainability and resilience of the local areas.

Constructing shopping centres in former homelands and township areas using the strategy should result in the centres playing a key role in enhancing the quality of life in rural areas, towns, and city centres in the country. The centres will drive the previously disadvantaged areas' local economies like in urban areas by sustaining economic growth, creating employment and a sense of community. Furthermore, the centres should resolve environmental problems, and aid in offering a better quality of life in the local municipalities and district areas. The centres should create a network of green economy development within their local areas and the province, eradicating the apartheid spatial development whereby towns were in the previously white areas and in the capitals of the former homelands neglecting the other areas.

At this juncture shopping centres provide a conglomeration of shops that can be interpreted as small towns within the shopping centre building. These small towns should grow into medium size walled towns (inside the shopping centre building) providing the much-needed retail trade and influencing the residential areas, manufacturing and agricultural growth in local areas. Following the lesson learned from the developing countries in Chapter 4, the growth centres should be established based on the principles and elements of the growth poles theory even if the shopping centre decentralisation strategy is adopted to avoid failure. Areas with potential to attract and sustain development should be designated as suitable locations for the development of the centres.

The strategy is based on the propulsive industry (firm) as a growth centre because the NSDF, LSDF, the district and the local municipalities SDFs have already outlined designated growth centres, for example, Louis Trichardt and Phalaborwa as PGP and Elim/Waterval is a MDG. The establishment of shopping centres as growth centres in the rural areas will create a balance between the traditional urban areas, former homelands and townships that can redress the social and economic injustices of the past as well as reducing the fragmented spatial structure in the country. This is possible because shopping centres attract infrastructure such as roads that create connections between the settlements. A successful rural development process requires a comprehensive approach that includes components such as the local economy, social environment, the physical environment, and the political environment.

11.3. Limitations of the study

There are several limitations to this study, that create implications for further research. This section is arising from section 3.9 - research limitations. This study is limited by the difficulties experienced in gathering data in the study areas. The study could not go beyond a minimum sample of 390 respondents

because of the reluctance of people to participate in the study. The study focused on shopping centre nodes which might limit the transferability of the study because shopping centres are unique in nature and need to be addressed as individual centres. This had an impact on the title of the study which identifies a single shopping centre as the main reference to highlight the uniqueness of the role of the centre and not make undue generalisations. The study focused on small regional/ large community shopping centre and neighbourhood shopping centre influencing the growth of a local area as well as transforming the fragmented spatial structure of the same area. The inclusion of a smaller centre was aimed at highlighting that small centres can also play a role and to extend the discussion in urban areas in small towns.

The above factor limit the scope of generalisation because it means the study can only be accurately used in growth points and shopping centres of the same size. The study used case study research which has limitations in generalisation of results from one case to a bigger population though readers can make their own minor generalisations to their own situations. The growth centre theory is mostly applied mainly in urban areas. In this case, the shopping centre nodes are in the context of a rural area and in that context, there are cultural issues that this study did not exhaust because emphasis is on the spatial aspect part of the centres.

The cultural aspect need to be researched further. The study did not cover all the factors that need to be consider due to time and financial constrain, therefor the study does not claim to be all inclusive on the topic. For example, factors to be addressed for a shopping centre to be successful did not cover all aspect and the laws, policies and instrument related to the subject of the study were not all inclusive.

11.4. Further fields and areas of research

As the growth centre concept develops, it affects tools, such as policies and laws, therefore, there is a need to understand how growth experienced in shopping centre node developments has created challenges or exposed limitation in the laws and policies currently used. The instruments need to be constantly upgraded to meet the continuous challenges that nodes creation and development present. Therefore, further research looking into what can be improved in relation to policies and strategies that are used in shopping centre nodes creation and development, should be considered. The type of growth centres discussed in this document are shopping centre nodes aimed at redressing the inequalities created by the apartheid system, however, shopping centre nodes alone may not have the greatest impact in addressing the situation in full.

Therefore, there is a need to synchronise the tools used in addressing the inequalities in order to redress the current spatial form. The study revealed that most of the shopping centres investors, owners and managers do take on green initiatives such as recycling, reducing energy consumption, even though it is done at varying levels. Research in going green or improving the green initiatives and economy related to the centres and their neighbourhoods should be encouraged.

The extent of the initiatives embarked on depend on the long and short-term growth objectives of the shopping centres. The role of shopping centres in communal areas within local municipalities need further investigation to address access to land in traditional areas that can yield greater benefits to the community and enhance sustainability and resilience of communal areas while guarding against the impact of shopping centre developments on the natural environment. Shopping centres have social construction therefore it affects lifestyle. It is important to understand how the effect of the centres on the lifestyle and culture of residents is understood in different areas because different communities have different cultural influences. It is essential to determine the influence of culture on customer behaviour more especially in shopping centres located in the former homeland areas. Shopping centre branding is an elusive phenomenon, therefore, there is need to extend the understanding of whether shopping centres stand as brands and what type of brands.

