

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

UNLOCKING LOCAL ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN THE INGONYAMA TRUST
LAND THROUGH LAND SCHEME DEVELOPMENT.
THE CASE OF DUDUDU, KZN.

By

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Commerce in Leadership Studies

Graduate School of Business and Leadership
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2015

DECLARATION

I Malusi Cyril-Innocent Mzotho declare that:

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my heartfelt thankfulness to the following people, who made this research study possible through their support and encouragement:

- First and foremost, I would like to thank God the Almighty for granting me the strength and patience to complete the research study even when at times it would feel near impossible.
- The Department of Economic Development, Tourism and Environmental Affairs" Regional and Local Economic Development (RLED) for granting me the bursary to undertake the UKZN Masters Programme.
- My employer, Ugu District Municipality, for granting me leave of absence to allow me to attend lectures and supervision blocks.
- My research supervisor, Dr. Jennifer Houghton, thank you for your guidance, encouragement and constant reminders.
- The respondents, who sacrificed their time to provide me honest and valuable inputs, I can never thank you enough. You were the main ingredient of this research and without you it would have never been possible, God bless you abundantly.
- My classmates and colleagues with whom I undertook the programme, it has been a pleasant journey only because of the support and encouragement we gave each other and the moments we shared during our supervision blocks.
- Lastly but not least, I would like to thank my family especially my mother Hlengiwe Mzotho and my grandmother Mavis Hlongwa, for their tireless support, encouragement and prayer which saw me through. My new young family, my fiancée, daughter and son, for the patience you have shown when at times I had to cut down on our quality family time.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate a land development system that is most appropriate for unlocking LED potential in the Ingonyama Trust Land for the community at Dududu Village. The land under the Ingonyama Trust Board administration holds huge potential in unlocking Local Economic Development in the rural areas. However, it is believed that the lack of both tenure security and access to Ingonyama Trust Land has been the barrier of economic and social development for rural areas within the Ugu District. What prompted the study was the fact that there had been very little research conducted around the area of Dududu as to why the LED focused projects in the area are not implemented. The common challenge that was usually given during the IDP development process was the issue of land security and availability. Furthermore, there were many feasibility studies that had been conducted in the area but projects were never implemented because of the unavailability of land, even though they have proven to be feasible. The majority of the land in Dududu falls under the Ingonyama Trust Land and with the feasibility studies proving LED projects viable, the issue of land as a driver of LED needed further investigation. The theoretical approach of the research is based on three broad theories which are namely, Local Economic Development, Land Tenure and Traditional Leadership. The qualitative methodology approach was employed and purposive sampling was used. Sixteen, in-depth, face-to-face interviews were conducted with respondents from the Traditional Authority, Government Sector, Community and Business Community. Data was analysed through the application of thematic analysis. The key findings indicated the challenges faced when it comes to land development and control in rural / traditional areas and recommendations of the options that are available to mitigate these challenges were made. The key findings have been grouped into eight themes which are namely; land potential in Dududu; access to Ingonyama Trust land; land tenure security; administration of Ingonyama Trust land funds; indigenous land use management in Ingonyama Trust Land; the land use management system and getting the community involved; key stakeholders and responsibilities; and stimulating local economic development in Ingonyama Trust land.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

The municipality's LED catalytic projects hardly ever get implemented in the Dududu area and to date there has been no research conducted to unpack the reason behind such shortcomings. The integrated development plan for the 2011 / 2012 suggests that the main stumbling block is the issue of land security in the area. A feasibility study has been conducted around the area by the municipality in 2010 and despite the study affirming that the projects identified are feasible; the unavailability of land has halted implementation of many of these projects. The bulk of the land in Dududu falls under the Ingonyama Trust Land, and with the studies proving that the projects are feasible, the issue of land as the driver of LED needs further investigation.

The lack of both tenure security and access to Ingonyama Trust Land is the barrier of economic and social development for rural areas within the Ugu District (Ugu DGDS, 2013). The land under the Ingonyama Trust Board administration holds a huge potential in unlocking Local Economic Development in the rural areas. There is a great need for such a study because land is a scarce natural resource and is one of the four factors of production and should be properly managed. In order for the Ugu District to realise its spatial equality vision, the potential identified in the hinterland for commercial agriculture, tourism, industry and commerce must be apprehend through unlocking of Rural Ingonyama Trust Land for development. The urban strip is not sufficient to provide enough space for further growth and thus the need for expansion and decentralisation of economic activities to the rural areas.

The theoretical approach for the investigation is therefore based on three concepts which are namely, Local Economic Development (LED), land tenure (which encompasses traditional authority tenure systems), and land use management. The aims, objectives and rationale of the study are also discussed to set the context of the research as well as giving the background to the study area. Lastly the section also provides the structure of the dissertation giving a brief overview of each chapter.

1.1.1. Local Economic Development (LED)

The following discussion addresses LED, looking briefly at the explanation of LED, the key priorities and challenges with regards to LED, and the current debates about LED.

LED is concerned with the creation of wealth by deploying, at a local level, natural, physical, human and capital resources (Bodhanya, n.d). This deployment of resources is targeted towards increased living standard, quality of life improvement, poverty alleviation, better employment creation, skills advancement and capacity building for sustained development in future (Bodhanya, n.d). One of the five national priorities of the current government is; job creation and the key driver for that is the local economic development. The key challenge with implementing this priority, and consequently the interest of this research is the unlocking of the economic potential in the rural areas. There are some bottlenecks that have been identified in the IDPs of the municipalities and LED forums across the country, but one of interest especially in KZN is the land tenure issue (KZN PGDS, 2013). The Ugu District Growth and Development Strategy (2013) states that the lack of both tenure security and access to Ingonyama Trust Land is a barrier to economic and social development in the rural areas within its jurisdiction.

The one size fits all top down approach to implementing LED that has been applied in South Africa has not yielded enough positive results and have proven inappropriate (Huysssteen, Orange and Meiklejohn, 2010). The critics of the South African Government approach to LED are calling for specific, realistic, and custom made interventions that will ensure unlocking of LED potential in rural areas.

It is clear that provision of better jobs is critical in the creation of wealth for the local economy. It is also acknowledged that economic and social development in the rural areas is often halted by the land issues (IDP, 2012). It is for this reason that there is a call for a differentiated approach in implementation of LED in South Africa. The

discussion starts looking at land tenure which encompasses traditional authority tenure systems.

1.1.2. Land Tenure and Traditional Leadership

The discussion below addresses lack of access to formal credit, land titling, the need for dismantling the apartheid legacy spatially and the role of traditional leadership in the land debate. Woodruff (2001), critiques the poor performance of formal capital markets in developing countries, citing the fact that people and some business entities do not have access to access to formal credit markets. The consequences of lack of access to credit has been understood as capital misallocation, lucrative business opportunities being forgone, potential entrepreneurs being foregone and being unable to transform ideas into businesses. The one generally accepted explanation of why capital markets have been unsuccessful in the developing countries is the lack of access to formal real property rights for the majority of people (De Soto, 2000).

Cousins's (2002) argument that titling is largely influenced by the western philosophy of ownership, which assumes absoluteness and exclusivity of property rights, is aligned with De Soto (2000). In formal titling site boundaries are surveyed and where the site starts and ends is clear, central registry holds the title deeds which are promptly updated during change of ownership, and thus there is certainty in terms of disputes. This system has proven effective as a driver of economic development in communities structured around market principles; where private persons or entities hold most property.

De Soto (2000) further argues that in countries where there is a lack of formal land titling, customary land title acts as a barrier to unlocking of capital embedded in these assets (property) as they cannot be utilised as collateral. The challenge with land in general in Africa and Latin America however, is that it is administered through customary law and as a result many Africans do not enjoy access to formalised markets due to landlessness, insecure land titling or poverty. The on-going debate,

therefore, has been centred around moving towards western customs of property rights and the retention of customary land laws in attempts to bestow security of tenure to those living in the communal arrangements.

In the South African context, the debates that are dominating land tenure are around land and tenure reform, especially given the country's history. Settler colonisation and dispossession gave rise to a range of problems which the country must address. One of the area of foci of this research study is communal land and majority of the communal land were systematically brought about to advance the colonial policies as they worked as pools for low-cost migrant labour (Van Wyk, 2013; Charlton and Kihato, 2006; Mosdell; 2006; and Beall, Crankshaw and Parnell, 2002). Any approach therefore that aims at dealing with tenure reform in these areas, must take into account livelihoods that remain spatially fragmented. The stumbling block in the attempts to undoing apartheid spatial form is the governance of communal areas which is unstructured (Adams, Sibanda and Turner, 1999). Furthermore, in South Africa rural majority follows the African land tenure systems which are based on the principle that all the members within the community of origin, is entitled to land rights just that the individual rights balanced against their compulsions to social group. This basically means that the land rights are inclusive rather than exclusive and are held at a hierarchy of social organisation, be it neighbourhood, village or the greater community (Cousins, 2002). This is the reality for most of the rural areas in South Africa.

It is important therefore to look at the role that traditional leaders have in the issues of land especially in South Africa. The ongoing research around Traditional Leadership in South Africa is around the role they should play in the new democratic South Africa. Motloa (2008) argues that there is a lack of clear articulation of the different roles between traditional authority and the current democratic government systems, i.e. local municipalities, which adversely affects service provision. Beall and Nkonyama (2009) argue that the momentum gained by the young democracy of SA makes the future of traditional leadership appear doubtful with their role slowly

diminishing and becoming irrelevant. The traditional authorities have been very vocal in opposition to this view, arguing that their elementary cultural rights and their role in the rural areas is unfairly compromised by the current democratic government system (Beall and Ngonyama, 2009).

The role of Traditional Authority became important in unpacking the research question given the fact that about 38% (ITB) of the land in the Ugu District area of jurisdiction fall under the Ingonyama Trust Land. The traditional authority still holds the majority of the land in the rural areas which makes them one of the key players in unlocking the economic potential. Furthermore, with all the debates going around, there is activity currently taking place on the ground which needs to be controlled to ensure that it unlocks the economic potential and that it does not impede potential future developments and the environment. This then opens another dimension to the land tenure: which is the best suitable land development regulation suitable for Ingonyama Trust Land?

1.1.3. Land Use Management

The discussions below address the context of land use management placing special focus on the South African context. In the context of South Africa, the Land Use Management System is concerned mostly with order and control of land and was used deliberately to exclude the majority of the South African population (Mammon, 2008). The concept of strategic spatial planning is introduced which is a move away from the normal focus on the development of tangible structure of human life, to an extended scope that is concerned with the contemporary era; where socio-economic analysis is key (Todes, 2011, 2008; Mammon 2008; Berrisford and Kihato, 2008; Todes, Karam, Klug and Malaza, 2010; and Watson, 2009, 2007). The last part of the section looks at the implementation of land use management systems through zoning schemes, as the only primary legal mechanism for land development. The schemes had only been developed for formal towns and only after the introduction of wall to wall municipalities are they being rolled out to rural areas. This means that

now that every piece of land in South Africa is under a municipal jurisdiction, every piece of land should therefore have a scheme as its management tool.

The ideological underpinnings of South Africa's land use management systems are founded on the pre-set thinking of ordered spaces and since obtaining land and property is considered an investment in an asset which often is the singular sizeable asset owned by most households, one of the role of regulatory systems such as land use management, protect and enhance this investment (Todes, Karam, Klug and Malaza, 2010).

It has also been noted that the planning discipline has witnessed a shift of focus, moving from being concerned with creating the physical framework of human life, to the extended scope of concerns in the contemporary era (Todes, 2011). There are two broad dimensions that have been dominant in modern town planning which are; the functionalist stream focusing on efficiency and order; and entrenched in functional thinking and a societal reformist response to the city dreadful of the industrial revolution that resulted in fresh visualization of the town and urban areas (Todes, 2011, p.117).

1.2. Aims and Objectives

Given the context described above, the aim of the study is to examine the kind of land development regulation needed in the Ingonyama Trust Land in order to unlock its Local Economic Development (LED) potential. The objectives of the study are as follows:

1. To examine the currently used land development regulation system in the Ingonyama Trust Land.
2. To determine the role of the key stakeholders in the land administration of Ingonyama Trust Land.
3. To examine the most suitable land development regulation system for the Ingonyama Trust Land in unlocking LED potential.

In achieving the objectives of the study the research questions set out below were addressed:

1. How can land development regulation unlock LED potential in the tribal land?
2. What is the most suitable land development regulation needed in the Ingonyama Trust Land to unlock its Local Economic Development (LED) potential?
3. Who are the key stakeholders in the administration of Ingonyama Trust Land?
4. What role can each stakeholder play in the economic development of the Ingonyama Trust?

1.3. Rational

It has been observed that there has been limited research conducted around the area of Dududu Village to ascertain the factors behind the lack of implementation of LED focused projects in the area. It has often been cited during the integrated development planning processes that the major blockage to implementation of LED has been the issue of land availability and security. The various business feasibility studies that have been commissioned in Dududu Village suggest that business and economic development are feasible in the area provided that strategically located land is made available for such developments. It has also been established that bulk of the land in Dududu is under the Ingonyama Trust and thus investigation of the potential of availing strategic land for local economic development needs to appreciate the rural nature and the associated land tenure systems applicable in the area.

The lack of both tenure security and access to Ingonyama Trust Land is understood to be a barrier of economic and social development for rural areas within the Ugu District. The land under the Ingonyama Trust Board administration holds huge potential in unlocking Local Economic Development in the rural areas. There is a great need for such a study because:

- I. Land is a scarce limited natural resource and is one of the four factors of production (land, labour, capital and entrepreneurship) and should be properly managed (Ugu DGDS, 2013).
- II. In order for the Ugu District to realise its spatial equality vision, the potential identified in the hinterland for commercial agriculture, tourism, industry and commerce must be understood through unlocking of Rural Ingonyama Trust Land for development (Ugu DGDS, 2013).

- III. The Ugu District coastal urban strip is not sufficient to provide enough space for further growth and thus the need for expansion and decentralisation of economic activities to the rural areas (KZN PGDS, 2013).

The rationale of the research has been influenced by the concern regarding the lack of implementation of LED focused projects in the area of Dududu village. The lack of land security and tenure has been identified as one of the blockages and the need for exploring the necessary avenue to make available strategically located land has been identified.

1.4. Background to the Study Area

The following discussion gives a background to the study area. The discussion touches on land tenure and demographics of the area of study. Dududu is located in relative proximity to the N2, the coast, Scottburgh, Umkomaas and the Durban Metro. Whilst situated in proximity of a major provincial development corridor as illustrated in Figure One, Dududu is still located in a different context which is rural underdevelopment.

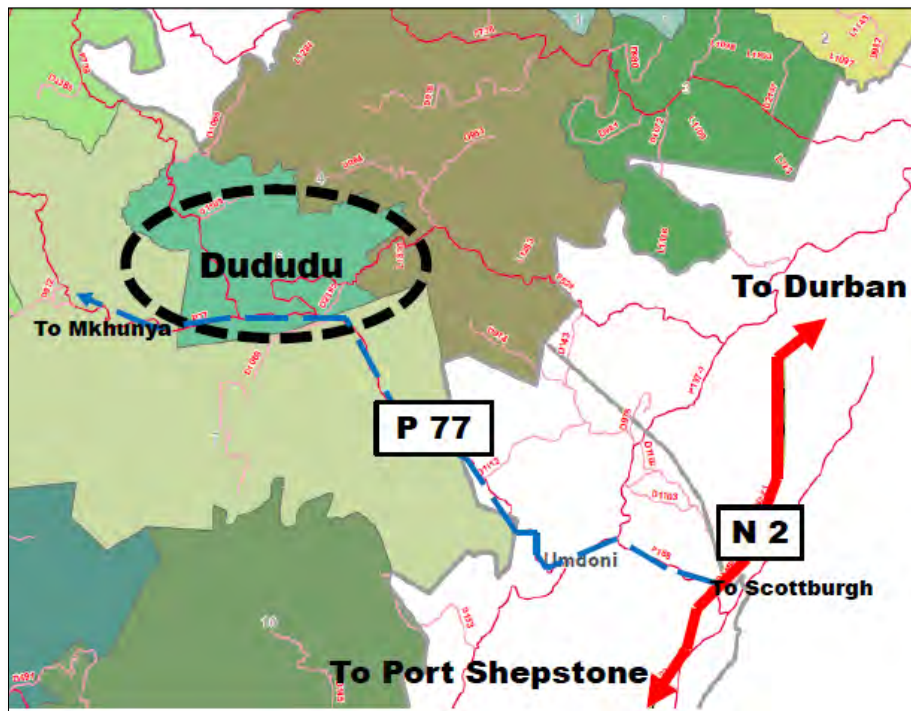


Figure 1: Dududu Village Locality Map

Source: Ugu DM GIS, 2015

The Dududu Village falls under ward 6 of Vulamehlo Municipality and under the Ezembeni Tribal Authority. Furthermore, the village of Dududu is situated on Portion 4 of Alexandra Native Location No. 1 16457 – ET in extent 5 033.24 hectares. It is registered in the name of the Trustee of the Ingonyama Trust under Certificate of Registered Title Deed No. T49691/1999.

The village functions as the administrative centre of the Vulamehlo Local Municipality, however, with, difficult linkage to the majority of the municipal area. These challenges to good linkages are caused by major incisive river valleys located to the north and south of Dududu which, coupled with the associated steep topography, render north-south linkages difficult.

1.5. Land Tenure

The predominant land tenure in Dududu Village is communal ownership under the custodianship of the Ingonyama Trust Board under the Ezembeni Tribal Authority. In terms of the tenure status as reflected in Figure Two, about 77% of the households are owned and fully paid off, 13% occupied rent-free and 9% rented or owned but not yet paid off.

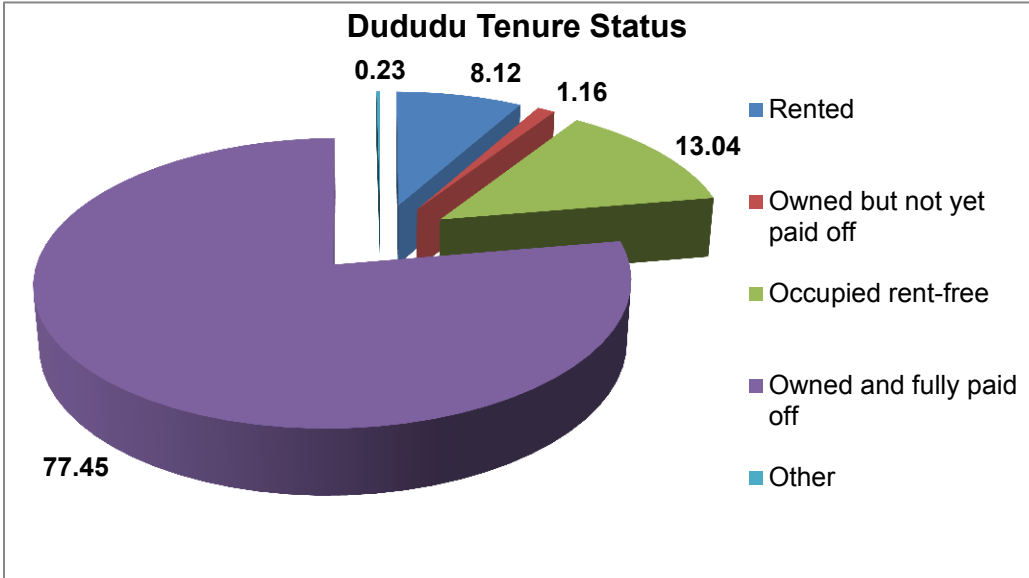


Figure 2: Dududu Tenure Status

Source: Stats SA, 2011

To acquire land in the Dududu Village three general steps are followed as outlined in the Dududu Trade Centre Feasibility Study, 2011. The first step in this process is to obtain consent from the Traditional Council in question that they are in support of the application for obtaining a lease from the Ingonyama Trust. The second step is to obtain in-principle support of the Local Municipality for the proposed development indicating that this is in line with their development planning. The third step an application then needs to be submitted to the Ingonyama Trust Board on the prescribed form and delivered to the Ingonyama Trust Board.

1.6. Dududu Demographics

As per Statistics South Africa Census (2011) the total population of Dududu Village is 5 642 and the number of households is 1 303. In terms of employment status, only 9% of the total population of Dududu has formal employment. The unemployed and discouraged job seekers make up 7% and 13% respectively (see Figure Three).

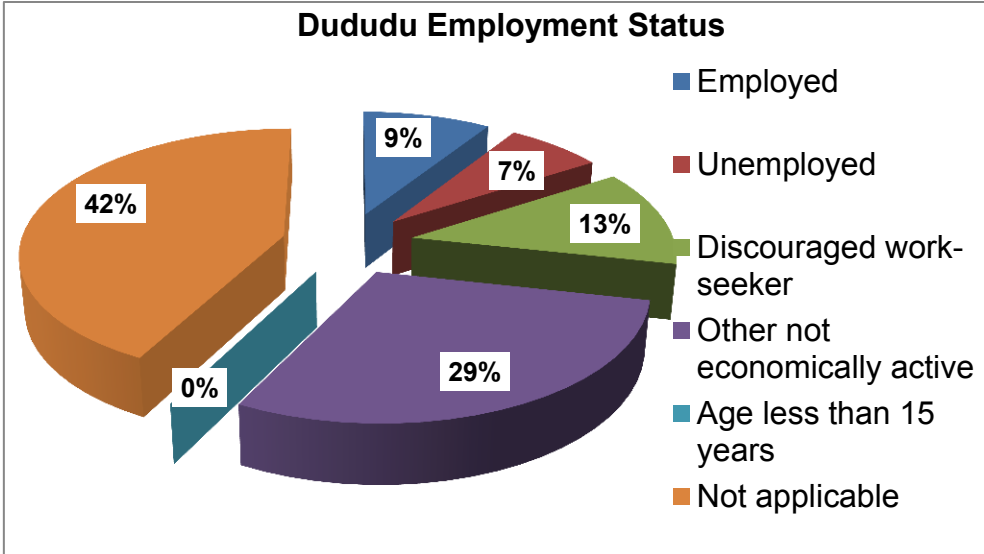


Figure 3: Dududu Employment Status

Source: Stats SA, 2011

The low levels of employment result in the low levels of income. The people who receive no income makes up 40% of the total population; those that earn between R1 and R400 make up 30%; and those earning between R401 and R1600 make up 19%

as illustrated in Figure Four. About 73% of the Dududu community are within the indigent support threshold of R800, meaning they are highly dependent on state support.

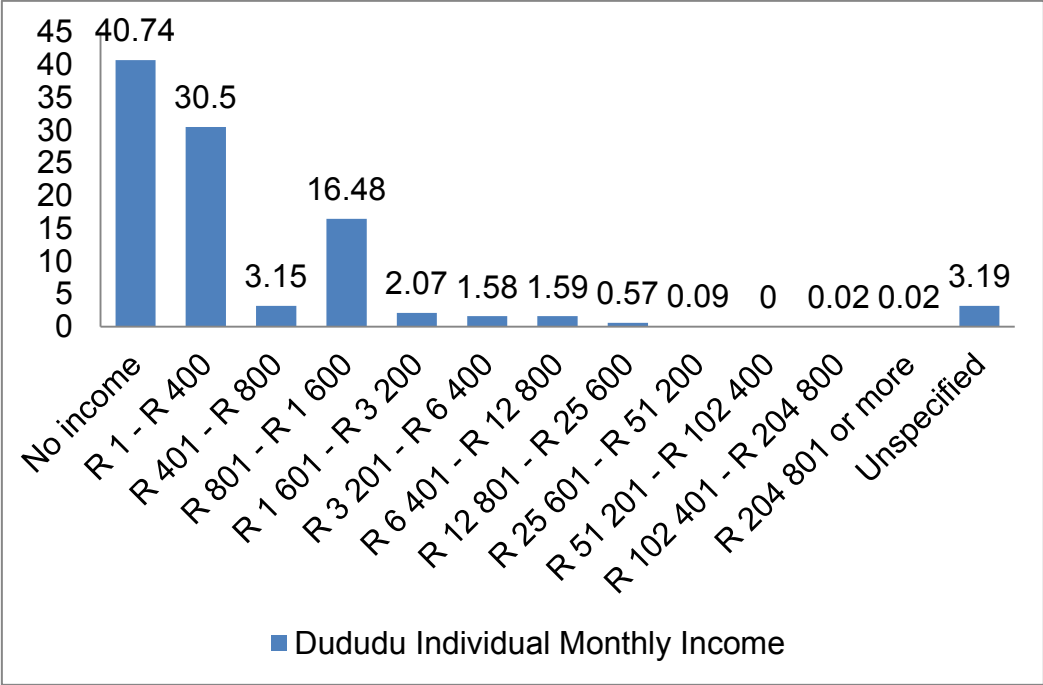


Figure 4: Dududu Individual Monthly Income

Source: Stats SA, 2011

In Figure Four it is clear that more than half of the households earn between R 1 600 and R 3 000 and less than a quarter earn more than that. About 26% of the households have income less than R 800 per month qualifying them to benefit from the indigent policy which is a policy that provides for poor households. This is concerning, particularly looking at the average household which is five people per household (Census, 2011). This then suggests that these low income earners may not be sufficient to sustain some households without state support.

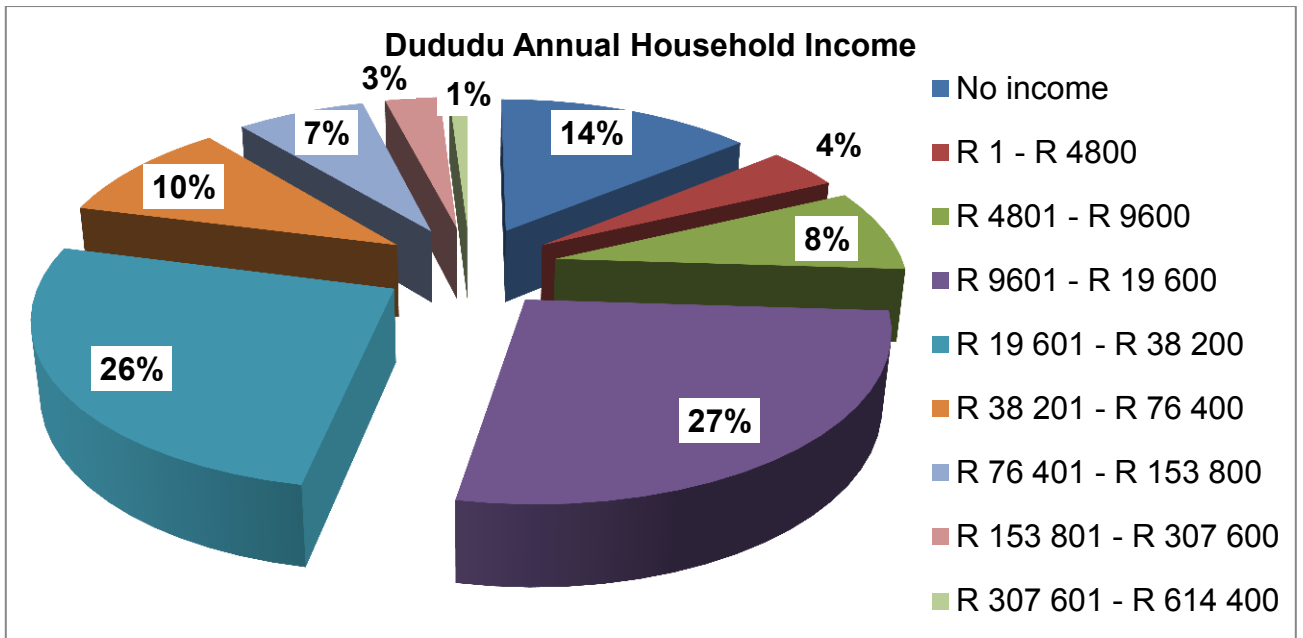


Figure 5: Dududu Annual Household Income

Source: Stats SA, 2011

It is then important to scan the skills base of Dududu in line with the above income levels. The majority of the population in Dududu highest education level is secondary education and a very limited number of people progressed to tertiary for tertiary education (Stats SA, 2011). The skills levels are therefore low in Dududu.

In terms of basic service delivery, three basic services are looked at, which are access to water, sanitation and electricity. In terms of access to water, a total of 51% of the households do not have access (See Table One). Only 15% of the households have piped water inside the dwelling or yard and the rest of the 34% of the households rely on communal stand pipes. In terms of sanitation the majority of the households (52%) use pit toilets without ventilation which is below the minimum required standard. There is high access to electricity (83%) in the area as per Stats SA Census, 2011.

