COMMUNITY/STAKEHOLDER PARTICIPATION FOR INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT PLANNING AT THE REGIONAL/DISTRICT SCALE: THE CASE STUDY OF THE INDLOVU REGION (KWAZULU-NATAL).

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY AND RESEARCH PROBLEM

The general context for integrated development planning in South Africa is the shift in the role of municipal government from a traditional service provider to a developmental agent tasked with eradicating poverty, encouraging local economic development, and driving the process of reconstruction and development. While the local governments have traditionally been responsible solely for provision of services, they have now been tasked with an additional, and all-important, responsibility of ensuring the social and economic development of people in their areas of jurisdiction.

These responsibilities require that local governments be clear on their current situation, where they would like to be in the short, medium, and long term, and have strategies for getting there. Integrated Development Planning has been identified as a key tool to assist local government in performing this developmental role. ***Community/Stakeholder participation*** is regarded as of paramount importance for the IDP process to be successful and effective. An elaboration on the role of the IDP and on suggested process is to be found in policy documents produced by the Department of Constitutional Development (DCD), together with the German Agency for Technical Co-operation (GTZ), and in a manual prepared for the Department of Constitutional Development by the Centre for Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR), and the Municipal Systems Bill. All these documents emphasise the need for effective and thorough community/stakeholder participation.

There is a growing recognition that community/stakeholder participation is a very complex issue. A recent assessment of a number of IDP Pilot Projects, conducted under the auspices of DCD/GTZ, has highlighted the difficulties in

achieving meaningful participation and has shown how consultants continue to dominate the IDP process. Participation is, arguably, especially complex and difficult at a regional or district scale. This is partly because of the scale of a regional plan and partly because of the large number of communities and stakeholders within the geographical area. Many issues dealt with at a regional level are relatively abstract and do not have an immediate relationship to the concerns of individual communities. Due to limited capacities at community level, involvement in large, complex processes is often difficult. Planning processes may become a burden on individuals and communities and may raise unnecessary expectations. There is also a tendency to involve only the leadership in the process rather than ordinary people, and to be consultative rather than being genuinely participatory. Consultants sometimes add to the problem with their style of operation.

In KwaZulu-Natal, Regional Councils, known as District Councils in other provinces, have been involved in formulating regional-scale Integrated Development Plans. In terms of the new provincial legislation, the Planning and Development Act (No. 5 of 1998), these plans will in future be termed Regional Development Plans but they will meet all the requirements of IDPs in terms of national legislation. Regional Councils in KwaZulu-Natal have also begun a process of preparing sub-regional development plans. These are similar to Regional Development Plans (RDP) but have more detail and geographic specificity. The various Regional Councils in KwaZulu-Natal have used different methods of securing participation in their planning processes and have had varying levels of success.

This study sets out to investigate the nature and success of the participatory techniques used in the formulation of these plans, with a view to making recommendations on the appropriateness of different approaches to participation. It focused attention on one particular case study, the iNdlovu

Region and its sub-regions, but makes comparative assessments in relation to planning in other regions (excluding the uThungulu Region that was assessed by DCD/ GTZ as part of its pilot study program).

1.2 RESEARCH TOPIC

It is within this paradigm shift (from local government as a service provider to being responsible for socio-economic development) that the researcher became interested in exploring the dynamics of the IDP with special emphasis on community/stakeholder participation. There has been great emphasis on the role of communities and stakeholders in integrated development planning but very little has been done in assessing what it really entails especially at a regional/district scale.

The study is thus entitled: Community/Stakeholder Participation for Integrated Development Planning at the Regional/District Scale: the case of the iNdlovu Region (KwaZulu-Natal).

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTION

The research question is:
To what extent has the requirement for genuine community participation and the involvement of all relevant stakeholders in the process of formulating Integrated Development Plans been met in the preparation of the iNdlovu Regional Plan, and what would be the most appropriate and effective forms of such participation at regional scale in the future?

1.3.1 Subsidiary Questions

In support of the main research question, are the following subsidiary questions:

1. What are the requirements for genuine and appropriate community participation in IDP formulation in terms of legislation and policy?
2. What has been the history of regional scale participation in the area presently referred to as KwaZulu-Natal?
3. What form has participation taken in planning for the new Regional Council Areas within KwaZulu-Natal? (E.g. what stakeholders were involved, how were they involved and how extensive was this involvement?)
4. What have been the problems associated with this participation?
5. What have been the strengths and weaknesses of this participation?
6. Has participation made any changes/improvements with regard to planners identifying more appropriate issues, and the general effectiveness of a plan?
7. In view of the above what would the most appropriate forms of participation be in the future?
8. How does the nature of involvement at regional scale differ from that at sub-regional and local level?

1.4 Statement of Argument

The initial "hypothesis" of the research was that:

IDPs formulated at a regional level have failed to be genuinely participatory and all inclusive as required by policy/legislation due to: the very large number of communities within any one region; the large number of stakeholders involved in development of areas covered by the regional council; the abstract nature of the concepts of development planning at a regional scale to ordinary people; the approach of consultants; and the complexity of the issue of community/stakeholder participation itself.

As will be indicated, this hypothesis was vindicated only in part. In the case of the iNdlovu Region, at least, many stakeholders consider the form of participation to have been generally successful.

1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This investigation into participation processes during the iNdlovu regional planning process involved face-to-face interviews with a range of stakeholders. The list of stakeholders compiled for the purpose of preparing the plan was used to identify potential respondents. The list was very useful in the sense that it categorised stakeholders in terms of their field of specialisation and their role in the development and social well being of the people of the region. No formal or standard sampling method was used. Instead, an attempt was made to reach all organisations that were involved in the planning process, including the government departments and consultancies involved in the process. A total of 30 representatives, listed below, were interviewed.

Spread of Interviewees per sector/ organisation:

Service Providers/Parastatals	: 3
Organised Agriculture	: 3
Non-Governmental Organisations	: 2
Government Departments	: 1
Transitional Local Councils	: 2
Sub-regional planning Consultants	: 5
iNdlovu Regional Councillors (EXCO)	: 2
AmaKhosi	: 2
Organised Business	: 2
Expert Input	: 1
Regional Planner for uThukela	: 1
Regional Plan Consultant	: 1
Respondents from other Regions (for comparative purposes)	*: 5*
Total	**: 30**

Note that twenty of the respondents commented directly on the Regional Planning process whereas ten were approached, for comparative purposes, to

provide an insight into other planning processes; in other regions, and in sub-regions within iNdlovu.

Due to problems encountered in the process, not all-potential interviewees were reached. For example some people involved in the process had resigned from their jobs and were untraceable and the organisations no longer had individuals with a memory of what happened. In addition, some of the officials were simply not prepared or willing to co-operate whilst certain of the rural councillors were difficult to locate.

This methodology has its weaknesses. It only included those who were involved in the process and did not reach communities or agencies that had no representation. The iNdlovu Region is unfortunately very large and populous and there was no practical method of gauging the general reaction of the hugely diverse population to the process.

1.6 RATIONALE FOR USING THE INDLOVU REGION AS A CASE STUDY

In the first demarcations of the Regional Councils in KwaZulu-Natal in 1995, region 5 (now known as iNdlovu) was the biggest in the province. The region has further significance in the province as it includes Pietermaritzburg, which was a capital for the Natal Provincial Administration and is now a co-capital, with Ulundi, for KwaZulu-Natal Province.

INdlovu region's Integrated Development Planning Process was also the pioneer project in the province. It was started in 1996 at that time when no other region had commenced the process. It also started at the time when many people were still confused about the meaning of the term 'regional development planning', let alone its procedures. In 1996 national legislation had just emerged which legislated developmental local government and integrated development

planning. Before this, the concept existed only in policy documents, planning debates, and academic papers. At the provincial level, the relevant policy document was KwaZulu-Natal Growth and Development Strategy (PGDS). This included many elements of a development plan but was at a provincial scale and had no statutory basis.

The difficulties experienced during integrated development planning at its early stage became the second reason for taking iNdlovu as the case study. Unpacking the experiences of the very early stages of integrated development planning at a regional scale should help in future research, as there has been time to reflect on the process. Logical and sequential study of integrated development planning process is important since IDP is a learning process.

The Interim Report IDP Pilot Projects: Assessment Report commissioned by the Department of Constitutional Development is one of the few works on the assessment of integrated development planning done so far. This study looked at how the local government structures understand integrated development and how they go about formulating IDPs. The study is at national scale, looking at all pilot projects. Assessment is on the process as a whole, from attitude and understanding of IDPs to finding out who leads the process.

This dissertation looks at IDP process at a regional scale with special emphasis on iNdlovu Region with limited reference to other regions of the province of KwaZulu-Natal. It is not about all aspects of the process but only deals with community/stakeholder participation.

Studies done so far on community/stakeholder participation have focused on the community participation aspect. The dissertation aims to introduce the dimension of sectoral stakeholders to assess their role in the process of

participation as well as that of communities. The work done on community participation to date has been on development planning issues in general while this dissertation will focus specifically on the "integrated development planning process". Previous research has also been on a local/municipal level, whilst in this research the focus is at the regional/district scale.

1.7 CHAPTER OUTLINE

Chapter One: INTRODUCTION

This chapter serves as an introduction to the dissertation. It provides reasons for conducting the study and what it entails. It serves to provide an understanding of what the study is all about. The aims of and background to the study are explained. Information incorporated in this chapter include: background to the study and research problem; research topic; research question and subsidiary questions; statement of argument; research methodology; chapter outline; and, literature review.

Chapter Two: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter deals with the conceptualisation of integrated development planning and its emphasis on community participation, within the context of regional planning. The chapter discusses the definition, forms and requirements of community participation whilst the notion of developmental local government is introduced. The concepts of regional planning and development are discussed, and the relationship between these and participation in the context of integrated development planning at local government (regional scale), is highlighted.

Chapter Three: DISTRICT/REGIONAL PLANNING IN KWAZULU-NATAL.

This chapter provides for a conceptualisation of the restructured local government system of South Africa, which is in line with restructuring of the

whole government system from 'tiers of government to spheres of government'. This conceptualisation makes special reference to the regional/district level of local government. It traces regional planning in KwaZulu-Natal both in terms of structures as well as in practice. It demonstrates the developmental role the local government is now expected to undertake. The aim of the chapter is to place the discussion of developmental local government and integrated development planning at a regional scale.

Chapter 4: CASE STUDY: INDLOVU REGION

This chapter serves to introduce the reader to the area of study. It gives a contextual history of the area. Information that is relevant to the understanding of the study area (e.g. its size, population, socio-economic trends and processes) is provided. It also discusses the process of formulating the IDP for the iNdlovu region.

Chapter Five: AN ASSESSMENT OF PARTICIPATION IN THE INDLOVU REGIONAL PLANNING PROCESS

The chapter outlines methodology and methods that guided the investigation of the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) for the iNdlovu Region. It provides discussion on contributions made by the case study in investigating the problem. At the core of the chapter is the manner in which integrated development planning happened for iNdlovu region with regard to community/stakeholder participation aspect. The assessment is based on interviewees' responses and it is linked to research problem and statement of argument or hypothesis presented in the first chapter (chapter 1).

Chapter Six: RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

In this chapter, a recommended approach and tools to appropriate community/stakeholder participation process in integrated development planning

and IDP formulation at local government other than local authorities is suggested. In such a discussion, limitations that community/stakeholder participation has, are inevitable. The chapter also provides a chance for drawing together arguments in the dissertation content, and for working out the linkage from all the preceding chapters.

1.8 AN INTRODUCTION TO KEY TEXTS ON INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT PLANNING

The aim of this section is to introduce literature used in the study. This is done with reference to a few key texts. The bodies of literature used are from integrated development, local government and community participation. The discussion aims at showing how different books and papers contribute to the issues discussed in the study. The literature was drawn from both international and local work.

The White Paper on Local Government (1998) produced by the Department of Constitutional Development (DCD) calls for the formulation of Integrated Development Plans (IDPs) by all structures of local government. It locates IDPs within a discussion about the changing role of local government.

In doing this, the emphasis is placed on balancing distribution of resources and on the notion of integration in a broader sense. Integration is used to refer to spatial integration, cross-sector and cross-departmental integration, and the integration of a planning process. The need for genuine community participation in IDP formulation is also highlighted.

Future elaboration on the process and contents of IDP is provided by the **Integrated Development Process Manual** prepared by the CSIR for the Department of Constitutional Development (DCD). A criticism of this manual,

however, is that it is too detailed and complex. A more user-friendly guiding document was prepared by PLANACT, a Johannesburg Non-Governmental Organisation (NGO).

Since the production of these manuals, there has been some development of policy and legislation. Harrison et al (1998) provided some preliminary policy guidance in a paper for the DCD. More recently the DCD (now the Department of Provincial and Local Government) has prepared a more comprehensive draft policy drawing on various input papers.

The **Municipal Systems Bill, 1999** prepared by the DCD, elaborates further on integrated planning process and how the process is to be pursued. It also emphasises community/stakeholder participation. It has concrete suggestions on the manner in which the process is to be conducted, which other documents (both policy and legislation) have really lacked. There has been a great deal of thinking and writing about integrated development planning with many recommendations arising from this and the bill is intended to legislate recommendations from those writings.

There has also been some assessment of IDP. **The Interim Report IDP Pilot Project: Assessment Study** by the DCD (1999) helps to give a broader picture on what is happening so far on issues to be covered in the dissertation. The DCD have pilot projects countrywide on integrated development planning and IDP formulation in particular. They have three pilots in which two are the local municipalities i.e. KwaDukuza (Stanger) TLC, and Howick TLC, and one is the regional council i.e. uThungulu Regional Council.

1.9 CONCLUSION

The philosophy of planning since the introduction of apartheid policy in South Africa has been one of segregation. In the new dispensation, the government strives to redress this trend as it was proven to be inefficient. As a consequence of this policy the majority of South Africans live under severe poverty conditions. A tool for this redress has been found in integrated development planning. Owing to our history, an attempt to involve different interest groups in planning is a growing trend and has consequently formed a critical component of IDP. Hence, the focus of this report is on the way in which participation in the IDP process is carried out.

The concern of this chapter was to put the study into context. An outline of the research problem, research question, subsidiary questions, hypothesis, and the structure that the dissertation takes is provided. The chapter also included a research methodology employed to achieve the objectives of the study.

CHAPTER 2: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The conception and application of integrated development planning unsurprisingly reflects a particular ontology and epistemology. Integrated development planning aims at critically analysing the current socio-economic trends of an area of jurisdiction for a local government with the purpose of providing rational solutions. It does however, involve participatory processes.

The emphasis on community/stakeholder participation combined with the procedural step-by-step formulae of conducting the process is associated with different eras and demonstrates a combination of two theoretical paradigms i.e. modernism and postmodernism. In the modernist era planning was regarded as science and thus only trained officials could engage in it. As with all sciences, planning was expected to consider the environment in its totality and then follow prescribed procedures, which follow one after the other to reach a rational conclusion. In postmodernism that conceptualisation of planning is challenged. It is now argued that there is no absolute truth waiting somewhere to be revealed through an application of criteria and methods applied by professionals. Therefore it follows that not only the 'scientist' is capable of engaging with planning.

Communicative rationality seems to be positioned in-between these two paradigms. It acknowledges the emancipation by modernism and the usefulness to have some set steps to follow — thus it does not challenge it vigorously. On the other hand it argues that planning is about communicating ideas and is not supposed to be technical. For communicative rationality, reasoning is not scientific and there is no absolute truth waiting somewhere, and therefore,

anyone can reason and 'develop truth'. Some people might argue that it essentially puts a human face to modernist thinking.

The argument of communicative rationality is important especially at this juncture in South African history. The newly constituted sphere of local government has been given a new mandate to be developmentally focused in its activities. Integrated development planning has been developed as a tool to pursue this mandate. Emphasised in this tool is the need to involve community residing in the area of the municipality, and also officials and other stakeholders in the area. This means that planning has to be done not only by trained planners but everyone can be involved. Such a position is clearly informed by theories such as communicative rationality.

This chapter sets out to discuss the theory of communicative rationality as the theory that shapes the concerns of this dissertation. The aim of this chapter therefore, is to locate the research topic within an appropriate theoretical framework. In addition to a discussion of theory it also sets out the key concepts fundamental to the dissertation. The discussion of key concepts aims at ensuring a common starting point, in other words, an understanding of the context and meaning in which the terms are used in this study. The key concepts are community/stakeholder participation, regional planning, and integrated development planning.

The chapter is therefore organised in such a way that it starts with discussion of the guiding theory, i.e. communicative rationality, and then follows with the related and important concepts of community/stakeholder participation, integrated development planning, and regional planning.

2.2 COMMUNICATIVE RATIONALITY / PLANNING THEORY

"Arguably the most significant departure within planning theory over the past decade or so has been the emergence of a broad paradigm of thought that casts planning as an essentially communicative action" (Healey: 331). This is a direct challenge to traditional notions of planning as technical or instrumental rationality. It is argued by Healey (in Fischer and Forester, 1993) that the commitment to approach planning as a democratic enterprise aimed at promoting social justice and environmental sustainability is limited/hindered by the fact that the technical and administrative machineries advocated and created to pursue these goals are based on a narrow and dominatory scientific rationalism. "These machineries have further compromised the development of a democratic attitude and have failed to deliver the goals promoted (Healey, 1993: 233). The forefather of this theory is Habermas. Habermas opposed a narrow scientism and a belief in the existence of universal truth, but also opposed post-modernism, which for him was a threat to the emancipation of modernity. Since then, many theorists have added to the debate with some variations. In this dissertation, Healey is used as the main Communicative Rationality theorist

Communicative rationality has a different conception of human reason. It offers a shift from a subject-object conception of reason to reasoning formed within inter-subjective communication (Healey, 1993). The concept of a communicative model implies an expansion from the notion of reason as pure logic and scientific empiricism to encompass all the ways we come to understand and know things and use that knowledge in acting.

The mainstream notions of planning as social guidance, directed change and technical rationality, is arguably, no longer providing a feasible or desirable response to contemporary social conditions. Habermassian rationality is a communicative reason, which is the product of deliberation, argument and

dialogue. For Communicative Rationality, "planning, and its contents, is a way of acting we can choose after debate" (Healey, 1993: 238). Its theorists, for example Forester, see planning as a communicative process that shapes the attention of the public and decision making to information. But Habermas' conception of communicative rationality has been criticised. One of the criticisms is that he believes that consensual decisions are possible, whereas social relations reveal deep divisions of class, race, gender and culture, and thus a power struggle.

In search of a way forward, a communicative meta-language or meta-discourse for planning discussions has been suggested. But for Healey, a meta-language, unavoidably contains dominatory potential. "It could all too easily settle into assumptions of understanding and agreement detached from those whose ways of being, knowing, and valuing are supposed to be reflected in the agreement" (Ibid, 239). It is argued that to be liberating rather than dominating, intercommunicative reasoning must acknowledge that the 'differences' we communicate within are not simply in terms of economic and social positions, or in specific wants and needs, but in systems of meaning (Ibid). In our frames of reference, words, phrases, expressions, and objects are interpreted differently and hence we see things differently. This is particularly true in South Africa where participatory planning process means bringing together people who speak different languages. Most key planning terms are very difficult to translate into an African language (isiZulu in the case of KwaZulu-Natal) while still maintaining the original meaning of the concept and this is likely to have an influence on the contributions made by black South Africans to the process. As Healey in Fischer and Forester (1993) argued, we need to recognise the inherent localised specificity and untranslatability of systems of meaning. Of course systems of meaning or frames of reference shift and evolve during these encounters. "But it can never be possible to construct a stable, fully inclusionary consensus, and

the agreements we reach should be recognised as merely temporary accommodations of different, and differently adapting, perceptions" (Ibid, 239).

Healey emphasises the plausibility of argumentation. For her, this process provides a more enduring and effective basis for action than strategies arrived at through abstract reasoning. Healey does not appeal to science or logic and does not believe that there is a truth out there for each problem we encounter, that can be uncovered through the application of human reason. According to Healey, truth is but constructed through consensus building. "A communicative approach to knowledge production... maintains that knowledge is not merely a preformulated store of systematised understandings but is specifically created anew in our communications through exchanging perceptions and understandings and through drawing on the stock of life experience and previously consolidated cultural and moral knowledge available to participants" (Ibid, 241). Therefore, as IDP is concerned with identifying the critical problems of the community of a particular municipality, and strives to find the most appropriate and implementable solutions, the focus should be not on the content of the plan but on the process that was followed in developing that plan.

