Examining the Effectiveness of the Land Use Management Framework in Ntambanana Municipality

By

Thembeka Nsele

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Master’s Degree in Town and Regional Planning.

2016
DECLARATION

I, Thembeka Nsele hereby declare that the work on which this dissertation is my original work (except where acknowledgements are indicated otherwise) and that neither the whole work nor any part of it has been, is being, or is to be submitted for another degree in this or any other university.

Signature………………………………… Date…………………………………..
DEDICATION

Nomthandazo Mkhize, Lina Dlamini and Henrietta Mthiyane
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my gratitude to all those who made it possible for me to complete this thesis. I would like to thank GOD for instilling faith in me and showing me that anything is possible. My parents are my rock and always support and respect my decisions, including the decision I made to do a Master’s degree. I am forever grateful to them. I am deeply indebted to my supervisor Dr. Hangwelani Magidimisha, whose help, constructive criticism and encouragement helped me during the research and writing of this thesis. Furthermore, I would like to thank my other family members (Aunt Mumsy, Lungile, Siyanda, Zothile, uZanezinhle, Andile and Xolani) whose support never goes unnoticed.
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<tr>
<td>CBD</td>
<td>Central Business District</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COGTA</td>
<td>Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COJ</td>
<td>City of Johannesburg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DFA</td>
<td>Development Facilitation Act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECA</td>
<td>The Economic Commission for Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EPORA</td>
<td>Établissement Public foncier de l'Ouest Rhône-Alpes</td>
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<tr>
<td>FAO</td>
<td>Food and Agriculture Organisation</td>
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<td>GIS</td>
<td>Geographic Information Systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IDP</td>
<td>Integrated Development Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KZN</td>
<td>KwaZulu Natal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LDC</td>
<td>Least Developed Country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LUM</td>
<td>Land Use Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LUMF</td>
<td>Land Use Management Framework</td>
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<tr>
<td>LUMS</td>
<td>Land Use Management Systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MEC</td>
<td>Member of the Executive Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSA</td>
<td>Municipal Systems Act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLUP</td>
<td>Participatory Land Use Planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SALGA</td>
<td>South African Local Government Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SDF</td>
<td>Spatial Development Framework</td>
</tr>
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<td>SPLUMA</td>
<td>Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act</td>
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<tr>
<td>STATSSA</td>
<td>Statistics South Africa</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNDP</td>
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<td>Working Group on Environmental Auditing</td>
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ABSTRACT

Land use management in South Africa was historically used to racially and spatially segregate areas. Post-Apartheid, South Africa has had pressure to restore places and promote equality. Several legislative frameworks have been introduced to address past imbalances and create new urban spaces. Thus, all municipalities (including rural) have had to adhere to the Municipal Systems Act (2000), the Development Facilitative Act (1995) and the Spatial Planning and the Land Use Management Act of 2013 (SPLUMA), which is the most recent. Evidently, rural municipalities usually have more challenges when implementing land use management systems. This research examines the effectiveness of the Land Use Management Framework (LUMF) in Ntambanana Municipality. It further measures the community of Ntambanana against the normative concerns of Behrens and Watson (1996). The focus of the research is to access what impacts the land use management framework has had on the people of Ntambanana, with the intent to suggest solutions. The majority of the land within the municipality is traditionally owned, however the findings show that the municipality, together with the traditional leaders are still able to implement projects to improve land use management systems. Using both qualitative and quantitative research methods, in the form of interviews and questionnaires, the findings show that the community of Ntambanana has changed for the better since the implementation of the land use management framework. To avoid biasness, the local residents were selected at random and the municipal official and traditional leader were selected purposively to answer questions directly related to their duties within the municipality. The findings of the research also show that there is disintegration among the stakeholders (traditional authorities, the municipality, the councillors and the community). However, with a modification in policy and the participation of all stakeholders within the community, Ntambanana municipality has the potential to greatly improve land use management systems.
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Local government municipalities take on responsibilities of delivering services to its citizens and facilitating the development of an area and economic growth. Land is a scarce resource, not only in South Africa, and therefore the development of an area must be carefully planned and monitored to achieve health, safety, a pleasant living, and a conducive working environment. Therefore, Town and Regional Planning are a vital factor in ensuring the delivery of such local government services.

According to the City of Cape Town (2012: 6), “Land Use Management is necessary to ensure planning and development takes place in an ordered and structured way; facilitate a safe, healthy and pleasant built environment that is sustainable and balance the needs of communities and development with the protection of the natural and heritage built environment.” Land Use Management therefore includes putting together the policies, plans and development frameworks and implementing it through numerous control systems and procedures (The City of Cape Town, 2012). This is where the Spatial Development Framework (SDF) comes of assistance.

The SDF’s purpose is to guide decisions relating to the use, development, planning of land. The goal of the SDF is to achieve the desired spatial framework of the municipality, based on the vision of the development of the municipality and the available financial, environmental and land resources of the municipality (The Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, 2014). The SDF is also based on the environmental, social, and economic context of the municipality.

Very often, municipalities develop frameworks to assist them in achieving the objectives and visions of the IDP. Ntambanana Municipality adopted the Land Use Management Framework in 2009, hoping to assist all areas concerned with the physical development to manage the available capacity of bulk services in the municipality (Ntambanana Municipality, 2010). Furthermore, the framework was said to also assist in planning provision of future services. However, after the supposed implementation of the Land Use Management Framework, the IDP that followed still asserted on the issues of Land Use Management.

This study will therefore examine the effectiveness of the Land Use Management in Ntambanana Municipality. It will also examine the process of the Framework, especially with regards with community involvement. Furthermore, it aims at accessing how the traditional land ownership affect the process of
Land Use Management, while examining the relationship between the traditional custodians of land and the municipality. This study will also examine to what extent the Land Use Management Framework has fulfilled its intended purpose.

1.1 Problem Statement

According to Cengiz (2013: 1), “Irregular and unsound urban development is the common problem of all urban settlements today”. The community of Ntambanana has a small sparsely populated rural settlement that has emerged because of their location at an important junction, like the existence of formal and informal sector, shops, clinic, and taxi/bus stops. According to the Municipality’s IDP of 2014, this municipality has a lack of systematic or strategic location of economic community facilities. Corridors also have varying levels of mobility and access.

The IDP of 2014 also states that the municipality of Ntambanana which is geographically situated to the west of the Empangeni/Richards Bay axis, “is generally not adequately serviced by the health facilities, most notably in the traditional areas”. Consequently, the community of Ntambanana is primarily dependant on the provincial Hospitals of Ngwelezane and Empangeni Memorial War for health services. These health services are further away from the areas that are within the municipality of Ntambanana.

According to the SDF (2008/15), “Infrastructural service provision in the Municipality is inadequate, comparing to national standards, predominantly as a result of past policies and limited capital budgets available to redress shortcomings”. However, the SDF in accordance with the IDP (2014/15) was said to provide “a solid framework for the settlement pattern to be enhanced and integrated, land use management improved, social services to be provided in central localities”.

Another challenge facing this community is the traditional authorities that are the custodians of the land. The land use pattern in the traditional areas primarily encompasses small scaled agriculture, combined with small villages, and scattered human settlement. According to the IDP (2013) in these traditional areas “social services are provided in an unstructured manner and not in the best locality”. The most dominant economic activity in the municipality is sugarcane production; however, it is concentrated on privately owned land. The remaining land is agricultural and traditional and therefore not predominantly commercially motivated. According to the IDP (2013), the development of the agriculture sector is constrained by low skills base, access markets and lack of funding.

The IDP of 2014/2015 states that “Infrastructural provision in the Ntambanana area has historically been provided in a haphazard and unstructured manner”. Therefore, one of the objectives that is stated in the
IDP (2012-2017) is to provide infrastructure to address the backlogs to provide a balanced growth in a justifiable manner with the emphasis being on availability to basic services which need to be provided in a sustainable and affordable manner to the local communities.

1.2 Aim and objectives

1.2.1 Aim
To assess how effective, the Land Use Management Framework has been in Ntambanana Municipality.

1.2.2 Objectives
1. Main Objective: To determine the impacts that the Land Use Management Framework has had on the community of Ntambanana.
2. To assess community involvement in the process of the Land Use Management Framework.
3. To assess how the traditional land ownership affects the process of Land Use Management.
4. To examine the relationship between the traditional custodians of land and the municipality.
5. To examine to what extent the Land Use Management Framework has fulfilled its intended purpose.

1.2.3 Research Questions
1. What impacts has the Land Use Management had on the Municipality of Ntambanana?
2. What part did the community of Ntambanana have in the process of the Land Use Management Framework?
3. How has the traditional land ownership affected the process of Land Use Management?
4. What kind of relationship do the custodians of land have with the Municipality?
5. To what extent has the Land Use Framework fulfilled its intended purpose?

1.3 Background
Ntambanana Municipality is one of the six local municipalities under the uThungulu District Municipality (shown in map 1.1). Major towns that surround the area include Empangeni, RichardsBay and Eshowe. It is a rural municipality that sought physical development through the Land Use Management Framework implemented in 2009. This framework came about as the rural, local municipality wished to promote good governance and better management of the municipal area (Ntambanana Municipality, 2010). The Ntambanana SDF (2008: 62) “comprise of a plan depicting the various land use categories in an aerial,
linear and nodal format and a settlement hierarchy outlining the preferred hierarchy of settlements, their functions and typical engineering services.”

The SDF of 2008 had already implemented tools to guide and manage growth of the Ntambanana Municipality. However, according to the Ntambanana Municipality (2010: 1), “The SDF does not manage the relationships between various adjacent land uses, which can impact negatively on each other.” The SDF also does not assist in the management of services capacities within the municipality (Ntambanana Municipality, 2010). Therefore, the Land Use Management Framework was a tool to achieve what the SDF had overlooked. Its aim was to be of assistance in all departments concerning physical development. Furthermore, it aimed at ensuring that all development planning is done in a sustainable manner for future service provision by accounting for the municipality’s capacity needs.

This was achieved through assigning zonings to land uses to allow the municipality to build a better tax base, and adjust taxes to the impact a land use has on the environment (Ntambanana Municipality, 2010). Furthermore, the Municipality (2010: 1) states that “these taxes can then be utilised again to provide additional services, or maintain and improved existing infrastructure.” The Municipality of Ntambanana then hired a Town and Regional Planning company Sivest to review their current SDF. According to Sivest (2009: 6), “The reviewed Ntambanana SDF is to reflect the current reality within the Municipality whilst concurrently visually representing the municipal sanctioned vision; goals’ strategic intent and future development options.”

Some of the structural components that guided the review process include identifying the current spatial reality of the community; identifying the spatial location of the projects in the Municipality; indicating areas that need intervention in terms of sustainable development and aligning the SDF with the Land Use Management Systems (LUMS) (Sivest, 2009). The SDF, with the aim of focused expenditure, also entails several nodes for the insurance of economic growth.

This SDF included several nodes, with the aim of focussed expenditure, to ensure the economic growth of these areas. According to the Ntambanana Municipality (2010: 5), “The significance of these nodes for the Land Use Management Framework is that zonings will have to be developed for the various land uses within these nodes.” This might involve a single land use per category, or a single category to describe several land uses.
Map 1.1: Locality Map of Ntambanana Municipality

The locality map below shows the location of Ntambanana Municipality in the context of the uThungulu and other surroundings municipal Districts. Ntambanana municipality is located near two major cities in the uThungulu District; Richards Bay and Empangeni.

Source: Author (2016)

1.4 Rationale of Study

Land is the fundamental factor of various human uses and can also satisfy a range of objectives. Thus, according to the Working Group on Environmental Auditing (WGEA: 2013), the concept of land use refers to a series of activities done to generate one or more products or services. One piece of land may have several uses, and reciprocally, the same land use can occur on several pieces of land. Young (1998) asserts that the same parcel of land cannot be used for more than one object simultaneously, as this
generates competition between the different land-use activities for a piece of land. Several land management and land planning models and policies are based on the overexploitation of resources and on approaches that have little regard for ecological balances. Therefore, according to WGEA (2013: 12), “sustainable land use must be based on the proper management of all the land’s attributes and components”. Land use management is thus an important component in sustainable planning, conservation of land and the environment.

The FAO (1993) states that land use planning needs to be a decision process that eases allocation of land to the uses that deliver the ultimate sustainable benefits and to encourage the transition to integrated and sustainable management of land resources. The mismanagement of land use is not only an inconvenience on communities, but it also has detrimental effects for the environment. According to WGEA (2013), Environmental problems in land use are connected to an arrangement of numerous complex natural and human-induced phenomena. WGEA (2013: 15), “The transformation of natural and semi-natural ecosystems by deforestation, cultivation, urbanisation, intensification and mechanisation of agricultural practices, overexploitation of animal populations, global warming, desertification and general pollution are all direct and indirect causes of accelerated environmental degradation”.

1.5 Research Methodology
It is important for a researcher to follow a specific methodology when conducting a research. According to Hungler and Polit (2004: 233), “a methodology refers to the ways of obtaining, organising and analysing data”. In addition, a research methodology explains the sequence that the researcher follows to collect information. This section outlines and explains the different methods that were used in this study to collect data. It starts off by explaining the research methods that were used, the sampling strategy, data analysis, ethical considerations and concludes by discussing the limitations of the study.

1.5.1 Methodological Approach and Data Sources
This dissertation adopted both the Qualitative research and the Quantitative method (mixed methods). According to Creswell (2008: 9), “Mixed methods research is both a method and methodology for conducting research that involves collecting, analyzing, and integrating quantitative and qualitative research in a single study or a longitudinal program of inquiry”. The main aim of this methodology is that such integration allows a more complete and synergistic use of data than do separate quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis (Wisdom and Creswell, 2013). In this research, these methods were used to better understand the research problem by looking at the research questions from different perspectives and to clarify unexpected findings.
The focus of a qualitative research is to discover, understand explore, explain, and clarify perceptions, situations, values, beliefs, experiences, and attitudes of a group of people (Kumar, 2011). According to Creswell (2008: 11), “Qualitative data consists of open-ended information that the researcher usually gathers through interviews, focus groups and observations”. Therefore, the study design of this dissertation was based on rational and reasonable logic. Unlike in quantitative research, in qualitative research one does not try to narrow the magnitude of the study by developing a framework that the study is confined in. Instead qualitative research adopts inductive reasoning and the research problem becomes reformulated throughout the research process.

For the purpose of the study, qualitative method is the most suited because the research questions are based on people’s natural settings, observations, and experiences. According to Kumar (2011: 57), in qualitative research “you strive to maintain flexibility, openness and freedom to include any ideas or exclude any aspect that you initially included but later consider not to be relevant.” On the other hand, Quantitative data includes close-ended information such as that found to measure attitudes (e.g., rating scales), behaviours (e.g., observation checklists), and performance instruments (Wisdom and Creswell, 2013). Quantitative data is primarily exploratory research. This method assists in gaining an understanding of underlying explanations, motivations, and opinions.

1.5.1.1 Primary data

Primary data explains the problem specifically or/and is collected specifically for the research problem. The primary data in this study was collected, using surveys, interviews, mapping and direct observations.

a) Interviews

Interviewing is the most common qualitative research method of collecting information from people. There are several definitions of interviews. According to Kumar (2011: 144), “any person- to- person interaction, either face to face or otherwise, between two or more individuals with a specific purpose in mind is called an interview”. The unstructured or informal conversational interview according to Kitchin and Tate (2011: 215) “allows respondents to talk about a topic within their own ‘frame of reference’ and thus provides a greater understanding of the interviewees’ point of view”. This method was appropriate for this study because it allowed the respondents with the freedom to probe several areas and to raise queries during the interview process. The Interview medium of this dissertation included face-to-face meetings, answering questions over email and telephone interviews. The key informants of this study are the local councilor, a municipal official and a traditional leader.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OBJECTIVE</th>
<th>SUB-QUESTION</th>
<th>INFORMANT</th>
<th>DATA COLLECTION</th>
<th>DATA ANALYSIS</th>
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<tr>
<td>To determine the impacts the Land Use Management Framework has had on the community of Ntambanana.</td>
<td>What impacts has the Land Use Management Framework had on the Municipality of Ntambanana?</td>
<td>Local Residents</td>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>Thematic Analysis</td>
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<tr>
<td>To assess community involvement in the process of the Land Use Management Framework.</td>
<td>What part did the community of Ntambanana have in the process of the Land Use Management Framework?</td>
<td>Local Councillor and the Residents</td>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>Pattern Exploration and Elaboration</td>
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<tr>
<td>To assess how the traditional land ownership affects the process of Land Use Management.</td>
<td>How has the traditional land ownership affected the process of Land Use Management?</td>
<td>Municipal official and Traditional Leader</td>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>Thematic Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To examine the relationship between the traditional custodians of land and the municipality</td>
<td>What kind of relationship do the custodians of land have with the Municipality?</td>
<td>Municipal official and Traditional Leader</td>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>Direct Quotations and Elaboration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To examine to what extent the Land Use Management Framework has fulfilled its intended purpose.</td>
<td>To what extent has the Land Use Management Framework fulfilled its intended purpose?</td>
<td>Local Residents</td>
<td>Questionnaires</td>
<td>Microsoft Excel Coding</td>
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*Source: Author (2016)*
b) Questionnaires
This form of quantitative methods was used to measure the attitudes and behaviours of the residents towards the Land Use Management Framework and its process. Questionnaire surveys were given to the residents that have lived in the study area for more than 10 years. The data obtained from the questionnaires was based on the respondents’ observations and the changes they have observed in the area since the land use management framework was implemented. The criteria that the questions were based upon are poor, fair, good, and excellent. Furthermore, in the questionnaire, Behrens and Watson’s layout principles were used as a guide to measure the effectiveness of the land use management framework.