Table 1: Dududu Access to Water

Source: Stats SA Census, 2011

Water Source	Number	%
Piped (tap) water inside dwelling/institution	160	12
Piped (tap) water inside yard	36	3
Piped (tap) water on community stand: distance less than 200m from dwelling/institution	222	17
Piped (tap) water on community stand: distance between 200m and 500m from dwelling/institution	95	7
Piped (tap) water on community stand: distance between 500m and 1000m (1km) from dwelling /institution	127	10
Piped (tap) water on community stand: distance greater than 1000m (1km) from dwelling/institution	4	0
No access to piped (tap) water	659	51
Total	1303	100

With regards to access to community facilities, there is a Police Station, Clinic and Community Hall. There was no report or study that talks to the access to roads in Dududu Village however the municipal IDP suggests that all the access roads in the Vulamehlo Municipality are gravel roads and a provincial road, the tarred P77 passes through Dududu.

A trade centre feasibility study was done in Dududu in 2011 which included the business status quo of the area. In terms of business, both formal and informal business activities exist in the Dududu area. The formal businesses generally have their own building, with access to infrastructure. The monthly turnover of most businesses is substantial based on the selling of small items such as bread, airtime, fruits and cool drinks as well as the bulk items such as mealie-meal and rice which are sold at a slow rate. The stock is sourced from Umzinto which is about 25km away and travelling cost is the main challenge for the traders for the informal business.

In terms of the discussions above it is evident that Dududu Village has a similar background with most of rural the areas in South Africa. Dududu Village has high

unemployment levels coupled with low incomes, and lower standards of some of the key basic services (Stats SA, 2011).

1.7. The Structure of the Dissertation

This dissertation is structured into six chapters. The following section briefly outlines the content of these chapters for ease of reference.

Chapter one has given an introduction to this research study which is inclusive of the aim, objectives, purpose, and rationale of the study. Furthermore, the background to the study area was provided in this chapter.

Chapter two and three are dedicated to reviewing the literature for this study. The discussion places special attention on Local Economic Development (LED). LED is an extensive field of practice and research with many broad dimensions. These are explored through sections which address the international trends, the policy environment internationally and locally, and South Africa's experience. Chapter three is also dedicated to literature review but the focus shifts to rural land tenure and land use management systems. This chapter provides a theoretical investigation of rural land tenure and land use management system which can unlock LED potential in the rural areas.

Chapter four presents the research methodology that was used for the research. The chapter details the research design, sampling method, data collection, and data collection instrument utilised. The type of analysis used is discussed as well as the reliability and validity of the data.

Chapter five presents the data analysis and discussions also highlighting the key findings. The key findings were how land development regulation could unlock LED potential in the tribal land; the most suitable land development regulation needed in the Ingonyama Trust Land to unlock LED; the key stakeholders in the administration of Ingonyama Trust Land; and the role each stakeholder plays in the economic

development of the Ingonyama Trust Land. Furthermore, the link between the interviews conducted and literature review is established. Chapter six presents an overview of the study, its key findings, and recommendations as a conclusion to the dissertation.

1.8. Conclusion

This research has been motivated by the lack of both tenure security and access to Ingonyama Trust Land which was viewed as a barrier of economic and social development for rural areas within the Ugu District. This chapter has provided the context and motivation of the research. The rationale for the research outlining the objectives and questions that the study needs to answer have been established in this first chapter. The chapter has also provided a brief background of the study area, highlighting demographics that are informative to the study. Building from this introduction, the following chapter provides the LED context of the study, which is the one of the main concerns of the research.

CHAPTER TWO: LOCAL ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

2.1. Introduction

Local Economic Development (LED) is relatively a new discipline and approach which have focused mostly on wealth creation linked to community development. This meant that job creation and increasing of the tax base were vital in defining LED and economic development was often equated to economic growth. As the LED approach grew, it became clear that the scope of LED should be more than just the creation of more wealth and jobs but concerned more about the overall improvement of quality of life (Proches, Bodhanya and Hardman, 2012; Blakely and Leigh, 2012; and Bhodhanya, n.d). The implementation of LED should therefore address three critical dimensions which are: inequality reduction, minimum living standards, and sustainable resource use and production (Blakely and Leigh, 2012).

Proches, Bodhanya and Hardman (2012) argue that the new mandate of LED should be to foster a process that involves government and / or community organisations making use of their resources in entering into agreements with the private sector for job creation and economy stimulation as a bottom line. This is the approach that South Africa has adopted through the commitment to a developmental state (Rogerson, 2014; Turok, 2010; Duclos and Verdier-Chouchane, 2010; Edigheji, 2007; Watson, 2007; Bond, 2006; Nel and John, 2006; Bond, 2003). A Developmental state is one that is able and willing to create and sustain a policy climate that promotes development by fostering productive investment, growth and human welfare (Edigheji, 2007).

This chapter therefore presents definitions of LED, international trends in LED practice, and the policy environment of LED, including South Africa"s experience in LED.

2.2. What is LED?

In answering the question „what is LED“, various definitions will be considered and analysed, and different LED dimensions be identified which will form the framework of understanding LED for the purposes of this dissertation.

Fray (n.d) and Blakely and Leigh (2012) argue that LED is concerned with the community, the business and local authorities working jointly at a local level to streamline economic situations that are necessary to fuel growth. This is what holds the model, required to create jobs thus reduce poverty. The definition by Blakely and Leigh (2012, p75), states that: “Local economic development is achieved when a community’s standard of living can be preserved and increased through a process of human and physical development that is based on principles of equity and sustainability gives a more fuller understanding”. The point of departure for these writers is that for quite a long time in the economic development theory evolution, LED has been defined as wealth creation. The creation of jobs and increasing of the tax base were central to this definition, equating economic development with economic growth (Blakely and Leigh, 2012). Economic development should however be concerned with more than just economic growth through creation of more wealth and employment, especially if it is at the expense of escalated income inequality, environmental degradation and leaving the marginalised groups worse off (Blakely and Leigh, 2012).

Another definition of LED that is worth noting is that of Abrahams (2003) as cited in Bodhanya (n.d., p. 2) where he defines LED as “the process of creating wealth through the organised mobilisation of human, physical, capital and natural resources in a locality. The aim of local economic development is to produce higher standards of living, improve the quality of life, alleviate poverty, create more and better jobs, advance skills and build capacity for sustained development in the future.” Unlike Blakely and Leigh, Abraham’s (2003) as cited in Bodhanya (n.d.) views LED as a process of wealth creation rather than as a product of a process. This definition is in line with the World Bank, which views LED as the process through which the public,

business and non-governmental sector partners as a collective work together in the creation of better conditions for economic growth and employment generation (Bodhanya, n.d). The ultimate goal of LED in the World Bank definition is similar to that of most definitions, which is to improve quality of life. Proches, et al. (2012) further elaborates on Abrahams's (2003) definition adding that LED is a process involving local governments and / or community organisations that make use of their resources in entering into agreements with the private sector for job creation and economic stimulation as a bottom line.

The definition of LED is important as it has a huge bearing on policy formulation and strategies and visions of the local area. In the South African context, for instance, the focus is more on the community paying special attention to social goals to the detriment of economic ones (Proches, et al., 2012). The South African approaches are therefore more pro-poor and place a lot of emphasis on addressing social problems. From the above definitions of LED, three different key dimensions can be drawn that are critical to the understanding and implementation of LED which are inequality reduction, improved quality of life (minimum living standards), and sustainable resource use and production as discussed in the subsections that follow.

2.2.1. Inequality Reduction

The first dimension that can be drawn from the LED definitions above is inequality reduction. The section breaks inequality into three segments which are namely, income, spatial and rural inequalities (Blakely and Leigh, 2012). The discussion focuses on income and spatial inequalities, while rural inequality is discussed later in the chapter.

In terms of the income segment of inequality, Todaro and Smith (2011) state three factors that are critical to income inequality. Firstly they allude to the fact that income inequality leads to economic inefficiency due to the fact that when considering average income only a limited fraction of the population qualifies for any form of formal credit if inequality is high. James (2008), and Batuo, Guidi and Mlambo

(2010), argue that access to credit requires collateral and reputable relationships with the financial institutes and furthermore the financial institutes have fixed transactions as well as contract enforcement costs which are often high. This in turn results in them losing the ability to provide their children with proper education, invest in physical capital, or expand their businesses (Todaro and Smith, 2011; James, 2008; Batuo, Guidi and Mlambo, 2010). Income inequality is further exacerbated by the high earners as they are better equipped to exploit the financial opportunities (Batuo et. al., 2010), which may act as a barrier to the lower earners and small and emerging businesses (James, 2008). Higher financial leverage is gained through increased investment in fixed assets as this allows lending at lower interests rates when these assets are put down as collateral (Fatoki and Odeyemi, 2010).

Secondly, high income disparities tend to undermine social stability and solidarity in that where there is extreme inequality the political power of the wealthy is strengthened and therefore their economic bargaining power as well which is often utilised to influence outcomes favourable to them (Todaro and Smith, 2011). Bonica, MacCarty, Poole and Rosenthal (2013) argue that the elite rich through their resources have the ability to influence electoral, legislative and regulatory processes by contributing to election campaigns, lobbying, and cycling door employment of politicians and civil servants. The rich elite are often not concerned with inequality reduction, as this is often viewed as the responsibility of government. Przeworski, as cited in Haggard and Kaufman (2012, p 496), poses really interesting questions regarding the elite rich, for instance; „Why would people who monopolize political power ever decide to put their interests or values at risk by sharing it with others? Specifically, why would those who hold political rights in the form of suffrage decide to extend these rights to anyone else?

Finally, in terms of a macro perspective implications, inequality is considered to be a dampener to economic development and growth (Todaro and Smith, 2011). Assa (2012) argues that countries that have high level of inequality are embattled with high tax and redistribution programme demands which brings about low growth rates. The

human capital inequality in particular as argued by Assa (2012) and Castelò-Climent (2007), discourages growth through resultant lower life expectancy, increased fertility, minimal investment on education, and weakened rule of law. It is important to note, however, that the same does not hold true in developed countries. It is for this reason that Ray (2010), Assa (2012) and Castelò-Climent (2007) conclude that inequality negatively affects the poor countries and by implication the incomes of the poor population. Ray (2010) posits that if growth results in different commodity blend which is then assumed to trigger change in the demand for factors that do not necessarily results in equalisation of incomes. Ray (2010) argues that for such to take place the initial beneficiaries of the process must create demand for factors that are in position of individuals who did not benefit initially.

Spatial inequality can be defined as a state of different spatial elements when a cross geographical analysis is done on certain variables of interest, such as average income, and the analyses of spatial inequality, and often starts with the measurement of living standards or resources for a particular area Shorrocks and Wan (2004) and Lall and Sanjoy, (2004). There are a number of contributing factors that may lead to spatial inequality such as history, natural resources, human capital, local political economy and culture (Lall and Sanjoy 2004; Perry 2010 and Kanbur and Venables, 2003). The impact of natural features is minimal as compared to spatial distribution of physical infrastructure and basic services (Kanbur and Venables, 2003). This is in line with Perry's argument that more focus is directed towards industrial infrastructure, as it is perceived that different activities add value and thus the ability to pay high wages. The lagging economies are confronted with persistent disadvantages which limit the advancement of economic structure and policies that are aimed at ensuring industries invest in these low economy areas (Perry, 2010).

Blakely and Leigh (2012) argues that the split of economic success within rural areas has the same significance as the one that occurs within the metropolitan areas. They justify this by explaining that the economically vibrant areas poses significant natural amenities and / or are within close proximity to thriving metropolitan areas.

Furthermore, the farming base employment still suffers net job and population loss as a result of urbanisation. The rural communities have been taxed severely by the increased global competition, ongoing farm speculation and overproduction. This has been witnessed in the swift decline of the employment base in the agriculture and extractive areas owing to the collapse of farms, closure of mines and other natural resources diminishing (Blakely and Leigh, 2012) since rural inequality is critical to this research, this dimension of inequality will be further discussed in the next chapter.

2.2.2. Minimum Living Standard

The second dimension that can be drawn from the above LED definition is minimum living standards and the implications of improved standards of living. The conceptualisation of LED needs to include an acknowledgement of the need for a minimum standard of living and therefore jobs created through LED need to meet minimum wage (Blakely and Leigh, 2012). Increased living standards encompass consumption of superior commodities and services, decent housing, as well as increased number of households affording medical aids, having enough to set aside for pension, and to pay for higher education for their children. Pycroft (2002) argues that in the South African context especially, a substantial number of families attempt to spread their economic risk through sustaining multi spatial households and applying livelihood diversification strategies. This sees the family members finding locations closest to the development opportunities that are clustered around the cities or town and remit income to the rural bound members. The rural bound members give support by means of child care, elderly, and disability grants and protect and develop the family farm-based assets (Pycroft, 2002). This talks to sustainable livelihoods which is defined by Serrat (2008, pg.1) as encompassing the competence, resources, and actions necessary for an acceptable standard of living and livelihood is considered to be sustainable when it is able survive and recuperate from pressure and shocks and retain or augment its competences, resources, and actions equally at present and in the future, without deteriorating the natural resource base.

To draw on the sustainable livelihoods theory, it is perhaps one of the approaches that can be adopted in the attempts of ensuring minimum standard of living. The livelihood approach understands people as operating within a context of vulnerability, within which they have access to assets (Williams, Meth and Willis, 2009). These assets can be grouped into five categories as identified by (Serrat, 2008). The first category is the human capital asset which is inclusive of health, nutrition, education, knowledge and skills, capacity to work, capacity to adapt. The second category is the social capital asset which is concerned with networks and connections, relationships of trust and common understanding and support, formal and informal groups, mutual values and behaviours, common rules and sanctions, collective representation, mechanisms for participation in decision-making, leadership. The third category is the natural capital asset which is inclusive of land and produce, water and aquatic resources, trees and forest products, wildlife, wild foods and fibres, biodiversity, environmental services. The fourth category is the physical capital which includes infrastructure (transport, roads, vehicles, secure shelter and buildings, water supply and sanitation, energy, communications), tools and technology (tools and equipment for production, seed, fertilizer, pesticides, traditional technology). The last category is the financial capital asset which is concerned with savings, credit and debt (formal, informal), remittances, pensions, and wages. The prevailing institutional, social, and organizational environment determines the value of these assets. The livelihoods approach demands that people are placed at the centre of development, of decision making and further puts emphasis on the magnitude of the processes of making a living being limited to analysing only the outcomes in terms of wealth or poverty (Williams, et al., 2009). The people who are at the centre of the question of development situate ways of surviving within their structural and institutional contexts (Williams, et al., 2009).

Adams, Sibanda and Turner (1999) state that through the lenses of sustainable livelihoods framework, the consideration of options for change and the associated possible impacts on people's asset status is made simple. The extent to which livelihoods can be enhanced and how, is determined by the access to capital assets,

including finance, land, natural resources and social capital. In the instances where there is a lack of financial resources, a range of livelihood opportunities can be provided through social capital which is inclusive of customary access to land, natural resources and environment that is conducive for the poor to sell their labour, (Adams, et al., 1999).

2.2.3. Sustainable Resource Use and Production

The third dimension that can be drawn from the LED definition above is sustainable resource use and production. The sustainable resource use and production is particularly important in ensuring that there is a healthy balance between development and the environment. Sustainability should be incorporated in economic development to ensure future generations are not prejudiced by current generation. The goods that are cast off by the increasingly affluent and consumer-oriented society, requires recycling if LED were to be effective. This should be coupled with firmer controls on growth to stem greenfield consumption and stretch proliferation, (Blakely and Leigh, 2012). Raemaekers (2000) defines sustainable development as making a living out of the earth's income instead of eroding its capital. The earth's capital assets should not be seen to only include manufactured capital such as machines, roads and factories, but also human capital such as knowledge, experience and skills and environmental capital such as forests, soil quality and rangeland (Todaro and Smith, 2011). The mandate of sustainable development should therefore be about seeking a development path that enables the current generation to prosper at the same time passing on to the next generation capital stock that is undiminished but should rather be increased (Raemaekers, 2000). The point that Raemaekers (2000) is making is that the current generation should live off the interest generated by the capital and leave the capital untouched, what Todaro and Smith (2011) refers to as sustainable net national income.

Sustainable net national income can be at times be compromised by development pressures which are propelled by the rapidly growing population (Raemaekers, 2000). The world population is not only growing rapidly but also it is rapidly being urbanised.

In terms of planning law there is a long standing presumption that favours development, where development should continue unless it can be demonstrated that would cause harm to the interests of acknowledged importance (Raemaekers, 2000). If the development application is in line with the local authority's development plan it would most likely be approved unless confronted with strong material reasons for disapproving it, and in the case where the development application is not aligned with the development plan then it would mostly be disapproved unless there are strong material reasons for approving it (Raemaekers, 2000). It is therefore clear that development control operates in a highly master plan-led system. The sustainable resource use and production should therefore form an integral part of the planning law. This would allow for all the planning processes to follow to adhering to the requirements of sustainable development.

The development of the local authority's development plan then becomes very important, and stakeholder engagement in the development of such a plan should be carefully considered (Raemaekers, 2000). Should the local authority in developing its development plan put forward a plan that is considered to be tedious by developers, the developers would most probably object to it (Raemaekers, 2000). Similarly if the local authority attempts to impose upon an unwilling developer a condition attached to the planning approval that is not supported by the development plan, the developer can lodge an appeal and most likely win it (Raemaekers, 2000). It is for this reason therefore that engagement with the relevant stakeholders is of utmost importance.

The LED definition that has been discussed above had three dimensions, reduction of inequality, minimum living standard and sustainable resource use and production, which were critical to understand the current state of LED and for the research. These dimensions form part of the conceptual and practical foundation which shapes the current LED and policy development as discussed in the forthcoming sections.

2.3. International Trends in LED

The effects of globalisation form an integral part of the LED debate and the need to take them into consideration in the development of LED strategies around the world is indeed great. This section therefore addresses the domino effect of globalisation as a result of its interconnected nature, the intensity and complexity of interactions in the global environment, the LED paradigm shift and the six international trends in LED.

Sanyal (2002), Martens, Dreher and Gaston (2010), Martens and Raza (2010), and Dreher, Gassebner and Siemens (2010) define globalisation as a process whereby national territorial jurisdictions interconnect via the flows trade and investment, cultural, social and political practices, which are fuelled by constant innovation in communication. Theron (2008) on the other hand explains the interconnectedness of people, societies, and states; the interconnectedness of all social, cultural and natural links amid past, current and the future; and the complementary nature of the cognitive, bodily and spiritual dimensions of people as „global holism“. This was evident in the effects of globalisation in the 2008 recession and when USA went into recession, the whole world felt it (Theron, 2008). Blakely and Leigh (2012) concur with this point as he argues that the negative side of rapidly integrated global economy is the resultant downturn in one major nation spreads across the globe like flu. This domino effect that results from the interconnectedness of nations plays a key role in the development of LED strategies and frameworks across the globe and shapes the mitigation strategies thereof.

Sanyal (2002) alludes to the fact that globalisation is not a new phenomenon but perhaps what is new to our generation is the rapid growth in intensity and complexity of these interactions, especially the increased dominance of financial flows in and out of territories. Gabriel and Oladipo (2011) share the same sentiments as they argue that globalisation augment the openness and tempo of economy and trade. There is no doubt that globalisation has some positive effects on the economy of the country and different regions. These gains have increased international flow of goods and services, financial capital, information, technological developments; enhanced legal

systems and institutions that facilitate these flows; public awareness on human rights issues; and stronger and more matured democracies (Martens and Raza, 2010 and Dreher, Gassebner and Siemens, 2010).

At the same breath globalisation also poses some threats to the wellbeing of national and regional economies. Sanyal (2002), Martens et al, (2010), Martens and Raza (2010), and Dreher et al, (2010) all argue that as much as globalisation may increase the size of the pie, it does not guarantee equal distribution of the pie, but instead pose a threat of skewed distribution. These writers posit that globalisation brings about human security threats such as fiscal instability, political and cultural uncertainty, ecological dilapidation and an increased gap between the rich and the poor. Sanyal (2002) further argues that the understanding of conflicts and uncertainties created by the globalisation process results in the schooling of flexible minds. It is for this reason that Sanyal (2002) suggest that, the multifaceted nature of globalisation"s outcome of rapid economic growth at the expense of increased income inequality; the reduced ability of state to control economic activity; and the increased need for new regulatory forms by the state be appreciated. Martens et al, (2010), Martens and Raza (2010), and Dreher et al, (2010) characterise globalisation as being beneficial in a short run but detrimental in a long run.

Globalisation demands that the policy makers be conscious of the simultaneous developments that is occurring in the different domains and sustainable global policies needs to be entrenched in the growing interconnectedness presented by globalisation as argued by Martens and Razer (2010).

The LED paradigm shift, community based strategies, pro poor development, the knowledge-based economy and place-based policy places great emphasis on governments across the globe having to initiate policies and programmes that make their localities more striking to investors, firms, entrepreneurs, and other which will give them a competitive advantage over other localities with comparable resource inheritance (Rogerson, 2014; Bond, 2003; Blakely and Leigh, 2012; Perry, 2010;

Yigitcanlar and Velibeyoglu, 2008; MacKinnon, Cumbers and Chapman, 2002; and Kline and Moretti, 2013). The driving force that the LED paradigm shift was the need to focus more on community based strategies which are seen to be more sustainable as they work directly with low income communities and their organisations (Bond, 2003).

Bond (2003) argues that the poor and neediest are unlikely to benefit from investments unless they are actively involved in the new development, having competence to plan, monitor and enforce wider benefits. Rogerson (2014) contributes by arguing that in order for communities to be at an advantage, the comparative advantages of localities require maximisation which should include, improved local business environment; improvement of local skills; clustered development; and promotion of public private partnerships. These new approaches call for a move away from focusing on attracting factories to attracting entrepreneurial population as Yigitcanlar and Velibeyoglu (2008) argue that both the investment level and human capital accumulation are significant production factors and present a competitive advantage in the growth processes. Yigitcanlar and Velibeyoglu (2008) further argue that for the knowledge based economy the knowledge infrastructure required is the concentration of educated population and technological infrastructure such as electronics and connections to the global knowledge based economy. The focus should not only be attraction of consumers but investors and workers as well to the city (Yigitcanlar and Velibeyoglu, 2008). It is for this reason that Bond (2003) advocated for the new middle class young retirees must to be lured to the area as they have a potential of bringing buying power and capability to attract employers (Blakely and Leigh, 2012). The LED paradigm shift therefore calls for a need to support institutions like community development trusts and development corporations, which is a critical facet of these approaches.

Based on the LED paradigm shift that has been discussed in the foregoing paragraphs, six themes of the international trends have been identified. These are

1. structural change;

2. locality development;
3. enterprise development;
4. employment resource;
5. community resource; and
6. governance (Blakely and Leigh, 2012).

These themes are interlinked; however locality development will be the focus of the study. The first theme is concerned with structural change where there has been an ongoing debate around the focus on growth theories which are concerned with short expansion of LED and the focus on development theories which are mostly concerned with the process of evolutionary and structural change of an economy on a longer term (Rogerson, 2014 and MacKinnon, Cumbers and Chapman, 2002). There has been a notable swing from individual firms receiving direct support to programmes that are generic and aimed at improving business development and market prospects for groups of firms or sectors. Furthermore, there has been increased attention given to human capital development, (DCOG, 2013).

The second theme is locality development. The rapid advances made in technological development have eroded the long held view that location is a major determinant of development considering the fact that firms tend to minimise their dependence on the natural resources, replacing them with knowledge which is a mobile resource and has grown to be a critical input. The mobility of knowledge resource has had a negative effect on rural areas which already have a low skills base and the limited people that acquire knowledge and skill end up migrating to the urban centres. Locality development should therefore be concerned more about the quality of social infrastructure and an immaculate natural environment for recreation which are inclusive of civic organisations, cultural opportunities, and business networks. Furthermore, locality development should be about social, economic and environmental conditions" overall improvement, and every attempt must be made to strengthen tangible and intangible location factors. This should assist in keeping the rural knowledge system from migrating, which is an important consideration in this

study (MacKinnon, Cumbers and Chapman, 2002; Yigitcanlar and Velibeyoglu, 2008; Perry, 2010; Hindson and Vincente-Hindson, 2005; and Blakely and Leigh, 2012).

The third theme is enterprise development, which is concerned with initiatives that toughen the economic base and magnetism of a locality, via enhanced admittance of local businesses to market opportunities and improved combined efficiency of enterprises (Hindson and Vincente-Hindson, 2005). Business is still critical to the economic development agenda even in the new economy. What is different is the shift from individual firms to the networks of firms or group of inter-reliant firms in industries where people, natural and technological connection advantage are present (Blakely and Leigh, 2012). The growing consensus has been to shift the focus from attracting investments to ensuring that the existing business locally, especially SMMEs, experience growth and are retained (Hindson and Vincente-Hindson, 2005).

The fourth theme of LED international trends is the employment resource, which has been traditionally the main determiner of which firm to recruit in the area has been based on the number of jobs that will be provided irrespective of the skills level or wages paid. This is directly linked to the long held belief that localities stand to benefit if the labour cost is low, which in most cases goes hand in hand with lower taxes, limited education and training opportunities (Blakely and Leigh, 2012). This did not strike a chord with one of the LED goals which is to enhance the value of people and places as firms that came to these areas seeking low wages, created a number of minimum-wage jobs that did not move the local community members away from poverty (Blakely and Leigh, 2012). The current view is that if a locality possesses a substantial human resource base, new firms can be created regardless of the location and even existing firms can migrate to be closer to that base (Blakely and Leigh, 2012). It therefore of vital importance that local community in their endeavours of job creation, that they extend the scope beyond the current population skills level to potential future skills level jobs.

The fifth theme is the community resource which is concerned with ensuring that health, housing, education and welfare conditions are improved for individuals, households and communities locally (Hindson and Vincente-Hindson, 2005). Kline and Moretti (2013) and Benington (2005) refer to these resources as local public goods and argue that public value is generated through mass provision of basic services such as health care, education, housing, water and sanitation rather than producing them in small batches. Benington (2005) adds that the sustainability of these resources rests on the strengthening public infrastructure, communal services and value. In terms of the new economic agenda the community is represented by organisations that represent a wide range of interests and economic development occurs when these organisations collaborate effectively (Blakely and Leigh, 2012). Likewise Benington (2005) concurs with Blakely and Leigh (2012) but argues that the value of public goods is dependent on an array of organisations, actors and partners, and therefore government and private sector should join the dialogue as well.

The last theme in consideration of LED identified is governance. LED theory development has witnessed a shift from the backing of involvement of the state through direct intervention to enablement where the state instead makes an environment that is favourable and makes available support measures to assist public and private actors to contribute at their maximum potential to LED (Hindson and Vincente-Hindson, 2005). Mohr (2010) argues that as much as the debate around the role that government must play is an area of great contestation, it is important to acknowledge that the government always has a contribution to make. It is for that reason therefore that Idemudia (2010) suggests that in the age of sustainable development, the role of government should be concerned with creating the right mix of government and private sector actions to maximise welfare. This results in the creation of an enabling environment that has a strong regulatory framework to mobilise resources for development (Idemudia, 2010). The enabling environment should be such that the policies promote and offer incentives for the business sector that will reduce environmental and social costs, whilst increasing economic gains (Idemudia, 2010).

This section has looked at the current international trends of LED. It has emerged that globalisation is a phenomenon that has changed the world economy and the common trend associated with it is agglomeration of economies. The section further discussed that although there is increased globalisation, the LED paradigm shift favours community or locality orientated approaches to create a platform that ensures that the economically marginalised benefit. Lastly, six LED themes were discussed which categorises the current international LED trends. The next section will therefore address the LED policy environment as shaped by these trends.

2.4. The General Context in which LED is Implemented Internationally and in South Africa

In response to the current international trends in LED, there are various approaches adopted by different nations with regards to LED policy development and many debates still continue as to which is the right approach. This section examines the general context in which LED occurs, taking into consideration three basic dominant policy approaches in the international arena. The discussion then zooms into the South African context in which LED occurs and approach to the policy development. More attention is directed towards the South African approach to LED policy development to ascertain if the South African policy environment is along the path of the research. The section concludes by comparing the South African LED trends with the international ones.

Blakely and Leigh (2012) identifies three basic approaches that dominate economic policy in the international arena. Namely, nationwide reindustrialization; incentives and dedicated taxes; and seeking alternatives of both the free-market and regulated industrial policy perspective that focuses on firms only.