The Musina-Makhado Special Economic Zone impact is not included in this study. The zone is situated 31km north of Louise Trichardt and 50km from Elim. Due to the fact that Special Economic Zones have a limited spill-over effects and linkages outside of the zones, a further study into how the Elim node and the special zone can add value to the economic development of MLM, and in eradicating inequalities should be considered.

11.5. Conclusion

An analysis of changes in the urban and rural form in areas with high populations such as the former homeland was presented. The modification was induced by the new nodes or town centres created by the shopping centres. This has decentralised the town centres in Louise Trichardt and Phalaborwa to create secondary centers in Elim and Namakgale. The decentralisation of the town centres has created appropriate spatial economies that has the capacity to retain income, create job, and reduce rural urban migration. The analysis has contributed in coming up with creative ways of confronting the current spatial form. This chapter successfully outlined the original contribution of the study to the existing knowledge in urban and regional planning and related fields. In short, the novel contribution is that the creation of shopping centre nodes in the former homelands and townships contribute to redressing the spatial inequalities in the country.

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ANNEXURE A: LANGUAGE EDITING



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To whom it may concern

This letter serves to confirm that the document with the title *The long-term viability of Elim Mall as a growth point in Makhado Municipality* has been language edited by the Centre for Translation and Professional Language Services (CTrans). CTrans is a registered corporate member of the South African Translators' Institute (SATI) that makes use of qualified and experienced language practitioners to provide professional translation and language editing services.

CTrans hereby acknowledges that the document has undergone a proper and professional language edit (including the checking of spelling, grammar, register and punctuation). The onus rests on the client to work through the proposed changes after the edit and accept or reject these changes.

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in black ink, which appears to read 'W Barrow', is placed above the printed name.

Wendy Barrow

CTrans Coordinator

ANNEXURE B: HUBYENI SHOPPING CENTRE LEASING PLAN



CENTRE LEASING PLAN
SCALE 1:350

The plan shows a large building complex with various rooms and parking areas. Key features include:

- Rooms:** BOXER, ROOTS, RUSSELLS, BOILER, STAFF PARKING, SOL & TURNING CIRCLE, etc.
- Parking:** Multiple parking spaces and areas, including a large parking lot on the left.
- Roads:** Roads and paths are shown, including a road labeled 'SOL & TURNING CIRCLE'.
- North Arrow:** A north arrow is located in the top left corner.
- Scale:** The scale is 1:350.

Legend:

- Room
- Parking
- Road
- Path
- Boundary
- Gate
- Light
- Sign
- Plant
- Structure
- Other

Notes:

- 1. All rooms are to be used for the purpose of the development.
- 2. All parking spaces are to be used for the purpose of the development.
- 3. All roads and paths are to be used for the purpose of the development.
- 4. All boundaries, gates, lights, signs, and plants are to be used for the purpose of the development.
- 5. All other features are to be used for the purpose of the development.

Legend:

- Room
- Parking
- Road
- Path
- Boundary
- Gate
- Light
- Sign
- Plant
- Structure
- Other

Notes:

- 1. All rooms are to be used for the purpose of the development.
- 2. All parking spaces are to be used for the purpose of the development.
- 3. All roads and paths are to be used for the purpose of the development.
- 4. All boundaries, gates, lights, signs, and plants are to be used for the purpose of the development.
- 5. All other features are to be used for the purpose of the development.

ANNEXURE D: SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Please note the cover page of this questionnaire is excluded.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE: “THE LONG-TERM VIABILITY OF SHOPPING CENTERS IN BOTH URBAN AND RURAL GROWTH POINTS IN LIMPOPO”

The purpose of this questionnaire is to gain understanding on how growth points and shopping centres in these growth points are established and sustained. Please mark with an x in the appropriate box and elaborate and give a precise description in the open-ended questions.

A. Growth centers

1. Mark with an **X** in the space provided the legislations and policies that are applicable in the establishment of growth points/ centres in your municipality?

National Development Plan 2030	
National Spatial Development Framework	
Provincial Spatial Development Framework (Limpopo Spatial Development Framework)	
District Spatial Development Framework	
Municipal Spatial Development Framework	
Integrated Development Plan	
Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act (Act 16 of 2013)	

2. Who identifies the growth points/ centres?

National government			District municipality	
Provincial government			Local municipality	

3. What are your major responsibilities or roles in the identification of growth points/ centres in your municipality?

	Yes	No
Involved in the designation processes at provincial level		
Supportive role of providing input to provincial level		
Provide input to district level		
Provide input to municipal level		

4. What is the role of institutions below in the establishment of growth points/ centres with regard to the functions identified below?