1.5.1.2 Secondary Data
Secondary data gives one ease of acquisition, providing a sound theoretical framework in understanding the research problem, and is easily analysed. Under the category of secondary data sources, tools that were of use for the research process were mainly books, journals and governments publications (IDP and SDF). The SDF and the IDP was examined in relation to the document produced by the municipality “Land Use Management Framework”. The use of GIS was utilized to show the areas of focus. The internet was also utilized to access literature relating to the topic and the public government papers.

1.5.2 Sampling
The population of Ntambanana Municipality totals to 74 336 (Stats SA, 2011). Out of the total population, only 25 people were interviewed. Three people from the sample were the key informants. All the interviewees were within the age group of 18-60. The study balanced out gender views by interviewing 11 males and 11 females. The same people being interviewed were also asked to fill in a questionnaire.

The study made use of a probability sampling method which is Random Sampling. Probability Sampling according to Kitchin and Tate (2011: 12), “is based on the idea that people or events that are chosen as the sample are chosen because the researcher has some notion of the probability that these will be a representative cross-section of people or events in the whole population being studied”. With this method, each member of the population had an equal chance at being chosen. An aerial photograph of the community was used to pick the different houses where interviews were conducted. Numbers were assigned to the houses at random.

1.5.3 Data Analysis
Thematic analysis was used to analyse the data obtained. Braun and Clarke (2006: 6) define thematic analysis as “a method for identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data”. The themes selected were associated with the research questions of the study and were used as categories for analysis.
This was done to make sense of the data collected and to highlight the important messages, features or findings. Direct quotes were extracted to support statements made in the study. A report on data was used to make arguments about the findings, and interpretations followed thereafter. Microsoft excel was used to code the questionnaire results. The findings were then synthesised to craft conclusions of the study.

1.5.4 Ethical Considerations

Ethical clearance was issued out by the UKZN Research Ethics Committee and only then was the information for the study collected. The researcher took the responsibility to protect the respondents as it is a moral obligation to consider the rights of the respondents. Thus, the researcher issued out an informed consent form which stated that respondents have a right to withdraw at any time during the interview, should they feel uncomfortable. Furthermore, the confidentiality and anonymity of the respondents were protected in the analysis by not mentioning any names. During the interview with the traditional leader, the researcher was required to wear a head wrap and dress to show respect to the elders.

This research was carried out in accordance to the following principles:

- Honesty
- Respect of intellectual property
- Non-discrimination
- Objectivity
- Human subject protection

1.5.4.1 Informed Consent Form

The researcher notified the members about the motivation behind the study, how the information will be gathered, and how it will be utilised. The community members were informed about what is expected from them, their required involvement and it was emphasised that their participation in the study is voluntary. Before any information was gathered, the respondents and the researcher both signed an informed consent form stipulating such concerns.

1.5.5 Limitations

The main challenges experienced during data collection were people’s unwillingness to participate in the study and transport problems.

i. Unwillingness to participate in the study

Some people were reluctant to participate in the study because they mainly ‘do not trust people asking questions, taking notes and pictures’. People felt like they were giving away some of their possessions
when asked to signed the consent form. This problem was overcome by thoroughly explaining the purpose of the research and opening a platform for the respondents to raise whatever concerns they may have. Additionally, the researcher gave a chocolate bar as a token of appreciation to every participant that successfully participated.

    ii. Transport Constraints

The area of Ntambanana is geographically challenged when it comes to transport. Taxis are available when coming back from there, but they only go to Empangeni CBD. Buses are more common and efficient in the area, so when going their people prefer taking the bus. Thus, taxis take too long to get full and the bus becomes the only option. The researcher had to go the transport office in Empangeni to confirm the bus times and then make appointments based on those times.

1.5.6 Summary

This chapter has introduced the study and the methodology that was used to meet the study objectives. It has also looked at the background of the study in the context of the study area; Ntambanana Municipality. Going a little further, the chapter also outlined the structure of the whole dissertation. It concluded by outlining the challenges encountered in the field during data collection and how researcher overcame these challenges.

1.6 Research Outline

    Chapter 1: Introduction and Research Methodology

This chapter presents the general outline of the research; the background, rationale, and motivation of the study. This chapter also discusses the research methodology describing the way the research was conducted, methods of primary and secondary data collection, and the analysis of the data. Furthermore, it discusses the problems encountered during data collection.

    Chapter 2: Literature Review and Precedent Case Studies

This is where relevant bodies of literature are explained and their relevance to the study highlighted. The need for research and its contribution towards already existing work is also explained. Precedent studies are also included in this chapter and their application with the study and South Africa are explained.

    Chapter 3: Theoretical and Conceptual Framework

The theoretical framework outlines the theories that apply and are relevant to the study. The conceptual framework defines and explains key concepts used in the study. This chapter outlines the modernisation theory and the theory of collaborative planning and its relevance to the study.
Chapter 4: Research Findings, Data Analysis, and Interpretation

The data gathered from the field is analysed in this chapter. However, this chapter first discusses the study area, and gives a general background of the area and its socio-economic status. The responses and results from the questionnaires and interviews are then analysed. With the data interpreted from the findings, conclusions are made.

Chapter 5: Summary of Findings, Conclusion, and Recommendations

This chapter revisits the research question and hypothesis, and provides recommendations which are influenced by the findings obtained from fieldwork. It sums up the findings of the dissertation and provides recommendations that not only the municipality of Ntambanana can use but other municipalities as well. It also concludes the whole study.
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND PRECEDENT CASE STUDIES

2.1 Introduction

Land is the fundamental factor of land use management or planning. Davidson (1992: 12) states, “Globally, about 770 billion hectares of land are cropped intensely at 78%, which means that an annual harvested area is about 600 million hectares”. Davidson (1992: 14) also notes that “the expansion of arable land, along with increases in cropping intensities, will account for about 40% of the growth in production and to achieve required production levels for 2000”. Therefore, global resources of land need to be continually updated in accordance to adequate provision of food in response to better environment resource data and in respect to the effect of environmental change on land resources.

The purpose of a literature review is to demonstrate one’s knowledge about the field of study. A literature review also informs about the influential researchers and research groups in the field. Furthermore, it also aims at looking at debates, loopholes, and critics of a subject. A literature review draws lessons from precedent case studies in all contexts; international, national, and local.

This chapter of Literature review will first look at Land Use Management and the dynamics around Land Use Management systems. Furthermore, it will then draw on precedent case studies at an international level, in both developed and developing countries. It will look at the main issues, policy framework and background of those case studies. Going further, this section will use the same format looking at national and local precedents. Lastly, and most importantly, lessons from the international case study will be drawn and applied to South Africa.

2.1.1 What is Land Use Management?

Land use management is a process whereby the usage of land is defined, land is developed and the activities occurring on land are structured. Berrisford and Kihato (2008), in locating land use management activities suggest that the broad concept of planning can be differentiated into two parts. One part involves activities that “geared towards shaping development over a period” such as the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) and activities that implement strategic plans. According to Berrisford and Kihato (2008: 383), “These implementing and monitoring instruments include various legal and regulatory mechanisms used to regulate land development and land uses, including zoning schemes, and these are ‘also known as land use management systems’".
Bekte et al. (1999: 1), define Land Use Management as an “iterative process based on the dialogue amongst all stakeholders aiming at the negotiation and decision for a sustainable form of land use in rural areas as well as initiating and monitoring its implementation”. The fundamental aspect of the LUM process is the negotiation amongst all the involved parties to reach a common goal based on a consensus. This negotiation process is aimed at developing planners’ capacities and to sustain a co-operative relationship at local level. According to Bekte et al. (1991: 5), “A major task of land use planning is to accompany and motivate the participants and those affected in order to attain a conciliation of interests concerning land resources, types and extent of land use”.

Participants in land use planning are direct and indirect land users, as well as those affected by the consequences of land use activities. Another group is formed by people who often have political or economic influence; this includes authorities, organisations, middlemen and women and processing industries for agricultural products. However, the most important target group in land use planning is made up of the direct land users.

Gorgens and Stevens (2004) emphasise that, “land use management should be understood as a single component in a wider land governance system, which establishes the regulatory framework which governs access to land, land rights, land use, and land development”. However, Enemark and McLaren (2008) seem to disagree with this notion as they put forward their perceptions of what an ideal land use management system should be structured. Enemark and McLaren’s (2008: 16) argument is that “the various sectoral interests are balanced against the overall development objectives for a given location and thereby form the basis for regulation of future land-use through planning permissions, building permits and sectoral land use permits according to the various land-use laws”. Such decisions are founded upon the significant land use data and are therefore reflected by the spatial consequences for the land and the people.

This process is of high importance as it allows people to understand the existence of the land administration functions and their relation to the country’s policy decisions and its historical circumstances. The land governance paradigm also provides a basis to simplify the process of incorporating new needs into traditionally-organised systems compromising the fundamental security that these systems provide (Enemark and McLaren’s, 2008). For land management to be solid, operational process are required to implement land policies that are comprehensive and sustainable. In principle, it can then be ensured that implementation will happen in support of sustainable development (Enemark and McLaren’s, 2008).
Enemark and McLaren (2008) present their fundamental principles on which a global approach to land-use management is based upon. These principles include decentralisation, comprehensive planning and participation. According to Enemark and McLaren (2008), decentralisation is “where the purpose is to solve the tasks at the lowest possible level so as to combine responsibility for decision making with accountability for financial, social, and environmental consequences”. Participation serves as a platform to broaden understanding of the necessity for planning regulations and allow for a local based negotiation between the local government and the people around development opportunities. Comprehensive planning ought to combine the overall land use policies and land-use regulations into one planning document covering the entire authority (Enemark and McLaren, 2008).

2.1.2 Land Dynamics

According to the KZN Planning Commission (2013: 14), “A land use management system plays an important role in promoting sustainable development that does not negatively affect the quality of land”. Several studies have highlighted the significance of the quality of land for various land uses (Davidson, 1992; Weller, 1979; Montgomery, 2000). Therefore, it is vital that all countries with land use management systems take this into account. Davidson (1992: 25) states, “Almost one-half of the soil in the world with good physical and biological potential are already in use and there is a dire need for increasing productivity from such areas”.

The overusing, misuse and mismanagement of land have dreadful consequences, which eventually lead to the deficiency or failure to implement Land Use Management Systems (LUMS). These consequences also lead to environmental deterioration, over-cultivation, and over-exploitation. The ever-growing population growth lead to misappropriate use and exhaustion of natural resources. Critical manifestations of these consequences are deforestation and over-grazing, all of which lead to loss of soil fertility, erosion, desertification, or other forms of dereliction (Lovejoy, 1979).

Weller (1979) raises the question of whether agriculturists should determine the nature of the rural landscape and whether food production should have the traditional right of utilising as much rural land as the traditional custodians think they should. However, Montgomery (2000) advances to this notion as he states that increased levels of consumption by society and changes in sociopolitical organisations and technology frequently contribute to land degradation. Rural areas under poverty and environmental degradation characterise the traditional land tenure beyond the threshold of sustainability (Montgomery, 2000). Furthermore, Montgomery (2000) asserts that if such a situation continues, there are predictions for certain important natural resources being confirmed exhausted beyond their sustainability capacity.
2.1.3 Land-Use Management in Rural Regions

The urban land use management issue is well acknowledged, however development and planning issues in rural areas are just as important. According to Enemark and McLaren (2008: 12), “Rural planning systems are complicated by separate systems of sectoral planning which manage resources such as soil quality, landscape qualities, raw materials and water accessibility”. In most cases, such interests are given are the main concern, with zoning of areas is set aside for extraction of raw material, agriculture, or special natural areas.

All municipalities are required to have a scheme. According to SPLUMA (2013), “A land use scheme is a tool used by municipalities to guide and manage development according to the vision, strategies and policies of the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) and Spatial Development Framework (SDF), and in the interests of the general public to promote sustainable development and quality of life”. However, there is a measure of planning and development control over what happens within rural areas (Lang, 2012).

The challenge in constructing schemes for the entire rural municipal areas is the national Department of Agriculture’s veto on the implementation of schemes outside the previous Transitional Local Council authority boundaries (Lang, 2012). This places a challenge in the municipality’s ability to manage the use of farmland. According to Lang (2012: 10), “The general lack of meaningful integration of traditional authority roles and functions with those of municipalities in the use of land in traditional areas also means that these areas remain without meaningful and coordinated land use management. Lack of land use management puts strain on the planning and implementation of the municipality’s SDF’s and IDP’s.

2.1.4 Traditional authorities and Land Use Management

Historically, all the land that was occupied by a certain tribe was vested in the chief and was managed by the chief as head of the tribe. The chiefs monitored the circulation and use of land in their respective areas and could only allocate land to members of his own tribe. However, according to Hugh (2004: 50), “the land did not belong to the chief; he only administered the land on behalf of his people”.

The role of traditional leaders might be recognised in many countries; however, they are still not effectively systematised. The institutions within traditional leaders vary in nature, but most countries, especially in Southern Africa possess similar features regarding the state of their traditional leadership institutions. Countries such as Botswana, Namibia, Zimbabwe, and South Africa do recognise, in their constitutions, the existence and importance of the institution of traditional leadership (Shabangu & Khalo, 2008). According to the KZN Planning Commission (2013: 19), “In these countries, the institution of traditional leadership is intended to co-exist and work in harmony with democratically elected structures such as municipalities”.
In KwaZulu-Natal, traditional council areas are diverse in terms of land use management practices, leadership, and tenure arrangements. The Planning Initiative Team (2005) states that some traditional areas include privately owned land and may include commercial, subsistence agriculture, and such differences across the province suggest that planners must deal with each traditional power on a case-by-case basis. The municipal Demarcation Act of 1998 has allowed for the incorporation of traditional areas into wards as part of continuous arrangements. However, rural areas already have ‘izigodi’ (wards) and the sizes of these wards cannot be measured, because their boundaries are not formally demarcated but are common knowledge of the local people (Ntuli, 2003). According to the KZN Planning Commission (2013: 19), “Traditional wards are usually smaller than the demarcated municipal wards, and it is possible that several izigodi (wards) can be found in one municipal ward”.

2.1.5 Traditional Authorities on Development in Local governments

Traditional authorities that normally observe the customary law system in municipal areas tend to participate through their leaders in those municipal areas. According to Hugh (2004: 50), “Although traditional leaders have representation, they cannot vote on any issue no matter whether the issue in question affects them.” The main difference between local government councils and traditional leaders is that they are elected politicians and are appointed through their own systems, respectively. Despite the existing differences, both parties do their best to work together and promote a better life for the people (Hugh, 2004). Furthermore; Hugh (2004) states that relationships will depend on the government’s political willingness to transform and recognise traditional leadership.

Traditional authorities having an obligation to govern their respective communities and this dates to pre-colonial times. The association of traditional leadership was the highest form of government. Even in colonial times and apartheid, traditional authorities still had power over their communities. However, this power of control changed when the colonial authorities introduced their power to the landscape of traditional governance. According to South African History (2014), by the 19th century (colonial period), the traditional leaders were subject to the indirect rule, where they became the agents of the colonial authorities. The power of traditional leaders then decreased as they depended on the colonialists for power and resources, thus taking orders on the administration and control of their communities.

According to Rugege (2004: 174), “Traditional leaders, both chiefs and headmen, still have the powers and functions accorded to them under colonialism and apartheid in terms of various pieces of legislation”. However, in post-apartheid times, their power is not as effective as it was in pre-colonial times. This was passed by the Black Administrative Act, which established a system of hierarchal local government in rural areas. The functions of the Black Administrative Act include maintaining, managing, and
conducting education institutions and health facilities: afforestation and improving farming and agricultural methods generally (Regege, 2004).