In terms of the nationwide reindustrialization, the focus is placed on the industrial stock rebuilding which is done through targeted tax incentives and government's assurance that economic infrastructure development is financed according to

nationwide reindustrialization (Blakely and Leigh, 2012; Todaro and Smith, 2011). Perry (2010) argues that LED policies have attempted to attend to the weak infrastructure in areas that have been prioritised for industrialisation, where other initiatives included making available sites and buildings that are ready for development to simplify the inward investment process. Zheng and Warner (2010) argue that nationwide reindustrialisation policies place more emphasis on promotion of what he refers to as „stickiness“ of firms through infrastructure investment and market support which encourages competitiveness of the local business cluster. The stickiness of firms refers to the resistance of firms to economic change that may occur (Zheng and Warner, 2010).

In terms of incentives and dedicated taxes, it can be said that such measures effect is felt in increasing tax revenue and promoting economic development. Furthermore there has been a shift from high dependence on business incentives, towards opening the scope to be inclusive of broader set of strategies placing special focus on small business support. Business incentives and dedicated taxes have resulted in an unhealthy competition between local governments to attract households and businesses. Such policy approaches are mostly concerned with what Perry (2010) terms creative classes Zheng and Warner, (2010); Goetz, Partridge, Rickman and Majumdar, (2011); Perry, (2010). The creative class agenda has momentum in policy development as a preferred alternative to free-market and industrial policy perspectives (Perry, 2010). However, the creative class has also been critiqued as exacerbating inequality as the most skilled workforce tend to be concentrated in fewer larger cities and does not offer any security for the unskilled labour force (Perry, 2010).

Blakely and Leigh (2012) argue that nations have fallen victims to regulations, special support systems, and inconsistent contradictory industrial and economic policies and therefore, a need for seeking alternatives to both the free-market and regulated industrial policy perspective that focuses on firms only. These policies and regulations restrict trade and make nations less competitive. The advocates of free-

market goes as far as seeking for further deregulation of labour markets and abolishment of minimum wage or alternatively, be floated like the currency for the absorption of unemployed groups (Blakely and Leigh, 2012). Chang (2011) on the other hand believes that in some instances weak protection of private property rights has led to the failure of deregulation policies in many countries as potential investors could not be assured returns on their investments and therefore deregulation should not be viewed in isolation. Community attraction offers a counterview which argues that free-market and industrial policy perspectives focused solely on firms are premised on the basis that what is good for the business is good for the community and workers, an assumption which is constantly being questioned as a faulty view (Blakely and Leigh, 2012).

The analysis of the three approaches reveals that in terms of global trends infrastructural development and availability of land for industries and firms remains high on the agenda. The advancement of creative class needs to be taken with the necessary caution to mitigate the disadvantages that come with it. Deregulation of labour and doing away with minimum wage in a bid to absorb more of the unemployment group should also be approached with the necessary caution. As the discussion turns to focus on the South African context from here onwards, it is important to keep in mind the advantages and disadvantages of these three approaches that Blakely and Leigh (2012) identified.

The debates around place-marketing and pro-poor strategies towards the implementation of LED dominate policy development in the South African context (Bond, 2003; Rogerson, 2014). The traditional approaches suggest that attracting investment (primarily manufacturing) is a key success factor of LED via concessions, such as tax breaks, cheap land, reduced rates and direct financial reward, in return for locating in the area. This was done under the background that such investment creates jobs and increases taxes which are then used for service provision (Bond, 2003).

The orthodox LED approach was centred on what Proches, et al. (2012) refer to as market LED based strategy which encompassed the Locality Development Strategy and Business Development Strategy. Locality development was more concerned with development of local areas in relation to industrial and commercial purposes, infrastructure and services, and the improvement of urban areas that are needy, such as townships (Proches, et al., 2012). Business development was more focused on creating business, attracting the business to the local area and ensuring that the existing business is maintained, developing small businesses, and ensuring there is investment for sectors that are most conducive for job creation (Proches, et al., 2012).

Three broad strategies as identified by Bond (2003) emerged from the early LED implementation era in South Africa, which are entrepreneurial competitive, urban efficiency, progressive competitive. The entrepreneurial competitive strategy was mainly concerned with comparative advantage at a local level and job creation through small businesses. It called for a more proactive role from local authorities in the identification of actual or potential growth sectors and to directly support local business through research, loans, grants, consultancy, premises, technical infrastructure, etc. (Bond, 2003). This strategy viewed small medium enterprises (SMEs) as having a pivotal role in economic development as they were often said to be prolific and efficient in terms of job creation (Abor and Quartey, 2010 and Rogerson, 2014). The urban efficiency strategy advocated for the increase of urban productivity by local authorities through decreasing the cost of living and conducting business in the local area. This will mean government intervention must be minimised to effectively achieve this and some still maintain planning is central to achieving efficiency (Bond, 2003). This strategy led to the South African major cities being targeted for pro-growth interventions (Rogerson, 2014). The progressive competitive strategy, furthermore, focused on human resource development based on the argument that as long as the skill levels are low, especially amongst the poor, the potential investors will always face a challenge and the local poor people will most likely not benefit in any new jobs due to lack of skills. The role that the local authorities can play is through supporting the establishment of training bodies locally

or shifts the focus to companies doing business with them by imposing that they provide some level of training for their employee (Bond, 2003).

The South African LED policy environment has witnessed a paradigm shift and is more developmental than in the initial implementation stages toward the end of 19th and beginning of 20th centuries (Bond, 2003). The developmental form of LED as argued by Bond (2003) has six developmental LED strategies through which the South African government's policy commits to supporting transformation. These six are, supporting community based development; linking profitable growth to redistributive development/financing; explicit linkages between „living wages,“ human capital development and productivity; infrastructure and municipal services; leak plugging in the local economy; and retention and expansion of local economic activity (Bond, 2003). These developmental LED strategies are bottom up or market critical approaches which Proches, et al. (2012) explain as being founded on community development and encompass the human resource development and community based employment strategies. With regards to human resource development the efforts are directed at training in order to ensure the market place is filled with qualified individuals and that information is available to businesses and job seekers. Community based employment development is concerned with neighbourhood level development and efforts of job creation for people who have had no jobs for long period of time.

The following discussions compare the South African and the international LED themes. It is important that the efforts of ensuring quality service that is cost effective which then results in localities that are amiable places to live and work (Nel and John, 2006), it is important to ensure that the rand circulates in the area at least two or three times before leaving the locality. Plugging the leaks in the local economy strategy suggests that the available resources should be used in such a way that all the LED interventions have this effect as it is of crucial importance that the leakage of cash from the deprived areas is halted through persuading individuals to purchase locally, building and support of periodic markets, financial support of special events and

festivals, develop infrastructure employing local people and buying locally-produced material, encouraging workers training, and networking businesses of all magnitude in the locality, etc. (Bond, 2003). All in all plugging the leaks in the local economy should result in increased attention to human capital development. This strategy is aligned with the first international theme, structural change.

Turok (2010) argues that blockages with regards to infrastructure, congestion and shortage of skills are a major constraint for economic development. Infrastructure and municipal services strategy if implemented effectively and consistently supply reliable cost effective municipal service delivery (lifeline supplies of water, electricity, sanitation, roads, etc), may result in developmental LED, (Bond, 2003). Furthermore, Meyer-Stamer (2008) argue that the robust infrastructure development is driven by a dual motive of achieving improved quality of life and promotion of the economy. The municipalities should therefore be committed to providing services and infrastructure that are cost effective which will result in their localities being pleasant places to live and work (Nel and John, 2006). This strategy is aligned with the second international theme which is the locality development.

Linking profitable growth to redistributive development/financing strategy can be achieved through what Bond (2003, p 153) terms „planning gain“. This is evident in cases where impoverished neighbourhood planning or zoning permission in a profitable geographical area is linked to investment commitment for affordable housing. Turok (2010) and Nel and John (2006) argued that spatial interventions like Industrial Development Zones (IDZs) and Spatial Development Initiatives (SDIs) was South Africa’s first approach in ensuring that inward investment is subsidised in lagging regions. This strategy is also aligned with the second international theme, the locality development.

Nel and John (2006) argue that smaller economic localities are mostly single sector dependant which leaves them vulnerable to sector specific economic shifts such as closure of a local firm, and therefore business retention and expansion becomes

important. Retention and expansion of existing businesses strategy views local firm rootedness is key as economic activity rarely gets parachuted down from above. The local business needs to therefore be assisted so that their productivity is improved, market share increased, and in the production chain are graduated to higher value-added levels (Bond, 2003). This strategy is aligned with the third international theme, enterprise development.

Explicit linkages between „living wages,“ human capital development and productivity strategy suggests that the economic development must bring about social benefit as the requirement of this strategy (Bond, 2003). To this effect, Nel and John (2006) argue that the ministry of Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) perceived objectives of LED in South Africa as being concerned with promoting private investment, job creation and increase income and levels of affordability within a particular local area whilst improving municipality’s capacity to provide services. Duclos and Verdier-Chouchane (2010) further state that South African government spending has been reoriented by recent policy to combat deprivation in localities such as improved health care and quality of education, supply of decent jobs, sustainable livelihoods, and economic and social infrastructure development. This strategy is aligned with the fourth international theme which is employment resource.

The strategy for supporting community based development is concerned with local authority grass root assistance with the beneficiaries ranging from community business and cooperatives to local exchange and trading systems, to third sector development experiments, communal savings and non-formal loaning set ups, community-based environmental management and preservation schemes, urban farming projects, etc. (Bond, 2003). Turok (2010) concurs with Bond (2003) arguing that LED growth in South Africa has been coupled with attempts to create organisational support that is inclusive of the knowledge, skills and scope at community level to embark on development projects which would determine what works well in different places. This strategy is aligned with the fifth international theme which is community resource.

The section began by discussing the three basic approaches that dominate the international economic policy field. These approaches were identified as nationwide reindustrialization; incentives and dedicated taxes; and seeking alternatives of both the free-market and regulated industrial policy perspective that focuses on firms only. The discussion then progressed to the South African context which is dominated by the place-marketing and pro-poor approaches. The paradigm shift that South Africa has witnessed was also discussed. The section was concluded by comparing the South African LED trends with the international ones, highlighting the linkages that exist. The next section starts to then look at how South Africa has responded to these strategies and approaches and the advances that the country has made on LED implementation.

2.5. South Africa's Response to LED Legislative Mandate

This discussion builds on the previous section to examine how South Africa has responded to the legislative mandate of LED as set by the government. The White Paper on Local Government (1998) compels municipalities in an attempt of promoting LED to review their current policies and procedures and has embedded the concept of developmental local government concept in the policy approach (Turok, 2010 and Nel and John (2006). Huyssteen, Orange and Meiklejohn (2010) have critiqued South Africa of advocating for one size fits all kind of approach that has not yielded any positive results and have proven inappropriate with Bond (2013) going as far as stating that if South Africa continues with the current old orthodox LED approaches, is a ticking socio-economic time bomb. As bleak as the situation may appear for South Africa, certain positives can be taken moving forward and a lot can definitely be learnt from the challenges that have been encountered as discussed in this section.

South Africa has experienced continued social and spatial inequalities despite the improved economic growth. The economic growth was achieved through implementation of Growth, Employment and Redistribution Strategy (GEAR) which was committed to increasing growth in a bid to sustain the government's social and developmental programmes by ensuring fiscal discipline, monetary policy and

restructuring of state assets for a more competitive economy (Nel and John, 2006, Duclos and Verdier-Chouchane, 2010 and Turok, 2010). The inequalities however, continued to be exaggerated by the distorted settlement patterns that limited deprived communities in the peripheral urban townships and secluded rural settlements as stated by Turok (2010). Duclos and Verdier-Chouchane (2010) describe the South African economy as possessing a relatively formal mostly urban economy which coexists with a largely rural informal economy and near subsistence agricultural sector. It therefore comes as no surprise that response to policy has been different for the urban and rural areas which exacerbated the urban rural divide prevalent in the country.

The initial LED urban policy response was to advocate for cities to move away from the traditional managerial focus towards a more entrepreneurial role (Nel and John, 2006). The response in the urban areas has also included a more business focused stance, as there is existence of vibrant LED networks and the roles of the government and private sector are well defined, whilst rural areas tends to be about the participation of the communities in need rather than the private sector (Proches, et al., 2012). There hasn't been any robust response rural LED besides development of strategies which is as a result of lack of explicitness of LED policy framework in South Africa and the long held assumption that development would inevitably trickle down to the rural periphery (Rogerson, 2014). Lastly with regards to urban and rural imbalance, is the fact that it has been exacerbated by the rewarding of good performance with increased resources as a way of motivating further and underperformance irrespective of whether it is as a result of initial inherent conditions, receives no resource incentives (Proches, et al. 2012).

The persistent growing spatial inequality between rural and urban has been deepened by the bias of policy implementation to urban settings. One such example is the Department of Trade and Industry (DTI)'s introduction of explicit spatial interventions such as Spatial Development Initiatives and Industrial Development Zones that impacted the local planning and development processes (Watson, 2008).

The municipalities followed suit in their endeavours promoting LED by ensuring that the zoning application processes are speeded up, and the procurement processes are changed to give advantage to the local or small business (Watson, 2007). The weakness of such response in the South African context is that formal planning processes such as town planning schemes and land use management schemes are limited to urban areas and formal townships which exclude rural areas.

The LED's failure to make a meaningful impact especially in the rural areas and to bridge the spatial and social inequality can be attributed to the initial implementation of the local economic development initiatives source. To kick start LED in response to the White Paper on Local Government (1998), DPLG introduced the LED fund which ran from 1999 to 2003. This fund was channelled through to municipalities with an aim of funding community based initiatives that would ensure creation of jobs, poverty alleviation and redistribution, each project interventions receiving R1.5 million per annum (Watson, 2007). Due to LED being a new discipline at that time, most of the funding went towards poverty alleviation projects only which proved to be not sustainable, resulting in stakeholders perceiving LED as being about poverty relief and not economic growth. Furthermore, the high rate of failure of the projects left the view in peoples' minds that the efficacy of the LED concept is questionable, a view that is still persistent to date (Watson, 2007). The DTI programmes however, included development of industrial clusters, small businesses, manufacturing advisory centres, and tender advisory centres and a range of policy support measures that has had a clearer impact on local development initiatives, which in most cases extended beyond immediate scope of local government activities (Watson, 2007).

The need to create decent employment and sustainable livelihoods has been a prominent feature of the South African LED policy development following the country's commitment to a developmental state (Rogerson, 2014; Turok, 2010; Duclos and Verdier-Chouchane, 2010; Edigheji, 2007; Watson, 2007; Bond, 2006; Nel and John, 2006; Bond, 2003). The job creation projects funded by government departments such as Human Settlement, Water Affairs, Public Works and

Environmental Affairs, as much as they were regarded as LED in most cases, had limited impacts on local developments (Watson, 2007). The government in terms of job creation has been highly criticised. As Bond (2003) argues, it is not so much about the number and wages of jobs that are key, rather the quality of employment and the intensity of skills that employees bring to their work. Small Medium Enterprises (SMME) and Cooperatives were identified as vehicles to boosting job creation (Rogerson, 2014; Turok, 2010; Duclos and Verdier-Chouchane, 2010; Edigheji, 2007; Watson, 2007; Bond, 2006; Nel and John, 2006; Bond, 2003). This has seen a wide spread of initiatives by government aimed at developing and capacitating SMMEs and cooperatives as well as ensuring that state regulation, procurement and services favour SMMEs, and by implication job creation (Rogerson, 2014; Turok, 2010; Duclos and Verdier-Chouchane, 2010; Edigheji, 2007; Watson, 2007; Bond, 2006; Nel and John, 2006; Bond, 2003).

Despite the creation of sustainable employment being core to South Africa's economic policy, the country succumbed to the pressure of rising imports in a bid to supply the consumer boom that resulted from short term capital inflows, rather than long term investment in local production which creates employment and export diversity (Rogerson, 2014; Turok, 2010, Edigheji, 2007 and Nel and John, 2006). In response South Africa has committed to long term intensification in the industrialisation in order to stimulate labour intensive industrialisation path (Rogerson, 2014 and Turok, 2010). The implementation of South African industrialisation policy has been consistent with this thinking as endeavours by government to support institutions and firms knowledge, skill and ensuring prioritisation of locally produced products (Rogerson, 2014; Turok, 2010 and Nel and John, 2006).

This section began by discussing the South African economic policies post democratic election. It emerged that these policies focused more on fiscal discipline, monetary policy and restructuring of state assets for a competitive economy but fell short in addressing social and spatial inequalities. It emerged in the section that South Africa's response to LED approach had an urban bias and has been no robust

rural response to the policies. The issue of decent job creation and sustainable livelihoods now forms a prominent of policy development in South Africa in the countries bid to achieve a developmental state. Lastly, it has emerged in this section that in South Africa, LED is often confused with poverty alleviation a view that needs to be changed.

2.6. Conclusion

It has emerged that LED is a highly contested field as could be seen in the variation of LED definitions that have be cited above from various scholars. What appears to be a common denominator in all the definitions has been cited as the primary objective to improve the standard of living and by implication the quality of life for all. Three main LED dimensions have been identified as being critical these being reduction of inequality, minimum living standard and sustainable resource use and production.

Interrogation of the international trends reveals that globalisation has altered the playing field for the world economy through the increased world interconnectedness and fluidity of national boundaries across the globe (Blakey and Leigh, 20102; Theron, 2008; and Sanyal, 2002). Furthermore, approaches such as community based strategies, pro-poor development, knowledge based economy and place based strategies have dominated the LED terrain. Six international trends have been identified which gives an overall picture of what is currently unfolding in the LED field internationally. These themes are namely, structural change; locality development; enterprise development; employment resource; community resource; and governance. The LED policy development therefore advocates for nationwide reindustrialisation, incentives and dedicated taxes, and seeking alternatives of both the free-market and regulated industrial policy which is a shift from the over concentration on firm.

The South African LED experience is aptly summarised by Duclos and Verdier-Chouchane (2010), is of a sophisticated formal economy which has experienced

relative success through robust economic growth in the post apartheid era. However, this formal sophisticated economy coexists with a huge informal economy on which the majority of the population rely on as means of living through near-subsistence agriculture or dependence on the informal sector (Duclos and Verdier-Chouchane, 2010). This is the major concern of the research as it focuses on unlocking LED potential in the predominantly poor rural areas. Based on the literature there has been a slight neglect of these areas in the implementation of economic policy in South Africa. It has been argued in this chapter that improvement of living standards have been pedestrian in the rural areas despite there being decent policy framework to address development in rural areas. The next chapter places emphasis on the rural areas and looks at the potential land regulation has on unlocking LED in these areas.

CHAPTER THREE: RURAL LAND TENURE AND LAND USE MANAGEMENT SYSTEM

3.1. Introduction

This section examines rural land tenure, focusing on the South African context. The chapter begins by giving a brief summary of the characteristics of the rural areas; it then looks at why land is so contentious and if formal titling in rural areas will improve local economy of these areas. Communal land tenure systems are then given a closer look, identifying their needs and features; the South African land tenure history especially apartheid legacy is interrogated; and lastly the development perspectives and the role of Amakhosi is highlighted.

3.1.1. Characteristics of Rural Areas

The economic critics of the South African Government approach to LED have called for specific, realistic, and custom made interventions that will ensure unlocking of LED potential in rural areas (Haggblade, Hazell, and Reardon, 2010; Huyssteen, et al., 2010; and Dinkelman, 2008). However, before the interventions can be crafted, it is important that the unique characteristics of the rural areas are understood. Huyssteen, et al. (2010) highlight the diversity of rural areas with regards to their character and challenges.

South African rural areas can be characterised by their ample and diverse scope of natural resource based industries which may include mining, agriculture, fishing and forestry (Haggblade, Hazel, and Reardon, 2010; Huyssteen, et al., 2010; and Dinkelman, 2008). These rural areas further provide habitat to assorted immaculate natural attractiveness and bio-diversity wealth which gives great alternatives to the coastline in terms of tourism (Huyssteen, et al., 2010). In addition, agriculture is a major employer in the rural areas which is mainly through small holders, and therefore by implication land becomes an important asset for the rural community (Neves and Du Toit, 2013 and Haggblade, et al., 2010).

The South African rural areas are also characterised as having limited access to basic service delivery and infrastructure and are thus largely dependent on the urban centres for some key services (Neves and Du Toit, 2013; Huyssteen, et al., 2010; and Dinkelman, 2008). The urban dependence of the South African rural areas is also exacerbated by the pull factors presented by the urban areas. The urban areas as Neves and Du Toit (2013) and Haggblade, et al., (2010) argue they do not just present job opportunities but offer better access to amenities, infrastructural services (water, electricity and roads) and social services (education and public health). This results in economic flight where the rand doesn't circulate within the rural areas but just goes straight to the town centres as well as rural urban migration (Neves and Du Toit, 2013; Huyssteen, et al., 2010; and Dinkelman, 2008). Huyssteen, et al. (2010) has further argued that the large catchment areas in the hinterland have been treated as reservoirs of the urban areas, little benefiting the local community.

The spatial form of the rural areas in SA in terms of type and density is what Huyssteen et al (2010) refer to as a quilt rather than a cloth. This is seen in the near 30% of the SA's population residing outside the highly densified and accessible areas. Furthermore, there is interconnectedness of large segments of rural SA population through a network that spreads to almost the whole country (Huyssteen, et al., 2010). This is a primary challenge facing service delivery and creation of livelihood in South African rural areas. Some of the subsidised economic intervention enjoyed during apartheid years have diminished resulting in minimal economic activity (Huyssteen, et al., 2010). Furthermore, other challenges facing rural areas in South Africa are the continued decline of smallholder agriculture which limits the opportunities for low-skilled workers (Neves and Du Toit, 2013 and Haggblade, et al., 2010).

As much as South African rural areas boast of diversity of natural resources, rural South Africa is still lagging behind in terms of development compared to the urban centres (Haggblade, Hazel, and Reardon, 2010; Huyssteen, et al., 2010; Dinkelman, 2008). This can be attributed to the lack of physical and social infrastructure which is

necessary to attract investors in these areas (Neves and Du Toit, 2013; Huyssteen, et al., 2010; Dinkelman, 2008). As a result economic flight continues to take place in rural South Africa with no end in sight (Neves and Du Toit, 2013; Huyssteen, et al., 2010; Dinkelman, 2008). Lastly, even though there is continued decline in the rural agricultural sector especially small holders, the agricultural sector remains the major employer in these areas (Neves and Du Toit, 2013; Huyssteen, et al., 2010; Dinkelman, 2008). This makes land a highly valuable asset in the rural areas especially for the poor (Neves and Du Toit, 2013; Haggblade, et al., 2010). This is what forms the basis of the next section which looks at why land tenure is so contested in rural South Africa.

3.1.2. Why is Land Tenure so Contentious?

Land is often cited as one of the stumbling blocks when it comes to economic development in rural settlements and land tenure in these areas is seen as having serious implications to unlocking LED. If the rights of land holders are to manage their land resource, make investment on the land and ensure sustainable use of it, then tenure reform is essential in unlocking LED (Adams, Cousins and Manona, 1999). Furthermore, economic decision-making is conditioned by the profound nature and strength of property rights as it has an effect on individual's expectation of the return on their investments of labour and capital and this is as real for the rural as is for the urban areas (Adams, et al., 1999).

Verhoef (2005) gives an interesting insight into this whole economic development and land tenure debate by sharing some insight as to why land is such a contested resource and goes on to clarify the role land plays in the society. Verhoef (2005) argues that the reason land is so contentious is that it is the source of power and dominion for the people who possess and control it. When it comes to the role it plays in the society, Verhoef (2005) further argues that for both urban and rural communities, land serves as an essential asset especially for the poor population and therefore land cannot be treated merely as just an economic commodity but rather be viewed as being central to the wellbeing of human society. De Soto (2000) argues

that in the developing world the poor are in possession of vast assets irrespective of equality regimes, and cites the lack of formal title to land as the stumbling block for them to realise the full value of their investments. De Soto (2000) further argues that, in the United States, entrepreneurs initiate new businesses by capital raised from the second mortgages on their houses and because of unsecure land tenure, entrepreneurs in the developing countries do not enjoy that luxury. Adams, et al. (1999) concurs with De Soto (2000) by citing that communal systems because of their limitations in terms of being bought or sold, end up being a constraint to development hence the call for individual tenure by many scholars (Cousins, 2002; Woodruff, 2001; and De Soto, 2000).

Woodruff (2001) concurs with De Soto's (2000) assertion which attributes the failure of markets to the lack of access to formal real property rights, as he also critiques the poor performance of formal capital markets in the third world nations citing the fact that in these countries the people and some business entities cannot access formal credit markets. The consequences of this has been understood as capital misallocation, lucrative business opportunities being missed, potential entrepreneurs being lost and being unable to transform ideas into businesses activities.

Cousins's (2002) argument is that titling is largely influenced by the western philosophy of individual ownership, which assumes absoluteness and exclusivity of property rights, is aligned with De Soto (2000). The site boundaries are surveyed and where the site starts and ends is clear, central registry holds the title deeds which are promptly updated during change of ownership, and thus there is certainty in terms of disputes (Cousins, 2002). This system is a driver of economic development in communities structured around market principles where private persons or entities hold most property, have proven effective (Cousins, 2002). De Soto (2000) further argues that in these countries the lack of formal titling acts as a barrier to unlocking of capital embedded in these assets (property) as they cannot be utilised as collateral, however, as will be further discussed on the following sections, more than just formal titling maybe required to unlock this embedded capital.

Having considered the arguments above it is important to note that land is one of the four factors of production, which are land, capital, labour and entrepreneurship, and is a limited resource, which therefore needs to be properly utilised and managed to achieve optimum benefits from it. Land legislation is therefore imperative especially when taking into consideration community transformation as a result of its impact on the social, political and economic relationship. If a person holds real rights on the property it translates to real security that is encumbered with real servitudes or sold and thus can realise the economic benefit of property (Browning, 2010). The challenge with land in general in Africa and Latin America is that it is administered through customary law and as a result many Africans do not enjoy access to formalised markets due to landlessness, insecure land titling or poverty. For the purposes of getting a better understanding of the nature of land tenure in most rural settings it is perhaps important that their background is considered, as covered in the next section.

It is clear from the above discussions that power that is accompanied by owning land and the fact that land is essential assets are key reasons why land is so contentious. It is also clear that titling on its own cannot improve the livelihoods of the rural population and thus the need to look at a more comprehensive approach to improving rural economy. The following section communal land tenure systems features will begin to carve a comprehensive strategy of dealing with rural areas.

3.1.3. Communal Land Tenure Systems

Cousins (2009) refers to communal tenure systems as mixed tenure regimes which are made up of variables of individual, family, sub-group and larger group rights and duties in relation to a range of natural resources. This section takes a closer look at the communal land tenure systems across the globe with a special focus on the South African context. Communal land tenure systems is a broad area of practice and study but for the purposes of this research, Pienaar (2008) and Cousins (2009) identify eight features of communal land tenure that are briefly discussed. De Soto's

(2000) assertion that formal titling holds a potential to give the poor people economic leverage is assessed and counter views are also considered.

The first feature relates to the rights to land being rooted in a range of social interactions which are inclusive of household and kinship networks, and multiple forms of community membership, which often overlap (Cousins, 2009). The second feature is that land rights that are shared and relative, making them inclusive in nature rather than exclusive. Depending on the community, the rights may be individualised for residential purposes; communal for access to common property resources like grazing, forests, fresh water, etc.; and or mixed in cases of seasonal cropping combined with grazing and other activities (Cousins, 2009; Pienaar, 2008). The third feature is the norms and values that are embodied in the community's land ethic guarantees access to land, meaning that land is accessed through social right and not through the systems of authority and administration (Pienaar, 2008).

The fourth feature is that the rights derived from accepted membership of a social unit and can be obtained by birth, affiliation, allegiance or transactions (Cousins, 2009). The fifth feature is that there is often clear social and political roles and responsibilities; and use of resources demarcating boundaries, however these roles and responsibilities sometimes have a certain level of negotiation and flexibility and in other cases can be the source of conflict (Cousins, 2009 and Pienaar, 2008). The sixth feature is that there is also flexibility in the balance of power among gender, competing communities, right holders, land administration authorities and traditional authorities (Pienaar, 2008). The seventh feature talks to the fact that with the inherent flexibility and negotiability of land tenure rights, there is adaptability to changing conditions, and land tenure rights are still vulnerable to acquirement by powerful external forces such as the state or process such as capital investments (Cousins, 2009 and Pienaar, 2008). The last feature is that, when it comes to control of land, it is mostly concerned with ensuring access and enforcement of rights, regulation of the use of common property resources, oversight role on the means for reallocating access, and resolving disputes over claims to land. This is usually placed

within a pecking order of interconnected structures of authority, with several tasks placed at local or lower levels (Cousins, 2009 and Pienaar, 2008).