The theory, clearly then, is pro-involvement of community and other stakeholders in decision making with regard to development planning. An argument that would claim that town and regional planners are experts and the communities and other stakeholders in the locality are not capacitated to deal with planning issues since they are not trained to do so, no longer applies. According to this theory, the proper way of going about decision making is argumentation and debate other than abstract thinking of professionals who are not well acquainted with issues affecting the particular community. The relevant and legitimate plan therefore is the one that involves communities and stakeholders from data collection through formulation of the plan to implementation. Integrated Development Planning and an emphasis on

community/stakeholder participation as its core element are not purely drawn from the theory of Communicative Rationality. Nevertheless, some elements of this theory significantly influenced the thinking about IDP. While Communicative Rationality emphasise/argue for decisions arrived at through argumentation and consensus, the integrated development planning process has a predetermined set of steps and phases to follow when formulating an IDP. The involvement of the regional community and stakeholders is to provide first hand information and directly articulate their needs, to make a plan more contextual, appropriate, useful and implementable.

2.3 COMMUNITY / STAKEHOLDER PARTICIPATION

2.3.1 INTRODUCTION

In terms of both the thinking and practice of development, participation has become a buzzword. This sub-section attempts to explore what is it that we are talking about when referring to community/stakeholder participation. Communicative Rationality argues for the need to involve the people of the municipality for which the plan is being formulated (regional community in this instance). As indicated elsewhere in this document, participation as it happens in IDP is not exactly as it is advanced in the theory. Participation does not occur to the extent that the plan is completely consensus driven. In IDP all role players have their specific roles to play. Communities and stakeholders are drawn into the process but are not its drivers - they are there for a specific purpose as indicated above. We normally talk about community participation, not community/stakeholder participation. The addition of 'stakeholder' should be noted because it adds something to the concept. It is not only communities but also other stakeholders (organisations, parastatals, government departments, etc) that are either affected by issues of planning and development or have an important role to play in development of the regional council's area.

There is clearly no consensus on the meaning of this concept. Although the term is universally used, it has been noted that different people have different understanding of it and they use it differently depending on the purpose for which it is used. The meaning of the concept is therefore widely debated and this is evident in the discussion. . The discussion attempt to be more contextual and focus on the new system of local government in South Africa with particular emphasis on regional government.

The approach used in thinking about the concept here is to subdivide it into community, stakeholder, and participation, and discuss these elements separately.

2.3.2 DEMOCRACY

The concept of participation is generally associated with democracy. Two points need to be mentioned with regard to this concept and thus the rationale for discussing it: firstly, where democracy does not exist there is hardly any community involvement. Secondly, where democracy does exist, the debate on community/stakeholder participation revolves around whether it should be direct (popular) or indirect (representative) democracy. Since South Africa is now a democratic country the discussion of this sub-concept is focused on the latter point of contention.

Proponents of representative democracy are in essence saying that there is no need to involve directly, all the people living inside the area of jurisdiction of the council. The basis of their argument is that councillors are democratically elected representatives of the people and, as such, should be the ones who take decisions on behalf of these people. Proponents of this approach do not see themselves as anti-community participation. They would argue that all they are

saying is that "the final and ultimate decisions on government matters must rest in the hands of the majority vote of the representatives of the people" (Darke, 1977: 88). In other words, all residents participate in decision-making process but through their political representatives. Proponents of direct democracy, on the other hand, are in favour of a situation where the electorate is given an opportunity to be directly involved, through mechanisms other than elected council, in the decision-making processes for issues that will affect their lives. For popular democracy, the community should have greater access to information and have greater opportunity to present their views to elected representatives and officials of the council and other relevant structures. Proponents of direct democracy recognise that not all interests are always served by a council elected every five years or so.

Diagram 2.1: Traditional Relationship (Representative Democracy)

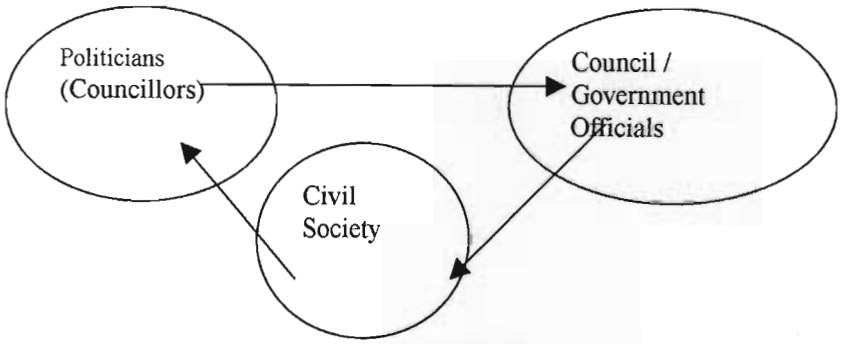
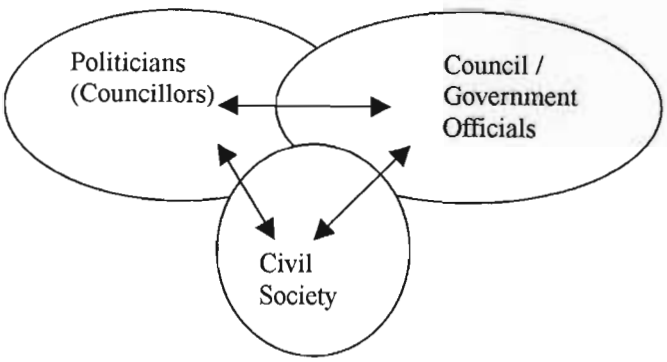


Diagram 2.2: Direct (Popular) Democracy



Source: North and South Central Class notes, 1999

The representative democracy perspective is problematic especially in the context of South African Regional Councils. The argument seems to be based on the way local municipalities are structured, where people vote for a specific ward councillor. Before going any further, it should be said that this is by no means a suggestion that the perspective is acceptable in the context of local municipalities. The argument is that representation in regional councils is organised such that a councillor is responsible, i.e. represents the whole regional community and not a specific area in which s/he resides. Such an arrangement makes accountability of councillors and an opportunity for the constituent to give mandate to the councillors difficult and problematic. Representation in regional scale local government is obviously not as direct as representative democracy assumes. A blanket statement or approach that argues that councillors are the representatives of the people and so they can take decisions on behalf of their communities is therefore problematic, especially, at the regional scale of local government.

However, even direct democracy is not without problems. Surely you cannot have all individuals participating in the community participation process, especially at a regional scale. So, direct democracy in fact means extended representation and not involvement of everyone in a literal sense. Such an arrangement has the potential to go a long way towards balancing the potential bias that is possible because of the way representation happens in the regional council system. This is because community leaders not involved in the council e.g. leaders of development forums, different community-based projects, etc. will be able to voice their concerns, needs and proposals. In direct democracy, the stakeholders that invest in the region have a chance to influence the plan with positive impact on the effectiveness and implementation of the plan.

Community participation in the context of local government "implies that planning, management, and decision-making is focused at community level and

that the community is directly involved in the entire process" (Harrison, 1988: 5). This is however difficult to relate to the notion of regional scale participation. The idea of 'a community' is also problematic in this context. In defining the concept it is necessary that we unpack its building blocks (as already said before). We need to look at the concept of 'community' to better understand what are we saying when we make reference to participation of the 'community'.

2.3.3 COMMUNITY

There are many different understandings of 'community'. But the common feature of all the definitions is reference to people. Different definitions of community emphasise either a shared geographical area, or a certain level of interactions as a prerequisite for community to exist. It is now clear that to talk of community, as a group of people in certain geographic area with shared interests is problematic. People always have different and contradicting interests. Some people would suggest that it is better to use the term 'local social system' which indicates a set of inter-relations existing in a geographically defined locality (Harrison, 1998). Taken in this sense, people living in the area of jurisdiction of regional council are together referred to as a region wide community rather than using the term for resident's individual settlements. However, the people living in a geographic area as large as that of a region, are unlikely to have common interests and aspirations. Therefore, the concept will be used with the assumption of divergent and even contradicting interests and also with the recognition that the concept of community at regional scale or even at local scale has many problems.

All in all, a community is not a homogenous entity but a collection of different interest groups, often in conflict, that together make up a community profile (Matyumza, 1998). In fact it is possible to have conflict even within a group. Given this potential for a huge diversity of interests, "the development process

may build social relations and strengthen common interests within a geographic area, but it also has the potential to heighten conflict and further polarise residents" (Harrison, 1988). It is the duty of the decision-makers and/or planners, working with communities to work at bringing together these divergent and conflicting interests and at developing widely acceptable compromises and alternatives. The involvement of the community even in this process of alternatives generating is critical to ensuring that they are acceptable to them. This process will also serve indirectly as a capacity building/empowerment process.

In issues of planning and development not only communities are affected, but also stakeholders i.e. the private sector, parastatals (service providers), non-governmental organisations, and other interest groups. The involvement of these groups in planning for development of the locality is important since they also have a role to play and may represent sectors able to contribute financially and otherwise to development. Their involvement is regarded as very important in South Africa as there are considerable talks about public–private partnerships as an important strategic partnership to achieve the goal of developing our country. The basis of this argument is that the state does not have sufficient resources in terms of funds, material and skilled human power to carry out these development responsibilities. Given the expertise and resources that private sector stakeholders possess, they become more relevant in respect of the regional scale of local government where resources are in acute shortage.

3.2.4 PARTICIPATION

As indicated, the concept of community/stakeholder participation is universally used but with a variety of interpretations and meanings. The difference in understanding is usually categorised according to political spectrum. There are those on the right of the political spectrum who understand community

participation as something to do with self-help. For the leftist, the term is primarily intended to raise levels of consciousness to challenge the status quo.

The socio-political history of South Africa makes the need for community participation in decision-making on issues that will determine their destiny, an absolute necessity. In the struggle against apartheid, the 'local government system' of that regime became the target of the struggle. This has led to existence of strong civic movements. As Skweyiya (19:130) states:

> The emergence of organs of peoples power, during this period [i.e. years of struggle], especially civic organisations, should not only be characterised as the rejection of the apartheid state's legitimacy but should be recognised as the birth of new organisational forms, rooting the democratic forces among people and creating the new elements which contributed towards broadening the liberation struggle on all fronts.

From these, a foundation for development activism and participatory development process was laid. In the process of the struggle the powerless learned that their power lies in collective action. Communities became aware that they needed to be involved in all stages of development (planning) in order to fully understand the development issues facing their communities and in order to ensure responsive development. This participatory ethos has been carried forward into the post-apartheid era although many civic structures are now far weaker than they were previously.

As shown above, there are a variety of interpretations to community/stakeholder participation. The broad understanding this dissertation follows is taken from Goodey, (1981) and Paul, (1987). Goodey (1981) defines participation as the involvement of people affected or people who will eventually be affected by development outcomes in societal decision-making. For Paul (1987), the term refers to an active process whereby beneficiaries influence the direction and

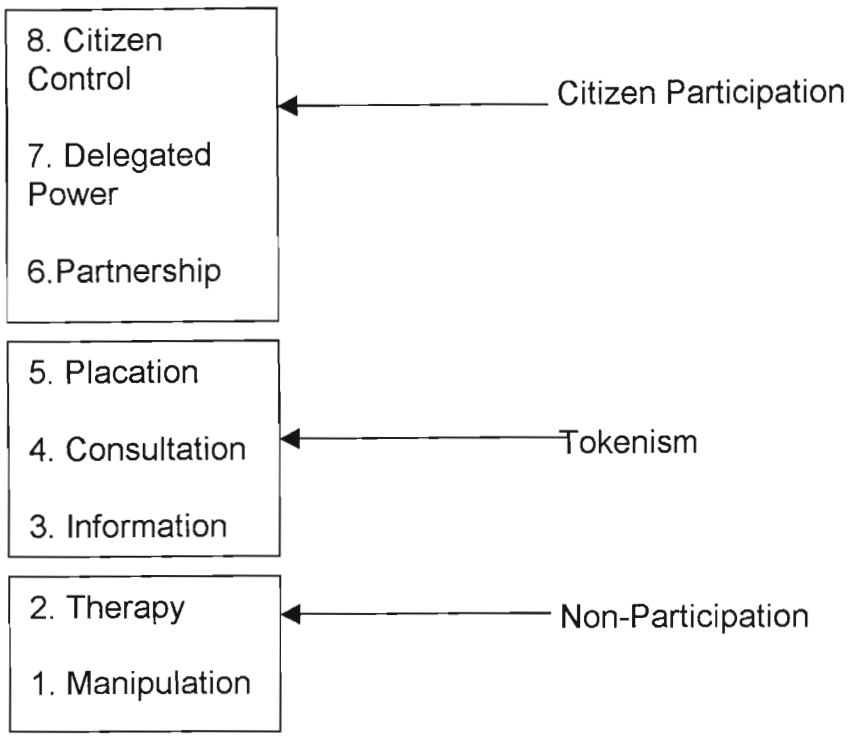
execution of development rather than being mere passive recipients of development.

It could be argued that the nature of planning makes the need for community/stakeholder participation a necessity rather than a matter of choice. Planning is future oriented and directed at achieving goals by optimal means and learning from the outcome for better performance in the future. Batley (cited in Matyumza, 1998) maintains that planning is political not only in the sense that it produces outcomes from which some gain and some lose, but also in the sense that it is a political process for conciliating interests that cannot be equally satisfied. Planning is therefore not a simple process of identifying problems and coming up with solutions, but a process of balancing conflicting claims on scarce resources, of deciding who is to benefit and who is to bear the costs of planning decisions, and of achieving compromises between conflicting interests. Such a process requires the support of the people one is planning for/with in order that it is appropriate and has legitimacy. It is for this reason that planning with communities rather than planning for communities is arguably the only way to go.

The extent to which this process of community participation occurs in development process varies considerably. Arnstein (1971) analyses different ways in which the process of community participation is carried out. Her analysis took the form of a ladder of participation ranging from manipulation, through therapy, information, consultation, placation, partnership, up to delegated power and citizen control. "The variable which underpins the analysis is the extent to which the participants have power to act as independent decision-makers" (Darke, 1977: 92). What usually happens is tokenism — an illusion of community participation. The community is rarely brought into early stages of the process, that is, problem conceptualisation and needs identification. Local governments

also have a tendency to treat community participation as an event rather than a continuous activity.

Table2.1 Arnstein's Ladder of Participation



Source: Darke, 1977

Darke (1977) argues that participation is not usually an integral part of ongoing processes of problem identification, policy formulation, decision-making, implementation, monitoring and review. He stated in his book "Local Government and the Public" (1977: 99):

> All too often the event of participation is focused on the publication of a particular set of more or less finalised proposals. In such instances the public is not being involved in the various stages through which local governments go in devising a policy. There is every reason why the public should be involve in establishing needs, problems and aspirations, in setting aims and objectives, in preparing alternative strategies to meet

those aims and objectives, in selecting a preferred strategy and a final policy and in subsequent implementation and monitoring.

Simply to stage a participation event in order to tell people what has actually or effectively been decided is, in isolation, is merely cynical window dressing.

2.4 INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT PLANNING

2.4.1 CONCEPTUALISING

The idea of integrated development planning (IDP) has taken South Africa by storm in a short space of time. The concept is now enshrined in legislation and it looks certain to dominate the new South African planning paradigm and its system of local government. This concept has a long history and is still being used in different ways but South Africa's Department of Constitutional Development (DCD) has taken the broad notion of integrated development planning and given it a particular meaning and associated it with a set of processes, methods and outcomes (Harrison, 1999). When IDPs were made a legal requirement in Local Government transition Act, Second Amendment Act (1996), their conceptualisation at a policy level was very limited (DCD, 1999(b)). As the department's White Paper on Local Government (1998: 19) puts it:

> "One of the most important methods for achieving co-ordination and integration is integrated development planning [which leads to an Integrated Development Plan]. Integrated Development Plans (IDPs) provide powerful tools for municipalities to facilitate integrated and co-ordinated delivery within their locality"

With the new setting of local government and the introduction of developmental responsibility, the methodology and thinking behind planning had to change as well. The main concept in integrated development is the notion of integration. What exactly do we mean by 'integrated development'? According to PLANACT

(1997), integration means thinking about and undertaking activities in a holistic manner. Planning is not to be treated as an event but as an ongoing process to, among other things, effect structural changes. They argue that this will, in addition to make planning easier in future, also re-orient the local institutions in a manner that will allow them to fulfil their new developmental mandate.

Community participation is identified as one of the mechanisms that will contribute to the re-orientation and transformation of municipalities. The linking of a plan to budget is important to avoid it being merely a statement of intent. The key elements of an integrated development planning process are therefore: sector co-ordination, inter-governmental co-ordination, institutional development, community participation, and budgeting (PLANACT, 1997). Various forms of integrated development planning are required by a number of national departments (e.g. water, transport, and housing) but the IDP requires the integration of these sectoral plans. The introduction of integrated development planning is justified by the negative consequences of institutional fragmentation and spatial divisions created by apartheid planning.

2.4.2 MULTIPLE ORIGINS

The Local Government Transition Act, Second Amendment Act, 1996 and then later the White Paper on Local Government might be argued by some to be the origins of the idea of integrated development planning. Some would argue that with South Africa's transition from apartheid to a democratic society, it became necessary to develop a conception of planning that would represent a decisive break from the past. Therefore, integrated development planning emerged from this context. The fact of the matter is that the concept did not emerge out of nowhere. A wide range of factors had influenced this form of planning. It is a product of a multiplicity of tangled origins. It has a long history and draws on

quite diverse conceptions of 'development planing', 'integrated planning' and 'integrated development' (Harrison, 1999).

There are a variety of influences from which the concept derived. One of these influences was imported from United States and Britain. The three key traditions were: the regionalism/holism of Geddes, Mumford et al, procedural rationalism and systems theory, and radical planning theory (Harrison, 1999). Geddes and Mumford emphasised the organic unity of environment, society and economy. For the second tradition, in the framework of rational comprehensiveness, a rational decision making process involved considerations of all relevant factors and was thus integrative in its focus. Radical planning theory conceptualised planning in an integrative manner in relation to its social and economic context.

Another set of influences came from the idea of development and development planning. The development discourse evolved from late 1970s and early 1980s in both state and opposition circles. After 1990, it was relatively easy for the official and oppositional versions of development to blend into a seemingly universal ideology that provided the consensus for the national programme of Reconstruction and Development (RDP).

Some organisations also had a significant influence on the development of the concept as well. The DBSA for instance, ironically formed in the 1980s from the initiatives of reformist officials and intellectuals of the Botha government. The involvement of radical and liberal planners with civic movements in the 1980s resulted in the establishment of organisations like BESG, DAG, and PLANACT, which had tremendous influence. Their arguments were centred on the need to re-integrate the fragmented Apartheid City.

With consensus on official and opposition reached, the RDP became one of the ministries of the new government with responsibility for co-ordinating the actions

of the various sectors and provincial ministries in the delivery of the government's centrepiece programme of reconstruction and development. Initially, the ministry conceptualised integrated development planning as a macro process driven at national level and involving the alignment of different planning and development processes within a single co-ordinated framework. This position faced serious resistance from other ministries who perceived it as interference. Consequently, by 1996 the ministry was shut down, and that was a turning point in South Africa's conceptualisation of integrated development planning. "From then on, the idea of integrated development planning was associated with attempts to establish a viable system of democratic local government, and today the term 'integrated development planning' is referred to almost exclusively with reference to municipal planning" (Harrison, 1999: 9).

By 1996, then, the focus of the state had shifted towards the creation of a democratic and effective local government system. Part of this new focus was a concern with the delivery of reconstruction and development, with the realisation that local government would have to play a leading role in this regard (Harrison, 1999). There was also an acknowledgement of a severe lack of skills and competence among local government needed to successfully fulfil this mandate. Here was a concept of integrated development planning which offered a potential tool for ensuring the realisation of the objectives of local government. In other words, it had the potential to build the capacity of local government – financial viability, management capacity and institutional coherence that is necessary for local government if its objectives are to be met.

2.4.3 DEVELOPMENTAL LOCAL GOVERNMENT

South African local government has traditionally been solely responsible for the provision of services. In addition, local government was not an independent entity but controlled by the national government. This setting has changed

dramatically in this new era. Local government has now been established as an independent entity. In terms of functions and responsibilities of local government, while it is expected to continue with its traditional responsibilities, it is now required to play a developmental role. This role is required by 1996 Constitution of the Republic and subsequent legislation and is explicitly stated in the White Paper on Local Government (1998). "In co-operation with citizens and communities, it has to find sustainable ways to meet the people's needs and to improve the quality of their lives" (DCD, 1999(b)). According to the IDP Policy (1999) produced by DCD, the rationale for allocating this responsibility to the local sphere is related to the facts that:

- only local government is sufficiently close to the communities, to local stakeholders, and their organisations;
- only local government is sufficiently familiar with local places and local conditions;
- it is the local arena, where investments and actions of different sectors and actors have to be co-ordinated in terms of time and space.