However, the powers granted to traditional authorities were rather extensive as it was observed that traditional leaders were never fully equipped to execute the functions set by the act. Regege (2004: 175), “Under the Constitution, such powers and functions are the responsibility of the national and provincial governments and may be assigned to municipalities under section 156 of the Constitution”. According to Regege (2004), conflict arises when there is an overlap in powers and functions of traditional leaders and the elected local government. The debate centers on the fact that it is the same traditional functions that were used to oppress people in the apartheid era; however, there is no reason for the purely administrative functions should be abandoned.

According to Lutz and Linder (2004: 2), “In developing countries the state is often weak and the penetration of the state in rural areas has been poor”. Decentralisation in these cases is not only about shifting power and resources to the local level and making local authorities more effective. The lack of intervention by the state does not mean that there is no form of political and social organisation at local level. In the rural areas of many developing countries with a weak presence of the state, traditional structures survived the colonial as well as the post-colonial period, and people maintained their traditional forms of social organisation (Litz and Linder, 2004). Therefore, traditional authorities have always had a significant role in many countries and still do.

2.1.6 The Relationship of Traditional Authorities and Municipalities

The common notion that traditional leaders in South Africa are the local government stems from the role that they have played and still play in several African societies today. Traditional structures may vary in different places; however, their common thread is based upon the role they have played in societies. Traditional authorities have been the custodians of culture, ancestral and communal land; the architects of development activities in their areas and have played a huge role when it comes to law and order in their areas of authority. The Economic Commission for Africa (ECA, 2007: 19), states that “It is this historical role of local governance by traditional leaders, which forms the background to the relationship between the state and traditional leaders regarding local governance in South Africa and elsewhere in the region today”.

The Municipal Structures Act (1998) has a provision for the participation of recognised traditional authorities in council meetings. However, the Councilors’ Code of Conduct binds them; they do not have voting rights and do not become councilors (SALGA, 2012). Therefore, there should not be situations where there are discussions without traditional leaders as have a right to participate in all council
meetings. Nonetheless, an appropriate question to pose in such a situation is; does the participation of traditional leaders in these meetings mean that the two systems of governance have equal authorities?

According to the ECA (2007: 20), “An examination of both the enabling legislation and concerns of traditional leaders on the ground indicate that this is not the case and never was intended to be”. Therefore, the traditional leaders’ presence in these meetings does not mean that they have equal authorities with the more formal system (municipality). The system was designed to be hierarchal. The ECA (2007) further argues that even though authority and power of the state in the form of the District and Municipal Councils cut across geographical space, that of traditional leaders was limited to those areas with Traditional Councils according to Section 21 (2) of the 2003 Communal Land Rights Act.

According to SALGA (2008: 1), “The fact that traditional leaders participate in rural and urban councils creates its own dynamics and municipalities often require assistance in this regard”. The government has made substantial allowances to the inertia of the past by legally and constitutionally recognising them despite of their disgraceful history with the previous apartheid regime. Nevertheless, according to the ECA (2007: 20) traditional leaders recognise that “the partnership is less than equal and moreover because of the schism between that policy and practice there has been an unintended consequence in the form of intensifying the competition between the two systems of governance”. SALGA (2008: 2) assert that “since its fusion into the democratic local government system, the role and place of the institution of traditional leadership in municipalities has been fraught with tension, confusion and contradictory practices”. This is because of the countless enquiries that municipalities send to SALGA about traditional leaders (SALGA, 2008).

The KwaZulu Natal Provincial Gazette (2013) sets out how a relationship between traditional authorities and the government should be. The KZN Provincial Gazette (2013: 6) states that a municipality and traditional leaders should:

1. “recognise and Respect
   - The local sphere of government as a distinctive, interdependent, and interrelated sphere of government as envisaged and provided for in the Constitution; and
   - Their respective status, roles, powers and functions as organs of the state within the local sphere of government”.

2. “co-operate with one another in mutual trust and good faith by
   - Fostering sound working relations with one another;
   - Assisting and supporting one another in the execution of their roles and responsibilities;
Developing a communication strategy and mutually agreed upon protocols for information sharing, co-ordination, and consultation purposes; and

Adopting mutually agreed upon procedures and internal dispute resolution mechanisms”.

2.1.7 Community Participation

The planning systems considerably vary throughout the world. These systems tend to be based on cultural and administrative development and geographical conditions. Planning systems that are efficient should be able to use effective means of land use control to implement land-use policies that are required currently. Such actions include public participation which according to Enemark and McLaren (2008: 5), “should serve as a means to create a broader awareness and understanding of the need for planning regulations and enable a dialogue between government and citizens around the management of natural resources and the total urban and rural environment”. Ultimately, this negotiation should legitimise the local decision making.

The political decision on land use control activities will not be justly legitimate if local citizens are not directly involved. People who are not involved in influencing change to their surrounding environments are more likely to reject the official land use control processes and turn their backs on seeing through to their sustainable local environment. Lack of transparency and participation could also eventually lead to an increase in illegal development and corruption. Therefore, according to Enemark and McLaren (2008: 12), “it is essential that citizens / communities have a genuine opportunity to have a say (a dynamic process of dialogue) on a development plan or proposal which affects them and that officials and politicians listen to what they say and reach a decision in an open and transparent way, taking account of all views expressed”. Furthermore, hard decisions may be easier to be accepted by the involved stakeholders, if the procedure has ensured inclusivity and transparency.

The partnership model below (figure 2.1) indicates what community centered development can achieve. The figure illustrates that a community that plans and makes decisions together, can also benefit together. Furthermore, the participation process shows dignity to the poor and achieves sustainability. Furthermore, this is advantageous as people have control over their affairs and form a permanent partnership.
2.1.8 How can community participation be achieved?

McLaren (2007) identifies the key five stages of community engagement during the process of land use control and all stages require access to decent land information:

- Citizens must be made aware of development proposals that may affect them in any way. Furthermore, citizens must be notified of such plans as early in the process as possible.
- Community members must have the information to allow them to contribute to the discussions.
- Community members must be given the opportunity to engage.
- After voicing their opinions, people must obtain clear explanations of why and how choices were made and
- Citizens must be given the on-going opportunity to safely report and check incidents of potential illegal development as part of a self-regulating and participatory system.

According to Enemark and McLaren (2008: 12), “The traditional approaches to encouraging citizen participation use communication channels such as newspapers, leaflet drops and posters in government buildings, involve workshops or door to door discussions, only provide traditional paper based information on the development proposal, support written submissions and seldom provide citizens with the rationale behind decisions”. However, such methods are very labour intensive and have been unsuccessful in increasing the number of people engaging to consensus levels within communities.
2.2 Precedent Case Studies

Precedents are an essential part of a literature review as they assist in deriving research variables. In this part of the research, an earlier precedent of an element will be taken and regarded as examples. Lessons of success and unsuccessful stories will be referred to and applied to the study. This section will look at case studies at an international, national, and local level. The international case study that will be discussed is about land use management with unfavourable consequences on the people of St. Etienne Metropole in France. The second case study is a success story of a rural community of Lao PDR, that practiced community participation. Land use management in South Africa will also be discussed, along with the recent legislation of planning, SPLUMA. The national case study of Johannesburg, about addressing past imbalances will also be included.

2.2.1 St. Étienne Métropole (France)

According to Engelke and Biehl (2010), “St. Étienne is a city of 175,000 inhabitants integrated in an urban centre of 400,000 inhabitants”. The population of both the city region and the city has been declining slowly during the past 40 years, and continues to decline (Provan, 2016), as shown in figure 2.2. It has been claimed that the city “invented everything- the tramway bicycles, the railway, supermarkets, the railway and supermarkets” (Provan, 2016). The foundation stone of the city’s success was the flourish in heavy industry with mines, arms, and iron factories.

Figure 2.2 Graph showing the rise and fall of St Etienne’s population (1809- 2012)

Source: Provan (2016: 7)
However, a huge economic crisis strokes the local industry from 1970 until 1990 (Engelke and Biehl, 2010). This economic decline had unfavorable social and urban consequences. According to Engelke and Biehl (2010: 1), “Many households were affected by unemployment but the most severe social decline concerned people with a low qualification level. Especially migrants had to face these difficulties”. Provan (2016: 12) is coordinated with this notion as he states that “The whole period served to marginalise local economic actors and, in fact, explicitly set out to undermine their rear-guard fight to preserve old production systems in the face of radical, sweeping, world-wide changes”. The attractiveness of the city declined and middle-income families moved away from the city to the suburbs, to live in one single dwelling.

Map 2.1 A map of St. Etienne metropole

The map below shows the city of St. Etienne metropole (a French urban community) and its surrounding urban areas. It is neighboured by a number of transport networks and other urban communities.

Source: Google Maps (2016)
Map 2.2 Map of St. Etienne metropole within France

The map below illustrates the location of St. Etienne metropole within the country of France. It also shows a number of main places around France.

Source: Google Maps (2016)

According to Provan (2016: 16), “In order to pave the way for the new ‘clusters’ a state-supported agency (EPORA) was created in 1998 to manage the redevelopment of brownfield sites across the region, directly affecting a population of over 2.5 million people”. The funds invested in this initiative have allowed to seek solutions for polluted lands and to sell them at a competitive price to accelerate their re-generation (Lumasec, 2008). When a new national structure was set up to accelerate urban renewal in the city centre, EPASE oversaw the redevelopment. EPORA still prioritises city centres, ex-industrial sites and formerly damaged agricultural and natural sites. According to Provan (2016: 16), “The work is planned through a board with a majority of local elected councilors, as well as nominated central, regional and departmental representatives, industry and professional organisations, farmers and artisans”.

In 2005, a new national public structure has been set up to accelerate the urban regeneration of the core city centre, which targeted the redevelopment of central districts (Engelke and Biehl, 2010). The authors
further state that vacant habitations were pulled down in the social housing district located at the city centre periphery. The city implemented rebuilding projects to offer new housing to families who live in unfavorable conditions. According to Engelke and Biehl (2010: 7), “The objective is also to attract new resident to these neighborhoods like first owners’ households by proposing low cost, high quality housing”. Another goal of the city is to limit urban sprawl because of its negative consequences on development, such as social segregation, modification of landscape quality and increase of car transport demand.

2.2.1.1 Land Use Issues in the Region

At the end of these operational tools, land uses challenges remained. The termination of sectoral interventions and the birth of an integrated land use strategy was necessary. According to Engel and Biel (2010), another challenge in this city is “to improve the linking of land use planning, urban planning and operational projects in order to be able to build up housing and to develop jobs in urban centres characterised by quality, diversity and density”. Furthermore, the recycling of the urban brown fields still needs to happen. Land use management needs to develop on a larger scale. Lumasec (2010: 4) states that “effects in the field of brownfield recycling depend on urban sprawl organisation or limitation”. Engel and Biel (2010) assert that “the space consumption has been important in the urban St. Étienne region even if the demographic context has not been dynamic (between 1999 and 2005, 440 hectares have been consumed by new urbanisation)”.

2.2.1.2 Land Use Strategy

The elaboration of an integrated land use strategy was at the heart of the Local Action Plan elaborated by St. Étienne Métropole, political institution of inter-municipal cooperation grouping 43 municipalities. According to Lumasec (2008: 5), all these 43 municipalities “have accepted to share strategic competences to Saint-Étienne Metropole: economic development, housing, waste collect and treatment, public transport, spatial and strategic planning”. The use of GIS assisted in the identification of the urban-brown and economic fields and the largest extension areas of residential and economic development. A situational and site analysis was submitted to determine the region’s strategic characteristics.

The land strategy involves articulating the regulatory tools and financial resources (Lumasec, 2010). According to Engel and Biehl (2010: 3), ‘In a context of limited public budgets, strategic approach is therefore based on an understanding of land markets (land observatory, watch on pending sales), an appropriate use of all existing tools (regulatory, financial, negotiation, agreements) and a formal framework for partnership with local owners and operators operating on the territory (target agreement).
2.2.1.3 Outcomes

The local action plan allowed for reinforcement of a dialogue between the St. Etienne region’s services. Furthermore, it allowed a chance to develop GIS on land use aspects locally, as operational projects are documented into GIS. According to Lumasec (2010: 7), “the Local Action Plan has permitted to show at the local elected officials the necessity to adopt an integrated land use policy”. Nevertheless, the precedent has revealed that challenges in land use management still exist.

There is a lack of public-private partnership in land use management (Lumasec, 2010). The partnership between the public and private sector is not fully developed in the governance process in land use management. Sometimes the municipality would be successful in bringing co-operation between property landowners concerned by a future urbanisation and politicians would try to negotiate with the land custodians the calendar for the urbanisation aiming at optimising the infrastructure project (Engel and Biehl, 2010). One of the reasons that account for the lack of private land custodian’s mobilisation is the circumstance that the owner of the land will not be the developer. Furthermore, the process decisions that the private sector reaches, is not shared with the public.

According to Engel and Biehl (2010: 4), “The institutions in charge of regional spatial planning, but also the institutions in charge of operational actions, ask for a land use management but they fail to involve political local authorities”. Even though, every political local authority agrees with the general standard to elaborate a global land use strategy, the operational pressure result to the land use action to set up projects being given priority, instead of elaborating a global land use strategy (Lumasec, 2010). Land use is not seen as a tool on its own, but rather it is considered as related to operational projects.

2.2.1.4 Conclusions

Provan (2016: 47) asserts that “The city is within walking distance of some exceptional areas of natural beauty and leisure opportunities, giving it the potential to change its image and market itself as a great place to live and work”. For a long time, there has been a critical float of more well-off inhabitants moving out to rural and provincial groups where they can live in high quality but cheap housing in areas with excellent characteristics of natural beauty. This pattern undermines the wider goals of drawing in more working families to live in the city centre, providing a balance to the low income and progressively aging population. Nevertheless, the strong combined planning controls of the Metropole are gradually slowing, if not yet reversing, this process (Provan, 2016). Therefore, the promotion of nature should be all the way more clearly connected to repopulation and urban densification.

Saint Étienne displays various paradoxes and inconsistencies. The city has a background marked by talented modern make, however the nearness of these enterprises has scarred the city. Their decrease has
prompted to serious financial and social issues, and a poor picture and notoriety broadly as a revolting postindustrial city. Then again, the city's modern legacy and legacy is helping the city to reconstruct its picture and capacity around the profitable and financially effective thought of a "visionary workshop".

2.2.2 A Case Study of Lao PDR

Lao PDR is a developing country located in the South East of Asia. This country is known for its unique ethnic and environmental diversity. The UNDP (2007: 3) states that, “Lao PDR is unique for its ethnic and environmental diversity. In recent years, Lao PDR has achieved impressive economic growth, which has been amongst the fastest in Southeast Asia”. Lao PDR is still considered a Least Developed Country (LDCs), despite its advances in human development and its rapid economic development. The landlocked country is highly dependent on its rich natural resources, and faces several challenges related to gender and region inequalities. Lao PDR was established in 1975 and has been ruled by the Lao People’s Revolutionary Party since then (UNDP, 2007: 3). Furthermore, after a decade of socialist policies, Lao PDR introduced the New Economic Mechanism in the mid-1980s resulting in gradual opening of the economy (UNDP, 2007).

Map 2.3 Location of Lao PDR in South Asia

The map below shows the location of Lao PDR in South Asia. It is neighbour by countries such as Thailand and Cambodia and traversed by the ocean.

Source: Google Maps (2016)
The management of intricate landscape mosaics, especially in poverty-stricken areas requires resolving inconsistent objectives and managing the balance. For example, the balance between improving livelihood and maintaining sustainability. Several developing countries that heavily depend on their natural resources and agriculture for subsistence have used land-use planning as a tool towards sustainable development. Land use planning requires participation, incorporation of different scales and improved harmonisation amongst stakeholders and implementing agencies. Lao PDR adopted Land Use Management as the rural population had very limited formalised land rights. The land titles of Lao PDR had only been issued in peri-urban and urban areas.

According to Eschborn (2011: 254), “The objective of land use planning at village and village cluster level is to improve land and natural resource management and by zoning the land, prepare for surveying and issuing of land titles as a prerequisite to increased land tenure security in rural villages of Lao PDR”. This was done as farmers without official land titles could lose access to valuable land resources. Furthermore, commercial plantations, cash crop production and other investments in land were affecting traditional land rights of the rural people.

Land use management was introduced in Lao PDR at village and village cluster level to identify village boundaries and village land as well as to classify land use zones in a participatory approach (Eschborn, 2011). It is said that based on the existing land use zones, both the district and traditional authorities sign the complete village land use agreement. According to Eschborn (2011: 255), “The final village land use plan and this agreement form the basis for systematic land registration of all state, communal and individual land in the village area”. After this process, measuring and registration, individual and communal titles are then handed over to villagers. However, land titles cannot be issued without a land use planning exercise and land use zoning.