In addition to the above features, Adams, et al. (1999) identifies three critical land tenure needs in communal areas. Firstly, the individual families need a guarantee that there will be no evictions without compensation; the capacity to improve their houses in order to be protected against weather, thieves etc.; and the guarantee that their children will be able to inherit, sell or transfer the property (Cousin, et al., 1999). Secondly, in terms of economic development the households need to be in a position to utilise their property for a number of purposes such as: collateral to access loans; minimisation of property related disputes; for the properties to have access to infrastructural basic services such as water, sanitation, electricity and roads; and affordable and accessible property administration rights system (Cousin, et al., 1999). Lastly, the government will need a sustainable uniform system that can be rolled out nationally. This system should form a basis for the implementation of local tax, land use and building control and the provision of basic infrastructure; flexible ways of administering property rights (which will enable it to have room for individual and collective right, the rights of the middle class, enterprises and poor individuals). The system should also have the capability to distribute land titles to the individuals in an accessible and user friendly manner, the capability to distribute land titles that are not deemed as substandard and can be improved to full freehold, and the ability to deliver social justice in relation to land reform and resource allocation (Cousin, et al., 1999).

With the above being said, it comes as no surprise that bulk of the land tenure reform debate stems from the communal indigenous land tenure systems that still exist in Africa, Latin America, Asia and the Pacific Region. The focus of these debates has been the conversion of informal indigenous systems of communal rights into the modern formal system which adjudicates individual titling (Adams, et al., 1999). The on-going debate therefore over the years have been centred around moving towards western customs of property rights and the retention of customary land laws in attempts to bestow security of tenure to those living in the communal arrangements.

There has been strong critique levelled against De Soto's (2000) theory and the call for formal titling. Woodruff (2001), argued that formal titling of the indigenous tenure will not necessarily lead to credit being granted. This is rather dependent on three separate transformation outcomes which are subject to leakage. Transformation of property into collateral; then collateral to credit and lastly credit to income, the key issue is to what extent can we expect leakage in this process? Fernandes (2007) agrees with Woodruff (2001) arguing that legalisation programmes do not result in an automatic credit mainly because banks offer the poor credit or take their new titles as collateral, as for some banks title deed is not an issue since they offer loans for building material without title deeds.

Cousins, et al. (2005) argue that formal titling alone may not necessarily be the solution to the tenure problems in the Developing Countries" context and that it has been attempted before but have not yielded the gains (De Soto, 2000). What they put forward rather, is the need to deal with the challenge of how to adjust the legal system to cater for other property systems. Bruce (1993 cited in Adams, Cousins and Manona, 1999, p. 10) also argues that greater results can be achieved over time through gradually adapting communal tenure as opposed to a simple replacement of customary systems with the western systems.

Property must not be limited to a capital-formation means as argued by Cousins et al (2005), but the social safety nets needs to be considered as well to ensure sustainable livelihoods are achieved. The unintended consequence of the limited view that formal titling is the solution to the tenure problems in developing countries, is disregarding customary land tenure systems which ensure protection of the poor and vulnerable groups. Furthermore, the ability of the customary land systems to be flexible and responsive to shifting economic environment gets undermined in the developing countries (Adams, et al., 1999). Adams, et al. (1999) argue that when it comes to rural livelihoods, where community rely mostly on local resources, tenure security might mean having a secure place to live, free from intimidation of eviction, and accessibility of productive land and natural resources. That is what land tenure

may mean to the rural community and they may deem that as an economical viable system.

It is however important to note that the main concern of this study is unlocking local economic development which will in turn reduce the poverty levels in the rural areas. Being fully aware of the poverty levels in the rural areas we then need not only view it based on low income and consumption but must also take into consideration the people's ability to provide for their basic needs and opportunities for personal and social development. The ability to meet these needs is determined by capital assets which include finance, land, natural resources and social capital. Where there is an absence of financial resources, social capital can afford a number of livelihood options, including traditional access to land and natural resources for farm production and prospects for wages (Adams, et al., 1999). This is important in the South African perspective given the fact that the majority people were systematically dispossessed of their land and segregated from areas of economic opportunities as discussed in the following section. If South Africa is to redress the ills of the past and deal with the spatial footprint and at the same time in preserving its diversity have to protect indigenous systems, it will need a more comprehensive system (Van Wyk, 2013; Charlton and Kihato, 2006; Mosdell, 2006; and Beall, Crankshaw and Parnell, 2002).

It has emerged from the paragraphs above that communal land tenure systems are centred on shared rights to the land and the related natural resources (Cousins, 2009 and Pienaar, 2008); however it is important to note that individual households or families still require some form of tenure security and freedom to use the property they occupy for their economic development (Cousin, et al., 1999). It has further been established that unlocking economic development embedded in the communal land is not as simple as changing communal land tenure to individual formal titles (Fernandes, 2007; Cousin, et al., 2005; and Woodruff, 2001). What should be considered as suggested by Fernandes (2007), Cousin, et al. (2005) and Woodruff (2001) is the adjustment of legal system to accommodate communal land tenure. The next three takes a closer look the South African land tenure covering the South

African land tenure history, Ingonyama Trust Land and the role of Amakhosi in the Ingonyama Trust Land.

3.1.4. History of Land Tenure in South Africa

In the South African context the debates that are dominating land tenure are around access to land and tenure reform given the country's history. Settler colonisation and dispossession gave rise to a range of problems which the country must address. The most instrumental legislation which is responsible for the spatial form of South Africa is the Native Land Act 27 of 1913, which as a consequence led to land being set aside for use and occupation by the black population and unequal land distribution between the white and black population (Van Wyk, 2013; Charlton and Kihato, 2006; Mosdell; 2006; and Beall, Crankshaw and Parnell, 2002). This is particularly evident in the segregated spatial form which sees the black townships located on the peripheries of towns and cities or the black settlements spread throughout the country side (Van Wyk, 2013; Charlton and Kihato, 2006; Mosdell; 2006; and Beall, Crankshaw and Parnell, 2002). Van Wyk (2013) further states that the Act separated the land for occupation by the black population to rural and urban, where rural was further divided into:

- i. South African Development Trust (SADT) Land;
- ii. Self-governing territories, and
- iii. TBVC States (Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda and Ciskei).
- iv. For the purposes of cheap labour black people were accommodated in the urban areas locations or townships in the white South Africa (Van Wyk, 2013).

Even though the 1913 Black Land Act was repealed its legacy is still embedded in regulations that deal with spatial planning, most notably the Township Development Regulations for Towns and the Land Use and Planning Regulations (Van Wyk, 2013; Charlton and Kihato, 2006; Mosdell; 2006; and Beall, Crankshaw and Parnell, 2002). As a consequence, after more than twenty years of democracy, South Africa continues to work under planning legislation that is unequal, fragmented and incoherent.

If the situation stated above perpetuates, the country will incur economic, environmental and spatial disadvantage as economical investment on land is impeded. This will then result in failure to guarantee certainty in land markets; environmentally the balance necessary between the country's socio-economic needs and those of environmental conservation cannot be attained; and spatially the unequal spatial pattern and segregation inherited from apartheid will persist (Van Wyk, 2013; Charlton and Kihato, 2006; and Mosdell, 2006).

The focus of this research study is around communal land tenure systems and the majority of the communal land was systematically brought about to advance the colonial policies as they acted as reservoirs for low-cost migrant workers. Any approach that aims at dealing with tenure reform in these areas, must take into account livelihoods that remain spatially fragmented.

Another stumbling block in the attempts to dismantling apartheid spatial form is the governance of communal areas which is unstructured (Adams, et al., 1999). Furthermore, in South Africa the majority follows African land tenure systems which are based on the principle that all the members within the community of origin, is entitled to land rights just that the individual rights balanced against their compulsions to a social group (Cousins, 2002). This basically means that the rights are inclusive rather than exclusive and are held at a hierarchy of social organisation, be it neighbourhood, village or the greater community (Cousins, 2002).

The study area is situated in KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) where the majority of rural land is under the custodianship of Ingonyama Trust Land. It is often suggested that the Ingonyama Trust Land holds a huge agricultural potential and that it is underutilised (Ugu DGDS, 2013). The following section highlights the development perspective of the Ingonyama Trust Land and looks at the role of Amakhosi in its administration and management.

3.1.5. The Ingonyama Trust Land

One of the most recognised indigenous land tenure systems in SA is found in KZN, the Ingonyama Trust Land. The KZN House of Traditional Leaders has eleven local houses of traditional leaders at a district level and 265 traditional councils at local level and the Ingonyama Trust Board, appointed custodian of traditional land (KZN PGDS, 2011). As illustrated in Figure six the ITB land constitutes of approximately 2, 700, 000 hectares, which is 40% of the total land of KZN (KZN PGDS, 2011).



Figure 6: Ingonyama Trust Land within KZN

Source: KZN PGDS, 2011

The Amakhosi takes care of the day-to-day land allocation and administration at a local level, and izindunas are responsible for allocation of land in sub areas of the traditional communities (Sapsford and Vaughan, 2005 and Alcock and Hornby, 2004). The general process that is followed by the members of the tribe who wish to be granted access to residential site or who wishes to switch from one isigodi (village) to another, is to approach the Induna with the application. In the case where the individual has already identified the site; the Induna will then verify whether or not it is available, and thereafter notifies the Inkosi and identifies the site boundaries in the presence of other members of the tribe (Sapsford and Vaughan, 2005 and Alcock and Hornby, 2004). The process may differ from one tribe to another, as in some cases the Induna identifies boundaries in the presence of the councillors whereas in other tribes the Induna demarcate boundaries in the presence of the isigodi or immediate neighbours. The groups that will be present when land is being allocated provide evidence in the event of a boundary dispute (Sapsford and Vaughan, 2005 and Alcock and Hornby, 2004). In the case of people who are not the members of the tribe coming from the outside, the practice is that they approach the individual that they already know in the area and request for help in identifying land or they will approach the Induna directly who would then identify a potential piece of land for them. The general practice is that an applicant that is an outsider provides a reference letter from the Inkosi of the tribe they are coming from or from an elected councillor or magistrate if the applicant is from an urban area or township. This letter serves as an assurance that the applicant is not fleeing away because criminal or unaccepted behaviour and valid explanation needs to be given as to why the applicant wishes to settle in the area (Sapsford and Vaughan, 2005 and Alcock and Hornby, 2004).

The traditional authorities rarely transfers the land from the Ingonyama Trust to private ownership as they consider formal excision of land as a threat to indigenous and customary practice of land administration (Sapsford and Vaughan, 2005 and Alcock and Hornby, 2004). The leases and mineral rights; and the management of resulting fund collection are managed by the ITB. It must be noted however that the

ITB represents the owner and thus its decisions are limited to tenure of the land and does not extend to the legalities of land development proposal (Sapsford and Vaughan, 2005 and Alcock and Hornby, 2004). Until recently before the Planning and Development Act transferred the development approval to the local municipalities, Department of Co-operative Governance and Traditional Affairs (CoGTA) have been undertaking land development approval on the Ingonyama Trust land. The role of CoGTA is now limited to assisting in tenure changes, in resolving land dispute and broader administration of traditional authorities (Sapsford and Vaughan, 2005 and Alcock and Hornby, 2004). The local municipalities are responsible for planning and coordination of development; land use management; and administration of development applications in the Ingonyama Trust land (Sapsford and Vaughan, 2005 and Alcock and Hornby, 2004). For any development on the Ingonyama Trust land to be approved, there needs to be a consultation of a number of stakeholders which is an extensive and time consuming process. The private developers don't often the follow this process and thus find it complex, frustrating and as counter development (Sapsford and Vaughan, 2005 and Alcock and Hornby, 2004).

Sapsford and Vaughan (2005) identify two opposing views regarding development on the Ingonyama Trust land, which they term non-interventionist and interventionist approaches. The non-interventionist believes that the Ingonyama Trust land has ample and adequate existing mechanisms and procedures that enable it to address their development needs without taking the extreme measures of land excision. The interventionist approach suggests that development implementation is socially, economically and administratively complex in the Ingonyama Trust land and that investment by households, communities, municipalities and entrepreneurs is hindered by the absence of provision for freehold land rights which is regarded as a stumbling block to development.

It is clear that there is existing institutional arrangement and land administration system in the Ingonyama Trust Land however; the authority of the Ingonyama Trust

Board is limited to tenure of the land, meaning that the land development proposal legalities are not addressed (Sapsford and Vaughan (2005). With that gap identified it has also been brought to the fore, by Sapsford and Vaughan (2005) and Alcock and Hornby (2004), that when it comes to the development in the Ingonyama Trust Land, the non-interventionist and interventionist views dominate. The next section examines the role of Amakhosi in the Ingonyama Trust Land whether it fills the gap identified and based on their role which view is most relevant for development in the Ingonyama Trust Land.

3.1.6. The Role of Amakhosi in Ingonyama Trust Land

The ongoing research around Traditional Leadership in South Africa is around the role they should play in the new democratic South African government. Motloa (2008) argues that there is a lack of clear articulation of the different roles between traditional authority and the current democratic government systems, i.e. local municipalities which adversely affects the service provision. Beall and Ngonyama (2009) argue that the momentum that is being gained by the young democracy of SA makes the future of traditional leadership appear doubtful, with their role slowly diminishing and becoming irrelevant for the democratised contemporary SA's government systems. The traditional authorities have been very vocal in opposition of this view, arguing that their elementary cultural rights and their role in the rural areas is unfairly compromised by the current democratic government system (Beall and Ngonyama, 2009).

Sithole and Mbele (2008) identify the broad roles of the Amakhosi in the development of traditional communities, as emanating from the Traditional Leadership and Governance Framework Act of 2003, to be:

- Ensuring they manage the affairs of the traditional community in line with traditions and practices;
- Providing assistance to municipalities in identifying the needs of the community; and
- Upholding the principles of co-operative governance, integrated development planning, sustainable development and service delivery.

Motloa (2008) further break down the roles of Amakhosi as promoting: socio-economic development; service delivery; peace and stability amongst the community members; contribution to nation building; social comprehensiveness of communities; the preservations of the moral fibre and restoration of the community; the safeguarding of the culture and customs of societies; and social well - being and welfare.

There is an increasing need to ensure that the traditional land community's participation is pertinent in every sector of development (Motloa, 2008). Furthermore, it is important to note that if community participation is undertaken correctly it can transform programmes and provides the critical community component that can promote sustainable development (Motloa, 2008).

The rural areas are characterised by rich natural resources whose potential has not been fully realised, limited access to basic services which make the rural areas strongly reliant on urban areas, and lastly have dispersed settlements which carry a heavy cost when considering delivery of basic services. It has also been established in this section that legalisation programmes cannot single handedly unblock the blockages that hinder economic growth in the rural areas. A more comprehensive approach is needed which must be strongly inclined towards a sustainable livelihoods approach. Furthermore, it has been acknowledged that due to the apartheid legacy, the mandate of the South African government is to redress the injustices of the past and erase the spatial footprint of apartheid. The section concluded by examining how Ingonyama Trust Land operate and the development perceptions attached to it, and the Role of Amakhosi in the same land. There are three main role players in the Ingonyama Trust Land which are the Amakhosi, CoGTA and Local Municipality and their role seem to overlap in certain areas. What is therefore required is a sound land management system which will accommodate all the stakeholders and still be efficient and effective. The next section addresses the land use management system and how it can be rolled out in the rural areas more specifically in the Ingonyama Trust Land.

3.2. Land Use Management in South Africa

This sections addresses land use management and the possible approach that can be followed to roll it out to the rural areas. In the context of South Africa, Land Use Management System is concerned mostly with order and control of land and was used deliberately to exclude majority of the South African population (Mammon, 2008). The concept of strategic spatial planning is introduced which is a move away from the normal focus on the creation of physical framework of human life, to an extended scope that is concerned with the contemporary era where socio-economic analysis is key (Todes, 2011, 2008; Mammon, 2008; Berrisford and Kihato, 2008; Todes, Karam, Klug and Malaza, 2010; and Watson, 2009, 2007). The last part of the section looks at the implementation of land use management systems which is through zoning schemes, the only primary legal mechanism. The schemes had only been developed for formal towns and only after the introduction of wall to wall municipalities are they being rolled out to rural areas.

Enemark, Williamson and Wallace (2005) explains land use management as a process through which land resources are put into good effect and includes land and resource management that are necessary to achieve sustainable development. In the South African context it is defined a system of regulating and managing land and conferring land use rights through the use of schemes and land development procedures (SPLUMA, 2013). Berrisford and Kihato (2008, p. 390) argue that „Land use management systems have certain ideological underpinnings based on preconceived notions of ordered spaces. Acquiring and property is deemed an investment in an asset, and often the only sizeable asset owned by many households. The role of regulatory systems in protecting and enhancing this investment has long been recognised.“

Before going to great detail with regards to LUM it is important to first give a brief context of land use regulation in South Africa. The various urban land use regulation legislation implemented in 1913 has limited changes in land consumption and distribution in South Africa post 1994 (Mammon, 2008). The land use regulation

legislation served two main purposes which were to control the way land was accessed, appropriated, owned and used by the majority of South Africans, and to deliberately ensure they were excluded from the land equation in the country (Mammon, 2008). Mammon (2008) further explains that in the four decades starting from 1960 to 1980s the focus of local government's planning contents and objects were focused on land use and development controls that encouraged land use separation. This perpetuated modernist planning whilst reinforcing the intent of Group Areas Act that separated the population into racially defined group areas. This is consistent with what Todes (2011) recently referred to as the planning discipline's irrelevant obsession with spatial ordering and control which in the international platform is redirected to focus on playing a possible role in managing the growth of cities in such a way that they are sustainable, inclusive and liveable.

Todes (2011, 2008); Mammon (2008); Berrisford and Kihato (2008); Todes, Karam, Klug and Malaza (2010); and Watson (2009; 2007) advocate for revisiting and reinventing planning through the lines of what they refer to as „strategic spatial planning“ but does not necessarily advocate for discarding land use management but rather suggest that it must be shaped contextually and be instituted in areas where it will be meaningful and acceptable to the people. This is of importance because the ideological underpinnings of land use management systems are founded on the preconceived notions of ordered spaces as already mentioned above.

Overall, the planning discipline has been evolving over time, shifting from being concerned with creating the physical framework of human life, to the extended scope of concerns in the contemporary era (Todes, 2011). There are two broad dimensions that have been dominant in modern town planning which are the functionalist stream focusing on efficiency and order; and ingrained in functional thinking and a societal reformist response to the city's unpleasant state of the industrial revolution that resulted in new visions of the city and urban areas (Todes, 2011, p.117). Town planning also plays the function of projecting the future of an area spatially and indicating the location, density and intensity of land uses which in turn allowed

engineers to provide or design project specifics for different services, and further allowed the planners to control growth and change in harmony with the plan (Todes, 2011). Historically, the plans produced were not informed by a strong social or economic analysis and failed to consider the manner in which politics and markets shaped the city (Todes, 2011). This is evident in South African forms of planning which is predominated by prescriptive land use regulation and comprehensive planning, which has proven to be static and unable to sufficiently cope with change (Todes, 2008).

In the planning field the dawn of local economic development has emerged as a significant field for the planning discipline, however, there has been no noticeable attempt to understand the economies with respect to spatial planning (Todes, 2011). In South Africa, for instance, minimal attention has been directed to the understanding of how the real economy of the city works and its spatial arrangement (Todes, 2008). If land and its connection to economic activity and population is to take centre stage of planning (Todes, 2011), the planners need to interrogate the necessary particular types of space that looks at the sort of economic activity, where and how much; and further consider the associated specification of infrastructure and how it links to spatial planning at a strategic and more local level (Todes, 2008).

The design approaches that have been applied in the South African context is the use of abstract concept of nodes and corridors in attempt to structure spatial frameworks which has limited the necessary detailed analyses (Todes, 2008). This approach stems from the assumption that once the appropriate spatial structure is formed (main routes, nodal points) the business will settle in a location as aspired by the plan, following the lines of accessibility (Todes, 2008). The new approach which is deemed more flexible shifts away from predicting the land specifications for particular land uses (as was the main concern of conventional structure planning and master planning), to competitive markets that are small scale as their basic implicit concept, whilst providing a good description of how informal trade organises spatially (Todes, 2008). This might prove useful when it comes to the design of space that would allow

such activities, but fails to take into consideration the extent of different types of economic space is likely to be utilised, and no specific attention is directed to larger and more monopolised economic activity (Todes, 2008).

Todes (2011) argues that it is eminent that the value of good access to economic opportunities, minimised travel times and costs for particular groups of the poor plays a significant role choosing a location in the inner city and also the benefit that comes with the more peripheral locations such as larger space, lower costs and the possibility of other economic opportunities like rental and urban agriculture is acknowledged. Furthermore, the polycentric nature of cities is evidently clear with a number of economic activity locations and employment demands that planning needs have a diverse understanding of the ways that the change is occurring with regards to how people live in the city, and the location of economic activity and employment (Todes, 2011). What then becomes critical is bringing all these concepts together in order for the spatial visions of respective municipalities to be thought of in an imaginative manner that is strongly entrenched on firm understanding of social, economic and spatial dynamics, and a logical bearing of what is strategically possible. Berrisford and Kihato (2008) argue that for strategic plans to be effective they need to be supported by a good and effective land use management system which will ultimately implement their vision. Land policy or frameworks need to form an integral part of LUM as they promote environment sustainability, economic development, social justice and equity, and political stability (Enemark, et al., 2005). Enemark, et al. (2005, p.53) associate these policies with security of tenure; land markets (particularly land transactions and access to credit); real property taxation; sustainable management and control of land use, natural resources and the environment; the provision of land for the poor, ethnic minorities and women; and measures to prevent land speculation and to manage land disputes. These functions are intrinsically linked in such a way that the value of land is influenced by the actual physical use of land and properties, and by anticipated future use of land as determined by zoning, land use planning regulations and permit granting processes (Enemark, et al., 2005).

In South Africa, land use management has long been concerned with order and control of land as articulated above, however there is a growing advocacy to introduce strategic spatial planning (Todes, 2011, 2008; Mammon, 2008; Berrisford and Kihato, 2008; Todes, Karam, Klug and Malaza, 2010; and Watson, 2009, 2007). The relevant strategic frameworks should therefore be inclusive of the socio economic aspect and not only focus on order and control of land uses. The next section looks at the mechanisms to implement land use management and assess their relevance to rural areas.

3.2.1. Implementing Land Use Management

As it has already been alluded to, master planning which is now being overtaken by strategic spatial planning, encapsulates the long term vision of the city, and the zoning scheme is developed as principal legal instrument by which the vision would be implemented (Watson, 2007). The zoning scheme is a legal document classifying developmental rights and obligations with regards to land or property, the rights and obligations which are commonly stated in the form of development rules (Mammon, 2008). In the South African context, zoning schemes present the legal framework and classifications for the rights to develop and utilisation of any piece of land in the local authority as per the specific zonings (Berrisford and Kihato, 2008). The property values are determined on the basis informed by these rights making schemes a critical aspect in the municipal property rating system (Berrisford and Kihato, 2008).

Traditionally master planning has applied zoning schemes and land use regulation to residential areas through requesting compliance to particular land tenure, building regulations, building forms, and construction materials (Watson, 2007). The South African application also follows on the same route as the schemes entail land administration functions that ensure sound management of rights, limitations, responsibilities and risks in relation to property, land and natural resources. These functions include the areas of land tenure (securing and transition of land rights and natural resources); the worth of land (evaluation and taxing of land and properties); land use (development regulation of land and natural resources); and land

development (implementing utilities, infrastructure and construction planning), as articulated by Enemark, et al. (2005).

Many approaches have been followed in the development of zoning schemes ranging from detailed town planning schemes as per the provincial planning ordinances to the very basic scheme applicable to township areas (Berrisford and Kihato, 2008). South Africa in the current context of wall to wall municipalities is faced with a daunting task of developing a suitable form of planning systems to accommodate the vast rural areas that have been incorporated into these municipalities (Berrisford and Kihato, 2008). These areas are inescapably allied with traditional leadership structures which have their own non formal procedures of land use and development regulation, and the integration of these informal processes to the formal system is complex and unclear (Berrisford and Kihato, 2008). Legislatively, the Municipal Systems Act, No. 32 of 2000 obliges the recognition of traditional authorities throughout the participatory planning process, however, there is no tool that ensures the influence of traditional authority and knowledge is carried through to the day to day decision making in municipalities (Berrisford and Kihato, 2008). This means that there is no formal or recognised rural schemes that are designed and custom-made for the rural specific challenges and environment. The rural municipalities have to rely strongly on the urban and township inclined schemes to address the development and land use regulation in the rural areas.

The integrated zoning schemes of Cape Town for example, has different rules for conventional, affordable and incremental housing, defined respectively as conventional housing, single housing with economic challenges and informal housing that will one day be upgraded to formal housing, under the pretext of job creation and other such opportunities (Mammon, 2008). This is not sufficient when it comes to addressing economic opportunities and when narrowed down to site scale such rules basically translate into economic and class apartheid (Mammon, 2008). These integrated schemes also fell short of articulating the stance of restructuring and integrating the city as per the principles of a good city which are appropriate location,

access, urban opportunity and so on (Mammon, 2008). The schemes can work especially for the poor, as mentioned by Fernandes (2007) that in demarcation of special zone of social interest that match the arrears settled by informal dwellings, the zoning was useful in sustaining low land and property values, which then allowed the original communities to remain on the legalised land. The same principles can be followed in developing schemes for the rural areas.

In the implementation of land use management through zoning schemes (especially having to consider rural areas) it is important not to lose sight of the overall vision as encompassed in the spatial development frameworks. The rural population is predominantly poor as well as state dependant and therefore likelihood that population living under such circumstances may conform to a zoning scheme that favours the wealthy is minimal (Watson, 2007). Two scenarios may occur, the first scenario is that the system to the individuals who fail meet the terms of the scheme requirements are relegated to places where they can go undetected, which are often the illegal informal settlement, peri-urban and slums (Watson, 2007). The second scenario would be the failure of the municipality to enforce the scheme due to capacity constraints, thus the scheme becomes ignored and only the core economic areas and those of government significance receive protection and regulation (Watson, 2007). Both these two scenarios create unintended consequences. The first being the resultant informal settlement and peri urban sprawl, thus creating social and special exclusion. The second scenario is a result the absence of controls due to the lack of capacity to enforce, the affected areas are reduced to the level of illegal informal settlements, which leads to pessimistic societal, health and environmental impacts (Watson, 2007). In the rural context therefore to avoid all the unintended consequences as is the case in the urban context, the land regularisation and development control should, as Fernandes (2007) argues, bring together different aspects to ensure that the sustainability of public intervention. Physical upgrading; legalisation; socio economic programmes intended at creating earnings and occupation; and cultural programmes to prevail over the stigma associated with rural areas land systems is achieved (Fernandes, 2007).

This section has illustrated that like the global trend, land use management in South Africa is focused mainly with order and control of land, and is implemented through zoning schemes which only occurs in urban areas. The section has also introduced us to strategic spatial planning which places emphases on socio-economic analysis. Having analysed literature in LED, rural land tenure and land use management, the main question that needs to be address now is how these link. The next section addresses the linkage of these broad aspects.

3.2.2. The Link between LED and Land Use Management

This section deals with the link between LED and land use management. Many of the interventions of LED involve land which is a limited and non-renewable resource. Therefore, if LED is to thrive in a locality, proper management of land is necessary. The different tools through which land use management can enhance economic activity are discussed below.

Land is one of the critical resources in LED thus should be managed carefully and efficiently. In the absence of proper control of land, LED becomes basically unfeasible Blakely and Leigh (2012) and therefore land management needs to form an integral part of LED. Experience has proven that irrespective of how good the LED plan may be, if suitable sites and buildings for identified projects are not provided, that plan will be thwarted (Blakely and Leigh, 2012).

Furthermore, history has proven that the operating and establishment costs of businesses are influenced by the local governments as key developers of parks, roads, drainage, parking lots, access to water , sanitation and electricity (Blakely and Leigh, 2012). Furthermore, land is a critical resource in LED and thus needs to be carefully managed because without the control of land LED can become meaningless (Blakely and Leigh, 2012). It is for this reason that Land Use Management should be an integral part of LED programmes and strategies.