The White Paper became a starting point for an understanding of the official use of the concept. According to this policy document, developmental local government is local government committed to working with citizens and groups [stakeholders] within the municipality's area of jurisdiction in order to find sustainable ways of meeting their social, economic, and material needs and of improving the quality of their lives. Four inter-related characteristics of developmental local government are identified in the White Paper. They are:

- maximising social development and economic growth
- integration and co-ordination
- democratising development
- leading and learning

Although local government has been mandated to be developmentally focused, initial work failed to help local government with the technique(s) needed to perform its duties and responsibilities. The concept was first legislated in the Local Government Transition Act (LGTA), Second Amendment, Act 209 of 1996, which proposed integrated development planning as such a technique. As an official tool it emerged in 1996. The 1998 White Paper on Local Government became the first policy document to assist in proper understanding of the concept.

The White Paper starts from the developmental mandate entrusted to local government in terms of the new national Constitution. The required developmental outcomes are: the provision of household infrastructure and services; the creation of integrated cities, towns and rural areas; and, community empowerment and redistribution. It further clarifies that a suggested tool to pursue these responsibilities is the integrated development plan, and a process of developing such a tool is integrated development planning process. To have an IDP will mean that a municipality has: a vision; goals and programmes are ranked according to priorities; these goals and programmes are linked to budget, consistent with planning processes at provincial and national level, etc.

2.5 REGIONAL PLANNING

In the past years regional planning has been in disarray. For some time now regional planing has been struggling to define itself. In its practice it has tended to focus on particular aspects of a region's make-up (e.g. economy) at the expense of all others, hence a holistic understanding of the region and interrelationship between all aspects in play has been lost (Dewar and Kiepel, 1996). Regional planning is broadly subdivided into inter-regional and intra-regional planning. The former is concerned with the efficient and equitable distribution of resources and activity between regions, while the latter is

concerned with problems within a particular region (Harrison, 1998). The concept has been interchangeably used with other related concepts, especially, economic planning and development planning. To understand the concept we define what is meant by 'region', 'planning', and 'plan', as they are currently used in South Africa.

The concept of **'region'** itself is a confusing term. It varies by scale and it may refer to a supranational scale (i.e. a scale beyond one national state) or a sub-national scale (e.g provincial and district). Regional planning at supranational and national scale tends to focus on spatial planning e.g. development corridors. Regional planning at national level (i.e. inter-regional) could be in the form of spatial guidelines aimed at integrating public sector spending over space and responding to spatial disjunctures, which characterise the apartheid space economy and settlement pattern (Harrison and Todes, 1999). Provincial and district level regional planning on the other hand is multi-sectoral. Though these regional plans vary across provinces, the common concerns they address are: integration and co-ordination of development, environmental and/or land use management, identification of regional potentials and the capacity of a region to deal with planning and development issues. In addition, a region could also mean an administrative boundary, a natural zone e.g. a river catchment area.

Therefore, there is no single way of defining a region. Nevertheless, all definitions of a 'region' relate, irrespective of the context, to a part of the earth. The term 'region' refers to a portion of earth in which real people travel through real spaces. A region should be understood in its whole, in all its dimensions: ecological, physical, economic, social, and institutional. In the context of the South African local government system, a region can be considered to be the jurisdictional area of a Regional or District Council.

Dewar and Kiepel (1996) define **planning** as a management mechanism/process that enables a local authority to: identify desired outcome and directions; devise measurements and process to move towards the achievement of these; measure achievements; and, make on-going adjustments to achieve what is intended. This process is used to guide the allocation of resources to achieve particular results. It thus involves the setting of priorities and performance indicators. The results to come out of the process can be both tangible and intangible. Obvious tangible results are the provision of services and infrastructure, and the immediate result is a plan itself. Intangible results on the other hand include community empowerment and imparting of skills and building community ties (Dewar and Kiepel, 1996).

A **plan**, as mentioned above, it is the immediate tangible product of the planning process. This is a written report with complementing documents such as maps, and together shows the intentions and mechanisms to achieve those aims as per discussions in the planning process. A plan is a result of planning which is an on-going process thus it has limited life span as it is continuously revised.

The fact that regions are not identical means that regional plans cannot be identical to one another, although similar concerns may be addressed. This highlights the importance of understanding the regional context and the need for contextually specific plans (Dewar and Kiepel, 1996). Another dimension is the variety of issues that makes up a region: ecological, economic, social, and institutional. Since all these dimensions together make up a region, a regional plan needs to take an integrated approach in addressing regional issues. "By definition, therefore, a regional plan cannot be entirely sectoral in focus, such as an economic development or an institutional plan" (Dewar and Kiepel, 1996: 8).

Having laid the basis by unpacking the concept we can now look again at the concept as a whole since we now move from the same understanding. The

meaning of **regional planning** is explained by Dewar and Kiepel (1996) in their report, Regional Planning Guidelines: A Primer for Regional Planning. They define it as: a process of bringing about improvements in the quality of life of the regional community — a tool for promoting regional development; a process for deciding and acting upon a number of strong actions that will benefit many members of the regional community; a social grounded process involving participation of the regional community/stakeholders in a new way of governing; a public driven activity with regional councils having the first responsibility to ensure that it happens and is effective; and, an activity involving strong actions relating to those things that people have the capacity and influence to change at the regional level. This holistic interpretation of a regional planning is entirely consistent with what is sometimes referred to as development planning. The Regional Plan is simply a development plan at a regional scale. It therefore forms part of development planning.

The results of regional planning have not been impressive and as a result there has been a crisis of confidence. However, from late 1980s, there has been a re-emergence of regional planning but in a new style that does not resemble the old forms. The current regional planning is that of Metropolitan and District / Regional planning which is a particular form of regional planning. This is the kind of regional planning that is our concern in this research. The 'region' is the object of regional policy and regional development, but it is difficult to be precisely defined.

In apartheid South Africa local governments only existed in towns and cities and they were responsible only for providing services to residents. Even these existed in the real sense of the word only within White group areas. In rural areas the functions of local government were the responsibility of either homeland, provincial, or national line departments and parastatal agencies (McIntosh, 1996). Farmers also provided the services to their workers in

commercial farms. The government used court magistrates — who in turn used local chiefs due to lack of resources — to administer rural areas. In late 1980s Regional Councils were introduced (JSBs in the case of KwaZulu-Natal and only established in 1990s) as the old regime's form of local government at a regional scale.

However, the new constitution of South Africa provides for a new framework of regional planning. "There is now an institutional basis for this new form of planning, with new geographically integrated provinces, district/regional, and metropolitan councils" (Harrison, 1988: 84). These councils have been tasked to prepare IDPs. It is argued that chances of success and effectiveness for new South Africa's regional planning depends on the extent to which they get to grips with all factors involved in IDP formulation and implementation, especially understanding integrated development planning as a broad approach essential to meeting their developmental role.

2.6 CONCLUSION

In the South African context, ideas of communicative action, integrated planning, democracy, participation and developmental local government are being brought together within a new planning system. It is perhaps still too early to judge the success of the system. Also, in South Africa the long established concept of regional planning is being brought together with the idea of integrated development planning. With the creation of regional or district councils, to be discussed in the next chapter, there is also now an institutional basis for this form of planning. All these together offer a new hope for development and regional planning in South Africa.

CHAPTER 3: REGIONAL PLANNING IN KWAZULU-NATAL

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Regional planning has had a chequered history, both theoretically and in practice; and in both the international and South African context. Regional planning is a widely used concept always defined differently depending on the purpose for which it is used. In South Africa, regional planning has its roots in Britain and to some extent, the United States.

In the current context, regional planning has re-emerged as a development activity by virtue of the devolution of power and the creation of regional or district scale units of government. From the 1993 Interim Constitution, new forms of local government have been established including regional/district and metropolitan councils, local councils, and rural councils.

South Africa has a long history of controlling and managing localities. In the early decades of the century some form of local government was established throughout the Union. Though these structures differed from province to province, a common feature among them was that they were created from above, undemocratic, and were in a subservient relationship to national government. In most of South Africa, until the 1980s, local government structures included only established urban areas. There was no form of rural local government except for traditional authorities in some areas. There was also no form of district government below the level of the provinces, although magistrates often played a co-ordinating function in some areas.

In the 1980s Regional Services Councils (RSCs) were established countrywide as structures responsible for some aspects of local governance. Regional Services Councils were responsible for both urban and rural areas. These

structures were established slightly differently in KwaZulu and Natal areas and were referred to as the Joint Services Boards (JSBs). At least these were not provincial wide. For a number of reasons, the Regional Services Councils/Joint Services Boards failed. In the 1990s an alternative had to be found. This alternative emerged in the form of Regional/District Councils, Metropolitan Councils, Municipal (Local) Councils, and Rural Councils. The 1993 Interim Constitution served as a breakthrough in this regard and its provisions were to be developed further and be concretised by the 1993 Local Government Transition Act (LGTA), 1996 Constitution, 1996 Local Government Transition Act, Second Amendment, and 1998 Municipal Systems Bill.

With regard to the regional aspect of local government, it should be noted that until the institutional transformation of the 1990s, no other level or system of government was allowed to perform regional planning. However, in Natal, which has a history of resisting national legislation regulating planning, a great degree of regional planning had taken place since the passing of its revised Natal Planning Ordinance of 1949 under the guise of regional surveys.

Given the re-emergence of interest in regional planning, the development mandate given to local government and the fact that regional councils are the responsible local authorities for rural areas (and the only form of rural local government in KwaZulu-Natal as there are no Rural Councils), this chapter aims to unravel the dynamics and meaning of this kind of planning. As the dissertation is concerned with the regional level of government and how it deals with Integrated Development Planning, a chapter like this was deemed necessary. Planning at a regional scale is not a simple process and it is usually understood in many different ways. This chapter should go a long way in placing the discussion in context. The chapter is broadly subdivided into two sections: the evolution of local government structures, with a special focus on regional forms

of local government, as well as the practice of planning by these structures at this level.

3.2 EVOLUTION OF REGIONAL PLANNING STRUCTURES

Until the mid 1970s the concept of regional or district scale planning did not feature significantly in South African debates over a possible political geography of the state. P W Botha's government, however, did experiment with different regional or district scale structures (e.g. Regional Development Association and Regional Services Councils).

Prior to this, the system of local government for developing areas in South Africa varied by province. The provinces of Natal and Cape provided good examples of the Union of South Africa's local government system. In the Cape, the system of Divisional Councils, modelled on the English County Councils, was practised. Their boundaries coincided closely with magisterial districts in the other provinces (Singh, 1995). The Cape Divisional Council System resulted from the Cape Colonies Act (5 of 1855) (ibid). Rural areas and other areas that could not attain local authority status remained under the Divisional Council system, which lasted until 1985. In terms of functions, Divisional Councils initially had only basic municipal functions but other functions were later added. These areas were subsequently administered by the Cape Regional Council, which came into being in 1985.

The Natal parliament was considering following the Cape but this never happened. Instead, a Public Health Board or Local Health Commission was established to manage certain small settlements and peri-urban areas. So, the Natal's forerunner of regional government system was established only in 1938 initially as the Local Health Commission and later renamed the Development and Services Board (DSB). The DSB emerged from the report prepared by the

Thornton Committee. This committee was set up to investigate and make recommendations with regard to areas (other than Native Reserves) without any local government administration that were becoming urbanised; areas (other than Native Reserves) that were becoming a threat to health and the good order to nearby existing local authorities; and areas with some local government, which were a threat (as a result of a range of emerging conditions) to public health and sound administration to itself or to existing local authorities (Singh, 1995: 53). Accordingly, the purpose of the Development Services Board as it was later called, was: To provide for the constitution of a Board for the management, regulation and control of matters affecting the public health in certain areas; to empower such board to establish, manage and control certain local works and undertakings; to authorise such board to exercise or perform certain other powers and duties; and to provide for matters incidental thereto (ibid, 58). Although the DSB functioned as a local authority, it was unique for being a provincial-wide structure.

As Humphries (in Swilling, Humphries and Shubane, 1991) argued, South Africa's core institutions of local government have never been subject to fundamental reorientation. However, by the mid-1970s the apartheid political geography had become full of contradictions and by the early 1980s it was clear that the system was not working. It was these mounting difficulties that largely conditioned the neo apartheid reforms to local and regional government in the 1980s (Smith, 1992: 28). In the 1980s, the level of spatial and institutional fragmentation created by apartheid had reached such a level of absurdity that not even the state could ignore the consequences (Harrison, 1999: 7). The financial demands to maintain the racial - geographic fragmentation of settlement, and local and regional control were too high. McCarthy (in Smith, 1992), provided two examples in this regard: firstly, expensive programmes of rural and industrial job creation in homelands could not keep pace with the rate of rural impoverishment; secondly, despite the stringent influx control system,

and consequent arrests, black people continued to migrate to cities in search of a better life.

As a result of these systemic difficulties and many more, including international pressures for change, by the mid-1980s, the South African regime was forced for the first time to search for new political geography of the state. Having introduced the new constitution and new parliamentary system in 1984, the regime moved to review the roles and functions of various local government structures to ensure that they were in line with the principles of the new constitution (Swilling, Humphries and Shubane, 1991). As a result of this exercise, Regional Services Councils (RSCs) were established in the late 1980s. This new form of local governance was specifically provided for by the Regional Services Council Act of 1985. Regional *development* planning therefore emerged in the 1980s, linked to the establishment of the homelands, but they (i.e. RSCs) were limited by the apartheid stigma they carried, and by their lack of integration with and marginality within, the national space (Harrison and Todes, 1999).

RSCs were established for multiple reasons serving and pursuing various objectives and purposes within the context of the politics of 1980s. Such reasons were broadly: effective governance at the local scale, as well as promotion of the governments' political agenda. They were established essentially to (Swilling, Humphries, and Shubane, 1991; Smith; Smit, 1992; and Maughan-Brown 1993):

- allocate new sources of income for local authorities;
- preside over the provision of certain services within their areas;
- overcome the costly duplication of service provision implied by racial segregation of local government;
- provide services to financially stricken black local authority areas; and,
- redress the imbalance between developed and less developed areas.

According to Humphries, (in Swilling, Humphries, and Shubane, 1991), the regime's local government policy was shaped by two interacting issues: the first was the 1983 constitution and its distinction between "own", and "general" affairs in relation to the functions and decision-making process of public or state institutions (although local government in general continued to be for own affairs, RSCs were for general affairs); the second was the way in which the reform programme generated an almost dialectical response from sections of the African community who were not part of the tricameral parliament. In terms of the latter, some government leaders acknowledged that the ungovernability campaign of the liberation movements was focused at the local level and thus it was at this level that the government reform programme had to focus.

The attempt to set up RSCs in the province of Natal and KwaZulu homeland failed because of a lack of consultation with the homeland leader Mangosuthu Buthelezi. As a result, a separate initiative on the restructuring of regional government was spawned (McCarthy in Smith, 1992; Smit and Maughan-Brown, 1993). This initiative started with the establishment of the Joint Executive Authority (JEA) which had representation from both the KwaZulu Homeland and the Natal Provincial Administration. This culminated in 1990 in with a different form of Regional Services Councils referred to as Joint Services Boards (JSBs) (Barnes and Morris, 1996). The KwaZulu homeland, combined with the Natal Provincial Administration, had six JSBs (including the now Durban Metropolitan Council), namely: Port Natal-Ebhodwe, Zululand, South Coast, uThukela, Midlands and East Griqualand (for boundaries see **JSBs Demarcations Map** overleaf). According to Smit and Maughan-Brown (1993) JSBs differed in two major respects from RSCs. They argue that, first, the Joint Executive Authority played a supervisory role which elsewhere was played by the provincial administrations. Secondly, it is claimed that, the JSBs transcended/crosscut the apartheid created boundaries and were therefore joint structures unlike the RSCs.

3.2.1 THE FUNCTIONING OF REGIONAL SERVICES COUNCILS AND JOINT SERVICES BOARDS

RSCs and JSBs were set up to address similar developmental concerns. However, as indicated above, they also had a hidden political agenda of the state — they were set up in response to the ungovernability campaign posed by the liberation movements at the local government level. They did this both indirectly through their window-dressing development initiatives, and directly in their composition. This section briefly examines the level of success of these structures in achieving their aims.

The RSCs/JSBs allowed an opportunity for joint decision-making between races. Some level of redistribution was also possible: "However, the racial basis of the primary local authorities from which the RSCs derive; the fact that such councillors are nominated by government and not elected; and the bias of voting powers towards representatives from wealthy (white) area has endangered the broader legitimacy of RSCs from the outset" (McCarthy in Smith, 1992: 30). It should be noted that these local and regional government reforms were carried out without constructively engaging with leaders of liberation movements. This is no surprise given the political agenda of these reforms. Indeed part of the rationale of such initiatives seems to have been to divide and frustrate the objectives of popular opposition (Ibid).

In terms of functioning, the RSCs/JSBs dealt primarily with functions such as fire services, water reticulation, and sewage disposal. In KwaZulu-Natal, the Port Natal-Ebhodwe JSB was the largest JSB. The JSBs and RSCs were associated with the apartheid regime's hidden agenda and consequently were stigmatised. In addition, the JSBs were linked to the agendas of the KwaZulu government. Indeed the JSBs were more concerned about pushing development that

enhanced apartheid-created territorial segregation, than they were with development and service delivery per se (Barnes and Morris, 1996). As much as they transcended apartheid boundaries, they never intended to break them down. JSBs therefore, despite helping to redistribute resources, had their legitimacy, as well as their effectiveness, undermined by the manner in which they were constituted and the environment from which they operated.

During this period, the only form of local government in non-urban areas took the form of RSCs and JSBs. The needs of the vast majority of South Africa's non-metropolitan and/or non-urban population, including labour reserve populations, farm workers, rural areas and people forcibly settled in Bantustans went largely unheeded. A legitimate, democratic government where all people are treated as equals, had to change such a pattern. It was on this basis that the new local government system was created to provide a regional/district scale of local government above individual urban-based local authorities and equal to metropolitan councils. Post-apartheid South Africa has therefore moved from RSCs/JSBs to District Councils (DCs), known as Regional Councils (RCs) in KwaZulu-Natal.

3.2.2 FROM REGIONAL SERVICES COUNCILS/JOINT SERVICES BOARDS TO DISTRICT COUNCILS/REGIONAL COUNCILS

As already shown above, until the dismantling of apartheid, South Africa did not have truly autonomous and integrated local government. Instead it had racially-based local authorities for urban areas and RSCs/JSBs for both urban and rural areas. The composition of these structures was problematic and they were not constituted according to democratic principles.

It was only in the wake of 1993 Interim Constitution of the Republic (no. 200, 1993) that a framework was set up for the establishment of a proper local government system constituted and operating according to democratic principles. The Constitution orders that a local government shall be autonomous and, within the limits provides or under law, shall be entitled to regulate it affairs (section 174(3)). It further provided for the categorisation of local government as metropolitan, urban and rural, with differentiated powers, functions, and structures according to considerations of demography, economy, physical and environmental conditions and other factors which justify or necessitate such categories (section 74 (2)). However, according to this constitution areas were not to automatically qualify for local government structures. The constitution provided local governments to be established *for residents of areas demarcated by law* of a competent authority

The nature of the transitional system of local government, for the period 1994 to 2000 was negotiated in the multi-party Local Government Negotiating Forum (LGNF). The Local Government Transition Act (LGTA), 209 of 1993 legislated a framework that had been negotiated by providing for the establishment of Local Government (transitional phase). The Act, together with its subsequent proclamations and amendments, specified the kind of structures to be: district councils, metropolitan councils, metropolitan local councils, local councils, representative councils and rural councils. An important aspect of the 1993 Act is that local government was given certain powers and obligations related to planning, especially where development is concerned. It also provided for the creation of local government in rural areas. This is important for Regional Councils because of their sizeable rural areas and populations (Metro plan, Urban Econ, and MXA, 1997). The intention was to ensure that throughout the country, rural areas have some form of local government.

The rural councils and district councils were to be responsible for rural areas with district councils playing a role in urban municipalities as well. Informed by the experiences of the previous local government structures, and the future objectives, the Act specified that these structures should be utilised with a view to developing a democratic, effective and affordable system of local government (LGTA, 1993: section 9D). In KwaZulu-Natal, however, where traditional authorities were sensitive about loss of power, rural councils were never established. However, District Councils were set up although they were called Regional Councils in this province.