At the time of this process in Lao PDR, an overall approach was reviewed and a new manual on participatory land use planning (PLUP) was published. Participatory land-use planning (PLUP) has the mandate to achieving the balance between development needs and the preservation of the rural environment, to lead to a sustainable management of the landscapes (Maginnis et al., 2004). According to Eschborn (2011) PLUP has become a national approach which was jointly conducted by the officials from the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry and the National Land Management Authority. The roles and responsibilities of every party are clearly set out and the link between land registration and PLUP is clearly described. The approach is however kept flexible and is open to different situations to adapt.

According to Eschborn (2011: 255), “Land use planning takes into account the following main principles:

- Participation of local population and all gender groups
• Recognition of village rights
• Land use by ethnic minorities must be respected”.

The impacts of land use management in Lao PDR were successful as land use planning was implemented in over 90 villages in one of the Provinces. According to Eschborn (2011), land certificates were issued in 25 villages and that was just the beginning.

2.2.3 Lessons for South Africa
South Africa has made various attempts to redress past imbalances but disparities have increased rapidly instead. Although many provinces do things differently, Land Use Management still requires the same aspects. The Land Use Management system implemented in the rural areas of Lao PDR was successful in resolving land issues. The method adopted in this area is the PULP method which proved to be well accepted by the local population.

According to Eschborn (2011: 255), the standard procedure consists of the following main stages:

“Stage 1: Preparation for participatory land use planning;
Stage 2: Socio-economic, land and forest data collection;
Stage 3: Delineation of village and village cluster boundaries;
Stage 4: Village and village cluster forest and agriculture land use zoning;
Stage 5: Village and village cluster land management plans;
Stage 6: Land data record keeping and digital mapping;
Stage 7: Land registration and titling in rural villages;
Stage 8: Village and village cluster networks and networking;
Stage 9: Monitoring and evaluation”.

2.3 Land Use Management in South Africa
Historically, Land Use Management systems and regulations were used in service of spatial and racial segregation. Rubin (2007: 12) report states that “The aims of the Apartheid system were for the most part carried out through the dire efficiencies of the planning legislation and its implementation, which maintained spatial segregation and entrenched a racial hierarchy through reserving the provision of rights and services for the white minority”. Even though the apartheid system managed to achieve most of its
goals and objectives, it did eventually collapse. Now, post-apartheid thoughts regarding land use management saw a need for cities to be densified, while renewing and upgrading areas that were previously disregarded.

The political history of South Africa has given rise to the development of urban landscapes that are enormously socially and spatially inequitable (Rubin, 2007). Furthermore, the political history has resulted in a very significant urban feature; the number of nodes and settlements. Townships are no longer considered as just large dormitories that lack in business or recreational activities. According to the Rubin (2007: 13), “New legislation, regulation and policy had to be put in place to ensure that Apartheid cities were transformed into spaces of equity, integration, and sustainability”. These changes also came with a great change to the way land was used, regulated and managed.

When examining the state of LUM in South Africa, what becomes clear from the start is the massive array of LUM and planning legislation. There is a wide variety of acts concerning planning in the Constitution alone. The Constitution has requirements and obligations regarding property, land, housing, and the principles of social justice (Ovens, et al, 2007). More acts concerning to LUM and planning in South Africa include the Municipal Systems Act (2000); the Development Facilitation Act (1995); the White Paper of Development and Spatial Planning of 2001; the Land Use Management Bill (2006) and more recently the Spatial Land Use Management Act (SPLUMA) OF 2013. According to Ovens, et al (2007), each of these pieces of legislation purports the noblest intentions to create spaces that rid cities of apartheid’s segregated planning ideals, and reconstruct cities of integration and equal economic and social opportunity.

Although policy has flourished at all levels (national, provincial, and local level), Ovens et al. (2007) states that “there has been little advancement and innovation in thinking and practice around land management, and South Africa’s towns and cities continue to develop without an adequate framework for managing land development in a way that supports the goals of democracy, equity, efficiency and sustainability”. It appears that there is a general sense that not much has been done to transform the basic foundations which regulatory, legal and policy thinking has been laid upon. Both Berrisford and Parnell (2007) argue that the current land use management systems are effectively unfavourable to many objectives of the post-apartheid state and are hindering the provision of access to land to the poor or a better quality of life.

According to Rubin (2007: 13), “There are other problems facing land management and, at a far more pragmatic level, there is a lack of capacity within municipalities to actually cope with land management systems”. One of the aspects that lead to lack of capacity is the shortage of people with applicable
qualifications in land management to deal with the demand faced. According to Berrisford (2006), those who are professionally qualified are often allocated in other positions, leaving the least qualified to deal with complex policy and technical requirements for which they have neither the training nor the skill. Another aspect is the failure of those in departments of planning to have time to access the recent applicable legislation and to be trained to apply and implement it. Such training or support is frequently either unavailable or literally inaccessible to planners and land management professionals in smaller municipalities (Rubin, 2007).

**2.3.1 Legislation: Spatial Land Use Management Act (SPLUMA)**

The Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act, 2013 (SPLUMA) is a framework act for all spatial planning and land use management legislation in South Africa. The act aims to promote uniformity and consistency in planning-related processes and decision-making. According to the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (2015: 4), “other objectives include addressing historical spatial imbalances and the integration of the principles of sustainable development into land use and planning regulatory tools and legislative instruments”.

SPLUMA gives recognition to local government’s municipal planning competence as it enables municipalities to receive land use planning applications and it is the newly established Municipal Planning Tribunals that make decisions on such applications. Brand (2014: 12) asserts that, “Regarding appeal proceedings, in recognition of the exclusive municipal competence in matters relating to “municipal planning” SPLUMA is careful to ensure that only the local authority and not the provincial authority makes decisions on land use planning appeals with it being envisaged that appeal decisions will be made by the executive authority of the municipality”. The Department of Rural Development and Land Affairs (2015: 10) adds on by stating that “It is only in very specific circumstances relating to developments that are likely to affect the national interest that SPLUMA provides that land development applications must also be referred to the National Minister of Rural Development and Land Reform in addition to the relevant Municipal Planning Tribunals”.

Schedule 4 of the Constitution states that both national and provincial government may make and implement laws on functional areas relevant to land-use planning (Brand, 2014). Historically, through the DFA, national government could regulate municipal planning and this continues through SPLUMA. According to Brand (2014: 8), “SPLUMA is a national framework legislation and repeals a number of national land-use planning laws and in particular replaces the existing national framework legislation, the DFA”. This legislation brings simplicity to the planning processes as now there is only one national land-use planning law, instead of reviewing several potentially applicable national laws when determining what land-use planning decision-making criteria are stipulated at the national level.
SPLUMA clearly sets out its principles and norms; however, they have been criticised at different levels. Cameron (2015) notes how the principles of the Act show a reflection in the Development Facilitation Act (DFA) principles that reinforces a South African legal legacy. The main principles of SPLUMA speak to factors such as efficiency, spatial justice, spatial resilience, and spatial sustainability. The assumption brought by these principles is that planning leads to development and for that reason the disadvantaged must be part of planning processes. What Cameron (2015) notes, is that these principles can be problematic if planning does not lead to development.

The South African Constitution provides three spheres of government. According to Van Wyk (2015: 6), “Each of these three spheres of government is accorded legislative and executive authority by the Constitution in a manner that requires careful and nuanced interpretation to give effect to the spirit and meaning of the Constitution”. The Spatial Planning Land Use Management Act aims to provide for inclusive, developmental, equitable and efficient spatial planning at the three spheres of government. The three spheres of government include the national, provincial, and local governments.

The Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act, 2013 (SPLUMA) is a framework act for all spatial planning and land use management legislation in South Africa. The act aims to promote uniformity and consistency in planning-related processes and decision-making. According to the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (2015: 4), “other objectives include addressing historical spatial imbalances and the integration of the principles of sustainable development into land use and planning regulatory tools and legislative instruments”.

2.3.2 Background of SPLUMA

SPLUMA is a gate from the point of departure from older planning legislation, which enables municipalities to be solely responsible for processing and dealing with their own land applications and the appeals relating thereto. Despite the faltering Development Facilitation Act (DFA); the old order land use planning laws could be relied upon to understand the undefined Constitutional obligations distributed to the three spheres of government. Determining where the boundaries of these different obligations begin and end is challenging as the Constitution contains no definitions of these different legislative and executive functional areas and there has not historically been a post-Constitutional national framework land-use planning law in place to provide the much-needed flesh to these bare definitional bones (Brand, 2014).

Consequently, this lack of legal direction, has caused the court to question whether the provincial or local competent authority is entitled to decide land-use planning matters and what municipal planning means. According to Brand (2014: 9), “Our courts have also decided whether such decisions override or are
overridden by decisions to approve the same developments by different competent authorities in terms of different mandates in terms of different laws.” The Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act 16 of 2013 (“SPLUMA”) is now the body case of law that has been developed in response to such technical questions. The 1999 green paper and 2001 white paper made a case for replacing the 1995 DFA (SALGA, 2014). According to the SA Cities Network (2015: 4), “Until the promulgation of SPLUMA, the system elements proposed in the 2001 White Paper on Local Government, and detailed in subsequent spatial policy, were not included in any new legislation governing spatial planning and land use management”.

The DFA, which was implemented before the 2001 white paper was the only post- apartheid piece of legislation that dealt with spatial development principles and provided a land use management mechanism. SPLUMA was also implemented to redress racially based apartheid planning legislation, while dealing with new political realities. According to SALGA (2014), this act was also to address the unsustainable development patterns worsened by unsustainable and incoherent planning system. SPLUMA was then developed to legislate for a single, integrated planning system for the entire country as a response to the challenges facing planning (SA Cities Network, 2015).

2.3.3 Spatial Development Frameworks

The SDF’s purpose is to guide decisions relating to the use, development, planning of land. The goal of the SDF is to achieve the desired spatial framework of the municipality, based on the vision of the development of the municipality and the available financial, environmental and land resources of the municipality (The Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, 2014). The enactment the Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act (SPLUMA) in 2013 introduced a new planning regime in South Africa, which replaced the apartheid era laws with a coherent legislative system that is designed to spatially transform the country in its current era. The guidelines, which the act is based upon, focus on the preparation of SDF’s. According to the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (2014: 7), “The guidelines serve to clarify the roles and responsibilities of government spheres in preparing SDFs at provincial, regional, municipal and local scales”. Furthermore, they also align the preparation of different kinds of SDFs with achievement of the National Development Plan’s (NDP) spatial outcomes (Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, 2014).

a) SDF’s Applicability at a National Level

A RSDF (National SDF) needs to identify and focus in on priority areas (i.e. spatial targets) and these may be where the region’s socio-economic development needs are most pressing, or where economic development prospects are greatest (SALGA, 2014). The Department of Rural Development and Land Affairs (2015: 30) adds on this by stating that “spatial targeting serves to channel public investment into
priority areas, and align the capital investment programmes of different government departments”. To ensure the extent of developmental Spatial Planning, the national government through its SDF contributes, aligns, and gives spatial expression to policies and plans regarding national development. The national government also gives spatial expression to the plans and policies that emanate from several sectors of national government. According to the South African Government (2013), the act is covered by the availability of resources, provision of support and assistance in the performance of its land use management functions and monitor compliance with the development principles and norms and standards, and progress made by municipalities with the adoption or amendment of land use schemes.

Inclusive Spatial Planning refers to how the national government sphere must include and align with other spheres of government with regards to spatial planning and land use management and development. According to Cameron (2012), the sphere of national government is required to participate in the spatial planning and land use management process that have an effect on each other to ensure that plans and programs are consistent and coordinated with one another. Furthermore, when speaking of inclusivity at national government; the compiling, approving and reviewing spatial development plans and policies such as the national spatial development framework need to be considered.

Efficient and equitable Spatial Planning in SPLUMA at national government as according to Cameron (2012) is through the provision of support and assistance (within available resources) of the quality and effectiveness of municipal SDF”s and spatial planning and land use management tools and instruments. At national government, it is the minister who holds the power. According to Boyes and Tabata (2014), The aim is met where the Minister after consultation with the organs of the state in the provincial and local spheres of government, regulate procedures aimed at resolving and preventing conflicts or inconsistences, that may emerge from the spatial plans, frameworks and policies of the spheres of government and between a spatial plan, framework and policies relating to land use of any organ of state.

b) SDF’s Applicability at a Provincial level

Provincial Government Spatial Development Framework’s (PSDF) mandate requires it to establish a cooperative governance framework for spatial planning and land use management within its area of authority (Department of Rural Development and Land Affairs, 2015). A Provincial Spatial Development Framework might cover the whole geographic extent of a province, it still needs to identify and focus in on priority areas. It must have special targets and these may be the province’s socio-economic development needs areas or the most economic viable areas in the province. Spatial targeting serves to channel public investment into priority areas, and align the capital investment programmes of different government departments (Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, 2015).
The Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act at Provincial government is inclusive of the local government. According to SPLUMA, the provincial government is responsible for providing for matters of provincial interest and counteractive measures in the event of failure of a municipality to comply with an obligation in terms of the act. Furthermore, according to the South African government (2013), Provincial SDFs must contribute to provincial development policy as well as, integrate and spatially express policies and plans emanating from, the various sectors of the provincial and national spheres of government as they apply at the geographic scale of the province.

Concerning equitable and efficient spatial planning, the SDFs prepared at provincial level address the issue of inclusion especially for persons and areas that were previously excluded. According to Cameron (2012), this aspect describes the assurance of an integrated method to land use and land development that is guided by the spatial planning and land use systems. Boyce and Tabata (2014) assert that provincial planning by a province for the efficient and sustainable execution of its legislative and executive powers, relate to the development of land and the change of land.

\[c\] \textit{SDF’s Applicability at a Local level}

Municipal planning includes all spatial planning and development control within their respective municipal boundary. This approach identifies sector plans that coincide with political terms of office so that each elected council can develop the part of the vision they champion while still maintaining consistency in their achieving overall objectives (Department of Rural development and Land Affairs, 2015). As a long-term vision, the SDF must be reviewed every five year to evaluate whether the context and priorities remain the same. However, an SDF could be rewritten should a change of context be found during the time of review.

Municipal planning in local government enhances Inclusive Spatial Planning through the control and regulation of land use within a municipal area. According to Boyes and Tabata (2014), such planning should represent the integration and trade-off of all relevant sector policies and plans. Inclusivity is eluded with provisions of the Municipal Systems Act, guided through the SPLUMA act. The Municipal Systems act highlights that municipal SDFs must be prepared as part of and should be informed by the IDP. The local sphere of government is more crucial as it is on a smaller scale but detail. Therefore, plans must be very specific as this is where implementation of SPLUMA is mandatory. According to Cameron (2012), SPLUMA emphasises on inclusive planning, which must identify key development nodes, and identify the current and future vital structuring elements of the spatial form of the municipality.

For efficient Spatial Development Planning the national and provincial governments must account for the different circumstances of all municipalities. Municipalities participating in national and provincial
development programmes allow for an integrated developmental planning approach through the Act. Municipal planning must achieve equitable and efficiency spatial planning by responding to the public’s spatial needs equally. Development must not occur in certain places and neglect other areas. The SDF must cover the whole municipality and invite the public to submit written representations in respect of the proposed municipal SDF.

2.3.4 Land Use Management in Johannesburg

As with most South African cities, Johannesburg’s land management policy was initiated in the apartheid era. According to Rubin (2007: 14), “Although some policy has been added to the previous canon, the entirety has yet to be reviewed; as such the processes and patterns of land development are very similar to those of the Apartheid period”. Ovens et al. (2007: 18) assert that, “The City of Johannesburg (CoJ) continues to apply 12 different Town Planning Schemes across the metropolitan area, each of which is rooted in outdated principles and assumptions”. Johannesburg, reacting to civil unrest and rapid urbanisation has made use of the Development Facilitation Act (DFA, 1995), the Town Planning and Townships Ordinance of 1985 and the Less Formal Township Act (LFTEA, 1991).

Map 2.4 Johannesburg within South Africa

![Map of Johannesburg within South Africa](source: Google Maps (2016))
The City of Johannesburg together with the Provincial Government of Gauteng have added more policies that aim at responding to the changing demands of residences and developers, and the goals and objectives of a post-apartheid society. Such policies include the Growth and Development Strategy (GDS), the Johannesburg Integrated Development Plan (JIDP), the Human Development Strategy (HDS), Jo’burg 2030 and the Spatial Development Frameworks for each region (Rubin, 2007). However, even with such policies, there are still development conflicts. Residents do not agree completely when it comes to development. According to Oven et al. (2007: 8), “Older residents that have been in the area for a long time have opposed the development of flats. On the other hand, younger residents who are seeking homes feel that this would benefit them and other home seekers”.

The land management systems have become difficult to navigate and only the most seasoned professionals with a great deal of experience have been able to attain the land and the approval that they need (Rubin, 2007). Therefore, the city is undertaking a land regularisation programme that aims at auditing, verifying, and transferring council-owned properties in disadvantaged townships. The introduction of the DFA in 1995 led to the City losing control over much of its planning because the DFA enables approval of applications to through the provincial rather than local government. Thus, according to Ovens et al. (2007), the distinction in planning regimes between the poor and the wealthy is further, but unintentionally, supported by the provisions of LFTEA and the DFA.