Perry (2010) outlines three ways by which the built environment can make a significant impact in the local economy if managed well. Firstly, he suggests that the provision of infrastructure facilitates economic activity through transport facilities, waste management, work space, health facilities and other necessary resources be taken into consideration; secondly, he argues that the appeal and awareness of the place is improved as a result of designing iconic buildings and spaces; and lastly, he states that the survival of economic activities" in areas that are redeveloped are affected by the way the changes in the environment are handled and investing directly on the built environment can be the source of income.

The next component would then be the type of tools that are, or may be, used to ensure the implementation of Land Use Management which comprehends LED. These tools talk to the implementation of land use management but the important aspect to consider here is that the focus and prioritisations of these tools are more inclined towards LED.

3.2.3. Tools to Implement the Link between LED and Land Use Management

This section identifies four tools that can be utilised in ensuring that land use management enhance and unlocks economic development in local areas and places special focus on the tools that can be useful in the context of rural areas.

Blakely and Leigh (2012) outline four locality development tools which talks to how Land Use Management should address LED. The first tool that they identify is planning and Development Controls which, if applied positively, can enhance the councils" business image and positively influence the investment climate. The land, buildings and presentation features must be carefully developed, and land control and management systems should go beyond just being preventative measure of the worst thing that can occur to be more pro-active in ensuring the right things happen (Blakely and Leigh, 2012). Landbanking, which is a process of obtaining and upgrading contiguous parcels of land, can be utilised to string together strategic development sites for business or industry as part of planning and development controls (Blakely

and Leigh, 2012). Landbanking can be a powerful location incentive in older communities with limited land for development and where there is substantial vacant land which the community aims to strategically position for the LED strategy and also in new developments for the reservation of good sites (Blakely and Leigh, 2012).

The other two aspects that are worth recognition when it comes to planning and development controls is the physical infrastructure development on industrial and commercial land, and speculative buildings. The potential business and industries tend to find readily improved industrial and commercial land and buildings more attractive as they offer them two main advantages (Blakely and Leigh, 2012). The first advantage is the time saved between acquisition and operation and the cost of site improvement are reduced. The second advantage is that industrial development corporations have the necessary building inventory and physical infrastructure already in place to attract new companies and retain existing, expanding companies. The speculative buildings, on the other side, are the buildings whose interiors are left largely uncompleted till such a time as a tenant can be found and are regarded as a marketing mechanism that attracts firms to an area and keeping existing companies which are expanding (Blakely and Leigh, 2012). This also saves the firms' time in terms of start-up and expansion as the space is readily available. This is particularly advantageous for areas that have a challenge of shortage of industrial space but have abundant adequate labour force, transportation system, and a sufficient supply of public services. Blakely and Leigh (2012) suggest that the approach that has minimal risks when it comes to speculative buildings is the fully serviced storage units are built with power and water designed in such a way that they can be easily transformed into small factoryette space, repair shops, and business incubators.

The second tool that Perry (2010) identifies is the Economic and Enterprise Zones, which are zones that are specifically designed to revitalise underused and aging inner-city and rural retail areas. Blakely and Leigh (2012) argue that economic and commercial development can be promoted by the zoning policy through setting aside sufficient land for the purposes of industrial and economic use and permitting flexible

zones and rules in the zoning scheme. This is consistent with the other academic writers on land use management, Todes (2011, 2008); Mammon (2008); Berrisford and Kihato (2008); Todes, et al. (2010); and Watson (2009, 2007), on the significant role that can be played by land use management systems if implemented fairly and correctly. Blakely and Leigh (2012) further propose that techniques such as incentive, overlay and special districts zonings should be applied to counter single-use deficiencies.

The incentive zoning is applied to overcome strict site regulations and offers the developer flexibility whilst encouraging certain land uses and project feature (Blakely and Leigh, 2012). There are a number of ways in which incentive zoning can be applied, but they are generally used to obtain public benefits in exchange for design concessions to a developer (Blakely and Leigh, 2012). The overlay zoning on the other hand is applicable in cases where zoning scheme and development standards fails to address a sub area's unique issues and conditions (Blakely and Leigh, 2012). The overlay zoning is placed over the existing zoning scheme and thus supersedes, modifies, and supplement its requirements. In that way the special provisions for land uses, design standards, or preservation of unique features can be added and for economic development in particular, special commercial or industrial districts can be created. Overlay zones are therefore a useful tool in marketing development rights through selling to developers the right to increase plot ratios in specific areas whilst maintaining the same overall city wide density limits (Blakely and Leigh, 2012).

The special districts zonings refers to improvement districts with a special purpose zoning or taxing mostly driven by the businesses, who also tax themselves in a bid to raise necessary funds to further improve the district (Blakely and Leigh, 2012). The available budget can be increased through public grants which may be utilised for a number of locality improving purposes, such as projects aimed at enhancing pedestrian and transport routes, cleanup, policing, marketing programmes, building facade improvement and so on (Blakely and Leigh, 2012).

The third tool as identified by Perry (2010) is Landscaping and Streetscaping, which refers to street improvement through lighting, planting shade tree etc. and local business premises improvements through window displays facelifts and upgrade of the physical standards of commercial buildings which all contribute to the achievement of economic upturn (Blakely and Leigh, 2012). As much as tourism may be a solution for many small towns, the significance of local trade must never be ignored as tourism is cyclical and unpredictable. It is therefore imperative that centres have the ability to survive on the local traffic, meaning that every attempt should be made to make local shopping experience in the civic centres as attractive as possible and worthwhile for the local citizens as is for the outsiders (Blakely and Leigh, 2012). Townscaping and shopsteading can be used for such purposes.

Townscaping is the physical, attitudinal, and managerial process which involves the central town's visual theme development by the local merchants and city planners (Blakely and Leigh, 2012). This can be done through the main street programme where the town theme can be incorporated into plans aimed at building or rebuilding the current landscape and built environment and the attitudinal component relates to the action taken by local businesses regarding their town centre. Shopsteading is a new approach which is mostly suitable for dealing with the problem of vacant commercial property (Blakely and Leigh, 2012). The abandoned retail facilities to business people who are keen on renovating them and operating on them. It is aimed at promoting business retention and attraction.

The fourth tool as identified by Perry (2010) is the Households servicing and housing where he argues that it is of paramount importance that the labour force is properly housed and serviced which in turn acts as business stimulus. Furthermore, the activities in this sector have a potential to create job opportunities. The availability of housing and household services has an influence on the economic climate and this has led some cities to become aggressive housing developers through using their own land (Blakely and Leigh, 2012). The active involvement of city government on trading land gives it an ability to invite quality developers to build diverse housing.

Another window of opportunity is available in the household services where recreation and sport facilities can be built under lease agreements with private operators instead of the state providing and maintaining them for job creation purposes (Blakely and Leigh, 2012).

The four tools that has been discussed above has a huge prospective of unlocking local economic development potential in an area, however, the evidence of their success is in the urban area setting and rolling them out to the rural setting will have to be taken with caution.

3.3. Conclusion

Land, being a non-renewable resource, needs to be managed in a manner that ensures that it is utilised in a sustainable manner that is beneficial to the current users whilst ensuring future users will enjoy the same benefits from it. One of the tools that may be used is land use management systems which are implemented through zoning schemes. It is important that land use management system is developed in such a way that it is economical, environmentally friendly and socially responsive. The link between LED and land use management has been discussed in detail in this chapter.

The literature review has shown that there is an urgent need to start embarking on rigorous spatial economic analysis in order to come up with LED strategies that will result in exact economic activities that are needed in specific localities and thus be in a position to package the land appropriately for the identified economic activities. This will go a long way in creating investor confidence and will save them time and money as the development rights processes will be reduced and local authorities will be much clearer of what they want for their areas.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1. Introduction

With the preceding two chapters having presented a detailed literature review pertaining to LED, rural land tenure and land use management, this chapter shifts the focus to the research methodology that was used in this research.

A qualitative approach was used for the research, using a Case Study. The qualitative approach focuses on an experience that takes place in a natural context and includes capturing and studying the complexity of that experience. The multiple dimensions and layers of the issue under study are recognized and an attempt to depict it in its complex form is made (Leedy and Ormrod, 2014). The research was not aimed at finding the ultimate truth about unlocking of economic potential in the Ingonyama Trust Land but to reveal the nature of the multiple perspectives. A case study was used as it enabled the research to be focused on a single case due to its distinctive or exceptional qualities potential to inform practice for similar situations (Leedy and Ormrod, 2014). This particular study was aimed at using Dududu Village, to examine the most suitable land development regulation for unlocking economic potential in the Ingonyama Trust Land. The research yielded wealthy findings and revealed new insights as a result of the in-depth study from a range of perceptions of community and other key relevant stakeholders.

Due to the large population of Dududu Village it was impossible to include everyone in the study and therefore a manageable sample was selected which was as representative as possible of the population (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014; Creswell, 2009). Non-probability sampling strategy was applied as there was limited scope of assuring that the sample would be representative of each element such as business, tribal authority, local government and different types of households of the population. The sample was chosen through the Purposive Sampling method as the respondents were chosen with a specific purpose / objective in mind (Leedy and Ormrod, 2014).

This allowed for the selection of most relevant and instrumental participants given the time constraints.

The data was collected through semi structured interviews as it allowed for more flexibility and generated more information as questions that were not predetermined could be asked and critical answers to the study be received. Secondary data was gathered through a literature review. Data analysis was focused on preparing the data for scrutiny, engaging different analyses such as the six basic steps identified by Leedy & Omrod, (2014) and Creswell, (2009), and identifying the general themes from the interviews and the literature for deeper understanding of the data.

4.2. Qualitative Research

In choosing the research approach to use it is important to consider which best approach will suit the study to be conducted. There are three main approaches that can be adopted which are quantitative, qualitative and lastly mixed methods. The quantitative research includes dealing with the amounts or quantities of one or more variables, the main objective being to measure variables in a numerical form using measures that are commonly acceptable in the physical world (Leedy and Ormrod, 2014). Qualitative research, which has been chosen for this study, deals with the characteristics or qualities which cannot be summarised to arithmetical values (Leedy and Ormrod, 2014).

Leedy and Ormrod (2014) and Creswell (2009) agree that the qualitative approach can be focused on an experience that takes place in a natural context and includes capturing and studying the complexity of that experience. The participants are not removed from the location where the issue or problem under the study is experienced which was the case with this research. The multiple dimensions and layers of the issue under study were recognized and an attempt to depict its in its complex form was made (Leedy and Ormrod, 2014).

The Dududu Village case study was used as it allowed for the research to be focused on a single case due to the fact that it is rural and its distinctive or exceptional qualities potential to inform practice for similar village in the Ugu District (Leedy and Ormrod, 2014). The use of case study allowed for an in depth exploration of programme, activity and process of the Ingonyama Trust Land administration and land development regulation (Creswell, 2009). Furthermore, as (Leedy and Ormrod, 2014) argues, it is appropriate in investigating the changes how the changes occurred over time due to certain conditions or interventions. This particular study was aimed at using Dududu Village, to examine the most suitable land development regulation for unlocking economic potential in the Ingonyama Trust Land. The findings yielded new insights as a result of the in-depth study of perceptions about land development in rural areas from a range of community and other key relevant stakeholders.

Creswell (2009) argues that the researchers play a pivotal role in research design as the data is collected by themselves through investigative documents and interviewing participants and the focus is placed on learning the meaning that is held by the participants regarding the issue or problem not just the one portrayed by writers and researchers in the literature, as was the case in this study.

4.3. Data Collection Methods

Multiple forms of data can be employed in qualitative research as argued by Leedy and Ormrod (2014), which may be the use of observations, interviews, objects, written documents, audiovisual materials, electronic entities, and anything else that can be useful in answering the research questions. Leedy and Ormrod (2014) further suggest that data that is deemed potentially valuable must be recorded thoroughly, accurately, and systematically through field notes, audio tapes, sketches, photographs, or a combination of these.

The data collection methods were in line with the ethical principles as outlined by Leedy & Ormrod (2014) and Creswell (2009) and UKZN ethics. The informed consent

form was developed which was signed by the participants prior to taking part in the research, which recognized that their rights were protected during data collection.

4.3.1. Primary Data Collection

The type of data collection procedure that was used in the study was semi-structured interviews and follow up interviews on referrals made that maybe be critical to the research was done (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014 and Creswell, 2009). The semi-structured interviews focused on a few core questions as outlined in the interview schedule (see Appendix B). This allowed for more flexibility and generated more information as questions that were not predetermined were asked and critical answers to the study were received. Historical information was also received to the benefit of the study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014 and Creswell, 2009).

4.3.1.1 Interviews

The interviews data collection procedure was selected on the basis that the information yielded is of great usefulness (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014). Creswell (2009) adds that the interviews are useful in cases where direct observation of participants is not possible; historical information can be received from participants; and grants the researcher control over the line of interview questions. The following table presents the interviews conducted within the study.

Table 2: Research Respondents

Reference	Group Represented	Participant(s)	Voluntary Stakeholder	Date of Interview
Respondent 001	Traditional Authority	Local Inkosi	Zembeni	08 / 10 / 2014
Respondent 002		Local Induna	Traditional Authority	08 / 10 / 2014
Respondent 003	Government	Local Municipality IDP / LED Manager	Vulamehlo Municipality	10 / 11 / 2014
Respondent 004		Public		10 / 11 / 2014

Reference	Group Represented	Participant(s)	Voluntary Stakeholder	Date of Interview
		Participation Manager		
Respondent 005		Town & Regional Planner		10 / 11 / 2014
Respondent 006		LED Officer		10 / 11 / 2014
Respondent 007		Deputy Manager Traditional Institution Support	Department of Cooperative Governance & Traditional Affairs	19 / 11 / 2014
Respondent 008		Real Estate Officers		19 / 11 / 2014
Respondent 009		Ward 6 Councillor	Vulamehlo Municipality	19 / 11 / 2014
Respondent 010		Female Headed Household	Vulamehlo Municipality, Dududu Village, Ward 6	08 / 10 / 2014
Respondent 011		Female Headed Household		08 / 10 / 2014
Respondent 012	Male Headed Household	08 / 10 / 2014		
Respondent 013	Male Headed Household	08 / 10 / 2014		
Respondent 014	Business	Business Owner		10 / 11 / 2014
Respondent 015		Business Owner		02 / 12 / 2014
Respondent 016		Business Owner		08 / 10 / 2014

4.3.2. Secondary Data Collection

Secondary data was done through a literature review. The literature review assisted in getting results and findings of similar studies that were conducted thus relayed the study to the currently dominating dialog in the literature, plugging the loopholes, and extending prior studies (Creswell, 2009). The literature provided the frame and boundary of the study and assisted in the measurement tools that are already developed and used in the field of the study; exposing methods utilised in addressing difficult compared to the ones that might be encountered in the study; and interpretation and conceptualising the findings and link that to work already conducted. Secondary data was sourced for purposes of writing up the literature review, the introduction and the background, for this research study which allowed for the study contextualisation. It was further used for the theoretical framework of the research study structuring. The data sourced assisted in understanding the definition, international trends, and policy environment of LED including South Africa's Experience in LED. The data played a further critical role in putting rural land tenure into context as far as the characteristics of rural areas, contentiousness of land tenure, communal land tenure systems, Ingonyama Trust land, and the role of Amakhosi in the Ingonyama Trust land are concerned.

The secondary data was sourced through the library and online databases. The journals were prioritised as they mostly report on the research around the topic of the study. Further to journals, books and monograms; conference papers; and dissertations about the topic were used (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014 and Creswell, 2009).

4.3.3. Sample

The researcher selected certain entities for analysis which forms what is called a sample, and their selection process is referred to as sampling (Leedy and Ormrod, 2014). The researcher was able to analyse everything that was potentially relevant to the research problem, in case of Dududu Village as content analysis was conducted for a small group of items (Leedy and Ormrod, 2014).

There are multiple sample designs that are available for the researcher to use which suit different scenarios. Leedy & Ormrod (2014) and Creswell (2009) identify eight sampling approaches which are grouped into probability sampling and non-probability sampling. The use of probability sampling means that all the elements of the population can be potentially represented in the sample. Five of the eight sampling approaches identified by Leedy & Ormrod (2014) and Creswell (2009) fall within under probability sampling. The probability sampling is mostly used in quantitative research, and the sampling approaches used are simple random; stratified random; proportional stratified; cluster; and systematic (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014 and Creswell, 2009). For this study, a non-probability sampling strategy was applied as there was limited scope of assuring that the sample was going to be representative of each element of the population using the purposeful sampling approach as the participants were selected on the purpose that they were going to generate the most information regarding the topic that was under investigation.

The non-probability sampling design approach was not just randomly selected but careful considered of chosen approach as it was necessary as they are unique and suits different type of population and adequate justification be provided for the approach selected.

4.3.3.1 Sample Description

The research was focused predominantly on Traditional Authority; Government (Department of Cooperative Governance & Traditional Affairs & Vulamehlo Municipality), the community and the Business Sector which makes up the total Population. The sample in this study was chosen through the Purposive Sampling method as the respondents were chosen with a specific purpose / objective in mind (Leedy and Ormrod, 2014). This allowed for the selection of most relevant and instrumental participants given the time constraints. The sample was therefore made up of 16 total participants purposively selected, as shown in Table 3 below.

Table 3: Project Sample

Group Represented	Participant(s)	Name of Stakeholder	No. of Participants	Reason Chosen
Traditional Authority	Local Inkosi	Zembeni	1	Current land owners and administrators of the study area.
	Local Induna	Traditional Authority	1	
Government	Local Municipality IDP / LED Manager	Vulamehlo Municipality	1	Have a legal mandate to regulate and manage land in the local area.
	Public Participation Manager		1	
	Town & Regional Planner		1	
	LED Officer		1	
	Deputy Manager Traditional Institution Support	Dept. of Cooperative Governance & Traditional Affairs	1	Deals with the coordination, support of Amakhosi and processing of lease agreements and PTOs.
	Real Estate Officers		1	
Community	Ward 6 Councillor	Vulamehlo Municipality	1	The current occupants and users of land. The main beneficiaries of positive economic activity in the land they occupy.
	Female Headed Household	Vulamehlo Municipality, Dududu Village, Ward 6	2	
	Male Headed Household		2	
Business	Business Owners	6	3	The main drivers of possible economic activity.

The Traditional Authority (Amakhosi and izinduna) in the Ingonyama Trust land takes care of the day-to-day land allocation and administration at a local level, and izindunas are responsible for allocation of land in sub areas of the traditional communities (Sapsford and Vaughan, 2005). Their selection as part of the sample was to get insight into how the land is currently managed and administrated and to establish how influential their role is or could be with regards to LED.

The community are the intended beneficiaries of LED outcomes and current occupants of land. The community participants were therefore selected to establish how the current land tenure system was currently affecting them; if their properties were yielding them any economic benefit; how the current land regulation was affecting them; which land use were critical to them and how they were to be managed; and what land use system they felt would yield maximum economic benefit for them.

The business owners are the current investors in the Dududu Village and the main employment generators excluding the government sectors. The business sector participants were selected to establish which land use system they would be most comfortable with to increase their investments in the area of Dududu Village.

4.4. Data Analysis Procedures

Data analysis is a process of making sense of the raw data where a body of large information undergoes inductive reasoning, sorting and categorisation to a point where it gradually reaches a point of small set of abstract, underlying principles (Creswell, 2009 and Leedy and Ormrod, 2014). The process of analysing data entails conduction of various analyses, going more into detail in understanding the data, representing the data, and creating an analysis of the greater sense of the data (Creswell, 2009). Furthermore, data analysis also concerned with the collection of open-ended data, based on questions that are general and developing an analysis from the information received from the participants (Creswell, 2009).

The chosen data analysis approach followed a process of collecting the qualitative data; analysing the data to get the eight themes; and reporting on them. Creswell (2009) regards this approach as a generic qualitative analysis and also acknowledges that some qualitative researchers move further than this rudimentary analysis by adding a course of action within one of the qualitative strategies of enquiry. The Dududu Village case study was chosen as the research was concerned with describing the setting or individuals in detail, then data was analysed for themes (Creswell, 2009).

There are six basic linear data analysis steps that were followed in this study as informed by Leedy & Ormrod, (2014) and Creswell, (2009) which are, organising and preparing data; obtaining general sense; coding the data; generating themes or descriptions; representation of themes and descriptions in a qualitative narrative; and lastly making an interpretation or meaning of the data as illustrated in Figure seven.

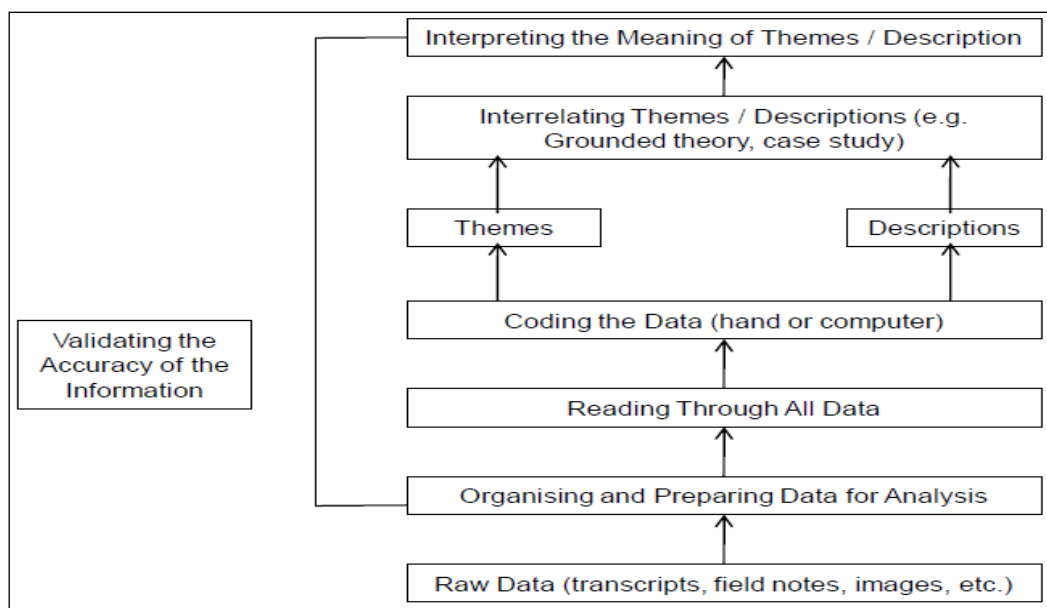


Figure: 7: Data Analysis in Qualitative Research

Source: Creswell, 2009

The first step of the data analysis that was followed is the organisation and analysis of data which involved transcribing of interviews and typing up field notes and the non-applicable and applicable derived from the interviews were separated. The applicable information was divided into small segments which each singled out a specific thought. This was done through phrases and sentences (Leedy and Ormrod, 2014).

The second step involved obtaining a general sense of the information and the overall meaning was reflected on (Creswell, 2009). This involved looking at what general ideas were given by the 16 participant; the tone of the ideas; impression of the overall depth, credibility and use of the information.

The third step concentrated on a detailed process of analysing and coding the data. Coding can be defined as a procedure of organising the material into portions of texts followed by bringing meaning to the information (Creswell, 2009). In this study the approach that was followed was to allow developing codes base only on the emerging information from the participants. The hand coding qualitative transcripts making use of colour code schemes system that was used.

The fourth step was concerned with using the coding process in generating themes and description of the setting or participants including categories for analysis. This process allowed for the colour coded statement from the participants to to be grouped into the nine different themes and three sub themes that were identified to allow for a detailed description for the Dududu Village case study. There was a complex analysis layer that was also built in where interconnecting themes were linked which then brought the themes to a total of nine and sub themes were eliminated (Creswell, 2009). The coding was used to generate themes which displayed multiple perspectives from individuals.

The fifth step was concerned with the representation of themes and descriptions in a qualitative narrative. All the different meanings identified will then be used to develop an overall narrative of the Dududu Village case study as the participants typically

experience or perceive it (Leedy and Ormrod, 2014). The eight themes were linked with the research study objective and formed the different sub-headings of chapter five. All the participants' responses were then grouped according to that structure.

The final step was concerned with making an interpretation or meaning of the data. This was probing of the various ways which participants think of or experience the land development in Dududu (Leedy and Ormrod, 2014). The different themes were then linked back to the literature review chapters where they were then compared with all the meanings generated and with the information and meaning gathered from the literature review (Creswell, 2009).

4.5. Reliability and Validity

As illustrated in Figure seven the validation of the findings occurred throughout all the data analysis steps. Creswell (2009) explains qualitative validity as a manner through which the researcher verifies the correctness of the result by applying particular measures, whilst reliability refers to the indication that the approach used by the researcher is consistent across various researchers and projects. A number of procedures were followed to ensure reliability and validity.

Firstly, the transcripts were checked to eliminate any obvious mistakes that could have been made during transcription. Secondly, every attempt was made to ensure that there was no drift in the definition of codes such as in the translation or transcripts from IsiZulu to English and the change of meaning during the consolidation of crosscutting themes (Creswell, 2009). This was managed through persistently contrasting data with the codes and through writing memos about the codes and their definitions.

One of the strengths of qualitative research as suggested by Creswell (2009) is validity which is premised on determining correctness of the findings from the viewpoint of the researcher, the respondents, or readers of the dissertation. Five

strategies as identified by Leedy & Ormrod, (2014) and Creswell, (2009) were used in this study for validation purposes.

As the first strategy evidence from the sources was examined which was used to build a logical justification for the themes a process referred to triangulation of different data sources of information (Creswel, 2009). This was done through verifying the information received from the tribal authority, municipality, versus the existing written municipal reports or documents and the literature review amongst other things.

The final report was taken back to the participants and the members determined that they felt that it was accurate. This was used as the second validating strategy which Creswel (2009) refer to as using member checking to determine the accuracy of the qualitative findings whilst Leedy & Ormrod, (2014) refers to it as respondent validation.

The third strategy that was used is what Leedy & Ormrod, (2014) and Creswell, (2009) refer to as rich, thick description. A detailed description of the setting providing an element of shared experience enabling readers to draw their own conclusions from the data presented.

Creswel (2009) argues that a good qualitative research includes commentary by the researchers on how their background structure interpretation of findings. The fourth strategy was therefore the clarification of the bias that the researcher brought to the study. The researcher was the former employee of the Vulamehlo Municipality and is currently employed by Ugu District a jurisdiction under which Vulamehlo falls. The researcher was employed as a Development Planner in the municipality and is currently Manager Development Planning in the district. The researcher therefore is familiar with the study area even though he might have not been familiar with the participants due to the time that has lapsed since he completed his work in Vulamehlo Municipality.

Leedy & Ormrod, (2014) and Creswell, (2009) argues that extensive time on the field builds up an in depth knowledge about the phenomenon under study and thus can be in a position to communicate details regarding the location and people which impart credibility to the narrative account. As the last strategy therefore, a prolonged time was spent on the field which added up to a total of 14 hours.

4.6. Ethics

The use of human beings for research in disciplines like social sciences, education, medicine, and similar areas of study, is common, and at any time that human beings are the focal point of the study, the researcher must identify the implications of the proposal will have ethically (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014). The ethical issues that needs to be considered fall in can be summarised into four categories which are protection from harm, voluntary and informed participation, right to privacy, and honesty with professional colleagues (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014).

Ethical clearance for the study was granted by UKZN (see Appendix C). Participants were informed about the purpose of the study though, researcher made certain that not too much information was communicated with the participants regarding the study, to avoid biasness in their responses. At the initial stages of the study, gate keepers" letters granting permission to conduct the study with selected individuals within the identified institutions were obtained. Informed consent forms were also issued to the participants to sign to confirm they agree to be interviewed and were given a copy to keep for themselves (see Appendix A). Carrying out the study resulted in no harm to any participant and confidentiality was guaranteed for the participants who wished to remain anonymous as they were respected in that regard. The rights of the respondents to withdraw from the study at any given time they wished to be, was maintained throughout the duration of the study.

4.7. Conclusion

For this chapter emphasis was placed on the research methodology. The qualitative study using interviews as a data collection tool were presented. Furthermore, the sampling method, pilot study, data collection and analysis were also discussed.

In choosing the best suited and the necessary data-collecting instruments for this research study it was imperative sourced primary data that would be directly linked objectives and aims of the study thus address them subsequently.

CHAPTER FIVE: LAND DEVELOPMENT REGULATION AND LED IN RURAL AREAS. THE CASE OF DUDUDU VILLAGE.

5.1. Introduction

The preceding chapter dealt with the research design which was used in this study. The main objective of the study is to examine, what kind of land development regulation is needed in the Ingonyama Trust Land to unlock its Local Economic Development (LED) potential. This chapter's focus therefore is presenting the key findings and discussions stemming from the research questions and objectives.