The important amendment in the 1996 Constitution of the Republic was that a local sphere of government was to be established for the whole territory of the Republic. While the Interim Constitution mentioned that the local government should be autonomous, it failed to specify the relationship it should have with other government structures at different levels. In Chapter 7 of the 1996 Constitution it was made clear that national and provincial legislation were to determine how local government operate. The 1996 Constitution however, further stated that, the national or a provincial government might not compromise or impede a municipality's ability or right to exercise its powers or perform its functions (section 152, (c)). It has a specific section on co-operative government (section 154) where in subsection (1) for instance, it provided that the national government and provincial governments, by legislative and other measures, must support and strengthen the capacity of municipalities to manage their own affairs, to exercise their powers and to perform their functions. The relationship of local government with spheres other than the local is therefore not simply regulatory, in a negative sense, but supportive. National and provincial government must act as partners with local government. The three spheres of government are supposed to be autonomous although interdependent but, in reality, national and provincial governments do have a supervisory role with respect to local government.

This constitution also categorises local government into three types:

- **Category A**: A municipality that has exclusive municipal executive and legislative authority in its area - i.e. Metropolitan Councils;
- **Category B**: a municipality that shares municipal executive and legislative authority with a category C municipality within whose area it falls - i.e. Local Councils; and,
- **Category C**: A municipality that has municipal executive and legislative authority in an area that includes more than one municipality - i.e. Regional/District Councils.

The provincial legislation has a responsibility to determine different types and number of municipalities to be established in the province.

The 1996 Constitution provides a categorisation of municipalities to be established in the country and further states that a national law should decide which areas should fall in each category. The Municipal Structures Act (MSA), 1998 fulfils the latter.

Regional/District Councils vary across the country due to different settlement types, economy, and demographics, physical and other factors, as stated in the legislation that established the local government. They are organised in such a way that while a level of consistency is ensured, there is also some flexibility to enable effectiveness. In KwaZulu-Natal seven regional councils were established covering areas between 3499km² and 21307km², and with populations ranging from 0,5 million to 1,5 million (Harrison and Todes, 1999). The national Municipal Demarcations Board is in the process of redrawing the new boundaries of regional councils across the country. In the case of KwaZulu-Natal there will be some major changes in the regional boundaries, as the Board has suggested breaking the province up into 11 Regional Councils from the current 7 Regional Councils. For the current Regional Councils see KwaZulu-

Natal Regional Councils Map above and for proposed new boundaries see **KwaZulu-Natal New Regional Councils Boundaries Map** overleaf The board is due to finish its work before the next year's local government elections.

3.2.3 THE POWERS AND FUNCTIONS OF DISTRICT COUNCILS/REGIONAL COUNCILS

The1993 Constitution laid a basis for powers and responsibilities to be entrusted to local government as a whole without categorising them. The 1993 Constitution saw local government's responsibilities as those of service provision only. It referred to provision of services for the maintenance and promotion of the well-being of all persons within its area of jurisdiction (section 175 (2)). It elaborated this in referring to access to all persons residing within the area of jurisdiction to water, sanitation, transportation facilities, electricity, primary health care, education, housing and security within a safe and healthy environment, provided that such services and amenities can be rendered in a sustainable manner and are financially and physically practicable (ibid, (2)).

The 1996 Constitution and the Local Government Transition Act, Second Amendment (1996), were to include other functions and duties of municipalities in terms of the concept of developmental local governance. Significant obligations in relation to local government include the following: the provision of services in a sustainable manner; the promotion of social and economic development; the promotion of a healthy and safe environment; and the involvement of communities in local affairs. It further mandates local government to be developmentally focused. Municipalities are specifically instructed to give priority to the basic needs of the community through planning and other processes (RSA,1996).

In the same chapter the objects of local government are provided. They are:

- to provide democratic and accountable government for local communities;
- to ensure the provision of services to communities in a sustainable manner;
- to promote social and economic development;
- to promote a safe and healthy environment; and,
- to encourage the involvement of communities and community organisations in the matters of local government.

The Constitution essentially orders local government to be developmentally focused in its planning processes to give priority to the basic needs of the community, and to promote the social and economic development of the community.

Planning concerns are not confined to the local government chapter alone. There are a number of other chapters and sections throughout the constitution which impact on planning, regional planning or local government. For example, part B of Schedules 4 and 5 that lists local government matters which are also shared with provincial and national governments. It also talks about municipal planning which would include planning carried out by Regional Councils.

Of course the constitution is not in itself a planning document. What it does, however, is specify some vital principles which planners need to be aware of in order to be effective (Metro plan, Urban Econ, and MXA, 1997). The constitution is useful in providing a framework that upholds the main purposes of planning.

The original Local Government Transition Act was passed in 1993 and the Second Amendment, passed in 1996, builds on this original Act. An important aspect of the 1993 Act is that local government is given certain powers and obligations related to planning, especially where development is concerned. It calls for the creation of local government in rural areas. This is important for RCs

because of their sizeable rural areas and populations (Metro plan, Urban Econ, and MXA, 19997). The intention was to ensure that throughout the country, rural areas had some form of local government. As already shown, it is from this Act that Regional Councils were created. However, the Act failed to specify clearly on roles and responsibilities of local government.

In line with the 1996 Constitution which clearly ordered local government to be developmentally focused in addition to being concerned simply with the provision of services and amenities, a very important amendment in the 1996 Local Government transition Act, Second Amendment was its requirement that local authorities (including RCs) develop Integrated Development Plans (IDPs), meaning Regional Plans in the case of Regional Councils. The Act defines it as a plan aimed at the integrated development and management of the area of jurisdiction of the local authority and is to be prepared in line with the general principles of Development Facilitation Act, 1995 (LGTA, 1996). Basically the IDP was introduced as a tool for local government to carry out their developmental mandate.

The Act also requires Regional Councils, if requested, to formulate and implement IDPs for other municipalities within their area of jurisdiction. Also, if requested, a Regional Council must ensure the provision of financial, technical and administrative support services to all the local councils, rural councils and representative councils within its area of jurisdiction, as well as ensuring their the proper functioning.. A Regional Council can help local councils in this way provided it has formulated its own IDP.

While the Constitution provides Regional Councils with the legal competence to undertake regional (development) planning, and the Local Government Transition Act, Second Amendment provides the legislative framework within which this should happen, the KwaZulu-Natal Planning and Development Act

(PDA) sets out the parameters within which it is to be done at provincial level. The IDP, required in terms of the 1996 Local Government Transition Act, Second Amendment is also recognised in the Planning and Development Act as a regional planning tool and given a provincial context.

Chapter 4 of the Planning and Development Act (dealing with *Development Plans)* establishes the substance of and responsibility for development planning throughout the province and is therefore the most crucial one with regard to Regional Councils. Some of the important aspects that the Act deal with are:

- General purposes of development plans;
- Responsibility for development planning;
- Content of development plans
- Community involvement; and
- Environmental management.

The Act defines the general purpose of development plans as ...a co-ordinated, harmonious and sustainable development of the area to which it relates, in such a way that it will most effectively tend to promote health, health , safety, order, amenity, convenience and general welfare, as well as efficiency, economy and participation in the planning and development process (PDA, chapter 4). Municipalities are mandated to prepare their own development plans, which means that RCs are to develop their own development plan as well. Consistent with the Constitution and Local Government Transition Act, Regional Councils are also to prepare development plans of other local authorities, if asked to do so.

The Municipal Structures Act (MSA) also builds on the preceding legislation to emphasise local government development mandates. In relation to district municipalities, specifically, it requires that a municipality seek to achieve the

integrated, sustainable and equitable social and economic development of its area. It provides that this function could be carried out by:

- ensuring integrated development for the district (region) as a whole;
- promoting bulk infrastructural development and services for the district as a whole;
- building the capacity of local municipalities in its area to perform their functions and exercise their powers where such capacity is lacking; and
- promoting the equitable distribution of resources between the local municipalities in its area to ensure appropriate levels of municipal services within the area (section 83, (3)).

The Act further views the powers and functions of district government as including integrated development planning for the district municipality as a whole, and as including a framework for integrated development plans for the local municipalities, taking into account the integrated development plans of those local municipalities. It specifies the economic development role of a regional government to mean, for instance, the establishment, conduct and control of fresh produce markets and abattoirs serving the area of the district municipality as a whole (section 84). It includes promotion of local tourism and municipal public works relating to activities and functions taken by the authority. The contents of development plans are provided in section 25. The plan is expected to have:

- A co-ordinated policy framework;
- Such planning controls and performance criteria as may be prescribed;
- A programme and budget for the implementation of the plan in determined stages;
- Procedures for public participation;
- Such environmental management components as they may be prescribed; and
- Such other provisions as may be prescribed, including the name of the

authority that is responsible for the administration, implementation and enforcement of the plan.

The Municipal Systems Bill aims at taking the country's vision of "developmental local government" as envisaged in the Constitution; LGTA Second Amendment; Local Government; Municipal Structures Act; and, Local Government White Paper. Building on the Constitution's provisions for basic development rights, the governance and developmental objectives of local government, and the principles of people oriented public administration, amongst others, the Bill elaborates the core principles, mechanisms and processes that are necessary to enable municipalities to move progressively towards the social and economic upliftment of communities, and ensure universal access to quality services that are affordable to all (Municipal Systems Bill, 1999: 1). According to the Bill, a municipality does not mean a government entity in the traditional sense of the word, but includes residents and communities within the municipal area, working in partnership with the municipality's political and administrative structures. It is argued that this relationship is fundamental to sound and effective governance, and the long-term sustainability of local government. The Bill therefore aims at legislating community participation in local government planning and other activities. Municipalities are obliged to put "people first" in the way they run their administrations, and to constantly seek the best way of delivering services to all residents. Taken together these changes represent a fundamental shift in the way local government operates in South Africa.

3.3 PRACTICE OF REGIONAL PLANNING IN KWAZULU-NATAL

3.3.1 THEORETICAL ROOTS

The philosophical basis of the approach to regional planning in KZN can be traced back to great planning pioneers such as Patrick Geddes and Lewis Mumford. Without attempting to summarise the basis of Geddes ideas, he basically argued that a region is a balanced entity and as such if any changes happen in one section of the environment, it leads to changes in the other sections. Later, Mumford challenged this idea of state of equilibrium arguing that large population and advanced technology had made societal disequilibrium inevitable. Mumford thus argued for regional planning which was conceptualised as the conscious direction and collective integration of all life activities.

The Tennessee Valley Authority Act (TVA) was the first popular and grand project to which the early regionalists saw their ideas being applied. It was from the early regionalists and the inspiration of TVA that Natal's regional planners derived their original belief in interdependent life-supporting systems, comprehensiveness in planning, and the river basin as a basic planning unit (Mabin and Harrison, 1996: 133). South Africa's Prime Minister J. C. Smuts also influenced the thinking of Natal's regional planners. Smuts' holism was based on the principle that the whole is greater than the sum of its component parts. His influence was evident in 1961 when Thorrington-Smith shared the same sentiment to justify regional planning. It should be remembered that Smuts was also the one who called for the formation of the Post Second World War Reconstruction Commission (PWWRC) whose Ninth Report took planning in Natal to new heights.

Harrison and Mabin (1996) provide a history of regional planning in Natal prior to 1994, which marked a new era in the history of regional planning. The idea of

regional planning only came to the fore in the 1940s. In the first draft of the Ninth Report of the PWWRC, for example, an Urban Affairs Commission was proposed. The second draft however named it a Town and Regional Planning Commission. The influence of the TVA and the Barlow Commission Report on Regional Planning was evident. Natal was, however, precluded from undertaking regional planning as it was not included as a regional competency by the Financial Relations Act. Harrison and Mabin show, however, how the Natal Provincial government got around this problem by calling their plans regional surveys.

3.3.2 REGIONAL PLANNING PRIOR TO NEW DISPENSATION

In the field of town and regional planning, Natal has a history of struggling with the national government in an effort to avoid centralised control (Metro Plan, 1997). The national government tried to introduce zoning and sub-division of land as a national competency. The opposition to this led to planning competency being transferred to provinces who then promulgated their own planning ordinances (Metro Plan, 1997). In the case of Natal this was in the form of Ordinance 10 of 1934. Every country affected by World War II had to embark on a post war reconstruction programme. A Post War Works and Reconstruction Commission (PWWRC) was set up in 1943 at the request of the Prime Minister. The ninth reports of PWWRC dealt with town planning and recommended a total amendment to the 1934 Ordinance and the creation of a Town and Regional Planning Commission. This report contradicted the report of the national Social and Economic Planning Council (SEPC) whose position was that planning powers should be a national government competency. Although the NPA went ahead and constituted a commission, its regional planning activities were not legal and hence the NPA referred to its activities as regional surveys. In an attempt to side-step the restriction, the revised Town Planning Ordinance (No 27

of 1949) inter alias provided the Town and Regional Commission with the responsibility to undertake regional surveys (ibid).

The first planner to be appointed to head the TRPC was Thorrington-Smith who had an intense British planning background. Thorrington-Smith was to have a tremendous impact on the practice of regional planning in KwaZulu-Natal. His interest in regional planning had been stimulated by his exposure to the regional planning initiatives of 1930s and 1940s in Britain and by his observation of the Tennessee Valley Authority work (Mabin and Harrison, 1996). The Natal Provincial Town and Regional Planning Commission was determined to carry out regional planning. Because no province was allowed to do any regional planning, the Commission called regional planning, regional surveys and in this way was able to include it in the Natal Ordinance of 1940. The argument that the commission used to defend its action was that it was impossible to carry out their planning tasks unless the regional context was understood. Despite the argument it never risked undertaking huge regional planning projects without informing the national department. In such a set up, Mabin and Harrison (1996) argued, that the commission although it initiated the projects, it acted as the agent of the national government. The regional survey plans did not have statutory status and thus were always advisory.

The new regional planning thinking of 1960s did not significantly influence the thinking of these planners. It was only in the 1980s that, as a result of young planners in Natal as well as the involvement of KwaZulu's Bureau of Natural Resources, there was increasingly stronger social content within regional planning. As Harrison and Mabin (1996: 134) put it: A new generation of regional planners had arrived with greater social and political awareness than their predecessors but with far less contact with the philosophies that had inspired regional planning in its early years in Natal.

The most important regional survey was that of the Tugela Basin. Geddes' scientific methods of survey-evaluation-plan, and sieve techniques were used by the Natal regional planners in planning for the Tugela Basin. There was a series of reports on the Tugela Basin, with the first completed in 1952, and the second in 1960. After the 1960 report, there were no further comprehensive studies on Tugela Basin but work continued through research programmes. The study was a heavily scientific one claiming international reputation. The study originated from the request of the Natural Resources and Development Council (NRDC) for the provincial administration to prioritise the Tugela Basin for development. The Natal planner, Thorrington-Smith, strongly believed that this resource-rich but underdeveloped basin would eventually rival the water-scarce Witwatersrand as a centre of industrial development (Harrison and Mabin, 1996). The national government's industrial decentralisation presented a further opportunity for the Tugela Basin. In the 1970s separate planning reports were prepared for certain areas within the Tugela Basin such as Ladysmith/Colenso, Newcastle, and Dundee/Glencoe (Ibid). In the subsequent years, interest in the Basin occasionally resurfaced.

In the 1950s, the Umvoti-Umgeni-Illovo catchments were identified as second after the Tugela basin in terms of development significance. This region included metropolitan Durban and Pietermaritzburg and the work here became a forerunner to the metropolitan planning initiatives (Ibid). In the same period, the regional surveys of Zululand and North Coast also began. In the 1960 there was a shift in focus towards metropolitan planning which focused on Durban, Pietermaritzburg, and the South Coast. Through to the 1970s the commission's focus was on completing plans for these areas.

From the mid- 1970s regional planning was undertaken for the KwaZulu area as well as the Drakensberg. Otherwise, most work was on sub-regional scale

planning. This included areas such as, Port Shepstone/Marburg, Umkomaas, Cato Ridge, and Empangeni/Richards Bay.

In the mid-1980s there was a revived interest in catchment planning. This coincided with and promoted the growing planning co-operation between Natal and KwaZulu. One of the main regional planning works in this period was the Upper-Tugela Catchment Initiative. This was launched in 1983. This initiative was path breaking. As an integrated rural development programme the initiative attempted to co-ordinate the activities of many different government departments, crosscut KwaZulu/Natal divides, and forged a consensus and a level of understanding between widely divergent groups (Harrison and Mabin, 1996: 138). Unfortunately, in the end there were no tangible results.

In the transitional phase of the early 1990s there were some attempts at regional planning. The Regional Development Advisory Committee (RDAC), set up in the early 1980s, commissioned an investigation of the regional economy with a view to preparing a Regional Economic Strategy. The RDAC did not, however, have sufficient legitimacy to complete such a strategy. The RDAC was replaced by the Regional Economic Forum (REF) which played a major role in the preparation of the KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Growth and Development Strategy (PGDC) completed in 1996. Some of the Joint Services Boards (JSBs) also commenced a form of regional planning although there was no statutory basis for this. The Zululand JSB, for example, commissioned a regional plan for the Greater Richards Bay/Empangeni area. In 1994, the Commission appointed Prof. P. Robinson to prepare guidelines for the preparation of regional and sub-regional plans (Ibid). This was evidence of continued interest in the field of regional planning

3.3.3 RESURGENCE OF REGIONAL PLANNING

There has been a worldwide resurgence in interest in regional planning at a scale beyond the local level: this resurgence, internationally, is linked to a recognition of the role of regional development strategies in economic development and strategic positioning, and a growing concern about the problems of ad hoc fragmented development where strategic spatial planning has abandoned (Harrison and Todes, 1999: 2). For the South African case, in addition to international experience, apartheid has left a particular legacy of regional problems that new style regional planning seeks to address. It is pointed out in Harrison and Todes (1999) that racially driven spatial fragmentation has led to a majority of people living far away from areas of economic agglomeration. There is a strong urban bias in terms of economic activities but large concentrations of people remain in the rural areas. There are also strong urban-rural divides in terms of levels of employment, income and poverty. Seventy-five percent of households living in poverty are in rural areas and 85% of former homeland residents get their income from pensions, public work schemes, and public sector employment (Ibid). There is also a considerable backlog in service and infrastructure provision, especially in rural areas, but also in the peripheral areas of growing cities and towns. The apartheid legacy of institutional fragmentation and spatial disintegration within regions poses a challenge to reintegrating areas and to achieving sustainable co-ordinated development.

The apartheid legacy has therefore led to major challenges that Regional Councils have to address. As discussed above, these are wide-ranging, however the White Paper on Local Government (1998), has summarised them as the need to:

- build appropriate municipal institutions in areas without any existing administrative capacity, and which have little or no financial base to

support staff complements and sustain service delivery;

- respond creatively to local economic dynamics which might include — kick-starting development in areas where for a variety of reasons economic potential has never been realised, initiatives to revitalise and manage declining areas, and measures to anticipate and manage the effects of rapid growth in other areas;
- anticipate shifts in settlement patterns;
- provide for the basic needs of people living in historically derived settlement patterns which are difficult and costly to serve;
- build the capacity of municipalities so that they can respond to new opportunities including the availability of national funding for social and economic development investment, the devolution of powers from national and provincial level, and a range of spatial and sectoral initiatives;
- retain the old RSC levies to allow it to fulfil its role as infrastructural development agent; and,
- provide on-demand assistance as well as systematic capacity building to municipalities within its jurisdiction area.

Regional planning—a means of improving conditions at the regional scale (a scale above local authority level)—is a very important part of the nation's commitment to reconstruction (Dewar and Kiepel, 1996).

The statutory environment, which included changes in the scale of planning, emerged from the Interim Constitution, (No 22, 1993). Following from that, regional planning in South Africa has taken the form of Integrated Development Planning (IDP). While before 1993 provinces were not allowed to conduct regional planning, since then they are empowered to do so. Due to the paradigm shift—emphasising the role of local government in planning—regional planning is undertaken not only by provinces but regional scale local government as well. As shown in previous sections, the IDP has now been identified as a tool for carrying out regional planning. The legislative framework that was the first to

require IDP was the Local Government Transition Act, Second Amendment (No 97 of 1996). However, the Local Government Transition Act, Second Amendment failed to specify or give details on the meaning of the concept and how it should be practised. Significant work has subsequently been done to improve the understanding of the concept in South African context.