The City has spent a lot of time and money addressing the imbalances of the past instead of dealing with current issues. The synthesis report (2008: 26) states that “the City of Johannesburg is not unaware of the issues confronting it and is certainly in the process of attempting to restructure South African cities through some innovative project planning and policy”. The City took on board critiques of the housing programme as well as the placing of low-income housing developments on the periphery areas of the city. Consequently, the recognition of such issues led to discussions with private land owners, parastatals, and other public entities around the provision of well-located land for low-income affordable housing (Rubin, 2007). Therefore, the question of how land is zoned, proclaimed, and regulated remained to be considered.

2.4 Summary

Literature reveals that LUM is not a linear process. Every country has its own legislation and its own way of addressing land use management issues. The common thread in all regions is that land use management is used as a response to city/region land issues. In Lao PDR, a land use management was introduced to identify village boundaries and to classify land use zones (Eschborn, 2011). In St. Etienne, a land use
management strategy was introduced after there was an economic decline and the city attractiveness declined as people moved away from the city. Among other things, South African also uses land use management to address land issues and regulate development in respective areas. A legislation that was recently introduced, SPLUMA, aims to promote uniformity and consistency in planning-related processes and decision-making. It also applied SDF’s at all levels of government for a more effective land use management approach.
CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Theoretical Framework

A theoretical framework is an existing frame already in a specific field of study that provides structure for a research. This chapter is represented in form of theories that scholars have presented before. The research problem informs a theoretical framework presented in a study, presented in a form of broad generalisation. This chapter gives a tool of analysis that interprets everything else in a research. First the theories will be introduced; giving their background and the principles guiding the theories. Main arguments and debates of the theories will then be discussed. The theories discussed in this chapter are modernisation theory and the theory of collaborative Planning.

3.1.1 Modernisation Theory

Modernisation theory is used to explain the process of modernisation within societies. Peet and Hartwick (2009: 104), assert that “Modernisation theory basically says: if you want to develop, be like us (the West)”. According to Kuhnen (1987: 1), “According to modernisation theories, internal factors in the countries, such as illiteracy, traditional agrarian structure, the traditional attitude of the population, the low division of labour, the lack of communication and infrastructure, etc., are responsible for underdevelopment”. The theory speaks to internal factors of a country by if traditional countries need assistance to be develop in the same manner that more developed countries have been.

There is no definite definition that has been provided for the theory, however many scholars have come up with different perceptions of what the theory seeks to address. According to Shareia (2015), modernisation theory stresses the cultural features of each society, such as political, religion and culture. Reyes (2001) defines the modernisation theory as a theory that utilises a systematic process to move underdeveloped countries to a more sophisticated level of development. This theory also describes the existing inequality between states by identifying different values, systems and ideas held by different nation states (Martinussen, 1997). Modernisation theory raises the question of how societies are similar or not to the modern industrial society model. According to Peet and Hartwick (2009: 121), “How developed a society was could be measured in terms of indices of similarity with the characteristics of modern industrial society”. Modernisation theory then according to Peet and Hartwick (2009: 121) “asked what factors were impeding a society’s “advance” toward this industrial model: What were the conditions and mechanisms of social transition from the traditional to the modern?”

Modernisation theory is used to describe an advanced transition from traditional to a modern society. According to Przeworski and Limongi (1997), Modernisation theory attempts to identify social variables
that contribute to social progress and development of societies and pursues to explain the process of social evolution. Not only does the theory stress the process of change but it also stresses the responses to that change. The theory speaks to internal dynamics while simultaneously referring to cultural and social structures and the adaptation to new technology. Modernisation theory maintains that traditional societies will develop as they adopt more modern practices (Baryshnikova, 2009).

Modern societies were expansive and therefore able to manage a wide range of environments and challenges. Also, similarly traditional societies were perceived as limited by the environments they could master. According to Peet and Hartwick (2009: 121- 122), “The more the characteristics of structural specialisation could be found in a society, the higher its position on an index of modernisation”. The transformation of a society was dependent on the extent of disintegration of traditional elements. Therefore, the more comprehensive the fragmentation of traditional features, the more a society could absorb change and develop modern societies characteristics as efficiency, rationality, and a preference toward liberty.

Kuhnen (1987: 1) differentiates between the two sectors of economic dualism as he states that “the traditional subsistence sector consists of small-scale agriculture, handicraft and petty trade, has a high degree of labour intensity but low capital intensity and little division of labour”. He further states that “the modern sector of capital-intensive industry and plantation agriculture produces for the world market with a capital-intensive mode of production with a high division of labour”.

The Municipality of Ntambanana is a traditional society that aims at transforming to modernity through the Land Use Management Framework. The Land Use Management was adopted as a tool to transform and develop the society through new spatial concepts that are aiming more at modernity. The modernisation theory in this study will be used as a tool of analysis to interpret the ideas presented in the study.

3.1.1.1 Principles guiding the theory

The overall notion behind modernisation theories, according to Chase-Dunn (2000: 216), is that they tend to “stress the shift of modern technology and develop institutions and labour habits complementary to industrial production”. In addition, the theory treats development as a phased process. Hence, according to Reyes (2001) it is shaped by the five stages identified by Rostow (1962). Peet and Hartwick (2009: 129) state that, “For Rostow, these are universal stages of growth, true for all societies moving from traditional to modern, from backward to advanced, from undeveloped to developed”.

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A traditional society, according to Rostow (1961: 4), “is one whose structure is developed within limited production functions, based on pre-Newtonian science and technology, and on pre-Newtonian attitudes towards the physical world”. Traditional societies are the ones characterised by hierarchal social structures, limited social and economic social mobility, and technological backwardness. According to Rostow (1961: 4), “these societies, because of the limitation on productivity, had to devote a very high proportion of their resources to agriculture; and flowing from the agricultural system there was a hierarchical social structure, with relatively narrow scope but some scope for vertical mobility”.

Such societies are patriarchal, landowners hold the political powers and give little scope for social mobility. Furthermore, clan and family play a large role in social organisation. Rostow (1961: 5) states that “The value system of these societies was generally geared to what might be called a long-run fatalism; that is, the assumption that the range of possibilities open to one's grandchildren would be just about what it had been for one's grandparents”.

Figure 3.1 Rostow’s Model of Development

Source: Reddy (2012)

a) The traditional society
b) Preconditions for take-off

The second stage is a process of moving away from the traditional society towards the take-off stage. Even though pre-conditional phase included developments of banks, education and commerce, the societies in which these developments occurred were still characterised by traditional structures, methods, and values. According to Rostow (1961: 27), “The 'transitional stage' creates the preconditions for take-off by bringing about radical changes in the non-industrial sectors. Export of raw material gains momentum; a new class of businessmen emerges; and the idea of economic progress coming from outside spreads through the elite”.

According to Shareia (2015: 78), “It takes time to transform a traditional society in the ways necessary for it to exploit the fruits of modern science, to fend off diminishing returns, and thus to enjoy the blessings and choices opened up by the march of compound interest”. The notion that spreads is that economic progress is necessity. With economic progress, comes the expansion of education to suit the needs of the contemporary economic activities. Investment increases, notably in communications, transport and in raw materials in which other nations may have an economic (Rostow, 1961).

c) Take-off

The take-off stage according to Shareia (2015: 79) “starts from the rise of new industries with the application of new industrial techniques, for example, the growth of cotton textiles, timber cutting and the railroad industry”. Not only does the road to maturity stage involve an increase in investments, but it also involves extensive application of technology. The third ‘take-off” stage is the decisive transformation in the historical development of a nation in which it gets onto a path of self-sustaining economic growth (Rostow, 1961).

The take-off stage is a period in which there is significant technical progress, driven by a considerable increase in investment rate, which provides the drive to a constant self-perpetuation process of growth. This is the stage when obstacles to steady growth are overcome. Growth is considered a norm in this stage. According to Rostow (1961: 23), “The forces making for economic progress, which yielded limited bursts and enclaves of modern activity expand and come to dominate the society”. Expansion takes place in small groups of leading sectors, and on socially, it is accompanied by the domination of the modern sector of section of society over the traditional one (Peet and Hartwick, 2009).

d) The road to maturity

According to Rostow (1961: 9), “The take-off leads to the drive to maturity stage, being a ‘long interval of sustained if fluctuating progress, as the now regularly growing economy drives to extend modern
technology over the whole front of its economic activity”. In this stage, the economy continues to grow, the most advanced technology is widespread and the manufacturing sector widens”. Formally, according to Rostow (1961: 7), “We can define maturity as the stage in which an economy demonstrates the capacity to move beyond the original industries which powered its take-off and to absorb and to apply efficiently over a very wide range of its resources--if not the whole range--the most advanced fruits of (then) modern technology”.

e) The age of mass consumption

The stage of high mass consumption according to Peet and Hartwick (2009: 128), “was the final stage where the leading industrial sectors became durable consumer goods and services (for example, automobiles), real income rose to a level permitting a large number of people to consume at levels far in excess of needs, and the structure of the work force changed toward the urban-skilled and office types of employment”. The final stage marks the peak of development as standard of living rises, there is greater allocation of security and security, there are automobiles and urbanisation. The emergence of welfare state according to Rostow (1961: 6), “is one manifestation of a society's moving beyond technical maturity; but it is also at this stage that resources tend increasingly to be directed to the production of consumers' durables and to the diffusion of services on a mass basis, if consumers' sovereignty reigns”.

Rostow (1961: 10) states that the high mass consumption is a stage where “leading sectors shift towards durable consumer’s goods and services”. Hence, the consumer goods and services are produced on a larger scale. What is defined as maturity is generally attained at this stage. Technological processes become more complex and broader. Globalisation is born in “take-off” but expands in the final and most developed stage.

3.1.1.2 Critique of the Modernisation Theory

The idea that similar functions structure societies is too theoretical. According to Matunhu (2011: 1), “The modernisation the movement of the 1950s and 1960s is an economic theory that is rooted in capitalism”. The assumption upon which the theory is based, according to Shils (1965: 10), “modern means being Western without the onus of dependence on the West”. Tipps (1973: 210-211) states that “Far from being a universally applicable schema for the study of the historical development of human societies, the nature of modernisation theory reflects a particular phase in the development of a single society, that of the United States”. This makes it difficult and unrealistic to apply the theory to other parts of the world, which do not possess similar structures or are under similar circumstances than that of the United States.
One of the most infamous critiques of the theory is that it is modernisation was rooted in the West and therefore, it is the West simply saying; the only way to development is following our example. In the West, the theory was used as a response to socialism and therefore, according to Peet and Hartwick (2009: 132), “Development” came from a society that was assuming its allotted place within a global order already determined by the heroic rise of the West”. Frank (1969) asserts that Rostow described all backward societies according to the same uniform of traditionalism. Therefore, implying that countries like China, Central America, Australia, European countries, and tribal civilisations of Southern Africa were similar. Furthermore, according to Peet and Hartwick (2009: 132), “Modernisation theory was criticised for its concept of history or, more exactly, for its ahistoricism, with critical attention focused on Rostow’s concept of the universal process of modernisation (that is, history does not change but is the same everywhere at all times), his notion of a single fixed end-stage for development (“high mass consumption”), and his ethnocentrism (everyone should copy the English and Americans)”.

Hussain et al., (1981) and Lenin (1964) view the concept of modernisation as encompassing the full spectrum of the transition and drastic transformation that a traditional society should undergo in order to become modern. In simpler terms, modernisation includes Africa following Europe’s footsteps of development. The issue with modernity is that the policies aimed at raising the poor’s standards of living contain disseminating information and knowledge about more efficient techniques of production. This has proven to be rather unideal for many African countries. For example, according to Ellis and Biggs (2001), the modernisation process of agriculture involves encouraging farmers to try new and advanced crops, farming methods and marketing skills. Consequently, according to Mantunhu (2011, 1), “Modernisation led to the introduction of hybrids, the green house technology, genetically modified food, use of artificial fertilisers, insecticides, tractors and the application of other scientific knowledge to replace traditional agricultural practices”.

The dichotomous notion of modernisation theory views traditional as asymmetrical to modernity. What is not modern is considered traditional. The traditional- modernity contract focuses only on the presumed similarities of traditional societies and fails to allow for a multiplicity of traditions in a spatial and temporal sense (Tipps, 1973). Furthermore, such a notion does not account for the diverseness of social structures instead; the category ‘traditional’ is given to societies that are not perceived as modern industrial societies. Therefore, by ignoring the diversity of traditional societies, according to Tipps (1973: 213), “the dichotomous approach ignores precisely those differences between societies which contribute to the determination of the specific character of their development.”
3.1.2 The Theory of Collaborative Planning

The concept of collaborative planning is predominantly associated with the work of Healey (1997), and has been developed throughout the 1990’s into one of planning theory’s key phrases. According to Harris (2002: 21), “collaborative planning is mostly suitable interpreted as an element in a longer-term programme of research and theoretical development focused upon a concern with the democratic management and control of urban and regional environments and the design of the less oppressive planning mechanisms”. The theory is largely associated with communicative rationality and communicative action, developed by Habermas (1984). Rydin (2003: 82) asserts that “collaborative planning is an explicit normative planning theory which ‘searches for a role for planner, a role which is addressed to solving pressing economic, social and environmental problems and yet is people-sensitive”.

Healey (1997: xii) states that “collaborative planning is about why urban regions are more important to social, economic and environmental policy and how political communities may organise and improve the quality of their places”. After much criticism of Healey’s book “Collaborative Planning: Shaping Places in Fragmented Societies”, the follow up article titled “Collaborative Planning in perspective” (2003) explains how the book came to be written and provides a response to criticism. In the article, Healey (2003) expresses that the notion of planning inspired collaborative planning as an interactive process. According to Healey (2003: 36), “I understood planning as a governance activity occurring in complex and dynamic institutional environments, shaped by wider economic, social and environmental forces that structure, but do not determine, specific interactions”.

3.1.2.1 Background of Theory

Various commentators have identified Habermas as the primary influence, however Healey (2005) also identifies Antony Giddens (1984) as one of the influences. Turner (1989: 971) defines Giddens’ structuration theory as a “social theory of the creation and reproduction of social systems that is based in the analysis of both structure and agents, without giving primacy to either”. Regarding Giddens’ structuration theory, Healey (1997) argues that although there are powerful forces (i.e. structures) around us (i.e. actors) which are shaping our lives, our actions can still make a difference (Curwell, et al., 2005). Even though structures inhibit people’s actions, they can transform these inhibiting situations, through conscious reflexivity. Therefore, according to Curwell, et al. (2005: 38), “collaborative planning sees the planning process as a site where actors operate in constrained situations but are potentially able to transform the situation and achieve their goals.

For such to be achieved, the public realm needs to be reconstituted through means of public and transparent debates. In other words, for this to happen, there is a need for communicative action. According to Healey (1992: 52), communicative action is a process where “participants exchange ideas,
sort out what is valid, work out what is important and access proposed courses of action”. This way, planning is turned into an interactive process of collective reasoning, carried out in the medium of language in dialogue. Habermas (1993: 153) notes that argumentation is not a decision procedure resulting in collective decision procedures resulting in collective decisions but a problem-solving procedure that generates convictions”. Therefore, communicative action must be achieved through communicative rationality. Habermas (1984) defines this communicative process as achieving, sustaining, and achieving.

3.1.2.2 Critique of Collaborative Planning

Tewdr-Jones and Allmendinger (1998) criticise the concept ‘collaborative’ in the theories of collaborative action, and rationality. This critique is based on the differences of attitudes and personalities of individuals. In theory, communicative rationality includes lack of oppression, transparency, and undistorted communication. However, according to Tewdr-Jones and Allmendinger (1998), questions “how can you challenge a set of values within a system that has been created by those values without destroying the system or the process itself?” Collaborative planning is based on participatory democracy, however that is not a value held by everybody. Furthermore, it is challenging to figure out to what extent values are held in common.

Collaborative planning assumes that all parts of the community can be part of the process, however does not state how the participatory process can be achieved. Therefore, it is unpractical (Tewdr-Jones and Allmendinger (1998). It does not consider the technicalities of democracy, such as who identifies the stakeholders? And how? According to Tewdr-Jones and Allmendinger (1998), Such systems tend to display little regard for individual perception as it only tackles the institutional aspect of power structures and denies the existence of power inherent within the individual.

When looking at issues relating to values within collaborative planning, Tewdr-Jones and Allmendinger (1998) state that a process as such would be deprofessionalising to the field of planning. Another challenge in such processes is if the stakeholders involved can trust the planners to carry out in practice the plans agreed upon. Furthermore, the planners might not be able to disregard their professional instincts, just to reflect the other stakeholders’ beliefs. Collaborative planning therefore cannot control the individual thought-processes of the chosen stakeholders and cannot guarantee that those participating will act in an open and honest matter all the time (Stein, 2000).