The first objective looks at how land development regulation can unlock LED potential in the rural areas. There is thus consideration of the land potential in Dududu Village; land tenure security; access to Ingonyama Trust Land; and the administration of Ingonyama Trust Land funds in regard to the land development regulation. The second objective which considers the most suitable land development regulation needed in the Ingonyama Trust Land, presents the key findings and discussions in three areas. These areas are, current land use management in Ingonyama Trust Land; prevalent land uses in the rural areas; and land use management system awareness and getting the community involved.

The third objective looks at the key stakeholders in the administration of Ingonyama Trust Land. The analysis of this objective takes into consideration the extent to which the key stakeholders play their role and the level of integration and coordination in land development. The last objective which looks at the role each stakeholder can play in the economic development of Ingonyama Trust Land.

5.2. How can Land Development Regulation Unlock LED Potential in the Tribal Land?

This section, based on the analysis of the primary data, assesses how land development regulation can be used to unlock LED potential in the Ingonyama Trust Land. Todes (2011, 2008); Mammon (2008); Berrisford and Kihato (2008); Todes,

Karam, Klug and Malaza (2010); and Watson (2009, 2007) have argued, as discussed in chapter three, that land use management is concerned with ensuring that land resources are put into good effect and includes land and resource management that is necessary to achieve sustainable development. The analysis of role that land development regulation can play in unlocking LED potential in the tribal land covers three areas, which are land potential in Dududu; land tenure security; access to Ingonyama Trust Land; and the administration of the Ingonyama Trust Land funds.

5.2.1. Land Potential in Dududu Village

The general feeling of the respondents is that the Dududu Village land has vast economic potential especially with regards to agriculture. The Development Planning Manager in the municipality stated that there is land available for the production of aloe essential oils and the Senior Town and Regional Planner of the municipality added that there is high potential in the sugarcane and forestry farming. The respondents representing the community attested to the high potential adding that they are able to farm fresh crops and sell them during pension collection days to earn that extra income. This is in line with Huyssteen's, et al. (2010) assertion that South African rural areas can be characterised by their ample and diverse scope of natural resources which may include mining, agriculture, fishing and forestry and some of these economic potential have been realised but the full potential has not yet been reached.

Apart from the agricultural potential, Dududu Village is the centre of Vulamehlo Municipality and is home to a number of government and municipal offices. This is the view of 14 respondents out of the 16 that were interviewed with Respondent 001 (08/11/2014) stating that "lendawo (Dududu) iyathuthuka kanti futhi iphakathi nendawo nakwamanye Amakhosi, iminyango kahulumeni, lilonke nje bonke abantu uma befuna izinto noma usizo beza lapha eDududu." The respondent was explaining that Dududu Village is central for most of Amakhosi and that it hosts a number of government departments making it a place where people always come to for services

such Home Affairs and Social Development government departments. This presents Dududu Village with a host of opportunities to boost the local economy. In the interview with Inkosi it emerged that the Inkosi is involved in ongoing processes of securing strategically located land for the development of a small trade centre. The main aim of the development of the trade centre is to ensure that Dududu serves as the main service centre of the Vulamehlo municipality so that people will not have to go to neighbouring big towns, which results in economic leakage. This sense of operating as a service centre is in line with Huyssteen et al.'s argument that rural areas are characterised by economic flight and limited access to basic service delivery and infrastructure and are thus largely dependent on the urban centres for some key services which contributes to the limited economic activity in these areas or the economic flight where the rand doesn't circulate but just goes straight to the town centres (Huyssteen, et al., 2010).

It emerged from the responses of the community members that the community has taken full advantage of Dududu Village being home to a number of government and municipal offices. Most of the community members that participated in the research stated that they have built rental cottages as a result of high demand of places to rent. This has boosted the income of many households in the Dududu Village and also increased the demand for tuck shops in the area.

The Manager Development Planning in the municipality stated that all the land that was identified as having high potential for development of a trade centre has been allocated to other uses by the Inkosi due to the lack of land use regulations and sound management. This is a common challenge as Respondent 001 (08/10/2014) also alluded to the fact that land for the development of the trade centre is difficult to secure since the core centre of Dududu which is a prime spot for commercial activity is no longer available.

Poor management of land use limits changes in the use of land within Dududu. For example, Respondent 001 (08/10/2014) stated that „noma umuntu efike umhlaba sewonakele kodwa sesiyazama ukubeka indawo esiyibekele ukulima, ukuthi bakhe

endaweni eyodwa noma sekulater". In this, the respondent was explaining that the land settlement pattern has been ruined by the haphazard development but they are now trying to designate some land for the purposes of farming on the one side, and designate land for residential purposes on the other although it is a bit late because land is no longer available. This in line with Berrisford and Kihato (2008) argument that as much as legislation compels traditional authorities to be recognized throughout the participatory planning process, there is still no tool in place to ensure that traditional authority's land administration is integrated with that of the municipality. As a result there has been no enforcement to ensure that the parcels of land that were identified for commercial use are allocated for that use.

With Dududu Village having been identified as having a high agricultural potential, certain pockets of land were identified for community garden purposes where the community could plant cash crops and sell them to supplement their income. It was stated that „kunezivande ezibolayo ndawozonke kuthiwa abantu abeze bazolima kugcina ungasazi kusetshenziswa kanjani kube nezimali ezikhokhwayo kungazi ziyaphi kugcine sekuphelile nomelukeli agcine engasayi kobheka akukaze kuqoqwe umphakathi isigcine ubona kukhuphuka ukhula into ekumele ngabe Inkosi iyayisukumela" (Respondent 013, 08/10/2014). The respondent was explaining that the land that has been designated for community gardens is lying fallow as there is not a set of regulations governing the use of these gardens and as a result the extension officers from the Department of Agriculture who are supposed to be offering technical support to people farming in these areas end up having no job to do. The respondent felt that the Inkosi is supposed to be driving such initiatives as they have great potential to unlock economic potential in the Dududu Village. Neves and Du Toit (2013) and Haggblade, et al. (2010) stated that agriculture, especially smallholdings, is on the decline in rural areas. This continued decline in agriculture threatens the rural livelihood as it leads to job loss for low-skilled work and threatens food security.

One of the respondents representing the community stated that as much as there is economic potential in the area of Dududu there is no land tenure security which escalates the cost of doing business as one needs to involve lawyers to guarantee security. Respondent 013 (08/10/20140) stated that „inkinga ukuthi umhlaba awuvikelekile ngendlela, uma ufuna uvikeleke kumele uthole itayitela okubiza ukuthi ukhokhele abameli izimali ezishisiwe.“ The respondent was explaining that to get formal land title deed in their area, which in most cases is required for commercial as security for business site, involves high lawyer’s costs. The respondent felt that there should be mechanisms in place to reduce the cost of doing business in the area of Dududu and that land should be packaged appropriately to encourage small businesses to do business in the area.

It is evident from the respondents’ comments that there is economic potential in the Dududu Village and that there is a need to curb the economic leakage that plagues the area. The challenge of economic leakages is also identified in rural areas by Neves and Du Toit (2013); Huyssteen, et al. (2010); and Dinkelman (2008) as they attribute it to the job opportunities and better access to amenities presented by the urban areas. It has also been acknowledged that there is a lack of strategically located land to kick start economic development in the area to mitigate the economic leakage challenge. This was a result of proper mechanisms and systems to ensure sound management of land. There was also an outcry regarding expensive lawyers’ fees involved in acquiring a title deed, which is often required as security for business sites. The next section looks at land tenure security as an aspect of the land potential of the area.

5.2.2. Land Tenure Security

Berrisford and Kihato (2008) argued that the attainment of property is often an investment on the most sizeable asset by most households, and that the regulatory system plays a critical role in protection and enhancement of this asset. This section considers land tenure security land in Dududu Village especially considering the low economic level of the area. This is a critical aspect in unlocking economic

development in any area. Furthermore Enemark, et al. (2005, p.53) argued that land policies or frameworks need to form an integral part of LUM as they promote environment sustainability, economic development, social justice and equity, and political stability.

The predominant land tenure in Dududu Village is communal land ownership under the custodianship of the Ingonyama Trust Board under the Ezembeni Tribal Authority. The Inkosi when allocating land for residential purposes issues a receipt and a letter of recognition which act as proof that land has been allocated to that particular household to occupy and utilise and for a business site a lease is granted. .

In general, the community of Dududu Village is comfortable with the current land tenure system and believes it is secure. The responses from most of the respondents suggest that once the receipt and a letter of recognition are issued then the recipients assume full ownership and do not feel obliged to consult the Inkosi regarding any decisions they take regarding the land. There is that sense of security that once the Inkosi allocates them the land nobody, even the Inkosi, has the right to remove them from the land without alternative land being offered. In the case where a piece of land has been abandoned, the Inkosi has the authority to reallocate that piece of land to someone else unless a certain fee is paid to keep that land from being sent back to the pool of land to be reallocated (Respondent 002, 08/11/2014). This addresses the individual household's need for a guarantee that there will be no evictions without compensation; the capacity to improve their houses in order to be protected against weather, thieves etc.; and the guarantee that their children will be able to inherit, sell or transfer the property (Cousin, et al., 1999).

The challenge with land tenure arose with regards to commercial sites where the application has to be made to the Inkosi who has no standard assessment to check if it is suitable for commercial use or not. One respondent which was representing a female headed household expressed great frustration regarding land tenure security and protection and standardization of property values. She said that „ufike umbeke

umuntu aphinde ashintshe badayiselane ngemali enkulu kushintshaphi lokho ngoba name uma sengiqinisa ikhanda lami ngingalandela name ngiphike yonke into futhi" (Respondent 012, 08/10/2014). The respondent was explaining that she subdivided her site to allocate to someone who needed a site for residential purposes and charged her R 5000. What frustrated her is when that same site was later sold for R 20 000 for commercial purposes with no improvements done to the site whatsoever. She feels that she was exploited as she believes the Inkosi should not allow such exploitation as he was part of the negotiations when she first let go of her site and when it was later sold for commercial purposes.

The Inkosi stated that for commercial purposes such as a trade centre development where the investor would require financial assistance, a lease agreement would have to be signed and the real estate officer from ITB confirmed that the lease agreement has a clause that allows the leaseholder to use to apply for funding at the commercial banks. The two respondents representing the female headed households differ with this view. The two respondents argued that for small commercial use like a tuck shop or tavern, it is often a mixed use of residential and commercial activities on one site and a lease agreement is not signed. Instead only the usual letter from the Inkosi is received (Respondent 10, 08/11/2014 and Respondent 11, 08/11/2014). Furthermore, the true value of the site cannot be received by the owner when property is being transferred as there are no records that identify the site as being a commercial site as there is no formal land use management system.

The respondent which was representing a female headed household said that what fueled her frustration is that „kufanele ngabe uyakwazi ukwakha kodwa bathi awufuneki wakhe loyonto ozoyakha angithi lapha esitolo uyaboshwa nalapha ngenze umsebenzi ngaboshwa kwakuhlanganwa kuphi ukuthi mawuhlale uboshwe" (Respondent 012, 08/10/2014). The respondent was explaining that she was charged for trying to open a tuck shop and doing an ancestral ceremony but that someone else is able to buy the site to open a shop and a bottle store which is within close proximity to her site. Respondent 012 (08/10/2014) further said that she

doesn't understand why one should be charged for doing for running a business in their property. Cousins et. al. (2005) argue that property must not be limited to a capital-formation means but the social safety nets also need to be considered to ensure sustainable livelihoods are achieved. The unintended consequence of this limited view of thinking of property only as capital-formation, is disregarding customary land tenure systems which ensure protection of the poor and vulnerable groups. Taking into consideration Cousins et. al. (2005) argument, it appears that there are no mechanisms to ensure that exploitation of the poor and vulnerable groups in the land transactions are avoided.

In terms of land tenure security in Dududu village it has been established in this section that there is some level of security from eviction and possible landlessness. The challenge in regard to security is only experienced when it comes to commercial sites where there is no standardisation, lack of tenure security for the purposes of sourcing funding from financial institutions and no system in place to identify and set aside commercial land. This has resulted in relentless frustration as some of the respondents would sell their plot under the assumption that it is for residential purposes only to find out it gets used for commercial purposes. This links directly with access to Ingonyama Trust Land as discussed in the next section.

5.2.3. Access to Ingonyama Trust Land

Todes (2011) argues that it is eminent that the value of good access to economic opportunities, minimised travel times and costs for particular groups of the poor plays a significant role choosing a location. The analysis of access to Ingonyama Trust Land therefore looks at the system that is in place to ensure fair and efficient access is achieved. The analysis further examines how land for commercial purposes is accessed and to what extent that has potential to unlock the LED potential.

The access to Ingonyama Trust land based as per the responses of all the 16 respondents is through the Induna and Inkosi of that particular tribal authority and involves three basic steps. The individual looking for land will identify the piece of

land they want to occupy as the first step. Once the land has been identified, the person looking for land then negotiates with the person who has been assigned with the rights to occupy that piece of land and once agreement has been reached between the two parties the Induna is then notified to initiate the second step. At the second step the Induna will then inform the Inkosi that someone wants to acquire access to a piece of land under the Inkosi's area of jurisdiction and as a final step the Inkosi will then allocate the identified piece of land to the person requesting access to land. On average a plot size of one hectare is allocated to the individual requesting access to land but due to increased demand for land the plot sizes are becoming smaller.

The final step also includes the Khonza fee (administration fee) of R 700.00 and neighbours, Induna and the person to be allocated the land must be present when the Inkosi apportions the land as witnesses. For commercial use a separate additional application is made to the Inkosi and a fee of R 500.00 is paid separately. The Inkosi and Induna before granting the commercial use rights, will check if the site is not in conflict with surrounding land uses. This process is similar to the one outlined by Alcock and Hornby (2004) whereby the Induna identifies boundaries in the presence of the councillors whereas in other tribes the Induna demarcate boundaries in the presence of the isigodi or immediate neighbours.

It has been established in this section that there is a standard procedure that is followed with all the checks and balances to gain access to land in the Ingonyama Trust Land which the community of Dududu Village has a common understanding thereof. It is noted though that as much as there is a specific procedure for residential and commercial use, there is no plan or system in place that predetermines the different uses.

5.2.4. Administration of Ingonyama Trust Land Funds

As it has already emerged from the above section that there are moneys involved in the management and transfer of land under the Ingonyama Trust, it is important to note that those funds are aimed at going towards the development of the community.

The R 700 that is payable when someone is being allocated land, the R 5000 that is payable when application for commercial use is made, the fees associated with the lease of land especially for business purposes, and any other fees levied on the Ingonyama Trust Land are channeled back to the Ingonyama Trust Fund (Respondent 001, 08/10/2014). This is in line with the statement of Sapsford and Vaughan (2005) that the leases and mineral rights; and the management of resulting fund collection are managed by the ITB. To access those funds the Inkosi of that particular tribal authority needs to draw up a business plan of a community project and send it to the Ingonyama Trust Board for approval (Respondent 008, 19/11/2014). However, because of the minimal amounts of money charged on land the Ingonyama Trust Fund does not go a very long way in implementing community based projects which will in turn create job opportunities (Respondent 008, 19/11/2014).

It emerged during the interviews of the Ingonyama Trust Board officials, Traditional Authority, municipal and CoGTA officials that the Ingonyama Trust Board is heavily reliant on the government grants to fund the high impact LED projects which will have economic spinoffs and create jobs opportunities (Respondent 001, 08/11/2014; Respondent 007, 19/11/2014; and Respondent 008, 19/11/2014). The extent of lack of funds for Ingonyama Trust Board is further re-emphasised by Respondent 001 (08/10/2014) as he stated that „imali abayitholayo ingcane kakhulu abayitholi ngibuye ngibazwele, ngancgono ukuthi imali engenayo ingena esikhwameni senkosi ingayi kwiIngonyama trust, isikhwama samakhosi siyantula kumele sicele kubantu kuyinkinga.“ The respondent was explaining that the money collected by Ingonyama Trust Board is minimal and cannot cover all the Amakhosis and as a result they end up not applying for funding sometimes. The challenge with government grants is that they are a once off funding and do not offer funding for maintenance. The Ingonyama

Trust board needs a sustainable system that will ensure sustainable local economic development.

Based on the engagements with Respondent 001 (08/10/2014) and Respondent 008 (19/10/2014) there is a sound system in place to ensure that the money received from the land administration of Ingonyama Trust Land is reinvested to worthy community development projects. The challenge however that is faced by the Ingonyama Trust Board is that due to economic status of the majority of the households in the Ingonyama Trust land, minimal amounts are collectable. This means there is only a minimal amount that can be redistributed back to the communities and little meaningful impact can be made. This lastly results in Ingonyama Trust Land being heavily reliant on government grants.

5.3. Most Suitable Land Development Regulation Needed in the Ingonyama Trust Land to Unlock LED Potential

Berrisford and Kihato (2008) argued that in the current context of wall to wall municipalities, South Africa is faced with a daunting task of coming up with the most suitable form of planning systems to accommodate the vast rural areas that have been incorporated into these municipalities. They further argued that with these areas being inevitably linked with traditional leadership structures which have their own non formal procedures of land use and development regulation, the integration of these informal processes to the formal system is a rather complex and unclear one.

5.3.1. Current Land Use Management in the Ingonyama Trust Land

In the South African context, land use regulation legislation served two main purposes which were to control the way land was accessed, appropriated, owned and used by the majority of South Africans, and to deliberately ensure they were excluded from the land equation in the country (Mammon, 2008). The formal land use regulation was limited to the formal towns and emanating from that history there is currently no formal land use management system in the Dududu village but there are checks and balances that are made by both the Inkosi and the Ingonyama Trust board to ensure

harmonious land uses in their area of jurisdiction. The Induna fulfils the role of compliance officer in ensuring that this harmonious land use is achieved and maintained at all times.

In the formal towns, zoning schemes presents the legal framework and definitions for the rights to develop and utilisation of any piece of land in the municipality as per the specified zonings (Berrisford and Kihato, 2008). This is not the case in the rural areas as that responsibility lies with the Inkosi and Ingonyama Trust Board where individual traditional authority's discretion is used. Once land allocation has been finalised (especially for commercial sites that involved big development), the documentation accompanying the allocation is sent to the Ingonyama Trust Board office which then sends a surveyor to survey and determine the boundaries and that information is loaded to the Ingonyama Trust Board geographical information system (GIS). The Ingonyama Trust Board uses GIS to monitor and manage land use in KZN; however it is a reactive approach as it only captures existing and not the proposed development.

The lack of forward planning by Ingonyama Trust Board becomes a stumbling block for the local municipal planning unit as there is no common ground of understanding regarding which direction the development is taking or should take. The planning officials from the municipality expressed frustration regarding the non-availability of land use regulation in the Ingonyama Trust land that would ensure land is distributed equally, proper land use which is in line with human setting is implemented, and sustainable human settlement principles are adhered to. Town planning should ideally play the function of projecting the future of the area spatially and indicating the location, density and intensity of land uses which in turn allows engineers to project specifics for different services, and further allows the planners to control growth and change in harmony with the plan (Todes, 2011).

Traditionally, master planning has applied zoning schemes and land use regulation to residential areas through requesting compliance to particular land tenure, building

regulations, building forms, and construction materials (Watson, 2007). It is against this background that the planning officials from the municipality strongly argued that the role that is performed by the Induna as a compliance officer and Inkosi in allocating land use rights should be done in partnership with the municipality to ensure that the Induna and Inkosi receive technically sound input from the suitably qualified municipal official to allow them to make informed decisions (Respondent 005, 10/11/2014 and Respondent 003, 10/11/2014). Respondent 005 (10/11/2014) further stated that „there should be a strong link and understanding between Amakhosi and Izinduna as they are the ones who allocate land; as well as the municipal officials as their roles are to administer and manage land use management systems in place.“

A respondent from Ingonyama Trust Board also agreed with this statement adding that big development applications should be dealt with directly by Ingonyama Trust Board main office to give it the technical support it needs whilst capacitating the Izindunas and Amakhosi to handle such applications (Respondent 008, 19/11/2014). Furthermore, the Senior Town and Regional planner in the municipality expressed his frustrations with the lack of consideration of statutory attributes such as environment and social responsibility in the customary land use management system (Respondent 005, 10/11/2014).

There were two main views regarding land use management system in the Dududu area where some respondents felt the current system is working and the other feeling that the system is not working as land use is far from being harmonious. The respondents that live in the area that is purely residential stated that the current land use system is effective and that the Inkosi and Induna will never allow conflicting land uses to occur in the area. These respondents further stated that during their more than four decade stay in the area they have never encountered any challenges regarding land use. On the other hand, the respondents that live in a more mixed use areas of Dududu bemoaned the lack of control and management of land conflicting land uses in their area. One responded in particular, a reverend of a local church,

expressed his frustration regarding a tavern that is located adjacent to his church. The reverend stated that it is increasingly becoming difficult to hold their afternoon and night services especially on weekends due to high levels of noise. When the tavern was first opened by the owner of the property, the reverend took the onus upon himself to negotiate with the owner the operation times and church service times that were to suit both parties. However, the tavern has since been rented out and the current tenant is not willing to compromise the operation times arguing that it will have an adverse effect on the overall profit of the business.

A potential Dududu Village planning scheme would entail land administration functions that ensure sound management of rights, limitations, responsibilities and risks in relation to property, land and natural resources. This is surely lacking in the area of Dududu Village as the responses from the participants revealed that there are no site and building controls and regulations. Once the household has been allocated they can build whatever form of structure they desire with no site restrictions which might compromise the safety of the occupants especially in cases where they build double storey buildings. Further to that, the Manager of Public Participation in the municipality emphasised the need for proper land use management system especially for the residential areas arguing that people build anywhere and anyhow without considering environmental issues, availability of bulk services, safety of the area in terms of natural disaster and accessibility of the area (Respondent 005, 10/11/2014).

The lack of a strong land development regulation was also evident when during the research study it emerged that there is widespread illegal sand mining taking place in the area (Respondent 001, 08/10/ 2014). The most concerning fact regarding illegal sand mining is that the big companies come and load the sand into their trucks and leave without the community benefitting anything from their natural asset (Respondent 001, 08/10/2014). The illegal sand mining activity also creates an unsafe human environment as these companies do not rehabilitate the areas after digging away the sand.

The analysis has shown that there is a current form of land use management that is being applied in Dududu Village even though it is rudimentary and not standard or formalised. Furthermore, land use management in Dududu Village is the responsibility of the Inkosi with the assistance of Ingonyama Trust Board. It has been noted that there is a need for formal land use system in Dududu Village which should be inclusive of forward planning. The next section looks at the prevalent land uses in Dududu Village which gives a further picture of land management in Dududu Village.

5.3.2. Prevalent Land Uses in the Rural Areas

The most prevalent land uses in the study area are: Imizi (traditional households) and Izigodlo (royal palace) which is similar to residential use in formal towns; Amakhaphelo (Grazing Land – Winter), Amadlelo (Grazing Land – Summer), Izinkampu (Fenced grazing fields), and Dipping Tanks; Amasimu (Large Gardens); Izivande (Household Gardens), and Commercial and Subsistence Farming which are agricultural land uses; Izigcawu (Public Meeting places); Izishozi (Dangerous lightning prone areas); Household Burial System and Communal Burial System; Amahlathi (Indigenous Forest), Amagquma (Hills), Imithombo (Boreholes) and Iziphethu (Springs) which are conservation areas; Community Facilities; Mineral Mining; and commercial land use.

There is no standard procedure for demarcating these land uses in Dududu Village but seem to develop naturally besides residential and commercial use where there is some standard formal procedure followed. It is worth noting however that although there is that standard procedure for the commercial and residential use, it is a reactionary system rather than a proactive one. This is given to the fact that the individuals seeking land under normal circumstances would firstly identify the piece of land they want to occupy and then go to the Inkosi and Induna. If the land is available that particular individual or household is granted permission to occupy and utilise that piece of land, whereas if there was a proactive system in place the available parcels of land demarcated for a specific land use would be known by the Inkosi and people

seeking land would first check with the Inkosi where there is still land available for whatever use they are seeking it for.

Cousins (2009) and Pienaar (2008) argue that the land rights in the rural areas are shared and relative which makes them inclusive in nature rather than exclusive and depending on the community the rights may be individualised for residential purposes; communal for access to common property resources like grazing, forests, fresh water, etc.; and or mixed in cases of seasonal cropping combined with grazing and other activities. The Dududu village follows the same pattern as the residential and commercial rights are individualised whilst communal access is given to the public meeting places, conservation, community facilities, livestock grazing land, dipping tanks, communal gardens, communal facilities and mining sites. With regards to the burial system, the individualised rights which are granted whilst communal access is also provided.

Adams et al. (1999) argue that one of the stumbling blocks in the attempts to dismantling apartheid spatial form is that the governance of communal areas is unstructured. This is true for Dududu Village as there is no standard procedure for demarcating these land uses but seem to develop naturally in these areas. The people's opinion as to how these uses should be demarcated is summarised in Figure eight below. To ascertain the respondents view with regards to the prevalent land uses in the study area they were asked if they think the use should be permitted, granted with consent or prohibited. For residential uses 10 out of 16, and for izigodlo 11 out of 15 participants feel residential uses should be permitted and should come as default use when a piece of land is allocated. The concerns with the respondents advocating for residential use being granted with consent were to ensure that proper checks and balances are made to ensure that the land people are allocated is habitable, safe and not prone to natural disasters.

Livestock agriculture is not that extensive in the area of Dududu Village but the challenge for the small scale livestock farming that is happening is the availability of

grazing land for the livestock. Two thirds of the respondents believe that amakhaphelo, amadlelo, izinkampu and dipping tanks should be permitted. The responses from the respondents suggest that there should be land demarcated for livestock farming which will be of communal use.

The picture is similar when it comes to crop agriculture where two thirds of the respondents believe subsistence and commercial farming should be permitted. All the respondents felt that amasimu and izivande should be permitted. This should be influenced by the national drive of one home one garden by the department of Agriculture. There is a reasonable spread of both amasimu and izivande in the area of Dududu however as already mentioned above some of them are not being utilised to their full potential.

Izigawu in the rural settings are fast fading as they are being turned into formal tribal courts with communal halls. Nonetheless two thirds of the respondents believe they should be permitted. With regards to izishozi it is the same trend as izigawu where two thirds believe that they should be permitted. This addresses the concerns of the Manager Public Participation in the municipality regarding planning for disaster management in these areas.

The dominant burial system in the Dududu Village is the household burial system and only in the case where the family does not have enough land is the communal burial system used. When the Inkosi was interviewed he said the household burial system is preferred in the Dududu Village because of the cultural beliefs and that site sizes that are allocated allows for such. Again for both the household and communal burial systems two thirds believe they should be allowed. Taking into consideration the concerns of the Manager Public Participation regarding the difficulty of transferring a property and the drop in property value because of the household system, this trend is a cause for concern.

The conservation areas and their importance are not usually well understood in the rural settings, however, in the Dududu village the community believe that amagquma and iziphethu should be permitted. With regards to amahlathi, again two thirds of the respondents believe they should be permitted. This is largely due to the fact that most of them have timber plantation in their sites which they sell to SAPPI. The only challenge the respondents had with timber plantation is that it takes nothing less than ten years for one to see returns on their investment, which they feel is too long considering the current economic situation.

The dominant commercial use in Dududu Village is the tuck shops, bottle stores, taverns, informal street trading and funeral services offices. Most of commercial activity is mixed use form as it is usually done within the residential site. All the respondents believed that commercial use should be granted with consent.