The then Department of Constitutional Development led the process by commissioning a number of studies to unpack the concept. In addition to consequent manuals and handbooks, a policy paper was also produced in the form of the White Paper on Local Government (1998). The White Paper's point of departure is the developmental mandate entrusted to municipalities by the new constitution. The required developmental outcomes are: the provision of household infrastructure and services; the creation of integrated cities, towns and rural areas; local economic development; and, community empowerment and redistribution. As Harrison (1999: 3) states: "The Integrated Development Plan is identified as a key tool for assisting municipalities in achieving these developmental outcomes, whilst Integrated Development Planning is understood as the process that leads up to the preparation of the Plan"

Simply put, the IDP seeks to promote planning for a range of issues and sectors, with a range of role-players: Municipalities are therefore required to formulate, implement, co-ordinate and monitor an IDP, incorporating issues such as land-use planning, transport planning, infrastructure planning, and the promotion of integrated economic development considerations (Haselue, 1998: 4). They are further required to address issues of institutional development, management and administrative capacity as well as ensuring a link between development planning and budgeting. Developing a vision, prioritising goals and programmes, integrating local government planning with planning at provincial and national levels, communication between the local authority and local residents as well as their participation in the affairs of a local authority, and so on, are all anticipated

goals of an IDP. The IDP is intended to cohere and provide direction to the work of a local authority, to integrate between sectors, and between planning and budgeting (Harrison and Todes, 1999).

According to Harrison and Todes (1999), regional planning in KwaZulu-Natal reflects many of the international approaches to regional planning: the emphasis on a strategic approach; avoiding inflexibility of the past comprehensive planning; emphasis on community/stakeholder participation rather than the plan; the focus on consensus building; and, the emphasis on the link between planning and implementation. The KwaZulu-Natal environment (institutional and political) from which the Regional Councils operate is not exactly the same as in other provinces. In KwaZulu-Natal there are no Rural Councils thus Regional Councils are also the primary local government for rural areas, hence representation is weighted towards traditional authorities. This situation makes plans to focus on rural areas, without much consideration of a possible role of urban centres and their economic dynamics in the regional economy (Harrison and Todes, 1999). They are simply treated as point locations and as service centres (Ibid).

Unfortunately, regional plans tend to have small budgets and limited institutional capacity compared to urban local authorities. The expected devolution of powers from national and provincial levels has not happened yet. Thus, as pointed out by Harrison and Todes(1999), a major part of their implementation of the plan depends on provincial and national government departments, and on the ability of the regional council to access funds outside the government. The concepts of rural service centres, development corridors, and rural zoning for environmental protection and land-use management have come to dominate current regional planning. Despite these problems, every one of KwaZulu-Natal's Regional Councils has commenced a regional planning process.

3.3.4 PROGRESS ON REGIONAL PLANNING PROCESS

The first Regional Plan to be commissioned was that of Region 5 (iNdlovu Regional Council) in 1996 but not as an IDP as it is now understood. The first proper regional scale IDPs were commissioned in 1997 and by mid-1999 most of the regional councils had completed their plans. Presently all regional councils are also developing their sub-regional development plans, although progress is generally slow. Perhaps due to the institutional and political environment (there are no Transitional Rural Councils thus regional councils are directly responsible for rural development) in KwaZulu-Natal the emphasis on a regional plan as the main plan has shifted to sub-regional plans. Progress on regional IDPs so far (by November 1999) is as follows:

- iNdlovu Regional Council — Regional Plan completed, 3 of 5 sub-regions already finished and the last two to be finished by January 2000.
- uMzinyathi Regional Council — Regional and Sub-Regional Plans being prepared concurrently and to finish by early next year (January/February 2000).
- uThukela Regional Council — Regional Plan completed and Sub-regional Plans to be finished by February/March 2000.
- uThungulu Regional Council — Regional and Sub-regional Plans being prepared concurrently and are to be finished by December 1999.
- Ugu Regional Council — Regional Plan completed , phase one of Sub-regional Plans completed.
- iLembe Regional Council — Regional Plan completed and on sub-regional Plans, Phase 1 has been completed and Phase 2 has commenced.
- Zululand Regional Council — Regional Plan completed and phase 1 of Sub-Regional Plans to be finished in January 2000.

It should be noted that the Demarcation Process and the local government elections in 2000 will require a new round of regional/district scale IDPs. It is uncertain how the existing plans will be integrated into the new plans, or how useful the existing plans will be in the longer term.

Regional plans have tended to be rather broad and to be at a strategic/policy level, thus providing insufficient guidance for development. Moreover they usually deal only to a limited degree with the issues of budgets and implementation. Sub-regional plans are envisaged to be more detailed and to be at project level. Regional plans are therefore the start of the process, with more practical elements being developed subsequent to it.

3.4 CONCLUSION

Many different forms of regional scale local government have been tried in South Africa over the years with disappointing results. The institutional and policy framework within which they operated, and also factors such as their composition, principles and aims account for their failures. As a structure with local governance responsibilities regional local government has taken many forms. The Cape Province and Natal are classic examples of the early days of regional scale local government. In the Cape Province, Divisional Councils were established as early as 1855. In the early 1940s Natal established province-wide Development and Services Board as a regional scale structure responsible for areas without formal municipalities. Emerging from the reforms of 1980s were Regional Services Councils (RSCs), which operated parallel to urban municipalities. The RSCs were responsible for both urban and rural areas. However, Natal had its own, somewhat different, version of RSCs established in 1991 and operating in both Natal and KwaZulu areas. It was only from the 1993 Constitution that a framework was set up for a democratically elected and legitimate form of local government. The new system of local government has

emerged with a regional scale of local government that has coincided with a re-emergence of interest in regional planning.

Until recently, regional planning has been viewed as national government competency. The chapter has discussed how Natal managed to manoeuvre the situation to become leaders in regional planning. Presently, regional planning is a competency of all spheres of government with varying roles in each sphere. At local government level it coincided with the establishment of regional scale local government and developmental mandate given to all levels of local government. The chapter has traced the history of regional planning practice as well as regional scale local government system in South Africa with special emphasis on KwaZulu-Natal.

4.0 A CASE STUDY: INDLOVU REGION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is a contextual introduction to the iNdlovu Region which is the centre of discussion in this dissertation. The iNdlovu Region is region 5 of KwaZulu-Natal and is one of the most important regions in the province in terms of population, size and economic output.

This chapter has four parts, first, an introduction to the general characteristics of the region to give the reader a sense of the place. Secondly an outline of how the regional planning process has unfolded with particular emphasis on the participation aspect.

4.2 AN INTRODUCTION TO THE REGION

4.2.1 A HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF THE MIDLANDS JOINT SERVICES BOARD AND THE INDLOVU REGIONAL COUNCIL

The present iNdlovu Regional Council or Region 5 of KwaZulu-Natal governs mainly the areas that were previously under the Natal Midlands Joint Services Board (NMJSB). In this subsection, a brief overview of the NMJSB and later that of iNdlovu Regional Council is provided.

- **Natal-Midlands Joint Services Board**

The Natal Midlands Joint Services Board was established with effect from 1 March 1991 in terms of the KwaZulu and Natal Joint Services Act (No. 84 of 1990), which was the result of detailed negotiations by partners (i.e. Natal provincial administration and KwaZulu government) within the Joint Executive

Authority (JEA) (NMJSB, 1992). In its first year the board consisted of 40 local bodies, represented by 43 members.

Like all other Joint Services Boards, the Natal Midlands JSB saw the introduction of joint local government on a regional basis with political, economic and community development as its objectives. Politically it got local government structures of racial compositions to deliberate on issues together. The involvement of communities in decision making became one of their concerns. Economically, the aim was to facilitate and co-ordinate service provision at a regional scale. In community development it achieved upgrading of facilities and infrastructure in the poorer/lesser developed communities in the region, giving priority to those who had the greatest need. In terms of the KwaZulu and Natal Joint Services Act of 1990, the Natal Midlands JSB had two delegated tasks: the provision of infrastructural development, in areas of the greatest need, and the provision services in a rationalised and regionalised form (Quarterly Newsletter, No. 2, 1994).

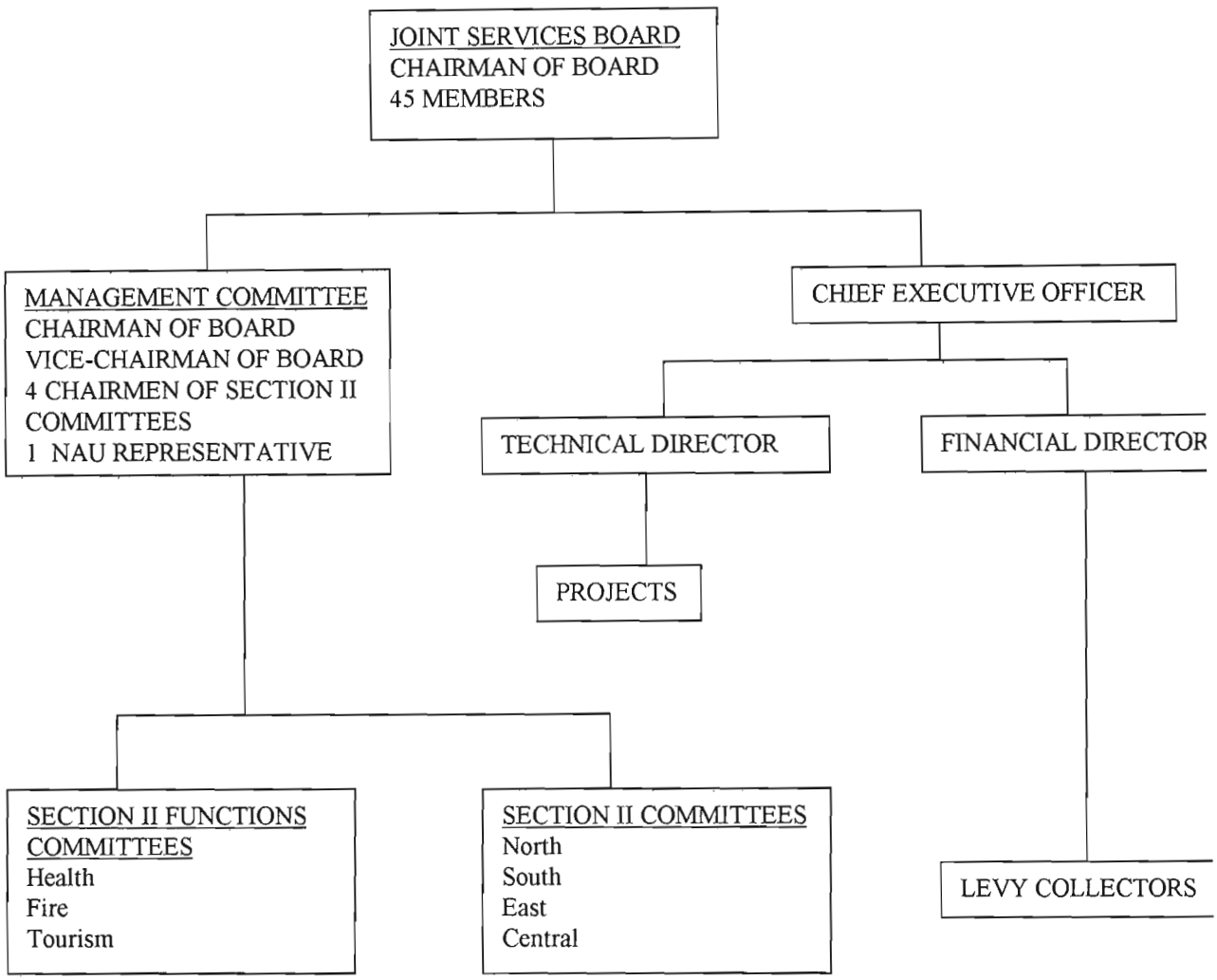
The JSBs had two new sources of revenue, viz.:

- a regional services levy imposed on salaries, wages and drawings of all business enterprises; and
- a regional establishment levy imposed on turnover of all business enterprises.

Other sources of revenue were to be derived from remunerative services such as electricity, water supply, sewerage works, and refuse disposal sites, which services may be allocated to the Board by the Joint Executive Authority.

The Joint Services Board of the Natal Midlands which, this document keeps on referring to had a structure that functioned as shown in figure 1 below.

Figure 1: NATAL MIDLANDS JOINT SERVICES BOARD STRUCTURE



Source: Natal Midlands Joint Services Board Annual Report 1992/1993

In carrying out its activities the Natal Midlands JSB strategically formed a partnership with other service providers. Among others was Umgeni Water and together they helped to provide water, in various forms, to numerous communities throughout the Natal Midlands region. One of a number of successful projects jointly run by these partners was the Draught Relief Programme which ran between July 1993 and March 1994. Other major partners

of the Board included Eskom and the Pietermaritzburg TLC. Natal Midlands JSB officials claimed that job creation had been the driving principle of the Board. This policy was entrenched in the primary objective of the JSBs which, in essence, was to create a new source of income for economic and community development of the region (Newsletter, No.3, 1994: 1).

Functions which Natal Midlands JSB viewed important enough to require co-ordination at a regional scale included fire services, tourism, sport and recreation, and other functions. Functions delegated by the Joint Executive Authority to the Board were:

- Fire
- Tourism
- Cemeteries
- Waste Management
- Training
- Civil Protection
- Land Usage and Transport Planning
- Sports and Recreation

The main principle with regard to these functions is the appointment of agents in order to render the relevant service on behalf of the Board.

In the Boards 1992/1993 Annual Report, the projects for that financial year were ranked as:

- Water
- Sewerage
- Basic roads and storm water drainage
- Refuse removal
- Electricity

The projects focused on developing the infrastructure of community services in the most deserving areas. It is argued in Natal Midland JSB reports that

involving local community and working through traditional structures was the policy.

The Natal Midlands JSB since its inception in March 1991 until it was dissolved in 1996, grew from strength to strength and thus there was a gradual increase in the number of levy payers and therefore an increase in the number of projects funded by the Board. The Natal Midlands JSB encouraged development in Natal Midlands Region, in line with the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP). It is claimed by its official as recorded in the reports, to have been more than a service provider but (through its projects) having created substantial employment opportunities.

- **iNdlovu Regional Council**

All JSBs in KwaZulu-Natal ceased to exist on 1 August 1996 as a new form of regional scale local government had been voted for on 26 June 1996. For the Midlands area, the elections were run by the previous Natal Midlands Joint Services Board and they paved the way for the implementation of the new democratically elected and operational Regional Councils. Seven Regional Councils were established in the province, as opposed to the six dissolved JSBs. The iNdlovu Regional Council became the largest regional council with the amalgamation of the former Natal Midlands JSB and the East Griqualand JSB.

The first sitting of iNdlovu Regional Council took place on 27 August 1996. Following the inauguration of the Council, the region was divided into 5 sub-regional areas with the intention of getting local government structures much closer to the people. The Regional Councils were tasked in terms of the Local Government transition Act, Second Amendment, of 1996, with formulating and implementing Regional Development Plans. The iNdlovu Regional Council (as

shown above) became the first regional council to formulate an Integrated Development Plan for its area. The plan was approved in 1998. As per the requirements of the Local Government Transition Act, Second Amendment, 1996 the Council embarked on integrated planning processes for its sub-regional areas. Elaboration on these processes is discussed elsewhere in this document.

In the 1997/1998 financial year the Council committed itself to paying special emphasis to local economic development and job creation. In this regard it initiated negotiations with potential strategic partners (i.e. the Pietermaritzburg Chamber of Commerce and Industries and the Pietermaritzburg-Msunduzi TLC) to work together in co-ordinating and encouraging foreign and national investment into the region where growth points could be identified, both in rural and urban areas.

While local governments are ordered to be developmentally focused in their operations, municipalities that govern areas that never had local authorities responsible for them previously have particular problems in coping with severe infrastructure and service backlogs. Therefore while there has been an attempt to comply with the mandate considerable resources are still spent on the provision of infrastructure and services. The iNdlovu Regional Council is no exception in this regard as project expenditure allocations for the past two financial years plus the current year demonstrate.

The first regional scale local government in KwaZulu-Natal were the Joint Services Boards. In the case of areas now governed by iNdlovu Regional Council, this was mainly the Natal Midlands JSB (see above for details). The Natal Midlands JSB operated from 1991 to 1996. To show evidence of its commitment to uplifting the lives of the most needy communities and development of the region, below is a summary table of the amount spent on

development projects to date. Judging from the figures, much has been done and it is worth noting the continuous increase year on year.

Table 4.1: Update on Expenditure on Projects

	Rands
Project expenditure allocations 1991 to 1997 (Natal Midlands JSB)	280 094 417
Project expenditure allocations 1997/1998	54 826 907
Project expenditure allocations 1998/1999	71 939 645
Proposed 1999/2000 project expenditure estimates	98 306 611
TOTAL	**505 167 580**

Source: iNdlovu Regional Council: Proposed Project, Income/Administration and Capital Expenditure Estimates (1997/1998, 1998/1999, and 1999/2000)

The manner in which the iNdlovu Regional Council function is to have locally-based as well as regionally based projects and programmes. The regional projects are aimed at ensuring that services are provided over the entire region. Development projects to be co-ordinated and implemented at a regional scale for the three financial years of the iNdlovu Regional Council has included: fire and ambulance services; promotion of tourism; planning - water services, transport plan, land reform plan, support to local integrated development plans, and land development objectives; training (other); skills training; local economic development; disaster management; roads and stormwater drainage; a business support centre; refuse disposal investigations; sports and recreation; a bursary

scheme; Grant-In-Aid; and security. (Budget Report 1997/1998,1998/1999, 1999/2000). Some of these functions have been undertaken since 1997/1998 financial year but some are late innovations. The bursary scheme, Grants-In-Aid, and security for instance were only included in the 1999/2000. Functional and project funding budget for 1997/1998 was R19 333 287, in the 1998/1999 financial year it was R20 114 440, and in the current budget the estimates are R27 200 000.

For locally based projects the budget reports specify per area/settlement and per sector. Only the amount spent on each service will be provided here. The total spent on projects was R43 888 087 and figures are as follows: water - R5 364 000, electricity - R1 730 000, roads - R6 235 000, passenger transport services - R66 000, refuse disposal site R310 000, library - R51 000, infrastructure and services R6 494 800.

While the above is a summary of local projects expenditure per sectors region wide, the 1998/1999 report further clarifies the funding allocations by categorising the areas according to their sub-regions so that not only is expenditure per sector clear but also expenditure per sub-region. The same idea was employed in the current financial year. As an example, the table below illustrates the effectiveness of this approach.

TABLE 4.2: Local Projects Allocations

	Sub-Region 1	Sub-Region 2	Sub-Region 3	Sub-Region 4	Sub-Region 5
Water	R1 850 000	R100 000	R -	R2 621 000	R700 000
Electricity	R1 500 000	R1 035 000	R -	R900 000	R -
Roads & Stormwater Drainage	R3 600 000	R1 650 000	R2 898 000	R1 427 000	R440 000
Passenger Transport	R1 100 000	R1 310 000	R500 000	R	R -
Refuse	R260 000	R -	R -	R	R -
Cemeteries	R180 000	R -	R -	R	R -
Health	R360 000	R -	R -	R	R -
Recreational Facilities	R1 700 000	R2 145 000	R440 000	R740 500	R504 000
Infrastructure & Services	R4 336 050	R3 461 500	R2 311 385	R3 164 730	R580 000
Fresh Produce Market	R -	R -	R -	R110 000	R -
TOTAL	**R14 886 050**	**R9 701 500**	**R6 149 385**	**R8 963 230**	**R2 224 000**

Source: Ibid. 1998/1999

In terms of sources of income the Regional Council still depends heavily on levy payers (i.e. a regional services levy and regional establishment levy) as was the case in JSB days. However, there are now some additional incomes. To show this, the iNdlovu Regional Council Budget Reports of 1997/1998, 1998/1999, and 1999/2000, provide a useful approximation of levy payers' contribution to the region's finances. For 1997/1998 financial year levy payers contributed

about R50,3 million, investment and other income were R4,8 million and transport subsidy income was R3,7 million. In the 1998/1999 financial year levy income was estimated at R56,8 million, and investment and other related income to be at R7,4 million. For the current financial year the anticipated levy income is R64,7 million, investment/other related income of R10,5 million, and Provincial Grants/Savings, and others identified amounting to R13,7 million.

The iNdlovu Regional Council is an IFP-led Council. The proportional representation of parties in the Council in the current financial year is as follows: Inkatha Freedom Party - 70, African National Congress - 39, New National Party - 5, Democratic Party - 3, Freedom Front - 1, Zibambeleni - 3, and Intuthuko - 2. Representatives of other interest groups in the Council are: Transitional Local Councils Representatives - 20, Traditional Leaders Representatives - 35, Levy Payers - 15, and Women Representatives - 15. The current Councils Executive Committee is made up of 30 councillors and is constituted as the following: Inkatha Freedom Party - 7, African National Congress - 4, Traditional leaders - 6, Transitional local Councils - 1, New National Party - 1, and Levy Payers - 1.