3.1.2.3 Applicability to Ntambanana Municipality

People want to be informed about their environments, whether they will be comfortable with their surroundings and what kinds of social worlds their families will encounter. However, the challenge is to
develop place-making that covers the complexity and transparency of the relationships which flow across any area. The planning process should therefore be interactive and should involve everyone with a stake in changes in location. According to Healey (1997), the search for efficient ways of resolving conflict has led to the pressure for an approach to spatial planning as strategic collaborative place making. In the collaborative approach to place making, the transformation of mindsets about the meaning of places and the priorities for action is the fundamental aim.

3.2 Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework is about exploring different concepts, ascribing various meanings to them and ascribing a working definition for the study. The concepts chose in this chapter are the recurring themes in the study and will be further defined within the context of the study.

   a) Spatial Development Framework (SDF)

The goal of the SDF is to achieve the desired spatial framework of the municipality, based on the vision of the development of the municipality and the available financial, environmental and land resources of the municipality (The Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, 2014). An SDF represents spatial planning policy within a municipality and informs the purpose of developmental proposals and applications, while providing a perspective of spatial challenges and interventions within the municipality. The SDF of Ntambanana Municipality for this study will be used to evaluate any alignment to the Land Use Management Framework.

   b) Sustainability

Sustainability refers to the short-term goals and strategic plans made today that should not compromise the needs of the medium and the long-term development goals of the future generations. According to section 1 of National Environmental Management Act, 1998 (Act No. 107 of 1998), sustainable development is defined as an integration of “economic, social and environmental factors into planning, implementation and decision-making so as to ensure that development serves present and future”. The Brundtland Commission of the United Nations from 1987 has defined sustainable development as “development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs”.

The concept developed guiding principles that are further adapted to different scales or specific conditions. The relevant principles regarding this study are respecting land rights and boosting local benefits. The municipality of Ntambanana is a rural one where much of the land is traditionally owned.
The concept of sustainability suggests that such communities “ensure that land ownership and land rights, including traditional or informal rights, are documented and recognised” (Kaphengst, 2014: 4). Additionally, with regards to land ownership, local people must be involved in the processes concerning land use changes. According to the sustainability concept, contribution to well-beings of communities, workers and rural populations must be assured. Ensure Participation processes are a substantive part of every enterprise affecting land use and local population (Kaphengst, 2014).

c) Local Government

The government that works with citizens and groups within the community to find sustainable ways to meet their social, economic and material needs and improve the quality of their lives. Local government is the third sphere of the larger government (national and provincial) and therefore it is the most accessible to the community. It is the authority of local government that governs and shape municipalities and its developments. In Ntambanana municipality, the local government works hand in hand with the traditional leaders, and the local councilor to meet the needs of the residents. Ntambanana is a local municipality and is therefore responsible for the local people.

d) Land Use Management

According to the City of Cape Town (2012: 6), “Land Use Management is necessary to ensure planning and development takes place in an ordered and structured way; facilitate a safe, healthy and pleasant built environment that is sustainable and balance the needs of communities and development with the protection of the natural and heritage built environment.” Land use management is therefore all the systems and procedures that are applied to land to achieve desirable development of the built environment. Land Use Management is derived from the municipal IDP and SDF to facilitate environments. In this study, land use management is the fundamental term as it is looking at how land is managed, specifically in Ntambanana municipality.

e) Land Use Management Framework (LUMF)

Land use management framework is a basic supporting structure of any land use management development. Ntambanana Municipality adopted the Land Use Management Framework, hoping to assist all areas concerned with the physical development to manage the available capacity of bulk services in the municipality (Ntambanana Municipality, 2010). Furthermore, the framework was said to also assist in planning provision of future services. In this study, the LUMF is being examined if it is being effective in terms of people’s needs and basic planning principles.
Traditional authorities are the leaders of traditional communities. The word “traditional” refers to historic roots of leadership, which legitimises the execution of power. There are many existing forms of traditional leadership. In South Africa, traditional authorities are mostly referred to as chiefs and elders. Traditional leaders also govern municipalities to a certain extent and have land ownership in municipalities. Ntambanana municipality is a rural area where most of the land is traditionally owned. Therefore, traditional leaders play a huge role in development. The South African Government (2014), “acknowledges the critical role of traditional leadership institutions in South Africa’s constitutional democracy and in communities, particularly in relation to the rural-development strategy”. It is therefore in the community’s best interest for government to work well effectively with the traditional leaders. The South African government (2014) also states that “numerous pieces of legislation have been passed and various programmes implemented to ensure that traditional leadership makes an important contribution to the development of society”. Legislation has therefore provided a platform for government and traditional leaders to engage and work towards achieving corporate governance.

3.3 Summary
This section of the research has looked at the concepts that have influenced this research and that apply to the study area. It has also looked at the theories that could be applied to the research. The modernisation theory ought to relate to the study as it focuses on moving from traditional to modern in terms of development. However, a few scholars have criticised this notion because of its origin and its applicability to African countries. The theory is seen to be biased towards the Western countries where it was also once used a response to socialism. Therefore, South Africa particularly has not endured the same events that the West has. Historical events differ in every place and therefore, responses to historical events are different. The theory of collaborative is very common in the field of planning and relates to all development that is for people, including LUM. Healey (1997) sees this theory as a tool to improve quality of places. However, Tewdr-Jones and Allmendinger (1987) criticise the theory for its lack of transparency and the differences in people’s attitudes and behavior. Nevertheless, collaborative can be applied in Ntambanana municipality to create convenient spaces for people.
CHAPTER FOUR

STUDY AREA AND DATA ANALYSIS

This chapter of the research provides an outline of the results, interpretation, and discussion of the study on examining the effectiveness of the land use management framework. The methods of collecting data used in the study were face-to-face, telephone and email interviews. The respondents were selected randomly and there were three key informants; the councillor, municipal official and a traditional leader. This chapter will first look at the study area of the research; the socio-economic status, the location, and the characteristics of the area.

The current land use management framework and its measure of effectiveness were identified by the different persons who have resided in the area over for over 10 years. The effectiveness was also measured against Behrens and Watson’s layout principles. Interviews were also conducted with the chief, councillor and municipal official to determine the process of development and to examine all stakeholders involved in the community matters. The findings of the study were evaluated in correspondence with the aim, objectives, and research questions of the study.

Thematic analysis is used in this chapter to group and record patterns/themes within the data set. The themes identified in the study were used as categories in the analysis. The patterns were associated with the objectives and research questions of the study. The quotes that represented the different themes were extracted from the interviews and no names were mentioned, to protect the participants as per ethical requirements.

4.1 Study Area

Ntambanana Municipality is part of the uThungulu District Municipality and is in the central part of it. The Ntambanana Municipality is situated to the west of the Richards Bay/Empangeni axis (the uMhlathuze Municipality), and is bounded by the latter, the Mbonambi Municipality to the north, and the Ulundi, Mthonjaneni, and Umlalazi municipalities to the west and south respectively (SDF, 2008). The MR34 (Empangeni) provides the main access from where rural roads service the municipality.

The Municipality covers an area of 1 083km² and has a population of 74 336 people as per Community Survey 2011. According to the Revision of the SDF (2009), there are four Traditional Authorities that fall under the jurisdiction of Ntambanana Municipality, which are Obizo, Obuka, Somopho and Mambuka. The four traditional areas are shown on map 4.1. The overall municipal area is mainly divided into eight
wards that are presented by eight ward committees. Heatonville is an area within the Municipality that is primarily under private ownership and utilised for farming and agricultural enterprises. There are several rural nodes which serve as service centres notably Buchanana, Mambuka, Luwamba and Heatonville (Revised SDF, 2009). For this study, the focus will be on Obuka (traditionally owned area) and Buchanana (primary node of the municipality).

**Map 4.1: Study Area Map showing Traditional Authorities within Ntambanana Municipality**

Map 4.1 shows the traditional areas within the municipality of Ntambanana. All these areas are under the authority of traditional leaders who are also listed in the map. There are four traditional areas in Ntambanana Municipality and these include Obuka, Obizo, Somopho and Mambuka.

![Map 4.1](image)

**Source:** Author (2016)

**4.1.1 Basic Facts regarding the Municipality**

The total population in Ntambanana municipality is 74 336, where a ratio of 79.3 people is dependant. High unemployment rate validates the dependency ratio (49.2%) in the area. Only 2.6% of the population
aged 20+ pursues higher education and only 21.3% of the general population is educated. This accounts for almost half of the population being unemployed. Many people do not finish high school in record time as 23.2% of the population aged 20 and above, are in matric. The table below (4.1) illustrates some of the facts of the municipality.

**Table 4.1 Facts Regarding Ntambanana Municipality**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FACTS</th>
<th>FIGURES (2011)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Population</td>
<td>74,336</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependency Ratio</td>
<td>79.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment Ratio</td>
<td>49.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Schooling aged 20+</td>
<td>21.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher education aged 20+</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matric aged 20+</td>
<td>23.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: STATSSA (2011)*

**4.1.2 The Socio-economic Profile of Ntambanana Municipality**

Ntambanana is mainly a rural area that has no formalised big towns or industries where community members may be employed. The people of Ntambanana should commute to Richardsbay and Empangeni for access of job opportunities. The area lies in the heart of the rich culture of the Zulu nation. The majority portion of the area is mainly under the authority of chief Biyela, Cebekhulu and Mthethwa. The settlement pattern in this area, is largely rural scattered. This pattern is extremely sparsely populated and makes it challenging for infrastructure provision. According to the IDP (2014/15), this settlement pattern accounts for 65% of the population. Buchanana has been identified as a primary node, largely because of centrality and emerging rural centre.

**Table 4.2 Land Uses in Ntambanana Municipality**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LAND USE</th>
<th>DESCRIPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Agriculture | This is one of the main economic activities and fundamental land uses within the area. All the traditional areas of Ntambanana are dominated by agricultural activities, except for Heatonville.

Tourism and Recreation | Even though, tourism and recreation is not a dedicated land use zone in the area, there are vast pieces of land in the IDP (2014/15) marked as high potential tourism areas.

Infrastructure | The IDP (2014/15) only notes transportation corridors.

Urban Development Initiatives | The most common and highly emerging town in Ntambanana are the nodal points in Buchanana. There are also informal peri-urban areas whose functions can be aligned with those of formal urban areas.

Source: Author (2016)

There is a total number of 12 826 households in the municipality, where 44.8% of those households are owned or being paid off. The average household size in the municipality is 5.6 and 53.1% of the population stay in formal dwellings. Table 4.3 below expresses some of these statistics.

Table 4.3 Table showing Living Conditions in Ntambanana Municipality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Living Conditions</th>
<th>Figures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of Households</td>
<td>12,826</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average household size</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: STATSSA (2011)

Table 4.4 Table showing facts regarding Housing in Ntambanana Municipality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Living Conditions</th>
<th>Figures (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Housing owned/paying off</td>
<td>44.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female Headed Households</td>
<td>57.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal Dwellings</td>
<td>53.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electricity for Lighting</td>
<td>62%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: STATSSA (2011)
The most dominant household income is between R 19 601 - R 153 800 per annum, which as seen in figure 4.1 is the middle income of the area. The number of people receiving between R4 801 to R9 600, R 76 401 to R153 800 and no income is approximately the same. This means that there are several households that have no income. There is a huge gap between the high-income earners, the middle-income earners and those households with no income.

**Figure 4.1 Household Income**

Source: STATSSA (2011)

According to STATSSA (2011), 74 336 people reside in Ntambanana municipality and the area is dominated by African people. Other races that reside in the area include coloureds, whites and Indians/Asians. However, their contribution to Ntambanana’s racial statistics are insignificant as shown in table 4.5.

**Table 4.5 Racial Composition in Ntambanana Municipality**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Black Africans</td>
<td>73 904</td>
<td>99.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coloureds</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whites</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The figure below shows that there are more females than males in the area. There is a percentage of 53.9 females residing in the area and a percentage of 57.5 female headed households. This means that

**Table 4.6 Gender Proportions in Ntambanana Municipality**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>46.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>53.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: STATSSA (2011)*

Table 4.7 shows age groups within the gender groups in Ntambanana Municipality. From the ages of 0-4, there are only a percentage of 7 for both males and females. The most dominant age group in the community is between the ages of 5 and 14 for males and 15-35 for females. For both gender groups, there are a small percentage of people with ages over 65. However, for all age groups, there are more females than males. The most dependant age groups (0-4 and > 65) contribute a small percentage of the entire population.

**Table 4.7 Age groups within gender groups in Ntambanana Municipality**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Males (%)</th>
<th>Females (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-14</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-34</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-64</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; 65</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Ntambanana IDP (2015/16)*

The locality map shows the location of Ntambanana Municipality in the context of the district municipality; uThungulu Municipality. A few existing centres located near the provincial N2 corridor have also been added. Buchanana is the most accessible area, where both private and public investments tend to concentrate. The area offers transport interchanges (taxi and bus ranks), which are ideally located along the node within the activity spine in a primary corridor.
4.2 Study Findings
A contextual analysis of Ntambanana Municipality in KwaZulu-Natal using interviews to gather an understanding of the effectiveness of the Land Use Management Framework from various perspectives was used. These bits of knowledge were then used to determine the municipality’s approach to land use management. The number of participants and the percentage of the percentage of responses per category are depicted in table 4.7.

A sample size of 25 individuals was selected randomly and purposively from five different stakeholder categories. The sample is devised of 22 (88%) community members representing the total sample. Other stakeholders involve 1 municipal official (4%), 1 ward councillor (4%) and 1 traditional leader who represents 4% of the total sample.

Table 4.4 Survey population characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stakeholders</th>
<th>Biographic feature</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Dwellers</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Municipal Official</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional leader</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Councillor</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author (2016)

4.2.1 The role of the Land Use Management Framework in Ntambanana Municipality
Ntambanana municipality, being a rural municipality who aim to promote better management and better administration of the municipal area, needs certain tools to help with the administration of the area, and to manage the potential development of the municipality (Ntambanana Municipality, 2011). Tools to oversee and direct development has as of now been actualised through the Spatial Development Framework (SDF) implemented in December 2009. The SDF however does not deal with the relationships between different nearby land uses, which can affect adversely on each other.
A Land Use Management Framework as device helps all divisions that are concerned with physical improvement to deal with the accessible capacity of bulk services inside the area of Ntambanana. It additionally assists in the planning of future service provision, by informing the municipality with respects to capacity needs. According to Ntambanana Municipality (2011: 1), this is achieved “through submission of development and zoning applications, the municipality is informed with regards to future requirements and can plan for the additional bulk services to be upgraded”.

Regarding the role of the Land Use Management Framework, the respondents measured this in terms of the noticeable changes within the neighbourhood since the implementation of the LUMF. According to the respondents, the general perception regarding the changes of the neighbourhood since the implementation of the Land Use Management Framework, is that development is happening but at a slow rate. Berrisford and Kihato (2008) suggested that the broad concept of planning in locating activities of land use management involves activities that “geared towards shaping development over a period of time”. On the other hand, Chambers (2004: 10) notes that “A common theme within most definitions is that ‘development’ encompasses ‘change’ in a variety of aspects of the human condition”.

Furthermore, most people noticed a development in one of the major transport routes in the area; hence, there were various responses that acknowledged the road construction upgrade. The general conception around the road is the convenience it will bring for the people. One respondent stated that

“*The neighbourhood has changed: there is a road construction in progress. It is also a lot easier to reach transport, which means more convenience. There are also more shops*”.

The IDP of (2015/16: 107) states that “The upgrade predominantly calls for the improvement of the dirt roads to gravel roads, implying the application of a suitable gravel surfacing course thereto, with associated drainage”. A road upgrade in this community is very much needed and long overdue. Charlton (2008: 6) notes that “The approach to Land Use Management in most areas in South Africa is largely regulation oriented, aimed at controlling impacts and consequences of activities perceived to be negative, although newer ideas also place an emphasis on promoting desirable development”.

While preparing the Ntambanana Municipality Housing Sector Plan, Sivest (2007: 29) noted that “the Municipality has a short supply of good all weather roads and this restricts the provision of some services such as waste removal”. In addition to this constraint, access to economic opportunities is also limited. The main problem in Ntambanana is the lack of access experienced by rural communities as rural roads are not in a good condition (Sivest, 2007). The Municipality of Ntambanana is very small one and does not have a budget for roads. Additionally, since the municipality is based in a rural area with no form of town establishment, the municipality therefore has no need of a planned transport system.
Plate 1 and 2 show the road construction that is currently taking place in Ntambanana Municipality. The road being upgraded is the main road (P700), which is the entrance to the area of Ntambanana from all its surrounding areas. According to the Ministry of transport (2006), ”This road, when complete will provide the much-needed road link between Ulundi and Empangeni/Richards Bay on the west side of the Hluhluwe/Mfolozi Park via Ntambanana”. The Zululand Observer (2016) now defines the P700 as “The road, 55km of single carriageway with a speed limit of 100km/h, will run from the R102 near Canefields north of Empangeni, through Heatonville and Ntambanana before re-joining the R34 at Mthonjaneni north of Melmoth”. Map 4.1 shows the road P700 (highlighted in blue) within its surrounding areas.