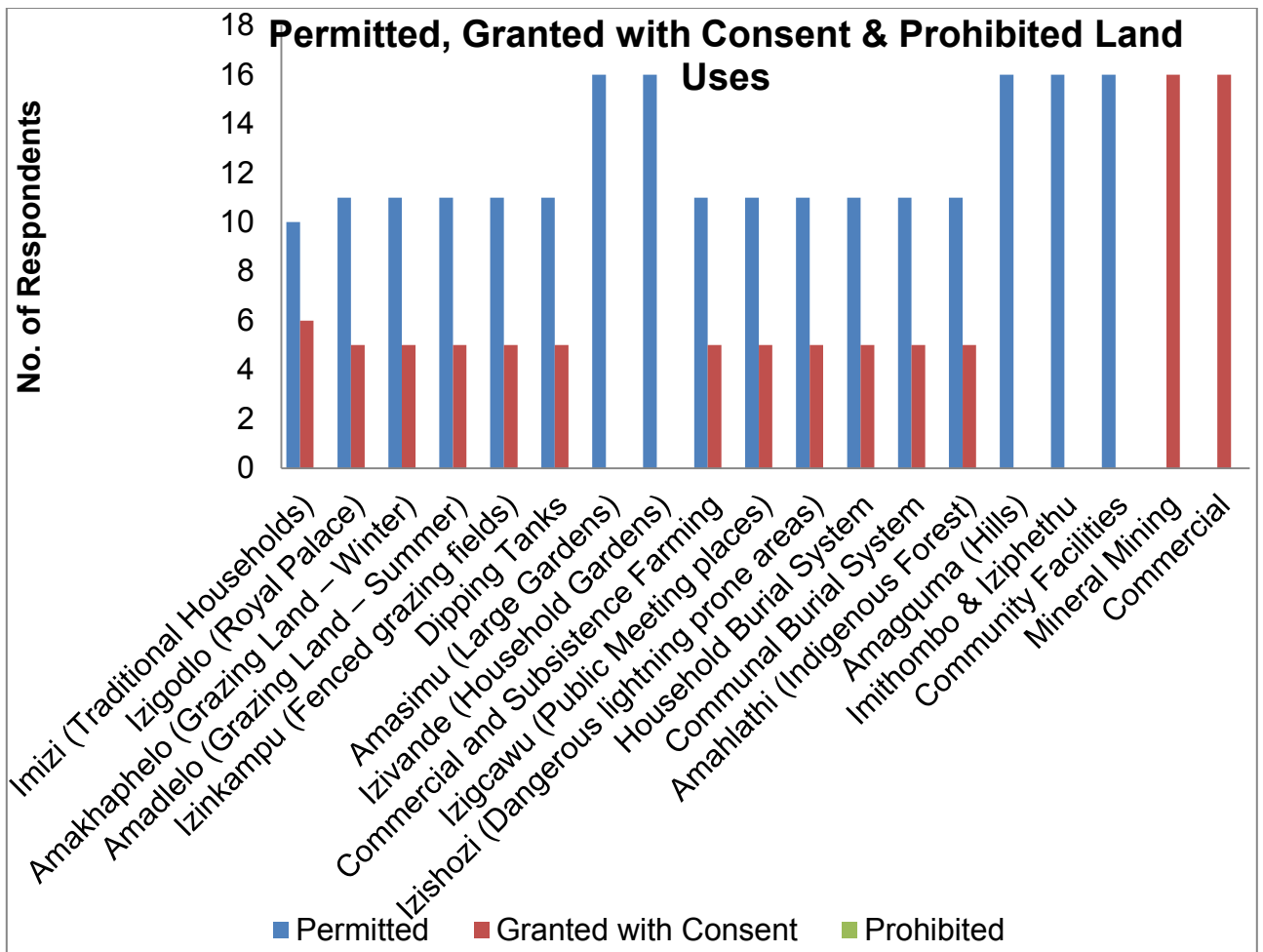


Figure 8: Permitted, Granted with Consent and Prohibited Land Uses

Source: Interview Responses, 2014

Land use management is concerned with putting into good effect land resources including land and resource management that are necessary to achieve sustainable development (Enemark, Williamson and Wallace, 2005). In the South African context Mammon (2008) states that land use regulation is concerned with controlling the way land is accessed, appropriated, and used. Within this context and based on the interviews conducted the responsibility of land use management in the Dududu Village rested with the Inkosi and Ingonyama Trust Board. Furthermore, it emerged that while there is some system in place that controls how land is accessed and appropriated; there is no effective system in place that controls the use of land.

5.3.3. Land Use Management System awareness and getting the community involved

During the research it emerged from the interviews that the community is not well informed what a land use management system is all about and is rarely consulted regarding the land use issues of the area in which they live. There is a need to get the community involved in the development and implementation of a land use management system as identified by the municipal officials that were interviewed. There are many mechanisms that can be used to ensure that there is sufficient awareness on land use management and that the community is involved. The two main mechanisms for this that were identified during the research are the Ward Committees and the Sukuma Sakhe War Rooms.

The municipality is made up of different wards and those wards are made up of sub places or voting districts. Each ward has a ward Councillor and once the Councillor is elected a ward committee is then elected comprised of ten members. The ten elected members represent different sectors in the community i.e. business, agriculture, people living with disabilities etc. The Manager Public Participation emphasised that this is the structure that would be most effective as it is proportionally distributed throughout the ward making the flow of information more efficient (Respondent 005, 10/11/2014).

Operation Sukuma Sakhe War Rooms are a „war on poverty initiative“ that involves all the stakeholders within the municipal area of jurisdiction to unblock the blockages that delay service delivery (Respondent 004, 10/11/2014). The operation sukuma sakhe war rooms specifically look at what the Public Participation Manager referred to as „quick wins“ of „low hanging fruits“. The operation sukuma sakhe war room is ward based and includes all the provincial and national departments, municipality, traditional leaders and organised civil groups and NGOs within a specific municipal area of jurisdiction (Respondent 004, 10/11/2014). Considering the fact that all the stakeholders meet in this forum, the Manager Public Participation felt it could function as another platform to create awareness and get the community involved in the

development and implementation of land use management system (Respondent 004, 10/11/2014). The public participation mechanisms and community buy-in is important in the process of developing the most suitable land development regulation in the Ingonyama Trust Land. Land use management system public awareness and community involvement is important for this study to avoid a situation whereby land regulation is disregarded and ignored (Watson, 2007). Furthermore, for the implementation of an effective land use management system, the public must be capacitated enough to be able to follow the right procedures.

The respondents representing the community also raised the importance of a platform where the Inkosi, municipality and the community can interact regarding the issues of land development (Respondent 010, 08/10/2014; Respondent 011, 08/10/2014; Respondent 012, 08/10/2014; Respondent 013, 08/10/2014). The respondents argued that the main reason there is so much conflict with regards to land use and limitations to LED is the lack of public meetings by the Inkosi as the custodian of the land to engage the community on land issues affecting them. The respondent suggested that the Inkosi and the ward Councillor should hold joint public meetings to engage the community regarding land and development issues and create a space for organised civil groups to participate. The feeling of the respondents representing the community is the leaders of organised civil groups are in a position to better inform development decisions in the best interest of the community as they are situated closer to the communities than both the Inkosi and ward Councillor (Respondent 010, 08/10/2014; Respondent 011, 08/10/2014; Respondent 012, 08/10/2014; Respondent 013, 08/10/2014).

5.4. The Key Stakeholders in the Administration of Ingonyama Trust Land

The need for a land use management system has already been established as Respondent 005 stated that “at the moment the system used to manage or regulate land in Dududu is not economically, environmentally friendly and socially responsive, but once the scheme is in place then it would be economically and environmentally friendly, by designating and enhancing economical areas while protecting and

conserving areas of environmental significance” (10/11/2014). It has also emerged during the research that there are two main key stakeholder performing roles that are almost overlapping when it comes to land development and management, which are the Ingonyama Trust Board (including Inkosi) and the municipality.

All the respondents understand the role of the Inkosi in land allocation and determination of site boundaries. Respondent 003 (10/11/2014) stated that „when the Amakhosi allocates land the municipal planning unit should be consulted to ensure that land allocation takes into consideration sustainable human settlement principles. Respondent 007 (19/11/2014) also stated that technical support should be sought from Ingonyama Trust Board as well especially the big development projects. The allocation of land is strongly linked with granting of property rights and it emerged, from the responses of all the 16 respondents, that this role is performed by both the Ingonyama Trust Board and municipality depending on the scale of the request for land or development application. Respondent 003 (10/11/2014) stated that „there is no guiding document or regulation that enables the municipality to monitor or manage land in an equitable and adequate way. Ingonyama Trust is the key custodian of land within this jurisdiction and takes charge.” The respondent was driving the point that the municipality plays a very minimal role when it comes to the granting of property right despite the fact that they are the custodians of land use management and Spatial Development Framework. The Ingonyama Trust Board and the Inkosi takes the lead role in this regard considering that they are the owners of the land.

The Inkosi and Ingonyama Trust board also plays a critical role when it comes to the administration, and the day to day management of land (Respondent 001, 08/10/2014). The issuing of leases for commercial use and letter of recognition for normal residential are the roles that are performed by the Inkosi and Ingonyama Trust Board on the day to day basis (Respondent 001, 08/10/2014). Further to that, the Induna plays a role of compliance officer as already mentioned above to ensure that all a people allocated land adhere to the set rules of the tribal authority area (Respondent 002, 08/10/2014). The Inkosi together with its committee through the

tribal court resolves any land use conflict or any other land related issues explained the Inkosi (Respondent 001, 08/10/2014).

Sapsford and Vaughan (2005) argue that ITB represent the owner and thus its decision is limited to the tenure of the land and does not extend to the legalities of any land development proposal. This is in line with the responses of 5 of the 16 respondents who argued that the role of the municipality most recognised when it came to the land use management as they are the custodians of the function and of the Integrated Development Plan and Spatial Development Framework. Respondent 005 (10/11/2014) explained the role of the municipality in land use management as giving municipal comment or consent to ensure that the intended use of the property aligns to the visions of the Spatial Development Framework and after that, the final decision whether to grant the property to the applicant lies with the Ingonyama Trust Board. Respondent 005 (10/11/2014) further explained that when it comes to development applications they have to go through both the municipality and the Inkosi before the final approval. It must be noted however that when it comes to development applications the municipality plays a lead role and Inkosi provides a comment base on the current KZN Planning and Development Act as explained by Respondent 005 (10/11/2014). Respondent 003 (10/11/2014) argued that the overlapping roles and responsibilities between the traditional leadership and the municipal planning is being exploited by the developers who want to avoid the formal legal route that must be followed in applying for the development approval. The municipal planning officials further mentioned that the developers tend to only approach the Inkosi and avoid the municipalities because of the technicalities that are involved (Respondent 003, 10/11/2014 and Respondent 005, 10/11/2014).

With the above being said it is important to note that before the PDA transferred the development approval to the local municipalities, Department of Co-operative Governance and Traditional Affairs (CoGTA) have been undertaking land development approval on the Ingonyama Trust land. The role of CoGTA is now limited to assisting in tenure changes, in resolving land disputes and broader

administration of traditional authorities (Sapsford and Vaughan, 2005). The local municipalities are responsible for planning and coordination of development; land use management; and administration of development applications in the Ingonyama Trust land (Sapsford and Vaughan, 2005).

Based on the interviews conducted during the research, there are three main areas where the records of decision of development applications are kept, that being, the municipality, the Ingonyama Trust Board and the Inkosi office. Respondent 005 (10/11/2014) stated that the „Ingonyama Trust Board keeps all records of land use rights and development activities in Dududu, and recently the municipality has its own record keeping mechanism for land use rights and development.“ There is a new dual record system that is emerging which will assist both parties in finding a collaborative way of addressing land use development.

It emerged during the interviews that there is some level of confusion when it comes to roles and responsibilities and the key stakeholders in the management and administration of Ingonyama Trust Land based on the differing views received from responses as illustrated in Figure nine. It is however worth noting that the majority of the community of Dududu based on the responses received still believe that the Inkosi has a major role to play when it comes to land. Furthermore, the respondents representing the community have a limited understanding of the role to be played by the municipality and what land use management is all about. This was evident when Respondent 012 (08/10/2014) stated that „khohlwa umasipala, igama ukuthi sibona ibhodi libhaliwe kodwa ufana nento engekho.“ Respondent 012 (08/10/2014) was saying that the municipality exists only by name otherwise it is not effective or visible in their communities.

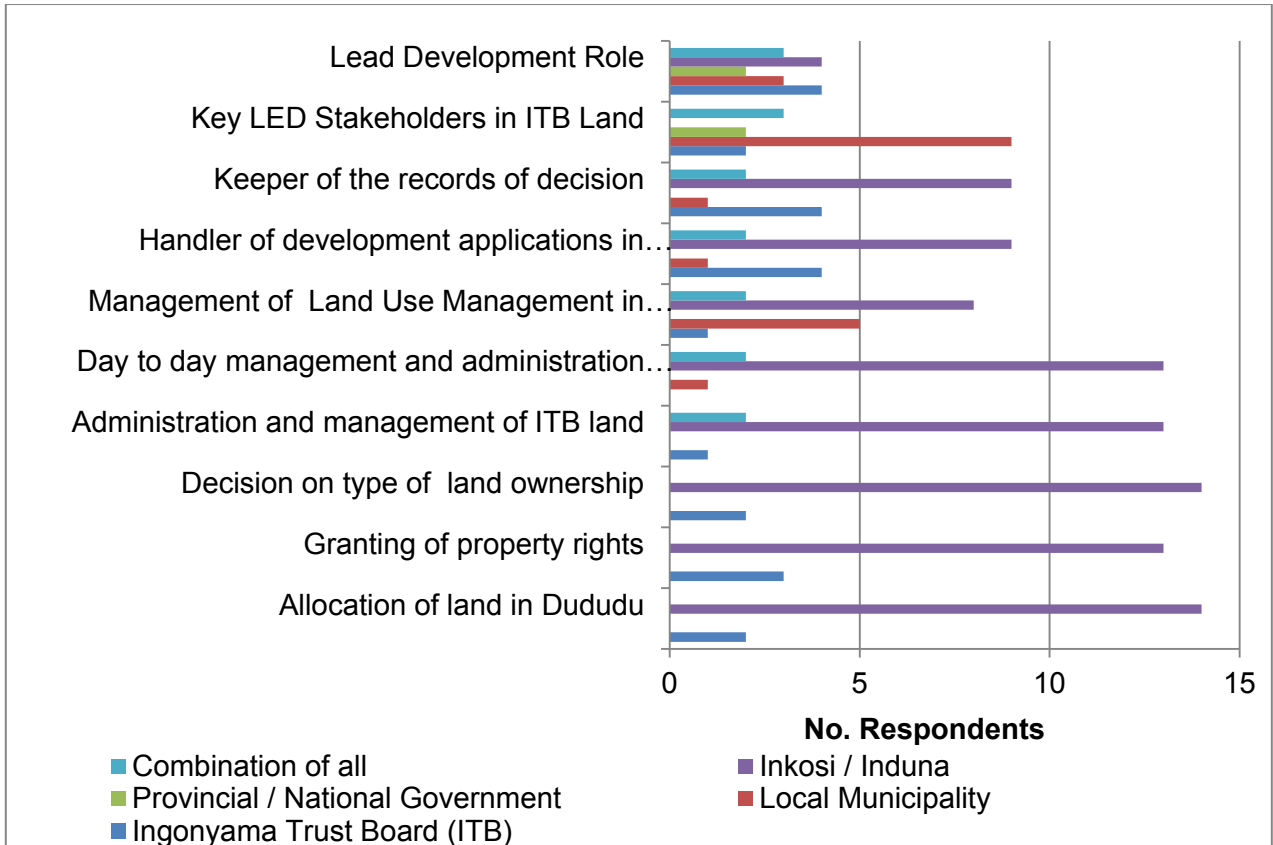


Figure 9: Key Role Players in the Ingonyama Trust Land

Source: Interview Responses, 2014

It has already been established that there are many role players when it comes to Ingonyama Trust Land however there is still one stakeholder that should play the lead role when it comes to development and plays a facilitation and cooperation role to the other stakeholder. Most of the respondents believe that the Inkosi and Ingonyama Trust Board should play a lead role as 4 out of 16 respondents said Inkosi and again 4 out of 16 said it should be Ingonyama Trust Board. It therefore came as no surprise that 14 respondents out of the 16 believe that the day to day management and administration, decisions of type of land ownership, granting of property rights and allocation of land of Ingonyama Trust Land should be done by Inkosi.

The majority of the respondents believe that the municipality is the key stakeholder in LED (9 out of 16 respondents). This is the only area where an overwhelming majority of the respondents believed the municipality should play a lead role within Dududu.

With regards to the keeping of records of decisions regarding development applications nine respondents believed that they should be kept by Inkosi. With the handling of development applications again the majority believes that they should be handled by the Inkosi. Furthermore, eight respondents believe that the Inkosi should manage the land use management system in the Ingonyama Trust Land.

5.5. The Role Each Stakeholder Plays in the Economic Development of the Ingonyama Trust Land

Motloa (2008) argues that there is a lack of clear articulation of the different roles between traditional authority and the current democratic government systems, i.e. local municipalities which adversely affects the service provision. This is evident in the Dududu Village as it has already been alluded to above where the respondents have different views as to who should play that role and how.

As reflected in Figure nine the majority of the respondents believe that the municipality should play a key role in the implementation of LED. However, the lead development role still expected to be played by the Inkosi which suggest that the community of Dududu Village feel that there should be a strong partnership when it comes to development between the municipality and Inkosi.

Todes (2011) argues that the planning discipline has been revolving over time shifting from being concerned with creating the physical framework of human life, to the extended scope of concerns in the contemporary era. The contemporary era being plans that are informed by a strong social and economic analysis that considers the manner in which politics and markets shape the areas (Todes, 2011). Furthermore, Todes (2011, 2008); Mammon (2008); Berrisford and Kihato (2008); Todes, Karam, Klug and Malaza (2010); and Watson (2009, 2007) summarises this as the revisiting and reinventing of planning though the lines of what they refer to as „strategic spatial planning“ but does not necessarily advocate for discarding land use management but rather suggest that it must be shaped contextually and be instituted in areas where it will be meaningful and acceptable to the people. This is particularly relevant in the

rural areas as the post-apartheid government is calling for wall to wall schemes to ensure that every single part of South Africa is properly planned for. Furthermore, each and every municipality is compelled by the Municipal Systems Act no.32 of 2002 to prepare Integrated Development Plans and an integral part of that is the LED Strategy and the Spatial Development Framework.

The Spatial Development Framework encapsulates the long term spatial vision of the municipality and the zoning scheme developed as primary legal mechanism by which the vision would be implemented (Watson, 2007), a legal document classifying developmental rights and obligations with regards to land or property, the rights and obligations which are commonly stated in the form of development rules (Mammon, 2008). All the respondents, except the municipal officials were not aware of the municipal spatial vision nor, were they aware of any mechanisms to implement that plan.

The Manager of Development Planning and the Town and Regional Planner explained that the process of developing the IDP, SDF and LED strategy involves vigorous public participation process to get the views and buy in of the community but based on the interviews conducted it was clear that the participation process did not reach everyone. If the community at large is not aware of the spatial vision of the municipality they may not be able to strategically positioned themselves to benefit from the proposed developments of the area. Furthermore, the Inkosi was also not aware of the spatial vision of the municipality which then suggests that, as the custodian of the land in Dududu Village, the Inkosi may not be in a position to reserve the identified strategic land for development which may then undermine the whole SDF vision. This is evident from both the Manager Development Planning and Senior Town and Regional Planner of the municipality's views that Inkosi and ITB should lead in the implementation of LED, as they decide what development should take place in the land. The SDF is the one instrument that should bridge that gap as all the stakeholders would share one common vision for the area.

For planners, local economic development has emerged as a significant field for the planning discipline, however, there has been little noticeable attempt to understand the economies with respect to spatial planning and minimal attention has been directed to the understanding of how the real economy of the city works and its spatial arrangement (Todes, 2011). This becomes more complex when the Amakhosi are involved as the Senior Town and Regional Planner of the municipality stated that „there should be a strong link and understanding between Amakhosi and Izinduna as they are the ones who allocate land; as well as the municipal officials as their roles are to administer and manage land use management systems in place.“ Similarly, the Manager Development Planning stated that for LED to thrive in the area of Dududu land should be released for development by the Inkosi which will make the lives of the community better. The general feeling from the municipal officials is that since the Inkosi and Ingonyama Trust Board are the custodians of, and decides what happens on land they should therefore play a lead role in the implementation of LED. Furthermore, the respondent representing the community stated that in the implementation of LED the Inkosi regular meetings with the organised civil groups to have a discussion about the challenges facing the aspiring entrepreneurs and come up with possible solutions. This is in line with Todes's (2011) argument that if land and its connection to economic activity and population is to take centre stage of planning (Todes, 2011) the planners need to interrogate the necessary particular types of space that looks at the sort of economic activity, where and how much; and further consider the associated specification of infrastructure and how it links to spatial planning at a strategic and more local level (Todes, 2008).

Now as far as the role that should be played by Amkhosi is concerned Sithole and Mbhele (2008) gives a broad explanation as emanating from the Traditional Leadership and Governance Framework Act of 2003. This role is to be ensuring that they administer the affairs of the traditional community in line with customs and tradition; providing support to municipalities in identifying community needs; and promoting the ideals of co-operative governance, integrated development planning, sustainable development and service delivery. Motloa (2008) further characterises

the roles of Amakhosi as to promoting socio-economic development; service delivery; peace and stability amongst the community members; contribution to nation building; social comprehensiveness of communities; the preservations of the moral fibre and regeneration of society; the preservation of the culture and tradition of communities; and the social well-being and welfare.

The preceding points suggest that the first step in stimulating LED in the Ingonyama Trust Land should be re-enforcing the institutional arrangements and clarifying the different role and responsibilities. With the land being the key asset and being instrumental in the implementation of LED there should be a plan in place as to how and where development should take place and that particular plan should receive buy in from all the stakeholders. One of the tools available for achieving this is the land use management system, which Enemark, Williamson and Wallace (2005) explain as a process through which land resources are put into good effect and include land and resource management practices that are necessary to achieve sustainable development.

One of the respondents representing the community lamented on the high expenses involved in establishing a business in the Dududu Village due to the need to involve lawyers because of the land tenure system (Respondent 013, 08/102014). Berrisford and Kihato (2008) argue that in the South African context, zoning schemes represent the legal framework and definitions for the rights to develop and utilisation of any piece of land in the municipality as per the specified zonings. It is perhaps the lack of this that escalates the cost of establishing a business in the Dududu Village area as the investor needs to foot the bill for all the processes which also cause delays as to when the business will start to operate and generate profit. Also, the rights contained in the scheme have a huge bearing on the determination of property values. This makes schemes a critical aspect in the municipal property rating system which guarantees the investors that their investment is safe (Berrisford and Kihato, 2008).

5.6. Conclusion

This study examines the kind of land development regulation needed in the Ingonyama Trust Land to unlock its Local Economic Development (LED) potential. The interviews conducted revealed both the challenges and the positives with regard to land development regulation in the Ingonyama Trust Land. The data was analysed using thematic analysis, and findings are structured according to the four main objectives of the study.

The analysis of the first objective relates to how land development regulation can unlock LED potential in rural areas. The analysis took into consideration four areas to unpack this objective. The first discussion addressed land potential in Dududu. It emerged that Dududu Village land poses great economic potential especially in the agricultural sector, with the blockage being the access and attractiveness of the land to the external investors. The second area of analysis looked at the land tenure security. It was established that for residential purposes a letter from Inkosi and recognition letter are issued as tenure security whilst lease agreement is signed for commercial use. The third area of analysis looked at the access to the Ingonyama Trust Land where it was established that there is a standard procedure that is followed to request access to a piece of land from the Inkosi with the associated costs and all the checks and balances regarding the applicant are performed by the Inkosi and its committee. The last area of analysis under the objective looked at administration of the Ingonyama Trust Land funds where the administration of the fees associated with lease of land and any other fees levied on the Ingonyama Trust Land were highlighted.

The second objective is concerned with most suitable land development regulation needed in the Ingonyama Trust land. The analysis of the objective took into consideration the current land use management in the Ingonyama Trust Land; prevalent land uses in the rural areas; and land use awareness and getting the community involved. It was established that there is currently no formal land use regulation being applied in the Ingonyama Trust Land even though there are some

checks and balances that are done. The main challenge is the absence of standard procedure and hence inconsistencies in land use management. Furthermore, the informal procedures that do exist are not co-ordinated with the municipal processes of land development administration. It was also established that the community is not aware or knowledgeable regarding to land use management.

The third objective looked at the key stakeholders in the administration of Ingonyama Trust Land. The role that each stakeholder plays in the administration of the Ingonyama Trust Land and importance of that role was analysed. Building on the concern for administration of land, the final objective discussed the role that each stakeholder can play in the economic development of the Ingonyama Trust Land. It emerged from the finding that the key stakeholders in the administration of Ingonyama Trust Land is Ingonyama Trust Board, Inkosi and the municipality. Furthermore, in terms of the role each stakeholder should play in economic development of Ingonyama Trust Land, the municipality was identified as having to take a lead role.

This chapter thus focused on presenting the research results and discussion. Chapter Six presents the conclusion and recommendations which is a build up from this chapter. Of particular importance in Chapter six is the suggested land use development system that would be most appropriate in Dududu, given the findings presented in Chapter Five above.

CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1. Introduction

This research study was to examine the kind of land development regulation needed in the Ingonyama Trust Land to unlock its Local Economic Development (LED) potential. The interviews conducted revealed both the challenges and the positives with regard to land development regulation in the Ingonyama Trust Land. The study examined the most suitable land development regulation system for the Ingonyama Trust Land in unlocking LED potential; the currently used land development regulation system in the Ingonyama Trust Land and determined the role of the key stakeholders in the land administration in the Ingonyama Trust Land. Furthermore, the study answered the following questions as set out in the initial stages of the study:

1. How can land development regulation unlock LED potential in the tribal land?
2. What is the most suitable land development regulation needed in the Ingonyama Trust Land to unlock its Local Economic Development (LED) potential?
3. Who are the key stakeholders in the administration of Ingonyama Trust Land?
4. What role can each stakeholder play in the economic development of the Ingonyama Trust?

The research was prompted by the fact that there has been very little research conducted around the area of Dududu as to why the LED focused projects around the area fail to be implemented. The common challenge that is usually given during the IDP development process is the issue of land security and availability. Furthermore, there are many feasibility studies that have been conducted around the area but the projects that are found to be viable never get implemented because of non-availability of land, even though they have proven to be feasible.

The literature review played a critical role in establishing the link between LED and land use management which is the core focus of the study. The literature review further demonstrated that there is an urgent need to start embarking on rigorous spatial economic analysis in order to come up with LED strategies that will result in

economic activities that are needed in specific localities and thus be in a position to package the land appropriately for the identified economic activities.

For this study, a qualitative research approach was used and semi-structured interviews were conducted to ascertain land development system that is most appropriate for unlocking LED potential in the Ingonyama Trust Land for the community at Dududu Village. The qualitative research was preferred over quantitative research as it focuses on an experience that takes place in a natural context and includes capturing and studying the complexity of that experience. The research problem of this study automatically lent itself to the qualitative research paradigm. A total of sixteen semi structured interviews were conducted and the data was analysed and categorised into broad categories and relevant themes that formed the core of the rich descriptions in the previous chapter.

The conclusions and recommendations chapter concentrate, therefore, on the research's key findings and suggest the land development system that is most appropriate for unlocking LED potential in the Ingonyama Trust Land for the community at Dududu Village, taking into consideration the theoretical background.

6.2. Key Findings

The purpose of this case study was to discover the land development system that is most appropriate for unlocking LED potential in the Ingonyama Trust Land for the community at Dududu Village. The key findings are summarised below as per the objectives of the research study.

6.2.1. How can Land Development Regulation Unlock LED Potential in the Tribal Land?

Enemark, Williamson and Wallace (2005) argued that land use management is a process through which land resources are put into good effect and include land and resource management that are necessary to achieve sustainable development. In the South African context, this can be achieved through the implementation of zoning

schemes as a legal document classifying developmental rights and obligations with regards to land or property, the rights and obligations which are commonly stated in the form of development rules (Mammon, 2008 and Watson, 2007). The absence of a formal land development regulation in Dududu Village has resulted in the benefits of land development regulations not being realised.

It has been established in Chapter Five that Dududu Village has great land potential especially in agriculture. Furthermore, Dududu Village is strategically located and that provides opportunity for rental housing and a market for the agricultural produce. The value of land is influenced by the actual physical use of land and properties, and by anticipated future use of land as determined by zoning, land use planning regulations and permit granting processes (Enemark, et al., 2005). There has been a gap in this regard with land in Dududu Village as there has been absence of a guiding framework for development, which has resulted on a more reactive approach from stakeholders involved (Respondent 001, 08/10/2014; Respondent 003, 10/11/2014; Respondent 005, 10/11/2014; and Respondent 006, 10/11/2014).

In terms of land tenure security it was established that the community is satisfied with the current level of land tenure security in the Dududu Village. This is in line with Adams", et al. (1999) argument that when it comes to rural livelihoods where community rely mostly on local resources tenure security might mean having a secure place to live, free from intimidation of eviction, accessibility of productive land and natural resources, are important. The concern has been noted in the inconsistency with dealing with commercial sites which emerged during the interview with Respondent 012 (08/10/2014). De Soto (2000) argues that in the developing world the poor are in possession of vast assets irrespective of equality regimes, and cites the lack of formal entitlement to land as the stumbling block for them to realise the full value of their investments. To circumvent this ordeal a long term lease is issued by the Inkosi, especially for commercial use, which is recognised by most financial institutions in South Africa (Responded 001, 08/10/2014). The land tenure security

therefore can contribute positively to ensuring the land development regulation unlocks LED potential in rural areas.