4.2.2 STUDY AREA DESCRIPTION

This sub-section discusses the key processes and trends that shape up the region to the way it is today. For location, see **KwaZulu-Natal Regional Councils map** overleaf. It gives a picture of the area, in terms of size, population and socio-economic trends and processes that feature in the region. The sub-section opens with an overview of the region as a whole, and then briefly discusses the socio-economic dynamics of each sub-region in order to provide a fuller picture. In the latter part, the emphasis is on highlighting the differences between the regions. Information used here is taken from iNdlovu Region Development Plan itself.

4.2.3 DEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIAL PROFILE

The region covers about 19 240 square kilometres. It comprises mainly of the Natal Midlands area. It includes the commercial farming districts of Mooi River, Umvoti, Lions River, New Hanover, Pietermaritzburg, a portion of Camperdown, Richmond, Ixopo, and Mt Currie; the peripheral farming districts of Kranskop, Impendle and Polela; and, the peri-urban district of Vulindlela and portions of the deep rural areas of Maphumulo and Hlanganani which previously fell under KwaZulu. It has been divided into 5 sub-regions. The region is a combination of the former Midlands and East Griqualand JSBs. It has an estimated population of 1,5million, of whom 53% are females, and 46 % are younger than the age of 17. Only 45% live in a formal dwelling and over two thirds do not have access to basic services (Scott-Wilson, 1997).

In the last two decades there have been significant changes in the settlement patterns of the region. This has been influenced mainly by job losses and rising unemployment caused by restructuring of both commercial agriculture within the region and mining industry in the Free State and Gauteng. The changes have been in the form of an out-migration from commercial farming districts and in-migration into rural and peri-urban districts (Scott-Wilson, 1997). There has been a net in-migration of about 345 000 people into the rural areas of Vulindlela, Maphumulo, and Hlanganani between 1970 and 1991. The fact that the growth rate for men is higher than that of the woman suggests that the unemployed men are returning home. See tables 4.3 and 4.4 below.

Table 4.3: An Out-Migration from Commercial Farming Districts (1970 - 1991)

Census District	Total Growth Rate	Rural growth Rate	Employment Growth Rate	GGP Growth Rate
Pietermaritzburg	2.61%	1.73%	1.94%	3.13%
Lions River	0.26%	1.16%	-0.13%	2.62%
Mooi River	0.88%	0.62%	0.75%	4.73%
Richmond	-0.84%	0.20%	-0.66%	3.18%
Umvoti	0.64%	0.15%	0.26%	4.52%
Ixopo	0.05%	0.00%	-1.10%	4.85%
Kranskop	-0.40%	-0.32%	-1.79%	0.22%
Underberg	-0.19%	-0.45%	-0.88%	4.86%
Mount Currie	-0.29%	-0.86%	0.63%	1.11%
New Hanover	0.06%	-0.76%	-0.91%	2.80%
Impendle	-4.10%	-4.10%	-3.97%	4.85%
Polela	-10.71%	-11.07%	-2.82%	-2.18%

Source: iNdlovu Regional Development Plan (1999)

Table 4.4: An in-migration to Rural Districts (1970 - 1991)

Census District	Absolute Increase in Population (1970 - 1991)	Growth Rate Male Population (1970 – 1991)	Growth Rate Female Population (1970 - 1991)	Growth Rate Total Population (1970 - 1991)
Hlanganani	78935	4.86%	4.58%	4.12%
Maphumulo	113935	4.52%	4.50%	4.35%
Msinga	59714	4.36%	3.97%	4.54%
Vulindlela	91588	4.11%	4.73 %	4.90%
Total	344151			

Source: iNdlovu Regional Development Plan (1999)

The socio-economic problems caused by this uncontrolled settlement pattern have been identified in the iNdlovu Regional Development Plan (IRDP) (1997) as: the lack of potable water, air pollution, inadequate waste management, accidents linked to congestion and overcrowding and the occupation and degradation of sensitive lands. As is argued in the IRDP (1997), the uncontrolled nature of human settlement, notably the concentration around the Pietermaritzburg-Vulindlela areas, dispersed settlements within the deep rural districts, and the mushrooming of small pockets of informal settlements in commercial agricultural districts, potentially deepened the environmental problems of the region. In addition, the region lacks a clear settlement hierarchy from the primate centre of Pietermaritzburg down to rural service centres. Such trends have undermined the ability to: deliver services cost effectively; build the necessary organisational capacity to effectively manage rural development programmes; and, reduce the pressure on the carrying capacity of the rural landscape where widespread degradation of high potential agricultural land by overpopulation and overstocking continues to occur; and have an integrated

rural development programme and an economic development programme that opens economic opportunities to all.

The experiences of iNdlovu Region are not much different from other regions in the province. A few points are worth pointing out in this regard. There is a problem of property rights system that is not conducive to the free-market system. Specifically land ownership presents a problem, as large parts of the region are rural and under traditional leadership. Dispersed settlement patterns, especially in rural areas, undermine the ability to deliver services and facilities cost-effectively. The dispersed settlement pattern, plus affordability constraints and inadequate capacity amongst communities, remain serious hindrances to development. Consequently there is a problem around equitable access to resources.

The region is extremely rich and diverse in terms of topography, climate and soils. The composite measure of rainfall, topography, altitude, soils, and vegetation types was compiled into bioclimatic regions. The IRDP reports that eleven bioclimatic regions were identified, eight of which fall within iNdlovu Region, making it the most biodiverse of all the regions of KwaZulu-Natal. When these eleven bioclimatic regions were grouped into 4 major types, 3 of them fell within the iNdlovu Region. They are: the *coastal hinterland and mistbelt* - good agricultural potential; the *highland areas* - also good agricultural potential and potential for high quality water supply if well conserved in a pristine style; and, *mixed short and medium thicket woodlands* - capable of supporting small scale arable production and grazing.

4.2.4 SOCIO-ECONOMIC FEATURES OF SUB-REGIONS

The iNdlovu Region Sub-Regional areas are shown in the **Sub-Regions Map** overleaf. The ***Processes and Trends Summary Table*** in also overleaf contains a summarised version of sub-regional profiles.

The economic activity of *Sub-Region 1* is dominated by agriculture with a growth rate of 14.2 % in agriculture turnover recorded in the recent past. Manufacturing, services, and commercial sectors are also significant in the region.

Sub-region 2 is the powerhouse of the region's economy as it includes the city of Pietermaritzburg-Msunduzi. Pietermaritzburg-Msunduzi determines the economic future of the whole region. The sub-region dominates the region with regard to the number of firms, turnover generated and wages and salaries drawn. It is a sub-region that shows signs of steady growth. Despite the closure of some firms, the city has recorded a turnover growth rate of 5.2% in manufacturing for the past 4 years. This suggests the improvement in the production and/or marketing of a number of already existing firms. The trade, business, and finance sectors account for 85% of the firms in the city. However, these contribute only 30% to wages, and 53% to turnover. There is a notable growth in the finance sector, indicating a growth in the city as a regional financial centre. Government is the most significant employer in the region, contributing about 45% to the wage bill. This means that a decision regarding the provincial capital that prejudices Pietermaritzburg-Msunduzi will have significant impact on the economy of the region.

Sub-region 3 is the one that has recorded the highest levels of growth. This is said to have been due to an increase in the number of firms paying Regional Council levies rather than new investment in the area. Agriculture is still the main economic activity of this sub-region as well. In fact the growth in turnover is

also attributable to the rapid expansion of this sector due to the opening of a new mill in Eston.

Agricultural activity also dominates in this sub-region, but it specialises mainly in dairy farming. The agricultural growth rate in turnover is at 12.5% per annum. Catering and accommodation activities, which are related to tourism, records an increase in turnover as well (10.6% and 11.7% respectively).

Sub-region 5 has the most diversified economy. Important sectors are agriculture, commerce and trade, and community and personal services. Up-to-date data on trends in turnover and wage bill is not available at present. Nevertheless, agriculture (livestock and forestry in particular) is set to continue determining the economic future of the region.

In terms of the economy then, in general the sub-regions are similar in the sense that agriculture dominates in all of them except for sub-region 2, which includes the urban core of the region. Sub-region 2 also carries most of the region's population, accounting for more than half the total population (55%) and also the largest urbanised population. Sub-regions 1 and 4 on the other hand have high percentages of non-urban populations at 79% and 73% respectively. The land-use profile also differs, with most land (81%) in sub-region 5 recorded as mixed use, while in sub-region 1 70% goes to agriculture with the rest almost equally distributed amongst its sub-sectors (afforestation and subsistence agriculture, 25% apiece, and mixed cultivation, 20%).

There is also a difference with regard to household income profiles. Sub-regions 2 and 5 appear to have an even spread of households between high and low income categories. Sub-regions 1, 3, and 4 on the other hand to have up half of their households earning less than R840 per month (in 1995 prices). Sub-regions 3 and 4 are the most rural, as is shown by their proportions of traditional

households (88% and 63% respectively). Sub-region 2, the most urbanised, has 73% of its households as formal households. Sub-region 4 is identified as the sub-region with most infrastructure and services backlogs. In terms of this factor there are marked differences between sub-regions, each of which has its own dynamics. Some have high backlogs, costs, and proportion of traditional housing with poor population but showing growth in the economic base. Others have high backlogs but a relatively well off population and a strong economic base. These dynamics are important for the development plan to consider.

The characteristics of the region have an impact on the nature of any development plan formulated and the kind of participation process employed in developing the plan. Some of the key characteristics of the region that influence the nature of participation are:

- the large physical size and population;
- the enormous diversity of the region within and between sub-regions;
- the role of traditional leaders in the rural areas;
- the presence of a secondary city (i.e. Pietermaritzburg) within what is mainly a rural region;
- the network of small towns (e.g. Greytown, Richmond, Camperdown, Kokstad);
- the geographic and physical variation with consequential problems of communication;
- the large areas of commercial farmland with important agricultural interests;
- the large expanses of rural areas;
- the combination of urban and rural, developed and poverty-stricken areas with conflicting interests; and
- the combination of mainly isiZulu and English speakers with resultant translation problems.

4.3 PLANNING AND PARTICIPATORY PROCESSES

As indicated above, the Local Government Transition Act, Second Amendment, 1996 required local government at all scales to prepare Integrated Development Plans as a tool to function in a co-ordinated and integrated manner. By this time the Natal Midlands Joint Services Board was already in the process of formulating such a plan. But, because their plan was not based on any legislation, it was not exactly the same as an IDP. This section outlines how the process of formulating the iNdlovu Integrated Development Plan evolved, with a special focus on involvement of local communities and stakeholders.

In 1995 the Midlands Integrated Development Plan (MIDP), as was initially referred to, was commissioned with the aim of ensuring better co-ordination and integration of planning and development within the region (Scott-Wilson Notes). It was commissioned by the Natal Midlands Joint Services Board (NMJSB), the predecessor to the iNdlovu Regional Council though there were some changes in the boundaries (as explained above), together with the provincial Department of Local Government and Housing in June 1995 (Scott-Wilson Notes; iNdlovu Regional IDP Notes, Vol. 1 1996). In a letter by the NMJSB Chief Executive Officer, dated 22 September 1995, to the Chief Director of the provincial Department of Local Government and Housing, it was placed on record that the NMJSB Management Committee on 13 September 1995 decided that Seneque Maughan-Brown (SWK) Consortium be appointed for the whole project (iNdlovu regional IDP Notes, Vol. 1, 1996). Subsequently a letter was received from SWK committing themselves to accomplishing the project as set out and as per their tender proposal. On 06 November 1995 a contract of agreement was signed. The first project meeting to launch the project was held on 27 October 1995.

The plan was geared towards making things happen within an integrated planning framework, and with providing a rational basis for preparing

programmes to overcome obstacles to development. Notably, it was also based on the principle of participation of communities and stakeholders in the region. In the project terms of reference, the need for involvement of all key role players in the region was stated as fundamental to the success of the project. Consultants on their part also showed commitment, as recorded in their tender presentation, to developing a plan that would be "people centered and people driven". One of their project themes was Community Participation, which they elaborated to mean that:

- all communities and stakeholders must be contacted;
- differences in capacity must be reduced;
- people's resources and potential must be acknowledged;
- different groups to be brought together;
- process must be non-political; and,
- all sections of the community to be treated as equally important (iNdlovu regional IDP Notes, Vol. 1, 1996).

The plan was to focus on the following five aspects of development:

- economic development;
- social development;
- physical and environmental development;
- institutional development; and,
- development finance (Scott-Wilson Notes; iNdlovu Regional IDP, Vol. 1, 1996).

According to the initial time frame of the project, it was to occur within a 12 months period. The initial phasing of the project was as follows:

- A Perspective Phase from October 1995 to February 1996;
- A Policy Phase from March 1996 to June 1996; and,
- A Strategy Phase from July 1996 to October 1996.

The envisaged process for completing this project is outlined in Figure 2 overleaf.

In 1996 new structures of local government were established with Natal Midlands Joint Services Board combining with East Griqualand Joint Services Board to form the iNdlovu Region Council. Legislatively, the IDP was introduced in 1996, and the implications for the NMJSB Plan was that some modifications had to be made to the plan in order for it to comply with IDP legislative requirements. In terms of the participation process this institutional transformation only meant changes to participation programme as East Griqualand areas were now to be included. Due to the institutional transformation together with the new legislative requirements the project was delayed for 15 months and was only completed in February 1998. However, while an IDP is usually formulated over four phases, (i.e. Development Perspective and Visioning, Development Strategy and Spatial Framework, Implementation Plan, and Monitoring and Review) the iNdlovu Regional IDP maintained the initially envisaged three phases. However, the issues addressed were much the same as in other IDPs.

In terms of the proposed process of the then Midlands Integrated Development Plan regional community and stakeholders were to be involved in Phase 1 and 3 only (i.e. Perspective and Strategy phases). As shown in figure 2, there was to be one workshop in each phase. However, as the process unfolded there was an emphasis in broadening the process to be extensively participatory. As a result the Policy Phase also became participatory. It was recommended that the already existing NMJSB structures (e.g. the Planning Section 11 Committee)[1] were appropriate to serve as the project management structures. Decisions on the project were to be taken by the Natal Midlands Joint Services Board Section

[1] Non-statutory committee formed during the Natal Midlands JSB era by key stakeholders of the region to oversee planning and development.

11 Planning Committee, which could take advice from a Technical Management Committee, set up by the project funders (iNdlovu Regional IDP Files, Vol. 1, 1996).

The main thrust of this dissertation is to assess the manner in which communities and stakeholders get involved in the process of integrated development planning especially at a scale of a region with reference to iNdlovu Region. Hence, the participation process as it occurred in the iNdlovu Region is outlined below. It should be mentioned that during the research process it became apparent that the manner in which this participation process was recorded did not meet the researcher's expectations. It was expected that the records were going to show in detail how the process unfolded, that is, providing specifics from each stage and per phase.

It was hoped that the information would indicate, for example: how the Vision was constructed, what system was used to involve people and get information from them (workshops, interviews, public meetings, etc.), how many workshops were held and with how many different stakeholders, what the attendance was in each workshop, what were workshop procedures used to elicit information (e.g. breakaway groups, etc). The same applies to identification of key issues and their prioritisation, SWOT analysis, development strategies, project identification and prioritisation, and budget and workplan. The interviewees were also not helpful in this regard for two reasons. The first one is that most key role-players in the region who participated in the process could not be located to arrange interviews with them as they were either by then working outside the region, and sometimes outside the country, or they were untraceable for other reasons. The second one was that by the time the research was conducted many participants could not remember the details of the process. Due to these shortcomings, the discussion below lacks the desired level of specification per stage in each phase

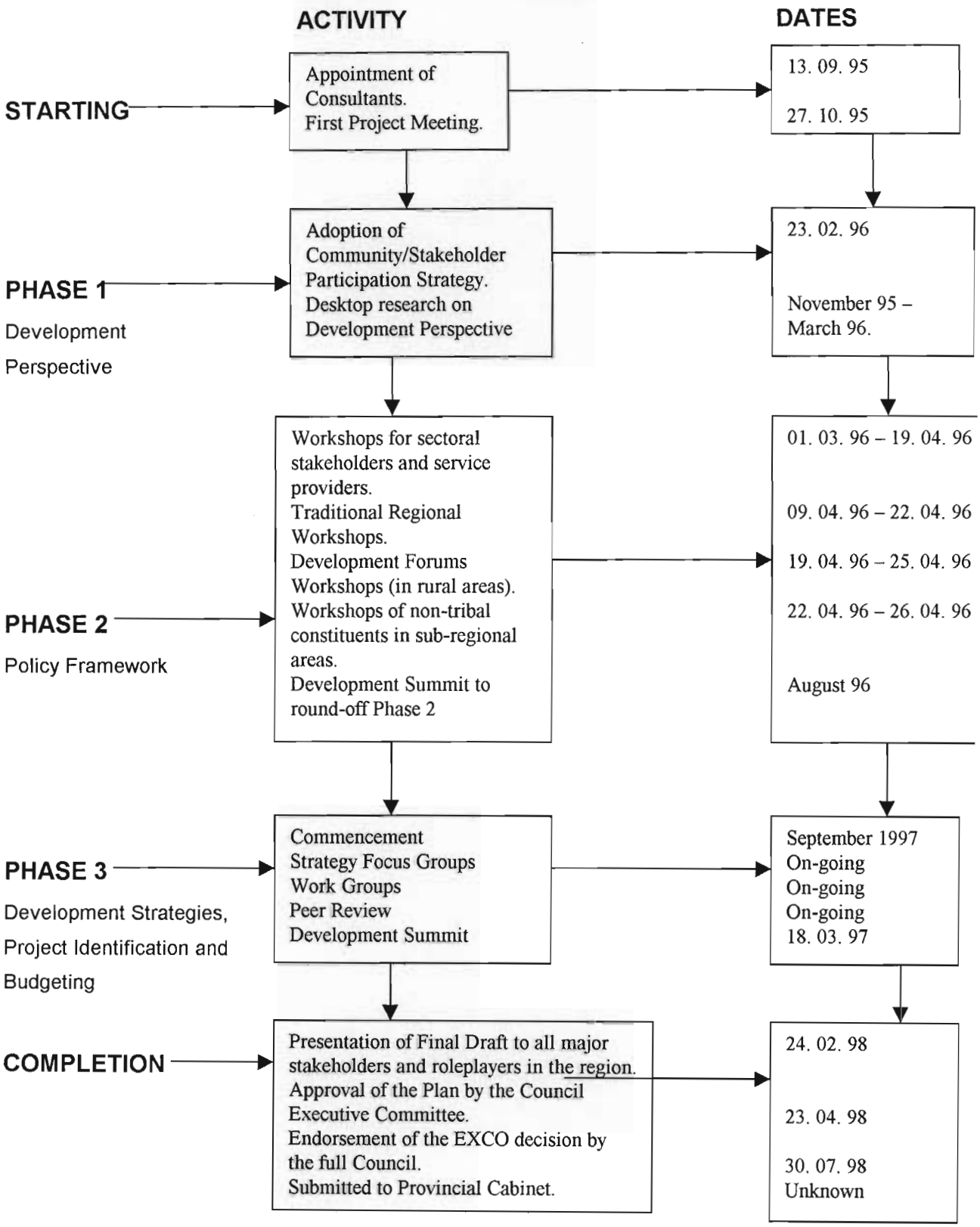
but in most cases refers to the project as a whole. This problem has also meant that information provided has some gaps.

On the basis of available data it seems that intense participation occurred in Policy Phase and it was structured in such a way that most of the information elicited would be used in the Strategy Phase as well. The argument was that Policy Phase involves the facilitation of decision-making about the way forward and two sets of people were regarded as important in this regard:

- the people whose lives will be fundamentally effected by the decisions, and
- the people whose commitment is required to implement the decisions (iNdlovu Regional IDP Files, Vol. 1, 1996).

In short these are the communities and stakeholders of the region.

Figure 3: FLOW CHART OF PLANNING AND PARTICIPATION PROCESS



In the Consortium led by SWK, Njabulo Development Consultants were tasked with the responsibility of community/stakeholder participation. The overall framework for the participation process was set out in the Community Participation Strategy: Programme of Action (see Figure 4 below for a summarised version).