Use the following symbols to indicate the role performed.

E = Enact/ Prepare **EN**=Endorse **A** = Apply **I** = Input **M** = Monitor

Leave an empty space where an institution has no role to perform.

If an institution perform more than one role indicate all the roles.

Role/ Activity	Provincial	District	Local	Private Sector
Preparation and content of national spatial development frameworks				
Preparation and content of provincial spatial development framework				
Preparation and content of district spatial development framework				
Preparation and content of municipal spatial development framework				

5. Which facilities /infrastructures are provided by the following Institutions/ stake holders?

Mark with an X

Facilities/Infrastructure provision (delivery)	National	Provincial	District	Local	Private Sector
Roads					
Solid waste					
Electricity					
Water					
Sewage/ Sanitation					
Storm Water					
Education					
Recreation					
Health					
Environmental					
Business					
Offices					
Bus and Taxi Ranks					
Fire fighting					
Disaster management					
Fresh produce markets & abattoirs					
Cemeteries					
Housing					
Public works					

B. SHOPPING CENTRES/ MALLS

1. Are there legislations and policies that facilitate the existence and sustainability of shopping centres/ mall in your municipality?

Yes	
No	

2. Mark with an X in the space provided the legislations and policies that are applicable in the establishment of shopping centres/ mall in your municipality?

Municipal Systems Act (Act No. 32 of 2000)	
Municipal Structural Act (Act No. 117 of 1998)	
National Building Regulations and Building Standards Act of 1977 (Act No.103 of 1977)	
National Environmental Management Act (Act No. 107 of 1998) (NEMA)	
Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act (Act No. 16 of 2013) (SPLUMA)	
Regional Spatial Development Framework	
Municipal Spatial Development Framework	
Precinct Plan	
Integrated Development Plan	
Local Economic Development Plan	

3. What is the role of the different sectors/ Institutions in the establishment of shopping centres? **(Mark with an X).**

Role/ Activity	Provincial	District	Local	Private
Preparation of laws, and policies				
Preparation building plans				
Facilitate land transfer				
Support and monitoring				
Provide development guidelines, principles, norms and standards				
Application of development guidelines, principles, norms and standards				
Approve the development				
Invest				

4. Which sector is responsible for the following activities selection? **(Mark with an X).**

Role / Activities	Provinc	District	Local	Private
Site selection				
Determining suitability of the size of the shopping center/ mall				
Potential market to sustain the center/ mall				
Development rights				

Land availability				
Infrastructure				
Initial planning stage				
Design stage				

5. What is the role of IDP/SDF/LUS in the establishment and sustainability of shopping centres/ mall?
Select from the list below. **Mark with an X** next to the role you choose.

Role	
Selecting the location of the shopping centre	
Deciding the tenant mix in the centre	
Land use management	
Land use pattern	
Decide the employment of employees in the centre	
Evaluation of the shopping centres	
Determining the size of the centre	

6. To rate the general performance of shopping centres please answer the questions below.
Mark with an X in the space provided next to the answer of your choice.

Q1	How often do you visit the shopping centre in your community?	Monthly ☐	fortnightly ☐	Weekly ☐
Q2	How much time do you spend at the shopping centre?	Less than 1 hour ☐	1 hour - 2 hours ☐	3 hours plus ☐
Q3	What type of transport do you use?	Private transport ☐	Public transport ☐	Walk ☐
Q4	With whom do you visit the shopping centre most of the time?	Alone ☐	Friends and colleagues ☐	Family ☐
Q5	When shopping clothes/ household items how many stores do you normally visit?	1 shop ☐	2 – 3 shops ☐	Four and more ☐
Q6	You visit a mall mostly for	Shopping ☐	Socializing ☐	Shopping & socializing ☐

7. How will you rate the following statement.

Mark with an X under the answer of your choice

		Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
		Mark with an X under the answer of your choice.		
S1	The shopping centre is conveniently located.			
S2	Provides a wide selection and variety of goods/ products.			

S3	Open during convenient shopping days and hours.			
S4	Shopping centre atmosphere and decor are appealing.			
S5	Store offers reasonable/ affordable prices (high quality products with high value for money spent).			
S6	The brands you need are available at the shopping centre.			
S7	Since the existence of the shopping centre services such as roads, public transport and other public services have improved.			
S8	Improved peoples' lives in terms of access to shops, jobs, entertainment, low prices, goods & services.			

Thank you