Map 4.2: The P700 road construction that cuts through Ntambanana Municipality

Source: Zululand Observer (2016)

Not only has the local municipality taken a road construction project; according to the respondents, other community developments are in the works. Several respondents mentioned that the neighbourhood also has a new taxi rank, a park, and an upgrade in the sports grounds. One resident responded to say that:
“The community has changed because we have now a park, a taxi rank and upgrading of sports grounds.”

Figure 4.2 Road construction in Ntambanana Municipality  
Figure 4.3 Road construction in Ntambanana Municipality

Source: Author (2016)

Figure 4.4 The almost complete taxi rank in Ntambanana Municipality

Source: Author (2016)
However, there have also been completed projects in the area that are now in function. Apart from the previously mentioned developments, one respondent pointed out that:

“There is a clinic nearby which is very convenient for us. There are informal traders who produce fresh fruit and vegetables and this create employment for households, especially older woman”.

**Figure 4.5 Buchanana clinic in Ntambanana Municipality**

*Source: Author (2016)*

In any situation, people’s views always seem to differ, as in this case a few respondents voiced out that there has not been much change in the area and that most developments implemented do not reach the completion stages. Ovens et al (2007: 32) has argued that “what the land use management systems applied to the poor have in common is that they present a weak regulatory environment that is also based on lower services levels”. Furthermore, they note that the characteristic is the much weaker enforcement capacity of the state for land use management in poor neighbourhoods. One respondent noted that;
“It has not changed the neighbourhood that much, but I have noticed that they are building a few community facilities, like a traffic copper office and a petrol office.”

What can be taken from the interviewees’ responses is that development in the area is gradually taking place. Most of the respondents have taken note of the changes and a few have not. The road construction was the frequently mentioned development because the road being upgraded is the main road that residents use every day to commute. Most of the males in the area mentioned the sports ground upgrade. The uThungulu District policy allows for tertiary sports facilities, which generally comprise of soccer fields, mainly established at secondary and tertiary nodes (IDP, 2015/16). However, this does not diminish the provision of sporting facilities within every traditional authority ward in Ntambanana Local Municipality. The provided vegetable stalls near the bus stop are considered a form of income generator to the local subsistence farmers and a convenience to the local people who do not have to travel far to buy fruits and vegetables. Berrisford and Kihato (2008: 386) caution that “simply reforming the regulatory framework in Land Use Management will be insufficient, as it needs an integrated implementation framework including regulatory and fiscal tools”.

4.2.2 The Impacts of the Land Use Management Framework on the community of Ntambanana

The respondents had very different views when asked how their lives have changed since the adaptation of the LUMF. Slightly more people stated that the framework had not changed their lives personally; however, there were people whose lives were directly changed because of the framework. One of the respondents stated that

It has changed my life because; I do not have to wake up early in the morning to catch the bus because there is more access to transport routes. We have more access roads, so I do not have to walk to walking to the market and taxi rank.

The informal traders at the stalls were particularly thankful for their entrepreneurial opportunity because most of them are the breadwinners of their families. Stats SA (2011) shows that 57.5% of households in Ntambanana Municipality are female headed. According to Band (2011: 149), “For women, the right to development does not simply require consideration of how income poverty, understood as lack of money and resources, influences their ability to enjoy their human rights; human poverty, in the sense of women’s lack of voice and participation in decision-making within their families and societies, also impacts upon their lives and further reinforces their powerlessness”. O’Laughlin (1997: 1) states that, a case study on women in the 1970’s revealed that “the central importance of women in farming and the systematic difficulty that many women-headed households had in improving their agricultural production for want of labour and the regular cash flow needed for investment”.

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It is evident that women were not granted such economic beneficial opportunities. Ntambanana Municipality has done its part in breaking the cycle and tries to address the imbalances of the past. This municipality is a very traditional one with firm traditional values. As the Ntambanana Municipality SDF (2009) states that there are four traditional councils that fall within the authority of the municipality. Therefore, traditions are of great importance to the area, however, there has been recognition regarding the important role that women play, not only within their families but also in the community. The vegetables sold at the stalls (figure 4.6) are personally produced by the women who sell them. They are sold at one Ntambanana’s busiest place; Bhuchanana, which is also considered to be the primary node within the municipality. One woman was proud to share that:

*I have a vegetable garden and very happy to be able to sell my vegetables to a lot of people. I cannot imagine how life for my family would be like if it was not for this opportunity. I am beyond grateful to be able to selling my produce. I live with my daughter and her child and she is unemployed. This is the only income we have at the end of the month.*

**Figure 4.6 Vegetable stalls in Ntambanana Municipality**

*Source: Author (2016).*
4.2.3 Community participation in the process of Land Use Management

Public participation is asserted in various legislative frameworks in South Africa. This includes Municipal Systems Act (200); the Municipal Structures Act (1998); The Constitution (1996) and the White Paper on local government (1998). The common response regarding community participation is that it very much exists in the community, as the local authorities gather the community before any major development occurs.

Moser (1983) notes the importance of community participation as he states that participation is naturally a good thing as it brings people together in creating and making decisions about their environment or spaces. Participation helps to promote the sense of control and ownership amongst community members because all involved persons are active. Burns et al. (2004: 2) asserts that “active participation of residents is essential to improved democratic and service accountability”. They also further acknowledge that the process of community participation has the power to enhance the effectiveness because community members bring knowledge, understanding and experience that is vital to the process. When it comes to community participation, the respondents had very different views. Some of these views are:

*Sometimes they hold community meetings to inform us about developments. People are very much involved in the process. Even the Induna and the chief are present at these meetings.***

*Yes, before any development occurs, there is a community meeting with the counsellor, traditional leaders, and the people.*

However, this was not the only view about public participation that was expressed. Other respondents felt excluded from such processes. Many of the respondents were not familiar with the Land Use Management Framework. However, could respond to the developments taking place in the area.

*I was not part of the process but I was aware of the changes/ development*

*The community was notified but I was unaware*

*No, it is political; communication is limited to only a few people*

Table 4.8 below represents the general perception regarding community involvement in development planning issues in the Municipality of Ntambanana. It represents all stakeholders present and involved in community meetings. The municipality stakeholders include community members, the municipality, traditional authorities, and the ward councillors.
Table 4.5 General Views of Community Involvement in Ntambanana Municipality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Community Members</td>
<td>The community members guaranteed that participation exists in the municipality, and all the other stakeholders are also involved. There are structures in place that allow for the participation of community members in development planning. Nevertheless, there is uncertainty on the community members’ side as to whether these structures are effective or not.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| The councillor       | The councillor claimed that the municipality has not implemented any projects without consulting the community first. Since the Land Use Management is what used to conduct developmental projects; the councillor stated that the community is informed about everything that occurs in the municipality and the community members are the ones that identify their top priorities. According to the councillor, they are informed by the local municipality of the projects that are chosen through community participation. The ward councillor further states that:  
“I usually call meetings to let the people know of what is going on or what is about to take place. I write letters and put them in the public tanks and give to the Induna’s to inform the traditional authorities. Thereafter, I book a community hall, and address matters at hand or inform the people of any kinds of developments that might take place.” |
| Municipal Official   | The municipal official assured that all necessary processes and legislation are taken into consideration and followed in the development plans of the municipality. The municipality undergoes thorough consultations during the development of plans. |
| Traditional Leader   | Regarding development, the traditional leader feels like there is a lack of their involvement and participation in all stages of |
development. The projects that take place are normally responsive to the IDP objectives and the leaders feel left out of the planning and implementation stages. As a result, the development projects do not respond to the community’s needs. The community ends up having facilities it does need or use, instead of those that are needed. The chief made an example of the unused oversupply of constructed community halls instead of more crèches that are needed in the community.

Source: Author (2016)

The responses above indicate that different people have different experiences when it comes to public participation. It is evident that people feel like there is a trend that the municipality employees who are responsible for the implementation of development projects recognise the planning process to be sufficient. Many projects are implemented as a response to what is viewed as community needs, however, the community’s needs and the municipality’s perceived needs may not always correspond. In Ntambanana Municipality, the challenge is the means of communication.

The ward councillor plays a huge role in community participation as they liaise with all the stakeholders, for all the stakeholders. The councillor is elected by the people and is informed by the municipality. The councillor acts as a bridge between the municipality, the people, and the traditional authorities. The councillor lets the municipality know what the people’s concerns are, and vice versa. The councillor also communicates with the traditional authorities through the Induna’s (chief’s assistant). Furthermore, they also call and facilitate community meetings.

In this area, the announcements only reach a few residents, instead of the masses. However, other residents felt very much involved in the process and knew about the meetings that are held in the community to discuss development plans. The challenge is not whether the community is involved in the planning processes, but it is the way the information is communicated to the local people. The information does not circulate widely enough to reach enough community members. However, the municipality needs to come up with new ways to circulate information in the neighbourhood.

Another challenge the community is faced with is the effectiveness of their involvement in development processes. The community members attend the meetings; however, they claim that they are only called to be informed about changes, not to be asked for input. This notion is coordinated with Tewdr-Jones and Allmendinger’s (1998) thoughts on collaborative planning as they state that it is unpractical, because it
assumes that the whole community can be a part of the process. It does not consider how democracy can be practiced, who attends the meetings and what qualifies one to attend the meetings.

4.2.3.1 The influence of community participation in Development Outcomes

When residents were asked if they think that being, part of the development and planning process influences the outcome, a few found the question to be inapplicable because they have never been part of any community gathering. The general conception of the respondents was that being part of a meeting does not influence the outcome. However, like in any other subject, there were conflicting views as a few respondents stated that

*It gives people the opportunity to work, shows unity between community members and as community members, we can provide input.*

*It helps because it is an interactive process*

*It helps to give people a chance to raise their voices*

Nevertheless, people can raise their voices, but it does not mean that their views will be taken into consideration in the final plans. This goes back to the collaborative planning critique put forward by Tewdr-Jones and Allmendinger (1998), stating that the planners involved may fail to ignore their professional instincts, to fulfil the other stakeholders’ needs. Stein (1996) adds on by acknowledging that collaborative planning cannot control the thoughts of the chosen individuals and cannot guarantee honesty and openness in participants. Stein’s view is in co-ordination with one respondent’s view who stated that:

*I have been to countless community meetings, every time I go there, we are asked to provide inputs on the community development matters, but I have noticed that this input does not go a long way because our views are not taken into consideration. All we do is the same thing at every meeting and it is a tiring process so I do not attend anymore.*

A few respondents stated that the meetings help them prepare for the changes that are coming to their neighbourhood and they are happy to be informed. Furthermore, some mentioned that not everything discussed in the meeting becomes a reality and they acknowledge that some developments take a considerable amount of time. The respondents all have contradictory views when it comes to the question of whether, community participation influences the outcome of development in the municipality. Many just appreciate to be notified about changes in their community, while others see it as a total waste of time.
4.2.4 The Relationship Between Traditional Authorities and the Municipality

Section 81 of the Local Government System: Municipal Systems Act (Act 117 of 1998) allows the traditional leaders to sit and be part of the council meetings or any other development meeting that is taking place in the municipality. According to Schedule 6 the MEC for Local Government and traditional Affairs is the one who determines the number of aMakhosi/traditional leaders that are permitted to sit in the council meetings. Ntambanana has 8 wards, 16 councillors and 4 traditional leaders. Three of the traditional leaders sit in the council meetings. Although the attendance may vary within aMakhosi but the co-operation is satisfactory. Table 4.6 shows the responses given by the municipal official and traditional leader on their working relationship. The municipal official also added on how they included the traditional leaders in the process of Land Use Management Framework.

Table 4.6 Response on Relationship Between Traditional Authorities and the Municipality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stakeholder</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Municipal Official</td>
<td>The relationship between the municipality and the traditional authorities is very good, we consult them on every development that are on the plans on the municipality. On the issue of the Land Use Management Framework- Ntambanana has been using the framework that was last drafted in 2009 and on the issue of consultation all the stakeholders were consulted and participated hence the adoption of the framework by the then council.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional Leader</td>
<td>The traditional leader stated that the relationship between them and the municipality is a favourable one. There is legislation that allows traditional leaders to be part of municipal processes so this makes things easier for both parties. The municipality organises workshops for the traditional leaders to attend conferences that are beneficial not only to them but to the community as well. However, sitting in meetings does not mean they have the right to make decisions. Hugh (2004) states that even though traditional leaders have representations in meetings, they are not able to vote on any matter, regardless if it affects them or not.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author (2016)
Both the traditional leader and the Municipal official agree that their relationship between them is a favourable one. In terms of the Land Use Management Framework, the traditional leaders know of it, however, not sure of what it consists of. Every development that takes place, it is referred to the Land Use Management and the IDP, yet the traditional leaders are not provided with the specifics of the projects. They are not part of the designing of the Land Use Management, the IDP or SDF of the municipality. They hear about such in the meetings that they attend with the municipal officials. The traditional leader’s power is limited when it comes to municipal affairs. As with the municipality, their power is limited when it comes to matters regarding traditionally owned land.

4.2.5 The Effectiveness of the Land Use Management Framework in Ntambanana Municipality

Very often, Land Use Management Systems are viewed as a response to an unfortunate consequence. According to Charlton (2008), Land use management systems are critiqued as being untransformed to the post-apartheid situation in the sense that land use management and strategic planning are not closely aligned, and as a result LUM is not well positioned to support strategic approaches. However, the Land Use Management Framework of Ntambanana Municipality aimed at improving the physical development of the area and to account for planning provisions of the future (Ntambanana Municipality, 2010). Harrison et al (2008: 132) note that some municipalities in attempting to rationalize land-use management systems “have been unable to develop innovative approaches which might impact on the rights of landowners in the absence of a national framework which tackles this constitutional issue”.

The main aim of this research is to discover how effective has the Land Use Management Framework been in the Municipality of Ntambanana. The respondents were asked to rate the effectiveness with either yes, no, somewhat or awaiting results. These results are presented in figure 4.7 in the form of a pie chart. Out of the 22 respondents, five (23%) thought that the Land Use Management Framework has been effective, while five (23%) did not think so. Only two (9%) are still waiting to see the result and 10 (45%) think that some of the objectives have been achieved to a certain extent. Many people that fall within the 45% responded on what they have seen changing in the neighbourhood since the implementation.
According to the University of Cape Town (2014), “The approach to layout planning is informed by a view that the establishment of urban settlements is a process, not a designed product.” Behrens and Watson (2014) see enriching urban environments because of successive collective and individual actions, and reactions, over time in a mutually reinforcing and developmental manner. The Red book (2014) asserts that, layout planning is not only about providing services and facilities, but is also should ensure that that the provided infrastructural elements operate in a developmental and systematic way. Therefore, layout planning is about the functional relationship that should exist between infrastructure, development, and space. Hence, the provided infrastructure must be spatially arranged in a way that facilitates development.
The Behrens and Watson guidelines therefore act as a different alternative to layout planning by criticising the sections of red book that speak to layout planning; such as infrastructure design. The authors provide six normative concerns that seek to satisfy human needs, establish a sustainable relationship between human settlements and the natural environment that surrounds and ensure well efficient use of resources. For this reason, these normative concerns are used in this study to measure the effectiveness of Land Use Management in the Municipality of Ntambanana. The six normative concerns include place-making, scale, access, opportunity, choice, and efficiency.

a) Place-making

Place making is about creating environments with a unique sense of place. In simpler terms, place making involves enhancing unique features of a place by responding to the natural and cultural context of a place. According to Behrens and Watson (1996), “The concept of place making lies at the heart of the issue of environmental quality in an urban settlement formation”. The creation of settlements which reflect a sense of place and a unique nature of their cultural and natural setting, should be one of the central concerns of layout planning and a central concern of any profession concerned with the urban environment. The concept of place-making recognises the importance of a sense of belonging because different places provide different life experiences and experiences shape people’s views, standards, and self-identity.

b) Scale

Behrens and Watson (1996) assert that, “the term human scale is used to refer to the design of the heights, widths, surfacing and operations of the various elements of a layout plan, from the perspective of the person on foot”. Scale is the human aspect of planning. A community should be ideal for persons travelling on foot and therefore must also be designed from a pedestrian perspective. An area must feature pavements, several bus stops, and a residential area in close proximity to the commercial sector.

c) Access

Access is concerned with the levels of access and convenience. It must be ensured that the location of facilities should match the needs of end-user communities, while also ensuring that levels of access are maximised for the larger number of persons. The networks of circulation should enable easy access to public transport stops and pedestrian friendly routes.

d) Opportunity

The infrastructural arrangement in the community should create economic opportunities. According to Behrens and Watson (1996), “In the context of high levels of unemployment, layout plans should be concerned with maximising the economic opportunities that are in large agglomerations of people, by
creating the necessary spatial pre-conditions for viable small commercial enterprises and informal street trading”.

e) Efficiency

Behrens and Watson assert that efficiency involves the efficient utilisation of land and also efficient provision of services. For a place to be efficient it must utilise the land appropriately, it must be free of congestion and leave room for open spaces. Furthermore, an area must have several storm water drainages, numerous transport routes and mixed use development. Moreover, when all the aspects of the normative concerns function well in an area, there is efficiency.

f) Choice

Choice is among one of the important aspects in the performance criteria. This is because choice also involves the movement of people, where people are going and how they get to where they are going. It involves maximising choices to ender- user communities. According to Behrens and Watson (1996: 12), “layout plans that offer as many different choices as possible, regarding housing consolidation, service provision, urban surroundings, movement nodes and so on, are more likely to meet the diverse range of household needs that exist, than layout that offer limited choices”.