Figure 4: Community Participation Strategy: Programme of Action

MILESTONE	SCHEDULED DATE
Final Community Participation Strategy adopted by Technical Management Committee	23. 02. 96
Finalise presentation for non-tribal constituents	01. 03. 96
Compile notes of workshop with business	01. 04. 96
Compile notes of workshop with agriculture	02. 04. 96
Compile notes of workshop with parastatals and government	03. 04. 96
Compile notes of workshop with NGOs	Wed 08. 04. 96
Compile notes of workshop with labour	10. 04. 96
Compile notes of workshop with Civic Organisations and rate payers	19. 04. 96
Finalise presentation for Traditional Regional Authority Meetings	22. 04. 96
Compile notes of Vulindlela Traditional Regional Authority meeting	08. 04. 96
Compile notes of Maphumulo Traditional Regional Authority meeting	09. 04. 96
Compile notes of Hlanganani Traditional Regional Authority meeting	10. 04. 96
Compile notes of Mpumalanga Traditional Regional Authority	11. 04. 96
Finalise presentation for workshops of non-tribal constituents in sub-regions	22. 04. 96
Compile notes of workshop with constituents in Central Sub-region	23. 04. 96
Compile notes of workshop with constituents in East Sub-region	24. 04. 96
Compile notes of workshop with constituents in North Sub-region	25. 04. 96
Compile notes of workshop with constituents in south Sub-region	26. 04. 96
Finalise presentation for meeting with development Forums	19. 04. 96
Compile notes of meeting with Maphumulo Development Forum	22. 04. 96
Compile notes of meeting with Mpumalanga Development Forum	23. 04. 96
Compile notes of meeting with Vulindlela Development Forum	24. 04. 96
Compile notes of meeting with Hlanganani Development Forum	25. 04. 96

Source: (iNdlovu Regional IDP, Vol. 2, 1996)

In essence, six mechanisms for eliciting the views of key stakeholders in the iNdlovu region were in place. These are listed below:

1. **MJSB Section 11 Planning Committee:** This is a non-statutory committee formed by key stakeholders of the region with the aim to harness and facilitate development initiatives. It was formed during the Natal Midlands Joint Services Board era and when the regional IDP was commissioned it acted as a Project Steering Committee thus mandated with the responsibility of taking milestone decisions on the project;

2. **Technical Management Committee:** This is the "hands-on" committee nominated by the Section 11 Planning Committee that was responsible for the day to day management of the project.

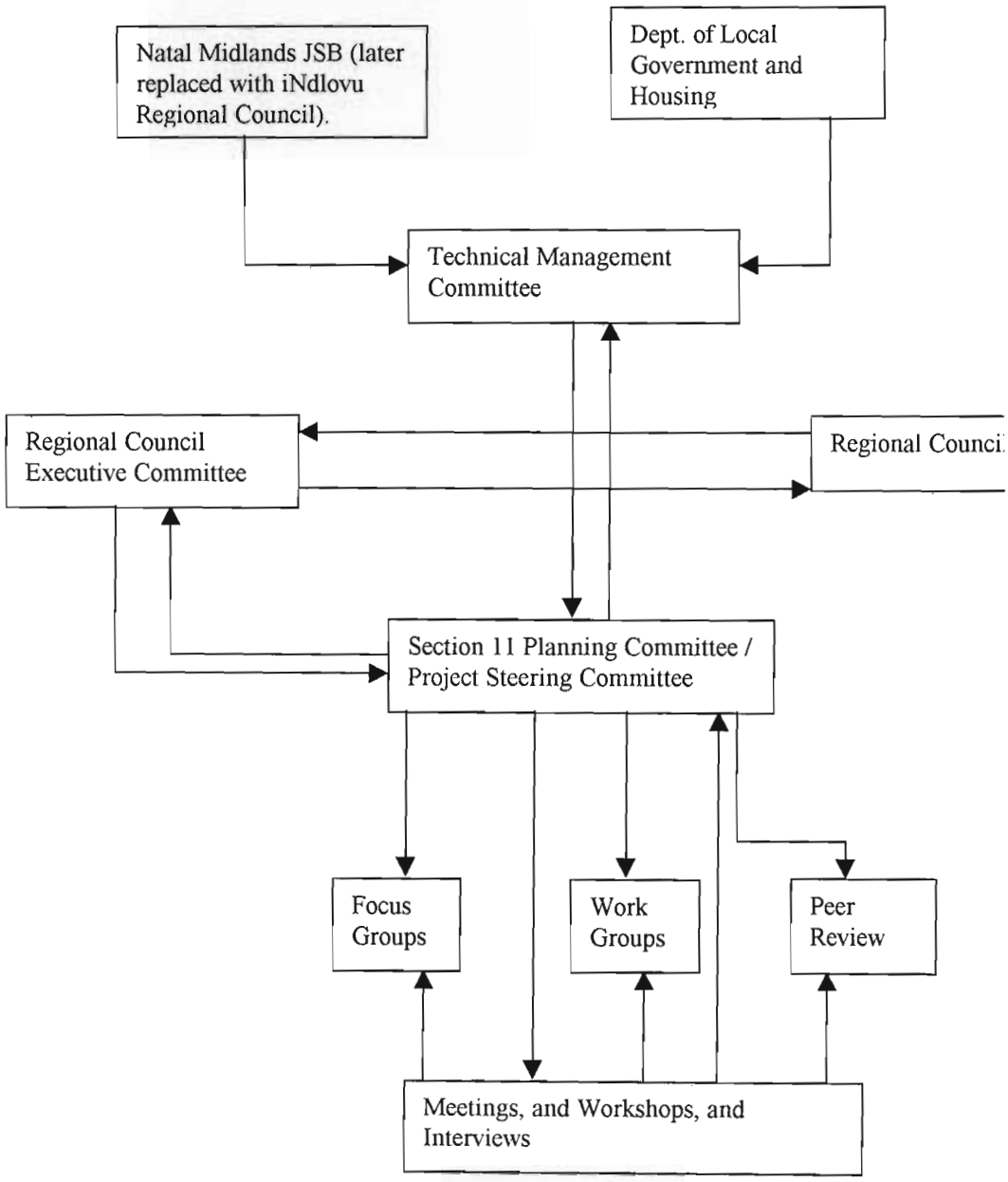
3. **Technical Work Groups:** To deepen technical expertise on the project structures, three Work Groups were set up by the project funders, the Department of Local Government and Housing and the Natal Midlands Joint Services Board namely; an Infrastructure/Spatial and Environmental working group, a Social and Economic working group, and, an Institutional and Development Finance working group;

4. **Key Informant Interviews:** These are interviewees that were conducted with important decision-makers in the public, parastatal, private, and non-government sectors;

5. **Traditional Regional Workshops:** These were the participation workshops held with regional stakeholders and community structures organised on a sectoral basis and at regional/district level;

6. **Sub-Regional Workshops:** These were the second round of workshops to follow the regional ones to target all stakeholders in the four sub-regions of the region. (iNdlovu Regional IDP, Vol. 2, 1996).

Figure 5: STRUCTURES RESPONSIBLE FOR INDLOVU REGIONAL PLAN



The figure above explains all the structures for purposes of management and for purposes of participation that were involved for iNdlovu Regional Planning.

It was stressed that, for the participation process to be effective, constituents needed to have a clear understanding of what the Midlands Integrated Development Plan (MIDP) (as it was called before it finally became known as the iNdlovu Regional Development Plan) aimed to do (iNdlovu Region IDP Files, Vol. 2, 1996). This was to be conveyed during workshops held with these constituents. In this regard key aspects of the plan that needed to be communicated with each constituent were listed as follows:

- the reasons why the Plan was commissioned;
- the aims of the Plan;
- areas covered by Plan;
- funders of the Plan; and,
- phases of the Plan. (iNdlovu Region IDP Files, Vol. 2, 1996).

Also deemed essential was to obtain ideas for development projects from constituents. This was argued by the consultants as very useful in making people feel as though the are part of the process but also in defining their development priorities. On these basis it can be argued that communities/stakeholders were contributed in the identification of projects. Figure 6 below is an example of a project identification form used to elicit ideas for development project of the region.

Figure 6: PROJECT IDENTIFICATION FORM

DESCRIPTION OF PROPOSED PROJECT	JURISDICTIONAL AUTHORITY	EXACT LOCATION
Type of Project or Service that is required	Name of Tribal Authority	Name of Village or Nearest Post Office

Source: iNdlovu Regional Council IDP Files, Vol.2, 1996

In addition to the workshops held with key stakeholders in the region, key informant interviews were conducted with major decision makers in fields of regional planning, infrastructural development, environmental management, development economics, local and provincial government, organised business and organised labour. The major objectives of these key interviews were a prioritisation of issues and an identification of strategic linkages. Further specific questions were to be asked per sector. The purpose of these questions was to begin to define a common vision for the future of the region.

To broaden representation on the project three Working Groups were set up as explained above (technical work groups). The working groups were essentially intended to broaden a technical management team and allow the tapping in of technical experts to review the reports. The working groups' task being technical it was intended they would consist of small groups of 4 to 5 people with specialised knowledge for each field. Also, representativity was not critical though of course, desirable. Unfortunately, in the first meeting of the working groups, this form of participation proved to be problematic. It is claimed that the designated representatives felt they were not well suited to participate, and the groups became too large for a useful discussion. The latter point was felt to be a

consequence of the concern for representativity. As a result two alternative forms of participation were recommended: a Peer Review, and a Strategy Focus Groups. Two strategy focus groups were used, one to deal with growth and employment issues and the other with distribution and development issues. These focus groups effectively replaced the working groups.

The following organisations were invited to the first round of Strategy Focus Groups: Pietermaritzburg Chamber of Business, Inyanda, Congress of South African Trade Unions, United Workers Union of South Africa, South African National Civics Organisation, Natal Agricultural Union, Natal Parks Board, Department of Local Government and Housing, Development Bank of Southern Africa, and the National Council of Trade Unions (iNdlovu Region IDP Files, Vol. 2, 1996). The invitations explained that the Strategy Focus Groups were formed out of a concern to broaden representation. The aim of that particular meeting was a detailed review of the Draft Policy Report. The meeting was held in town (Pietermaritzburg) in the late afternoon of 18 August 1996. It was scheduled for late afternoon so that those in business, labour, and civic representatives could get to the meeting almost after working hours.

In addition, discussions with Key Stakeholders were also held. These took the form of a Development Summit held in August 1996, workshops as well as interviews. The resolutions of the summit and the deliberations of each of the sectorally based workshops with key stakeholders were compiled into draft policies and submitted to the Technical Management Committee and its associated workgroups for comment. A draft final policy framework was then workshoped with community organisations and stakeholders as well as other interested parties on a sub-regional basis within the region. On the basis of the outcome of these two rounds of workshops with key stakeholders in the region a final policy document was submitted to Planning Committee (on its capacity as Project Steering Committee) for comment and approval. The Project Steering

Committee met on 08 October 1997 in Pietermaritzburg where the reports on Phases 1 and 2 of the project were tabled (iNdlovu Regional IDP Files, Vol. 3, 1997).

A useful account of the community/stakeholder participation process is a detailed report compiled by the sub-consultant responsible for the process covering April to August 1996. This sub-consultant was mandated to consult with the labour movement, civic movement and tribal authorities within the region. In doing so they had to communicate with regional structures, iziNduna, amaKhosi, and local development committees (iNdlovu Regional IDP Files, Vol. 3, 1997).

Areas and organisations they focused on were:

- Maphumulo Traditional Regional Authority;
- Vulindlela Traditional Regional Authority;
- Mpumalanga Traditional Regional Authority;
- Hlanganani Traditional Regional Authority;
- Congress of South African Trade Union (COSATU);
- United Workers Union South Africa (UWUSA); and,
- National Council of Trade Unions (NACTU).

As mentioned above, the objective was to communicate with the constituents what the regional plan aimed to achieve, and also to collect information from them which included the development needs as felt by the communities, hindrances to development, and existing facilities. The participation method used meetings and workshops. The workshops conducted by that period were as shown in figure 7 below:

Figure 7: TRADITIONAL REGIONAL WORKSHOPS

Area	No. of Workshops	No. of Communities	Total No. of Participants
Maphumulo	17	13	378
Mpumalanga (incomplete)	18	12	240

Source: iNdlovu Regional Council IDP Files, Vol. 2 1996.

In these workshops participants were able among other things to point at issues they viewed as acting as hindrances to development, and to identify their development needs (common in areas). Meetings held were with COSATU and its affiliates, Vulindlela Traditional Tribal Authority, Hlanganani Traditional Tribal Authority, UWUSA, NACTU, SANCO (iNdlovu Regional IDP Files, Vol. 3, 1997). For representation in Strategy Focus Groups the following organisations were able to send specific people: in the labour movement were COSATU, UWUSA, and NACTU; in the civic movement was SANCO, and in business was Inyanda (iNdlovu Regional IDP Files, Vol. 3, 1997).

The finer details of the participation process at Maphumulo tribal area is useful as an example of how the participation process unfolded especially in rural areas. As rural communities within the region are all under the authority of AmaKhosi, the first step was to approach them for briefing purposes so as to solicit their support. The Njabulo Development Consultants was invited to address the AmaKhosi in a Traditional Regional Authority meeting which was held on 15 May 1996. Thirty two (32) Traditional Leaders were present at that meeting and after some deliberations a green light was given for the sub-consultants to meet with the Development Forums of the district (ibid). A meeting with all the Chairpersons of the Forums had already taken place on 13 May 1996 and followed by a meeting with all the office bearers of the Development Forums in anticipation that AmaKhosi would give the sub-consultants a go-

ahead (ibid). In the meeting with the office bearers of the Development Forums, it was decided that consultation be done at the lowest strata of the communities by conducting workshops with each local development committee. The rationale behind this decision was that the input from these structures would be authentic and the project would gain community support as it unfolds. Figure 8 below shows venues and dates of 17 meetings and workshops conducted at Maphumulo District (ibid).

Figure 8: COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION PROCESS AT MAPHUMULO

Date (1996)	Area / Venue	Activity
13 May	Regional Court	Meeting
14 May	Woza Court	Briefing meeting with the Development Committee
15 May	Regional Court	Briefing meeting with AmaKhosi
20 May	Woza Court	Presentation
27 May	Jim Store	Workshop
28 May	Gogo Vuma	Workshop
29 May	Amathuli	Workshop
29 May	Faya Hall	Workshop
30 May	Emakhabeleni	Workshop
1 June	Gezwayo	Workshop
3 June	Mtulwa School	Workshop
4 June	Waterfall	Workshop
6 June	Woza Court	Workshop
7 June	Phezukomkhono	Workshop
8 June	Emathulini	Workshop
10 June	Woza Court	Meeting
18 June	Gogo Vuma	Workshop

Source: iNdlovu Regional IDP Files, Vol. 3, 1997

In its meeting on 25 January 1997 the Council Executive Committee resolved that a Development Summit on iNdlovu Regional Development Planning be convened. This Summit was held on 18 March 1997 (iNdlovu Regional IDP Files, Vol. 4, 1998). This was a high profile summit in which the then KwaZulu-Natal Premier, Dr F. T. Mdlalose delivered a keynote address and speeches

were also presented by former Provincial MECs for Local Government and Housing Mr. P. Miller and Economic Affairs and Tourism Mr. J. Zuma.

The work on Phase 3: Development Strategy, Project Identification and Budget then only commenced in the last quarter of 1997. A confirmation letter to appoint Scott Wilson for Phase 3 was written on 12 September 1997 (iNdlovu Regional IDP Files, Vol. 3, 1997). For phase 3, the consultants were ordered to ensure that outcomes of the Development Summit held at the end of phase 2, were well considered in formulating the plan. The interim final report was to be submitted to the Project Steering Committee and the final report accepted by the Executive Committee (EXCO) of the Regional Council. While the Technical Management Committee and the Planning Committee had a major role to play in terms of the initial terms of reference of the project, the powers shifted to the Project Steering Committee and Executive Committee as required in the IDP process. The work programme for phase three as agreed upon on their meeting held on 08 October 1997 was as follows (iNdlovu Regional IDP Files, Vol. 3, 1997) :

06 November 1997: First Project Steering Committee meeting to discuss the First Draft strategic Action Plan and the Spatial Framework;

18 November 1997: A one day workshop involving all 5 sub-regions to discuss the Final Draft Strategic Action Plan and Spatial Framework Report;

28 November 1997: A workshop to outline the Draft Programmes/Projects and Budget;

08 December 1997: A second Project Steering Committee meeting to discuss the First Draft Programme and Budget, and Monitoring and Review Framework Budget;

12 January 1998: A Third steering Committee meeting to discuss the Final Draft Programme and Budget, Monitoring and Review;

26 February 1998: A Council Executive Committee meeting for the final ratification.

These three separate phases culminated in the Final Draft of the iNdlovu Regional Development Plan. The next step, then, was reviewing the draft plan as a whole. Finally, a workshop was held on 24 February 1998 for the purpose of approving the plan and included key stakeholders of the region (iNdlovu Regional IDP Files, Vol. 3, 1997). The stakeholders to attend were as follows:

1. All Transitional Local Councils within the region;
2. Provincial Departments;
3. Service Providers;
4. iNdlovu Regional Council Section 11 Planning Committee;
5. iNdlovu Regional Council Executive Committee;
6. iNdlovu Regional Council Sub-Regional Committees; and,
7. Planning consultants for Sub-Regional Plans of the region.

The objectives of this workshop were to: appraise the Draft Regional Development Plan, debate the envisioned project prioritisation process, discuss the proposed institutional arrangements (e.g. Service Providers Forum), and review the process to implement the plan (ibid). The group breakaway system was used resulting in three groups formed. A period of two weeks was then given for comment on the final draft. In its meeting held on 23 April 1998 the iNdlovu Regional Council Executive Committee approved and adopted the iNdlovu Regional Development Plan as the overall strategic and spatial framework within which it will manage the implementation of development of the region. The full Council later endorsed this position on 30 July 1998 and it was then to be submitted the KwaZulu-Natal Cabinet, via the Department of Local Government and Housing, for its endorsement.

4.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter served to provide an overview of the case study, the iNdlovu Region. The chapter introduced the reader to the general characteristics of the region as well as the functioning of the regional council. The second part of the chapter outlined the integrated development planning process of the region. As explained in the preceding chapter, the first regional scale local government in KwaZulu-Natal were the Development and Services Board. Problems related to this structure were also explained, for example, the fact that it was a provincial-wide structure. The second attempt at regional scale local government in the province was in the form of the Joint Services Boards (JSBs). Problems related to this structure were also outlined. However, it should be noted that at least these had regional boundaries and to some extent operated as real local governments. In fact, the present day iNdlovu Regional Council governs areas previously governed by two JSBs, Natal Midlands JSB and East Griqualand JSB. The latter was very small while the former was very significant in terms of size and economic potential. For these factors the chapter traces the region, both in terms of structure and functioning, from its Natal Midlands JSB days to the current iNdlovu Regional Council.

The second section of the chapter dwells on the unfolding of the integrated development process. The pioneering work of the region in the practice of integrated development planning and formulating of IDP has made an interesting case study. It should be noted that the integrated development plan of iNdlovu Region was commissioned by the Natal Midlands JSB before regional councils could be established and mandated to formulate this plan. At the time the project was initiated there was a legislative vacuum and the conception of the term as a

local government competence was still in its infancy. The legislative requirements came into existence before the plan was complete and it had to be refined to meet the requirements of the Local Government Transition Act, Second Amendment, 1996 and the then KwaZulu-Natal Planning and Development Bill. As a result the plan was delayed by 15 months from the initial completion date. It is interesting to note that despite this environment the plan was regarded as successful and in fact coped with the much emphasised

CHAPTER 5: AN ASSESSMENT OF PARTICIPATION IN THE INDLOVU REGIONAL PLANNING PROCESS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is divided into three sections. The first two sections serve as a build-up to the actual analysis of data. The first section provides a brief overview/description of local government planning at different scales. It aims to show the nature and purpose of planning at different scales. This discussion should put into perspective what is feasible and what is not feasible in regional scale integrated development planning.

The second section discusses dynamics that were at play in the iNdlovu integrated development planning process. It starts by introducing the environment/context within which the plan was formulated. It then highlights political influences that had an impact on the process. Lastly, it discusses the forms and methods of participation used in this particular case study.

The third section provides the actual assessment of participation based on data collected during field research. For the purposes of analysis, the questions asked during the field research were grouped into discussion themes.