When it comes to access to the Ingonyama Trust land it has been established in Chapter Five that there is a standard procedure that is followed that has all the necessary checks and balances. Woodruff (2001) argues that what attributes to the failure of markets is sometimes the lack of access to formal real property rights. This is true in Dududu Village as is evident in a current challenge faced by the Inkosi to get strategically located land for development of a trading centre in the area (Respondent 001, 08/10/2014). What brought this about is the lack of land development regulation as all the land that is strategically located is already occupied for other purposes.

The analysis of administration of Ingonyama Trust Land funds established that there are minimal funds collected from the land transitions and other land activities (Respondent 001, 08/10/2014 and Respondent 002, 08/10/2014). Watson (2007) argued that the rural population is predominantly poor and state dependant and the likelihood that population living under such circumstances may conform to a zoning scheme that favours the wealthy is minimal. This poses a threat for the implementation of land development regulation in the rural areas. What could happen is that land regulation will be disregarded and or people may move to areas where they can go undetected which results in the advantage of land development regulation not being realised.

6.2.2. Most Suitable Land Development Regulation System for the Ingonyama Trust Land in Unlocking LED Potential.

Based on the literature review and the interview findings there is currently no formal land development regulation system currently being utilised in the Ingonyama Trust Land, however, there is an informal system in place which is enforced by the Ingonyama Trust Board in cooperation with traditional leadership. The informal procedures of land use development regulation taking place include the use of GIS to monitor and manage land use in KZN (Respondent 007, 19/11/2014). This is a

reactive approach as it only captures existing and not the proposed development. The current situation in Dududu Village is in line with Mammon's (2008) assertion that the historical background of South Africa subjected rural areas to such conditions as the formal land use regulation was only limited to formal towns (Mammon, 2008).

It can be said, based on the discussions in Chapter Five, that the current land development system that is applied by the Amakhosi and Ingonyama Trust Board in Dududu Village is non-developmental. History has proven that the operating and establishment costs of businesses are influenced by the local governments as key developers of parks, roads, drainage, parking lots, access to water, sanitation and electricity (Blakely and Leigh, 2012). In the absence of formal land development regulation these suites of services has not been provided for in Dududu Village. Furthermore, land is a critical resource in LED and thus needs to be carefully managed because without the control of land LED can become meaningless (Blakely and Leigh, 2012). The lack of formal land development regulation system has meant that there is no standard form of land control in Dududu Village which causes a risk of the land losing its value. The prevalent land uses in Dududu Village, which has been identified in Chapter Five, have no standard demarcating procedure as they seem to develop naturally and haphazardly. To this effect Adams, et al. (1999) argued that one of the stumbling blocks in the attempts to dismantling apartheid spatial form is that the governance of communal areas is unstructured.

In terms of economic development the households needs to be in a position to utilise their property as collateral: to access loans, minimisation of property related disputes, for the properties to have access to infrastructural basic services such as water, sanitation, electricity and roads, and affordable and accessible property administration rights system (Cousin, et al., 1999). The land development regulation should therefore cover all of these aspects for it to be suitable for unlocking local economic development in Ingonyama Trust Land.

Todes (2011) argues that there is a need for the interrogation of the necessary particular types of space that looks at the kind of activity, where and how much economic activity, and further consideration of the associated specific infrastructure and how it links to spatial planning at a strategic and local level by the planners in order for the land and its connection to economic activity and population to take centre stage. From the interview findings it emerged that people were not at planning stage of the development process of the current municipal Strategic Development Framework as all the respondents with the exception of the municipal official were not aware of the strategy or the vision it entails. Furthermore, there is no evidence from both the LED strategy and the SDF that any special attention was given to how spatial planning at a strategic level is linked with the specific infrastructure for the economic activity envisaged in the area including land management.

6.2.3. The role of the key stakeholders in the land administration in the Ingonyama Trust Land.

Motloa (2008) argues that there is a lack of clear articulation of the different roles between traditional authority and the current democratic government systems, i.e. local municipalities which adversely affects the service provision. Beall and Ngonyama (2009) argue that the momentum that has been gained by the young democracy of South Africa makes the future of traditional leadership appear doubtful with their role slowly diminishing and becoming irrelevant for the democratised contemporary SA's government systems. It is for the same reason that there is so much contestation between stakeholders for playing a key role in the Ingonyama Trust Land.

There are three key stakeholders that have been identified as having a critical role to play in the land administration of the Ingonyama Trust Land which are namely, Ingonyama Trust Board; Inkosi (Traditional Authority) and the Local Municipality. It is worth noting however that the Department of Cooperative Government and Traditional Affairs were also key role players in the administration of Ingonyama Trust

Land but over the years, with the change of legislation, their role has experienced a decline.

Ingonyama Trust Board is the appointed custodian of traditional land in KZN and for that reason, its decisions and role is limited to tenure of the land and doesn't extend to the legalities of land development as articulated by Sapsford and Vaughan (2005). It is clear from the findings presented in Chapter Five that the main role that Ingonyama Trust Board plays in the administration of Ingonyama Trust Land, is the issuing of lease agreements, managing the funds collected from the leasing of land and any other fees received from the operations on the land, and granting of property rights.

The Inkosi deals mainly with the day-to-day administration of the traditional land which includes the allocation of land, land conflict resolution, developing community development projects business plans for submission to Ingonyama Trust Board for accessing funding, and ensuring compliance to rules and orders of the traditional area. The land allocation includes the issuing of letter of recognition, receipt and receiving and collecting the money resulting from the leasing of land and any other operations on land that necessitates payment of fees on behalf of Ingonyama Trust Board.

The main role of the local municipality with regards to the Ingonyama Trust Land is thus dealing with the legalities of land development. The municipality has taken over most of the CoGTA's functions as the development application approval has been transferred to the local municipalities by the PDA. The municipality is therefore responsible for planning and coordination of development; land use management; and administration of development applications in the Ingonyama Trust land (Sapsford and Vaughan, 2005).

6.2.4. The Role Each Stakeholder Plays in the Economic Development of the Ingonyama Trust Land

The economic potential that the rural areas hold through the natural resources and the potential they present has not yet been fully realised. The need therefore to look at the role each stakeholder can play in the economic development of these areas is of utmost importance.

It has been established from the respondents' comments that Inkosi should play a lead role in development of Ingonyama Trust Land as the main custodians of the land. Furthermore, it has been gathered in Chapter Five that there should be a strong link and understanding between Amakhosi, Izinduna and municipal officials regarding the vision of Dududu Village to ensure economic potential is unlocked.

Blakely and Leigh (2012) argue that operating and establishment costs of businesses are influenced by the local governments as key developers of parks, roads, drainage, parking lots, access to water, sanitation and electricity. Watson (2007) stated that strategic spatial planning, encapsulates the long term vision of the city and the zoning scheme is developed as primary legal mechanism by which the vision would be implemented. The local municipalities are mandated to develop and implement Spatial Development Frameworks and zoning schemes for their areas of jurisdiction which must be done with all the affected stakeholders. It has emerged in chapter five that the respondents representing the community are not aware of the municipality's Spatial Development Framework, whilst the Traditional Leadership is aware of its existence but do not know what it entails. It was only the municipal officials who were aware of the municipality's Spatial Development Framework and any other strategic documents. It is clear from Chapter Five that the municipality has a critical role to play in terms of ensuring an enabling environment for local economic development but that much needs to be done to make long term spatial planning in the municipality much more inclusive of stakeholders.

It has emerged from the literature review and interview findings that the challenges arises when these roles and responsibilities start to overlap and when the stakeholders choose to work in silos. Based on the interviews that were conducted it is clear that there is willingness from all the stakeholders to work together for the benefit of the community that they all serve, however, it did not come out clearly who should be the coordinator. There is a challenge with regards to the institutional arrangements of all the key stakeholders involved despite their stated willingness to co-operate.

6.3. Recommendations

Having considered the key findings, this section provides recommendations for land use management in the area of Dududu Village.

6.3.1. Unlocking LED Potential through Land Development Regulation in Tribal Land

There is an agreement among all the stakeholders that the Dududu Village land has a great LED potential, the only challenge is unlocking that potential. The first step should therefore be the physical identification of the land with high economic potential through the already existing tools such as the IDP, LED strategy and the SDF. Considering that these tools are already in place and are being used by the municipality, the focus should then be on reinforcing them and revising the approach that has been applied over the years.

These strategic documents, the SDF especially, should be more concerned with the contemporary era where socio-economic analysis is the focus and not be limited to the creation of physical framework of human life (Todes, 2011). The municipal planners should direct sufficient attention to understanding how the real economy of the rural areas work and their spatial arrangement, interrogating the necessary particular types of space that looks at the sort of economic activity, where and how much; and further consider the associated specification of infrastructure (Todes, 2008). Such vigorous analysis with special attention to the workings of the real

economy, will allow the municipal planners to effectively play their role of projecting the future of the area spatially and indicating the location, density and intensity of land uses which in turn allows engineers to project specifics for different services, and further allows the planners to control growth and change in harmony with the plan (Todes, 2011). Given the unconventional nature of the rural areas the land development regulation approach in these areas needs to be flexible and considers competitive markets that are small scale as their basic implicit concept, whilst providing a good description of how informal trade organises spatially (Todes, 2008).

The municipality in its position has three critical strategic plans which are the IDP, LED strategy and SDF which all have different visions. The second step should therefore be the consolidation of all these visions so that all the three strategic plans speak the same language. Every attempt should be made however that the Ingonyama Trust Board, Inkosi (Traditional Leadership), Local Municipality and the community are all involved in the development of such a vision to ensure there is buy in from all the stakeholders. This will then ensure that the Ingonyama Trust Board, Inkosi (Traditional Leadership) and Local Municipality land development activities are aligned and the community as the primary beneficiary will reap the benefits. Furthermore, once all the relevant key stakeholders have agreed on the common vision, they should ensure that every decision that is taken regarding land development is informed by the SDF.

As Blakely and Leigh (2012) argue, irrespective of how good the LED plan may be, if suitable sites and buildings for identified projects are not provided, that plan will be thwarted. The same principle should be considered in Dududu Village.

As a third step once the strategically located sites with economic potential are identified, the tools that can be utilised in ensuring that land use management enhance and unlocks economic development in local areas must be applied. Landbanking is one of those tools that can be utilised where the municipality together with Ingonyama Trust Board and Inkosi string together and upgrade strategic

development sites for business as part of planning and development controls (Blakely and Leigh, 2012). Whilst dealing with landbanking the physical infrastructure development on commercial land should be considered to attract investors.

Another tool that the municipality needs to apply in the Dududu Village is the establishment of Economic and Enterprise Zones to revitalise the underused and aging rural retail areas as suggested by Perry (2010). This will promote economic and commercial development as sufficient land would be set aside for the purposes of economic use. The municipality should further utilise techniques such as incentives, overlay and special district zonings to counter single-use deficiencies which will help overcome strict site regulations and offer the developer flexibility whilst encouraging certain land uses and project feature (Blakely and Leigh, 2012).

To specifically deal with the challenge of economic leakage that has plagued the area of Dududu Village, the village as a service centre can be upgraded in terms of infrastructure and quality of the environment as a tool to counter such a challenge. To take full advantage of the strategic central location of Dududu Village, necessary efforts should be made to make local shopping experience as attractive as possible and worthwhile for the local citizens as Blakely and Leigh (2012) suggest.

Lastly Dududu Village, being central to the Vulamehlo Municipality and being home to a number of government departments, is of vital importance that the labour force of these government departments is properly housed and serviced which, in turn, can act as business stimulus as recommended by Blakely and Leigh (2012). The municipality can utilise households servicing and housing as a tool ensure such, and may even create job opportunities whilst applying this tool as the activities in this sector has huge potential of creating jobs. Furthermore, the availability of housing and household services has an influence on the economic climate and this has led some cities to becoming aggressive housing developers through using their own land and Dududu should attempt the same (Blakely and Leigh, 2012).

6.3.2. Suitable land development regulation needed in the Ingonyama Trust Land to unlock its Local Economic Development (LED) potential

In coming up with the recommendations of the suitable land development regulation needed in the Ingonyama Trust Land to unlock its LED potential it is important to bear in mind Watson's (2007) assertion that the rural population is predominantly poor and state dependant and the likelihood that population living under such circumstances may conform to a zoning scheme that favours the wealthy is minimal. This may result in unintended consequences of the failure of the municipality to enforce the scheme, resulting in the scheme being ignored and only the core economic areas and those of government significance receive protection and regulation. The strong enforcement of the system to the people who cannot afford to comply with the scheme requirements, on the other hand results in their exclusion to areas where they can go undetected, which are often the illegal informal settlement, peri-urban and slums (Watson, 2007).

Fernandes (2007) suggests that in the rural context, like Dududu Village, to avoid such unintended consequences as is the case in the urban context, the land regularisation and development control should bring together different aspects to ensure that the sustainability of public intervention (physical upgrading; legalisation; socio economic programmes intended at generating income and jobs; and cultural programmes to overcome the stigma associated with rural areas land systems) is achieved. This is a challenge facing the South African government in its endeavours of coming up with the most suitable form of planning systems to accommodate the vast rural areas that have been incorporated into the wall to wall municipalities (Berrisford and Kihato, 2008). Finding suitable planning systems to accommodate rural areas is particularly difficult because the traditional leadership structures have their own informal procedures of land use and development regulation, and the integration of these informal processes to the formal system is a rather complex and unclear one (Berrisford and Kihato, 2008).

The suitable land development regulation for the Ingonyama Trust Land that can unlock LED potential would need to first ensure efficiency, control and order of land.

It will have to begin by creating the physical framework of everyday life which must be strongly informed by the community of these areas and also take into consideration the current trend or direction of natural growth of these areas. The physical framework is important as Todes (2011) argues that it is eminent the value of good access to economic opportunities, minimised travel times and costs for particular groups of the poor plays a significant role in choosing a location in the economic hub and also the benefit that comes with the more peripheral locations such as larger space, lower costs and the possibility of other economic opportunities like rental and agriculture must be acknowledged. This will go a long way in ensuring Dududu Village fully benefits from its strategically central location in the context of Vulamehlo Municipality.

Secondly, the suitable land development regulation for the Ingonyama Trust Land that can unlock LED potential would need to be pro poor ensuring that the poor are not excluded from the system, considering the fact that the majority of rural community is poor. It is therefore important that Fernandes's (2007) suggestion that in demarcation of special zones of social interest that match the areas occupied by informal settlements has been effective in terms of keeping land and property values low, which allowed the original communities to remain on the legalised land. The land development regulation system for Dududu Village should not displace any member of the community from the land they occupy but rather embrace what Cousins (2009) refers to as mixed tenure regimes which are made up of variables of individual, family, sub-group and larger group rights and duties in relation to a range of natural resources.

The land development regulation for the Ingonyama Trust Land that can unlock LED potential would need to acknowledge Adams's, et al. (1999) argument that when it comes to rural livelihoods where communities rely mostly on local resources tenure security of tenure have a different meaning than that of urban areas. The system would have to guarantee the individual families that there will be no evictions without compensation; the capacity to improve their houses in order to be protected against

weather, thieves etc.; and the guarantee that their children will be able to inherit, sell or transfer the property (Cousin, et al., 1999). Such a system can only yield great results if it is designed in such a way that results are achieved over time through gradually adapting communal tenure as opposed to a simple replacement of customary systems with the western systems.

Lastly, land development regulation for the Ingonyama Trust Land that can unlock LED potential would need to form a basis for the implementation of local tax, land use and building control and the provision of basic infrastructure. The flexible ways of administering property rights which will enable it to accommodate individual and group rights, the rights of the middle class, business and poor people would also need to be taken into consideration. The Ingonyama Trust Board's ability to deliver land titles to the people in an accessible and user friendly manner; ability to deliver land titles that are not perceived as inferior and can be upgraded to full freehold; and ability to deliver social justice in relation to land reform and resource allocation would be of utmost importance (Cousin, et al., 1999). This will assist the municipality generate some revenue which could be redirected toward basic service delivery in the area.

Having considered all the aspect that the development regulation for the Ingonyama Trust Land that can unlock LED potential needs to address, the zoning scheme is then recommended but must be custom made to adapt to rural areas so that it is a rural zoning scheme. In implementing the wall to wall schemes there should be a clear distinction between the rural schemes and the urban schemes. In the case of Dududu village for instance, the scheme should take into consideration the income levels and people understanding of the whole concept of land use management. The stringent processes that are accompanied by higher fees should be limited to areas demarcated for commercial use only. In the cases of areas demarcated for residential or any other general use, a higher level strategic tool such as the spatial development should be enforced. This will bring the cost of administrating land use for residential use to the bare minimum whilst reaping maximum benefits for the commercial uses.

6.3.3. Key stakeholders in the administration of Ingonyama Trust Land

The key stakeholders in the administration of Ingonyama Trust Land have been identified to be the Ingonyama Trust Board, Inkosi (Traditional Leadership) and the municipality. A strong emphasis in the post 1994 government has been placed on community consultation ensuring that the community is roped in the development activities that occur in their areas. Furthermore, the government has been extending its hand to the private sector to partner with them in the implementation of LED.

It therefore recommended that the private sector and the community are considered as part of the key stakeholders in the administration of Ingonyama Trust Land. The community and the private sector play a critical role in the administration of the Ingonyama Trust Land as they are the ones who are immediately affected by it. The private sector is expected to invest in the Ingonyama Trust Land and therefore should be involved on the decisions taken on how the land is to be administrated. The community would be subjected to those administration procedures and would have to comply with them, and if there is no buy in from the community, there may be no compliance which would undermine the whole system.

This may be achieved through incrementally introducing the land use concept through the already existing community structure. Respondent 004 (10/11/2014) mentioned that there are structures such as ward committees and Operation Sukuma Sakhe war rooms that may be used as platforms for public awareness on land use management. There will therefore need to, be a thorough capacity building campaign for ward committees, Operation Sukuma Sakhe war rooms and tribal authority committee on the land use management. These structures can then cascade the knowledge to the general public.

6.3.4. Role of Key Stakeholders in the Economic Development of the Ingonyama Trust

It is clear from the designated roles of local government and the traditional leadership that the local municipality needs to play a leading role which is creating an environment that is conducive for LED to thrive in local areas, however, in the rural settings these roles are inescapably allied with traditional leadership structures.

This does not however down play the role that traditional leadership has to play in their area of jurisdiction. There is a strong and urgent need for an efficient and effective partnership to be formed between the Inkosi and Ward Councillor as they are the closest to the communities and the municipalities rely on them to identifying community needs and to communicate the spatial vision of the municipality with the community if LED is to thrive. Once the land use management system is in place it is conceivable that the day-to-day administration of the system will be performed by both the traditional leadership and the municipality. The land use management system should thus be designed to incorporate the role of both parties, further ensuring that all the parties have the same understanding.

It has already emerged that the role of Ingonyama Trust Board is limited to land tenure as the legally appointed custodians of traditional land in KZN, mostly concerned with the issuing of lease agreements and managing funds generated from the activities occurring on the land (Sapsford and Vaughan, 2005). The role of Ingonyama Trust Board should therefore be strongly interlinked with that of the local municipality and CoGTA – including their strategic plans which guide land use allocations and development in issuing the lease agreements the conditions of the lease agreement must be strongly influenced by the land use management system and therefore they should work closely with the local municipality on that front. It has emerged that minimal funds have are being received from the activities taking place on land in the rural areas and it has also been identified that the role of CoGTA has shifted toward a support role and that of being a funder. When the Ingonyama Trust Board receives a business plan for community development from the Inkosi, that plan

must have been developed together with the local municipality or has the municipality's comment. This is of particular importance because if the IDP, LED strategy, SDF and zoning schemes are in place the municipality would be in a position to advise the Inkosi where investment should go and what type of activity should take place there. When the Ingonyama Trust Board considers the business plans, CoGTA should be part of the committee that reviews these plans as a potential co funder of some of the community projects.

The private sector has a very important role to play in the economic development of Ingonyama Trust Land as Proches, Bodhanya and Hardman (2012) argue that the new mandate of LED should be to foster a process that involves government and / or community organisations making use of their resources in entering into agreements with the private sector for job creation and economy stimulation as a bottom line. The private sector is particularly critical when the municipality's development plans are developed to ensure that the situation of the municipality producing a development plan that is considered to be tedious by developers, the developers would most probably object to. Another situation that may occur is that the municipality may attempt to impose upon an unwilling developer a condition attached to the planning approval that is not supported by the development plan, the developer can lodge an appeal and most likely win it (Raemaekers, 2000). It is for this reason therefore that the private sector should be encouraged to actively participate in the development of strategic planning document of the municipality so that they can make an input as to where they would like to invest in the area and could have a say on how development regulation can be made more efficient.

As it has already been alluded to in the literature review, emphasis with regards to LED approaches is now on communities where across the globe policies and programmes that call for localities to exploit their comparative advantages are being initiated (Blakely and Leigh, 2012). Furthermore, attention should also be given to social resources such as health, housing, education and welfare conditions are improved for individuals, households and communities locally. It is for this reason that

the community should play a role in the economic development of Ingonyama Trust Land to ensure such issues are taken care of in the development plans that may be produced.

6.4. Recommendations for Future Studies

The research focused on discovering land development system that is most appropriate for unlocking LED potential in the Ingonyama Trust Land. Based on the research findings there are recommendations for future studies. To this end, a quantitative study can be conducted which will look at the cost benefit of land development regulation in rural areas for residential households. The study should go further to investigate the cost of land development regulation that the rural community will feel comfortable with. This will assist to set a sound foundation for the implementation of land development regulation in the rural areas.

6.5. Conclusion

The aim of the study was to examine, the kind of land development regulation needed in the Ingonyama Trust Land in order to unlock its Local Economic Development (LED) potential. The objectives of the study were to examine the most suitable land development regulation system for the Ingonyama Trust Land in unlocking LED potential; to examine the currently used land development regulation system in the Ingonyama Trust Land; and to determine the role of the key stakeholders in the land administration in the Ingonyama Trust Land.

Overall, the research demonstrated that there is a definite need for a land development regulation in the Ingonyama Trust Land. The South African land use management system which is implemented through the land use schemes has been identified as a suitable land development regulation for Ingonyama Trust Land. The recommendations have identified areas requiring attention to ensure that indeed the identified unlocks the LED potential through a localised version of standard wall to wall schemes..

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APPENDIX A: INFORMED CONSENT LETTER

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS AND LEADERSHIP

LEDResearch Project

Researcher: MalusiMzotho (039 688 5803)

Supervisor: Dr Jennifer Houghton (031 260 7429)

Research Office: HSSREC RO (Ms P Ximba 031 260 3587)

Dear Respondent,

I, Malsui Cryril Mzotho am a Masters in Commerce student, at the Graduate School of Business and Leadership, of the University of KwaZulu-Natal. You are invited to participate in a research project entitled, Unlocking Local Economic Development in the Ingonyama Trust Land through scheme development. The case of Dududu, KZN. The aim of this study is to examine the potential use of Ingonyama Trust land tenure systems and controls to stimulate Local Economic Development in the Dududu Village

Through your participation I hope to understand how the system currently works and how it can be improved. The results of the interview are intended to contribute to suitable strategies of stimulating LED through Ingonyama Trust Land.

Your participation in this project is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw from the project at any time with no negative consequence. There will be no monetary gain from participating in this survey/focus group. Confidentiality and anonymity of records identifying you as a participant will be maintained by the Graduate School of Business and Leadership, UKZN.

If you have any questions or concerns about completing the questionnaire or participating in the interview or focus group or about participating in this study, you may contact me or my supervisor at the numbers listed above.

The interview should take about 45 minutes to an hour. I hope you will take the time to participate in the interview.

Sincerely

Investigator"s signature _____ Date _____

This page is to be retained by the participant

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS AND LEADERSHIP

LEDResearch Project

Researcher: MalusiMzotho (039 688 5803)

Supervisor: Dr Jennifer Houghton (031 260 7429)

Research Office: HSSREC RO (Ms P Ximba 031 260 3587)

CONSENT

I.....(full names of participant)
hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research
project, and I consent to participating in the research project.

I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time, should I so desire.

SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT

DATE

.....

This page is to be retained by the researcher

APPENDIX B: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE: Unlocking of Local Economic Development in the Ingonyama Trust Land through scheme development. The case of Dududu, KZN.

Objective 1: To examine the most suitable land development regulation system for the Ingonyama Trust Land in unlocking LED potential.

1 How can land development regulation unlock LED potential in the tribal land?

- 1.1 What type of land / property ownership do you hold?
- 1.2 What procedure did you follow or is followed in acquiring land in Dududu?
- 1.3 What is the size of your site / property?
- 1.4 What are the current land rights attached to your property? **Probe:** what process was followed in acquiring them?
- 1.5 Do you think the land in Dududu has any economic potential? **Probe:** What / where are these economic potentials?
- 1.6 Are there any mechanisms in place to manage and protect the current and future land uses in Dududu?
- 1.7 Do you think the system used to manage / regulate land in Dududu is economical, environmentally friendly and socially responsive?
- 1.8 Where are the records of land use right and development to all the property kept?

Objective 2: To examine the currently used land development regulation system in the Ingonyama Trust Land.

2 What is the most suitable land development regulation needed in the Ingonyama Trust Land to unlock its Local Economic Development (LED) potential?

- 2.1 What do you think will be the most responsive land development regulation system to the diverse needs of a rural area like Dududu?
- 2.2 How should public participation be conducted or community engaged?
- 2.3 What property rights should be permitted, granted with consent and / or prohibited?

Land Use	Category	Permitted	Granted with Consent	Prohibited
Residential	Imizi (Traditional Households)	10	6	
	Izigodlo (Royal Palace)	11	5	
Livestock	Amakhaphelo (Grazing Land – Winter)	11	5	
	Amadlelo (Grazing Land –	11	5	

Land Use	Category	Permitted	Granted with Consent	Prohibited
	Summer)			
	Izinkampu (Fenced grazing fields)	11	5	
	Dipping Tanks	11	5	
Agricultural	Amasimu (Large Gardens)	16		
	Izivande (Household Gardens)	16		
	Commercial and Subsistence Farming	11	5	
Izigawu (Public Meeting places)	NA	11	5	
Izishozi (Dangerous lightning prone areas)	NA	11	5	
Burial	Household Burial System	11	5	
	Communal Burial System	11	5	
Conservation Areas	Amahlathi (Indigenous Forest)	11	5	
	Amagquma (Hills)	16		
	Imithombo & Iziphethu	16		
Community Facilities	NA	16		
Mineral Mining	NA		16	
Commercial	NA		16	

Objective 3: To determine the role of the key stakeholders in the land administration in the Ingonyama Trust Land.

3 Who are the key stakeholders in the administration of Ingonyama Trust Land?

3.1 Who is responsible for the allocation of land in Dududu?

3.2 Who grants / assigns property rights?

3.3 Who decides what type of land ownership is granted?

3.4 Who administers and manages the land?

3.5 Who does the day to day management and administration of the land?

3.6 Who manages Land Use Management in Dududu?

3.7 Who handles development applications in Dududu?

3.8 Who keeps the records of decision?

3.9 How is the spatial vision of Dududu village developed?

4 What role can each stakeholder play in the economic development of the Ingonyama Trust?

4.1 Where can the improvements be done in the land management and administration cycle of Ingonyama Trust Land in Dududu?

4.2 Who are the / should be the key stakeholders in creating an enabling environment for LED in the Ingonyama Trust Land? Probe: How or what role they should play?

4.3 Who should play the lead development role or be the developer?

APPENDIX C: ETHICAL CLEARANCE APPROVALS



25 July 2014

Mr Mkhosi Cyril-Innocent Mokohe 213572198
Graduate School of Business and Leadership
Westville Campus

Protocol reference number: HSS/0859/014M
Project title: Unlocking Local Economic Development in the Ingonyama Trust Land through land scheme development: The case of Durban, KZN.

Dear Mr Mokohe

Expedited Approval

In response to your application dated 21 July 2014, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the above-mentioned application and the protocol have been granted **FULL APPROVAL**.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the process/modify/modify prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

Please note: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 3 years.

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully


Dr Shrusika Singh (Chair)

/s/

cc Supervisor: Dr Jennifer Houghton
cc Academic Leader Research: Dr E Muzambi
cc School Administrator: Ms Eleni Mbevelwa

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

Dr Shrusika Singh (Chair)

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