For this research, Behrens and Watson’s layout principles are used a guide as to what makes an effective, convenient, and well-functioning neighbourhood. In other words, the layout principles will act as a checklist when examining the Land Use Management Framework in the community of Ntambanana.

Place-making includes improving unique features of an area. This is done by responding to the cultural and natural context of the area. The general view about place-making in Ntambanana is that it fairly exists (presented in figure 4.8). This is because the cultural and natural features of the area are still very much raw. Ntambanana municipality is deep rooted in culture and nature. There are vacant spaces in the area that are of historical and cultural significance. According to the Local Government Handbook (2015), “The municipality is set among rolling green hills that rise from the coastal plain in the east to the end of the plateau in the west”. Furthermore, the municipality is surrounded by wandering valleys that house various streams flowing towards the uMhlathuze and the uMfolozi River.
Scale is regarded as the human aspect of planning. How ideal is the place for a person walking on foot? Every area must therefore consist of a design from a pedestrian view. Some features of scale involve pavements, bus stops and a commercial sector near the people. According to the respondents, the factor of scale very much exists in the community of Ntambanana as the majority thought that it was good and fair (refer to figure 4.9). However, this can be improved as 23% do not recognise the existence of scale.

Source: Fieldwork (2016)
An aspect of scale in Ntambanana Municipality is the area of Buchanana, figure 4.10 represents this place. Some of the services that are near one another include; the bus stop and post office on the right, the commercial sector on the left and a police station. Furthermore, these are located at the centre of this ward, making it easy for people to walk to and from the centre.

Access is one of the important factors in any neighbourhood as it speaks to the convenience of an area for people. It is concerned with the location of facilities and that level of access to those facilities is maximised for many people. Furthermore, access includes easy access to public transport and pedestrian friendly routes. In Ntambanana Municipality, the respondents feel that there are high levels of access. Many respondents recognise the level of access in the municipality.

**Figure 4.10 An example of an aspect of scale in Ntambanana Municipality**

*Source: Author (2016)*
According to Behrens and Watson (2014), in the context of high levels of unemployment, plans should be concerned with the maximisation of economic opportunities, by creating the adequate spatial pre-conditions for viable small commercial enterprises and informal trading. The above illustration suggests that, many respondents feel opportunities in Ntambanana Municipality have been provided for people.

Source: Fieldwork (2016).

Figure 4.11 Measurement of Access in Ntambanana Municipality

Source: Fieldwork (2016).
The municipality of Ntambanana has provided local entrepreneurs with a platform to sell their goods or services. There are stalls in Buchanana centre that allow for this. Figure 4.13 shows these stalls.

**Figure 4.13 Stalls provided for entrepreneurs in the community**

Source: Author (2016)

Efficiency involves efficient service provision and efficiency of land utilisation. It includes appropriate utilisation of land, room for open spaces and free of congestion. Furthermore, there must be mixed-use development, water drainages and multiple transport routes. 55% of the respondents think that there is a fair amount of efficiency in the area, while 23% think that there is a good amount and 18% on poor amount of efficiency. This variation fits the area in terms of efficiency, as there is so much room for open spaces in the area, no formal water drainage system, and a very few transport routes.

Figure 4.15 below shows some form of mixed-use in one of the nodes within the municipality. In this image, there are community facilities and a commercial area located within the residential area. Furthermore; with these facilities, there lies a bus stop at the centre.
Figure 4.14 Measurement of Efficiency in Ntambanana Municipality

Source: Fieldwork (2016)

Figure 4.15 Mixed-use development as an example of Efficiency within Ntambanana

Source: Ntambanana Municipality IDP (2015/16)
Choice consists of the movement of people and how they get from one point to another. To meet the diverse range of household needs, there need to be service provision and movement nodes. The general perception of choice is that it exists in Ntambanana Municipality, as 16 respondents out of 22 thought that it is ‘good’. No respondents thought the area had poor choice, while 5 thought is far and 1 thought there is an excellent presence of choice in the area.

The above principles applied to Ntambanana Municipality show that the community possesses some of the principles being applied. The respondents that participated in the questionnaire have all lived in the community for more than 10 years and they know the neighbourhood very well. The area of Ntambanana has the potential to be fully and successfully applied to the layout principles, if Land Use Management is properly executed and all the stakeholders work together to reach a consensus that is best for all the parties involved.

4.3 Summary

The above discussion reflects that there is misalignment of the community expectations, the intermediary stakeholders and municipality stakeholders. An example of this dynamic is the example of the community halls in that the traditional leaders claimed that there are too many under-utilised community halls whereas the ward committees perceive that there in an under supply of community halls. The above
responses from the research participants demonstrate that there is no dispute, the structure for engaging with the stakeholders and the community is in place.

There are different expectations that should be considered in designing and implementing projects. The efficacy of the consultation process should be considered and evaluated instead of the whether a structure is in place. Ntambanana municipality lacks coordination between stakeholders, and thus, they all have different interpretations regarding what is happening within the community. New structures must be introduced to align the stakeholders and educate the community on policies such as the LUMF, IDP and SDF. The community fairly applied to the normative concerns, however, the area still needs to develop, in terms of nodes as presently, there is a lack thereof.
CHAPTER FIVE
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction
The purpose of this chapter is to conclude the study and provide a discussion based on the findings. This chapter will first provide a summary of the main findings of the study. It will then provide recommendations that could improve land use management systems, especially in rural areas. The recommendations of this study will be based on the challenges raised in the research findings and lessons from other countries.

5.2 Summary of Findings
This research examines the effectiveness of the Land Use Management Framework in Ntambanana local municipality, a rural municipality in uThungulu district. In achieving this, the research also looked at the factors that could affect the process of LUM. Such factors include community participation and the relationship between the traditional authorities and the municipality. In assessing the effectiveness of the LUMF, six normative concerns put forward by Behrens and Watson (1996) were used as a guide as to what makes an effective LUMF. It is important to take into consideration, the socio-economic status of the municipality as it can affect the outcomes. The municipality of Ntambanana is a small, rural and poor municipality faced with issues of LUM, high levels of unemployment and illiteracy.

The rationale of this study lies in the importance and scarcity of land in South Africa. Rural municipalities have been known to have land use issues as most of the land is traditionally owned. In Ntambanana municipality, most of the land belongs to the traditional authorities, and this limits the municipality in implementing land use management systems. In such settings, community participation is very important, as most people are dependant. Therefore, LUM in rural areas is not an easy process as there are many stakeholders involved in development.

The overall findings from this study reveal that the stakeholders (municipality, traditional leaders, ward councillors and the community) involved in LUM, are not on the same page as they have very different views. Regarding community participation, the results indicate that every stakeholder does their part, however, it is the question of whether their methods are effective or not. Another challenge picked up from the study is that municipality’s power is limited when it comes traditionally owned land and traditional leader’s powers are also restricted when it comes to municipal issues. Moreover, there are
respondents who pointed out that they do not hear about community meetings. This makes people feel excluded from matters concerning the community. Moreover, people are concerned that even if they voice their opinions, it is not guaranteed that their inputs are taken into consideration. There is also a spatial challenge in the municipality as it is evident that there is only one major and primary node in the whole municipal area.

5.3 Recommendations

The previous chapter presented key challenges that are associated with land use management in Ntambanana municipality. The issues identified in the study impact on land use management systems. This section provides recommendations that can bring positive change in planning and land use management in Ntambanana municipality.

Policy procedures must be articulated to allow for the regulation and emphasis of a synergistic relationship between traditional leaders and the municipality, and to also ensure community cooperation in planning and land use management. The regulations must clearly state what part each stakeholder plays and who is involved in the process of decision making. The municipality of Ntambanana must assume a regulatory part in seeking a settlement arrangement that will reshape the present land use image and address challenges of transport (access roads) and lack of nodes.

Planners must be straightforwardly required in growing settlement arrangements and guidelines regarding the allocation of land. According to the KZN Planning and Development Commission (2010: 51), “community participation must be encouraged to ensure that these plans are sensitive to the socio-cultural outlook of the area”. Ntambanana municipality is an area of historical importance, and therefore the knowledge of the local people is vital in land use planning. Moreover, the difficulties of land possession might be tended to through exploring the present update of understanding amongst traditional authority and municipality to incorporate national and provincial government and local people. If this is done, it will create efficient communication, transparency, and sustainable development.

Open approach exchanges to upgrade responsiveness of arranging strategies ought to be directed with all arrangement creators, and individuals' cooperation in such exchanges ought to be legitimately guaranteed. There are people in municipalities who do not know what a land use management framework or an IDP is. This is alarming as these policies facilitate development in any given municipality. Therefore, the instruments that are utilised to facilitate, evaluate, and communicate government policies ought to account for the diversities as far as language, access to information, including information regarding any policies imposed on municipality. 99.4% of people in Ntambanana municipality are black Africans,
therefore, the municipality should consider translating policies affecting the community to IsiZulu. Furthermore, to improve responsiveness of planning policies, public policy dialogues should be conducted. The municipality should also ensure people’s participation in public policy dialogues.

The KZN Planning and Development Commission (2012: 79) clearly states that the Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs (COGTA):

‘Has a clear mandate to develop appropriate policies and legislation to promote integration in the government’s development programmes and service delivery; providing strategic interventions, support and partnerships to facilitate policy implementation in the provinces and local government; and to create enabling mechanisms for communities to participate in governance in line with Batho Pele principles”

COGTA should therefore work together with departments such as Rural Development and Land Reform to interact and communicate with the Ingonyama Trust Board. This will guarantee that appropriate frameworks for LUM include communities and traditional councils, and that area specific systems of co-operations between traditional authorities and local government are formulated. Furthermore, the GIS system of the municipality must be upgraded to incorporate indigenous information to guarantee facilitated land use management by traditional leaders and ward councillors. This will guarantee that these tools are receptive to the needs of the people in all socio-cultural settings.

The stakeholders involved in LUM must all be aligned to achieve a common goal. The findings indicate that every stakeholder claims that they perform their parts when it comes to the process of LUM. However, they all see gap in the process. Information about any community meetings must be circulated to everyone residing in the area. The community can use media, notices and use the bus to put up posters and make announcements, as the bus is the most common form of transport in the municipality.

It must be taken into account that rural municipalities are different than those of urban areas. The district municipalities need to cater for municipalities specifically according to their needs. The uThungulu District municipality needs to recognize that what may work for uMfolozi local Municipality, may not work for Ntambanana local Municipality. Therefore, traditional municipalities need their specific policies when it comes to land use management issues and development policies. Traditional Leaders play an important role in rural communities; however, their participation regarding land use management or development is limited. This needs to rectified as traditional leaders still have more authority on local residents that the municipality. Traditional leaders need to be thoroughly involved in development plans, as this will ensure more community participation and better co-ordination of all stakeholders.
The municipality together with ward councillors must provide feedback to the community on the progress of any projects they have discussed with them. This will keep the communities informed with land use management targets and keep them on board about what has been accomplished thus far. Once a project has been completed, the municipality can conduct community satisfaction surveys to measure how effective community participation is.

5.4 Conclusion

The aim of this research was to access land use management systems in rural areas, with all the dynamics involved. There is pressure on land use management in South Africa, not only because of the scarcity of land but also because of the role that planning has played in South Africa’s past. More recently, there has been a directive to ensure that the processes of LUM are inclusive of all parties. Several policies have been adopted to promote equal social and economic opportunities. Such policies include the Municipal Systems Act (2000), the Land Use Management Bill of 2006 and more recently the Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act of 2013.

In measuring the effectiveness of Ntambanana Municipality, this research used mixed methodology methods. Both Qualitative and Quantitative methods answered specific research questions through interviews and questionnaires. Furthermore, with the normative concerns of Behrens and Watson, the progress of the municipality in general land use management was measured. It can be concluded that the municipality has had few developments; however has much room for improvement. These normative concerns are specifically designed for South African societies and Ntambanana Municipality somewhat applies. With the help of the Land Use Management, the municipality has the potential to exceed the expectations of these normative concerns.

Ntambanana municipality in the hopes of improving their current state and to regulate land use management, adopted a land use management framework (2009), and as revealed in the study findings, the municipality is still using the framework. It is evident that development is happening in Ntambanana Municipality, but is at a slower rate than expected. Many residents revealed that some projects started a long time ago and they feel those projects have been abandoned. The municipality needs to have consistency and transparency in their development plans, in order not to lose the public’s trust.

The findings also revealed a misalignment amongst the stakeholders, as they all had different views regarding land use management. Furthermore, the municipality and the traditional leaders work together, but do not have the same authority. Some community members do not know about any developments or
community meetings. Issues as such can be easily rectified if the municipality wishes to effectively apply the Land Use Management on the community.

Measuring effectiveness in this study revealed that there have been changes in the municipality since the adaptation of the framework as most respondents thought that the framework had achieved its stated objectives. When measured against Behrens and Watson’s normative concerns, overall the framework seemed to be fair. However, with revision in policy and involvement of all stakeholders, Ntambanana municipality has the potential to greatly eradicate its land use issues.
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Appendix 1

Questionnaire for community members

The Student Thembeka Nsele from UKZN (Howard College) is seeking your assistance in answering questions pertaining to her research. The Research is titled “Examining the effectiveness of the Land Use Management in Ntambanana Municipality”. It is about determining to what extent has the Land Use Management Framework has been effective in your community, using the layout principles stated below.

You as the respondent are not obliged to complete the questionnaire. Should you feel that you do not feel comfortable answering the questions, you have the right to refrain from answering, and you are also free to withdraw at any time without any negative consequences to yourself.

The criteria: 1- poor, 2- fair, 3- good, 4-excellent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name:</th>
<th>Age:</th>
<th>Gender:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Does the community of Ntambanana present such features?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Place-making</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Unique sense of place, Natural and cultural context)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Scale</td>
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<tr>
<td>(Is it ideal for a person who’s walking? Pavements, bus stop, pedestrian crossing)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Access</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>(Convenience, public transport, pedestrian friendly routes)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Opportunity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Small commercial enterprises, informal trading)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Efficiency</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>(Provision of services, mixed use development)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
6. **Choice**

(movement of people, where they are going and how they are going to get there)

7. How has the neighbourhood changed since the implementation of the Land Use Management Framework?

8. Has the Land Use Management Framework changed your life, in any way?

9. If so, how?

10. Were you (as a community member) part of the process of the Land Use Management?

11. If so, how do you think being part of the process influenced the outcome?

12. Do you think the Land Use Management Framework achieved its stated objectives?
Appendix 2

**Interview questions (Key Informant: Traditional Leader)**

1. Can you please describe the nature of your relationship with the local Municipality?
2. If it is unfavourable, what is the cause of this and how can it be resolved?
3. Do you get consulted when development is about to take place in your Isigodi (area)?
4. Do you consult your community of any possible development plans to occur in your area?
5. Were you involved in the process of the Land Use Management Framework?
Appendix 3

Interview Questions (Local Councillor)

1. How has the neighbourhood changed since the implementation of the Land Use Management Framework?
2. How do you make sure that local people are aware of the development taking place in their area?
3. How do you think community participation influences development outcomes?
4. Do you think the Land Use Management Framework achieved its stated objectives?
Appendix 4

Interview Questions (Key informant: Municipal Official)

1. Can you please describe the nature of your relationship with the Traditional leaders of Ntambanana?
2. If it is unfavourable, what is the cause of this and how can it be resolved?
3. Do you consult the traditional authorities and the community when development is about to take place in their areas?
4. Did you involve the traditional leaders in the process of the Land Use Management Framework?