5.2 INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT PLANNING AT DIFFERENT SCALES

There are three "levels" of IDP in KwaZulu-Natal: regional/metropolitan, sub-regional, and local. There are significant differences between these levels in terms of scale, which has a significant impact on the way in which participatory processes can happen. This section briefly looks at the differences between the scales.

a) **Planning at a Regional Scale:**

Planning at a regional scale is often broad and serves to set the context for development and provide guidelines for planning at more detailed levels. This

means that issues are often addressed at a policy or strategic level. This tends to be somewhat removed or abstract for many people and so it is difficult for some people to contribute. Community organisations, especially, have a focus on local level development and may find it difficult to connect to the objectives of a Regional Plan. This means that capacity problems are a real issue at this scale. The size of the region and the distance that stakeholders must travel to meetings and workshops also often mean that local stakeholders are precluded from effective participation. There are, however, techniques to ensure that all major interest groups identified have a voice in the process even if it is not possible to involve every organisation or community.

b) **Planning at Sub-Regional Scale:**

This is an intermediate scale. Sub-regional plans try to elaborate, fine tune and detail the regional plan, with reference to particular geographic components of the region. The iNdlovu Region, for example, is divided into six sub-regions but other smaller regions may have two or three sub-regions. There is still a level of abstraction but many of the issues are closer to the concerns of particular communities. However, many of these plans remain at a conceptual level, making it difficult for many people to react to them with ease.

With sub-regional planning it is possible to identify the communities and to talk directly to them. It is possible to get specific information on what is happening on the ground. However, it is unlikely that a sub-regional plan will be able to respond to the needs of every community and so participation is still mainly about incorporating stakeholder interests rather than involving all communities. It should be noted that there is no sub-regional community, but varied communities and segments of communities with sometimes conflicting interests. Sub-regions are still large in size and there is still a significant number of role-players/stakeholders and considerable diversity. So, for example, a typical sub-region in iNdlovu region is likely to include areas under traditional authority, commercial farmland and small previously all-white towns.

Apart from problems of scale and social complexity mentioned above, the rural areas included in the regional and sub-regional plans have particular problems and issues concerning participation related to the role of traditional authorities in areas previously under KwaZulu, and the access of farm workers and labour tenants to planning processes within areas under commercial farmland. These are problems not experienced in planning for TLC areas.

c) **Planning at Local Scale**

Planning at a local scale, on the other hand, is more place- and project-specific. In small to medium sized towns it is possible to include every relevant organisation and even every interested individual. People can easily identify with what is spoken about and participation can be genuinely grassroots-based. People are also united by a number of geographically specific issues they have in common, and generally have good local knowledge whereas participants in regional and sub-regional planning exercises often only have a very general coarse-grained knowledge of places that are being discussed. This does not mean, however, that local scale participation is not complex. In fact, the closer planning comes to concrete local issues the more divisions and conflicts there may be. At regional and sub-regional scale it is possible to 'abstract out' the conflicts.

5.3 PARTICIPATION WITHIN THE INDLOVU REGIONAL PLANNING PROCESS

5.3.1 INTRODUCTION TO THE REGIONAL PLAN

INdlovu Regional Development Plan was formulated in response to a number of concerns in the region identified in the plan as being:

- Severe problems of unemployment, low income levels and slow economic growth;

- Dire shortages in respect of infrastructure, shelter, services, and social facilities;
- Heightened demand for key financial, management and planning resources;
- Concerns about environmental degradation and the destruction of vital natural resources;
- The lack of an integrated planning framework to guide the multiplicity of institutional authorities.

The Plan was prepared at a very early stage in the history of IDPs (i.e. 1996) and was the first of the IDP-type regional plans prepared in KwaZulu-Natal. It did not have the benefit of the experience of other regional plans. The plan does have a number of weaknesses (e.g. it is quite general and its policies lack geographical specificity) but some of these are being resolved through the sub-regional planning process, which is reaching a higher level of detail. To a large extent this Regional Plan was modelled on the KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Growth and Development Strategy (PGDS) process. The recommendations of the PGDS were used as the basis for the strategies in the Regional Plan without giving enough attention to the specificity of the region.

The PGDS process was focused around high profile summits convened by the provincial Premier and Minister of Economic Affairs to which representatives of all major economic sectors were invited. These summits did include thematic working sessions, which were used to refine the consultant's reports. In the case of the iNdlovu Region the major participatory occasion was a high profile summit which involved provincial ministers as well as a wide range of stakeholders. There were, however, other methods of participation that will be discussed.

5.3.2 THE POLITICS OF PLANNING

Provincial politics did play a role in the planning process, largely due to tensions within the IFP concerning the choice of capital for KwaZulu-Natal. The initial planning report recommended that Pietermaritzburg be positioned as the only viable capital of the province. The then KwaZulu-Natal Member of Executive Council (MEC) for Local Government and Housing required this to be deleted. It should be noted that the Regional Plan was prepared at a time when the idea of co-operative governance and the planning powers of municipalities was not properly understood, and when provincial government was still considered to be the major player in regional planning. The Regional Council were new structures and still weak. It is unlikely that provincial government would be able to interfere so directly in local planning processes in the current context.

At the sub-regional level there were also political factors that disrupted the process. In sub-region 5 (i.e. around Kokstad) there is a strong sub-regional identity with people considering themselves to be east Griqualanders. The divides were not along party political lines. On the other hand, in sub-region 4 only members of the IFP were prepared to attend workshops/participate in the process. Reasons for this are not known but it is likely that because the Standing Committee is IFP dominated, the other parties did not trust the process.

5.3.3 METHODS AND FORMS OF PARTICIPATION USED

The Regional Plan Summit was the most representative forum during the process. This summit involved presentations from politicians and consultants, and then a series of working groups dealing with different themes that reported back to the plenary. Other forms used at different times in the process included public meetings, workshops, sector seminars, and participation of different stakeholders in a project steering committee. Specific methods of participation included questionnaires, SWOT analysis, interviews,

participation appraisal and the general workshop system i.e. presentation, breakaway groups, then plenary.

There was some difference between the participative techniques used in the sub-regional planning processes, although there was variation from sub-region to sub-region. By the time the sub-regional plans were underway the idea of Service Providers' Forums had been introduced in KwaZulu-Natal and such a Forum was incorporated into the process. In terms of specific techniques, certain of the sub-regional processes paid better attention to methods appropriate to rural communities, for example, Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA). There was also more variation at the sub-regional scale with the use, for example, of project reference groups and sector seminars. In general terms, however, the workshop style was most commonly used for participation at all scales of planning.

5.4 ASSESSMENT OF THE IMPACT OF PARTICIPATION

5.4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this section, participatory processes employed in the preparation of iNdlovu Regional Development Plan are assessed in relation to:

- the extent of participation;
- the role of the different stakeholders within the process;
- stakeholder organisation/capacity;
- the appropriateness of the different forms and methods of participation used;
- the overall contribution to empowerment; and
- the overall contribution to co-ordinated delivery of development.

The section closes by providing a general assessment of the main issues raised in the discussion.

5.4.2 THE EXTENT OF PARTICIPATION

For improved planning, respondents are convinced that participation processes are important. They argued that without community/stakeholder participation, planning could not be relevant and able to identify those projects that are really needed. A participatory process directs the plan to meeting the essential needs of the community. Participation promotes capacity building and awareness of planning and promotes "buy-in" to the plan, especially if service providers are properly involved. It is important that top leadership is involved because they control resources, otherwise you might end up with a plan that would never be implemented. There was thus a general agreement that participation of both service providers and stakeholders/communities is important.

In terms of time given to the participation process, 20 respondents felt that not enough time was spent on the participation process, while 10 were convinced that sufficient or more than sufficient time was given to the process. These figures include not only iNdlovu Regional plan respondents, but also that of sub-regions, TLCs, and other regions. For respondents dealing with the iNdlovu Regional Plan, specifically, 7 of 17 interviewees felt that enough time was spent on the process. On the other hand, 10 felt that not enough time was given to the process.

The need to spend more time on capacity building was stressed by a number of respondents. AmaKhosi for instance, argued strongly that the IDP concept was new to them and that therefore much more time was needed to bring them and others up to speed. They argued that consultants did not consider the capacity of rural representatives and hence some stakeholders were left still confused about meaning of the IDP concept and process.

For plans in other regions, the consultants responsible all felt that the time spent on participation was reasonable. They thought that there were enough workshops but they suggested that more participation be encouraged with service providers through Service Providers Forums. Time frame and budget

constraints were considered to be the main parameters within which the process occurs. For these other regions it is not known whether all stakeholders would agree with the consultants but, as with iNdlovu, it seems likely that mainly rural representatives would have appreciated more time for participation and capacity building.

For the 5 sub-regional plans, 2 sets of consultants were of the view that not enough time was spent on the process, whilst the other 3 had an opposite view. Those who felt it was not enough argued that it was more of a budget rather than a time constraint. They highlighted the need to anticipate possibilities of delays and allow time and budgetary flexibility. Capacity of participants was highlighted as one of the other problems. They also pointed out that it is the build-up to workshops that consumes more time than the actual workshops.

Representativeness within the process is assessed according to economic sectors, gender, age group, race, and class. Respondents found it difficult to remember the representation in the process. Their responses are indicated in **table 1** below.

TABLE 5.1: ASSESSMENT OF REPRESENTATION IN THE PARTICIPATION PROCESS

	SCALE: Poor - P,	Fair- F,	Good – G		
INDLOVU REGIONAL COUNCIL AREA RESPONDENTS	**Sector**	**Gender**	**Age Group**	**Race**	**Class**
R1: Business	G	F	F	G	F
R2:Business	G	G	G	G	F
R3: District Agricultural Council	P	F	P	G	F
R4: District Agricultural Council	P	F	F	G	F
R5:Non-Governmental Organisation	F	P	P	G	F
R6:Non-Governmental Organisation	F	F	F	G	G
R7:Regional Planner for iNdlovu Council	G	G	F	G	F
R8: Councillor	G	G	P	P	G
R 9: Councillor	G	F	P	G	G
R10: iNkosi	G	F	F	G	F
R11: iNkosi	G	F	F	G	G
R 12: Consultant	G	G	G	G	G
R 13: Government Department	F	F	P	G	G
R14: Service Provider	G	F	P	G	F
R15: Service Provider	P	P	P	G	G
R 16: Service Provider	G			F	F
OTHER KZN REGIONS					
R17: Ugu Regional Council: IDP Consulting Team Member	G	G	F	G	G
R18: Ilembe Regional Council: IDP Consulting Team Member	G	G	F	G	F
R 19: Zululand Regional Council: IDP Consulting Team Member	G	F	P	G	G
R20:Umzinyathi Regional Council: IDP Consulting Team Member	F	G	P	G	F
R21: uThukela Regional Council: IDP Consulting Team Member	G	G	F	G	G
INDLOVU SUB-REGIONS					
R22: Sub-region – 1 IDP Consultants	G	G	P	G	G
R23: Sub-region – 2 IDP Consultants	F	G	P	G	G
R24: Sub-region - 3 IDP Consultants					
R25: Sub-region – 4 IDP Consultants	G	F	P	G	G
R26: Sub-region – 5 IDP Consultants	G	F	F	F	F
INDLOVU TLCs					
R27: Kokstad TLC LDP Consultant	G	F	P	G	G
R28: Howick TLC Planner	G	G	G	G	G

As can be seen, most dimensions were rated fair or good by most respondents. The one area of weakness was, however, age representivity suggesting that younger people were not adequately involved.

As the IDP is very wide in the topic areas it covers, it is possible for any organisation or person to join the process. At regional and sub-regional levels, consultants agreed that, in principle, the process should be as inclusive as possible, but decisions should be taken by the council. Nevertheless, the combination of local and regional leadership is the only realistic path. It was emphasised that local leadership should not be political leaders only (i.e. councillors) but community based development leaders as well.

At the local level, however, municipalities do not only choose leaders but are happy for ordinary persons to be involved as well. The TLC respondents indicated that anyone who feels s/he could contribute to the process should be welcomed. This preparedness to be so broad is not surprising if one considers the scale of local municipalities compared to Regional Councils.

All consultants and the Regional Council planner agreed that there should be varying emphases of participation in different phases of IDP. Only one interviewee was against the idea, arguing that, in principle, full involvement is required irrespective of the phase. Those who say emphasis should vary argue for:

a) Development Perspective and Visioning – to be all-inclusive as it is where IDP is introduced and it is where community development issues are identified;
b) Development Strategy and Spatial Framework – to be formulated through sector workshops by stakeholders, each developing a strategy for an area where it specialises (also to include academics); and
c) Programme and Budgeting, and Implementation and Monitoring – not to involve everyone, as this is technical and most people will be limited in the contribution they can make.

Stakeholders involved in the case study were also asked of their opinion on the balance of power i.e. the way they were treated and whether equity prevailed in terms of being given a fair and equal chance to contribute. In such a process there is often a tendency for some powerful stakeholders to dominate the process at the expense of the less powerful, leading to a plan

that is biased in favour of a certain group. However, the good news in this instance is that only one of the 15 interviewees was unhappy with the process. This meant that people were satisfied with the manner in which they were treated in workshops and meetings. The only concern was that the process was rushed, but even this was raised by only one sector of stakeholders. The only respondent who felt that the process was not equitable across all sectors/stakeholders argued that there was at times "too much irrelevant discussion between consultants and representatives of community organisations". Such a sentiment represents some degree of impatience with the capacity building that that is needed in relation to underprepared communities and their representatives.

Linked to the equity issue is the value and respect given to stakeholders' views. They might be allowed an equal chance to contribute but how those views are treated/accepted is something else. Again, powerful stakeholders might dominate here when consultants take their views more seriously compared to those of the less powerful. However, all 15 stakeholders directly involved in the case study think their views were treated as valuable. The current projects being implemented are quoted as an example of the fact that their contributions were taken really seriously.

In addition, the decision-making procedure/process is supposed to be an all-inclusive one. Decisions need to be taken together with stakeholders. Twelve of the fifteen interviewees felt that the decision-making was all-inclusive. These responses suggest that this was a properly conducted participation process. Only three stakeholders did not hold the same view.

The participation process should be genuine and it is crucial that participants are adequately satisfied that their contributions are given serious consideration and are reflected in the plan. In most cases there was a general agreement that this did happen, to some degree at least. Only one interviewee had mixed feelings (i.e. not adequately satisfied) on this matter. The representatives of the agricultural sector (an important economic contributor in the region) were very unhappy with their involvement in the

process. They argued that the plan was not a true reflection of what is happening on the ground. There was also a strong complaint that reports of different phases and even the draft plan were not made available to stakeholders to consider/discuss before final approval by the council. All other interviewees felt that the plan (to some extent) reflects their contributions, though they differed regarding the extent to which this happened. They were satisfied with the process and motivated to be involved again in the future.

Summary Statement: There is a general feeling that the process was inclusive and that power relations and differing levels of capacity did not seriously distort the plan. There were however, some areas of weakness, for example, youth involvement. There was, however, a large minority of respondents, especially from rural areas, who felt that insufficient time was given to capacity building and participation. Only one sectoral group - i.e. organised agriculture - felt generally aggrieved with the process.

5.4.3 THE ROLE OF DIFFERENT STAKEHOLDERS

This refers specifically to consultants, council officials (Regional Planner) and facilitators. It is known that in terms of the legislation, the council is supposed to drive and lead the process and only have consultants as its support unit to extend its capacity. There was a general feeling among stakeholders that everyone responsible for leading the process played his/her role appropriately, but that certain factors at the time led to the consultants playing a larger role than would normally be proper.

At the time there was a lack of clarity on the IDP process and the Regional Council did not have its own regional planner, something that has since changed. This led to the council officials relying heavily on consultants to lead the process. Consultants eventually became responsible for the overall process including project planning, facilitation, and project management.

Facilitators were seen to be useful in negotiating access to communities, and in facilitation of communication. The regional councillors were said to have been fairly well represented in the process, although not leading the process, and it was also felt that there was a need for councillors to continuously report back to their constituencies. Officials were generally inexperienced in planning and played a limited role.

For other regions an important issue was also the current role of consultants and what their role should actually be. In some cases they were providing technical expertise or input and playing a specialist role while in some cases they were managers and facilitators and overall drivers responsible for the entire process. Interestingly, most of the regional consultants are themselves of the view that consultants should be involved only as an extension of government capacity, i.e. only to help develop/impart skills on government officials. They should work with government in a way that builds the government's capacity rather than being the specialists with expert knowledge.

Many stakeholders, however, are of the view that consultants are well placed to prepare the plan as they have professional expertise and some distance from the conflicts in the region. They nevertheless agree that consultants should be accountable to the Council and that the Council should not abrogate its responsibility to direct the consultants.

Summary statement: There is some level of disagreement as to the role consultants should play in relation to councillors and council officials. The relative inexperience of the council and the absence of the council's town and regional planner at the initiation of the process meant that the consultants had to play a leading role. In future however, this is likely to be different. There are however, those who believe that an external consultant can bring objectivity to the process and should therefore continue to play a key role.

5.4.4 STAKEHOLDER ORGANIZATION/CAPACITY

How well stakeholders are organised to allow for efficient communication and representation is critical for the participation process. There are some very basic problems, for example, access to means of communication. A huge effort in communication between different stakeholders goes to arrangements of workshops before they happen. If lines of communication are not proper, for instance, no telephones, fax machines, e-mails, it makes communication difficult. While the consultant for the regional plan felt that stakeholders are not adequately organised to be effectively involved, the Regional Councils' planner had the opposite view. Many stakeholders pointed to the great differences in organisational capacity, and hence the differing extent to which organisations could sustain involvement. Community organisations were generally poor in resources and relied on voluntary participation whereas government departments had far greater back-up support and officials could attend workshops and meetings as part of their jobs.

The kind of representation that stakeholders have is another important matter. Attendance needs to be consistent and ideally stakeholders need to send someone who understands the organisation and has powers to take decisions and/or influence decisions on behalf of his/her organisation. Stakeholders acknowledge the significance of institutional arrangements and consistency in representation. They accept that for an IDP to be successful, one of the challenges is to facilitate some cohesion amongst the stakeholders. In assessing whether this happened in the integrated development planning of the KZN regions, and sub-regions of iNdlovu region, respondents had mixed feelings. While some felt that attendance by stakeholders was good, others were not happy. Some level of consistency seems to have been reached because some participants became involved in the process as part of their work. However, the fact that not all stakeholders are organised at a regional level made it difficult for the process.

Summary Statement: There were mixed feelings with regard to level of organisation of stakeholders and consistency in attendance. The level of organisation was argued to vary depending on the type of organisation, for instance, organisation will be a problem for community structures as they are usually voluntary and lack resources.

5.4.5 THE APPROPRIATENESS OF THE VARIOUS FORMS AND METHODS OF PARTICIPATION USED

The issue of capacity to deal with planning issues as well as the language problem is important to consider in the IDP participation process. There is a wide range of stakeholders not speaking the same language, and using only one language both during meetings and workshops and for documentation may even be unconstitutional. The capability to deal with planning issues is another problem. The responsible authorities should ensure that they deal with those language barriers and that people have basic understanding of planning. In assessing this issue responses from interviewees were recorded in table 2 below.

TABLE 5.2: ABILITY TO COPE WITH THE PROCESS

	SCALE:			
Participants by Sector	**Totally Lost**	**Sometimes Lost**	**Mostly Fine**	**Always Fine**
Service Providers			X	
Service Providers			X	
Service Providers				X
Business				X
Business				X
Government Department				X
District Agricultural Council				X
District Agricultural Council				X
Non-Governmental Organisation				
Non-Governmental Organisation		X		
Councillor				X
Councillor		X		
INkosi			X	
INkosi				X

Judging from these responses, the process was able to cater for the problems mentioned above as most people could participate reasonably well. No one was totally lost and a significant majority was always comfortable.

Different forms of participation are mentioned in previous section. Here we look at the usefulness of these forms as a whole. Despite the problems in the process in general, all stakeholders are of the view that the different forms used were necessary and were well managed. The general feeling is that they worked effectively. Respondents argued that they were enlightened and empowered. As some of the stakeholders argue, "they took us from nowhere to somewhere".

Forms of participation used in sub-regional plans also seemed to work well, at least from the perspectives of the consultants. For instance, key stakeholder interviews were very successful in providing specific information on conditions in the sub-regions. Workshops worked well but they took too much time to convene. A main concern was that of poor attendance of people in participatory proceedings. One of the consultants felt that workshops are useful only to a certain extent and suggested that the reason might be because they were not used for the purpose for which they were designed He argued that workshops were useful for brainstorming and information sharing but not for decision making and direction-pointing.

Although stakeholders felt that the forms of participation worked well, they also had some concerns. Consequently, they have suggested some alternatives that could be useful. They mainly suggested how forms currently used could be improved. It was suggested for example, that it is important to consider the context, needs and objectives of the planning phase and let these be the criteria for choosing the method. For workshops, it was suggested that there is a need to identify more relevant and committed representatives of structures. A further suggestion is that we need to involve the senior management of service providers for the plan to be really implementable. Two options were advanced in this regard: either send a questionnaire to senior management for their comments at the end of each

phase; and/or hold a workshop with senior management at the beginning and end of the process.

It was also suggested that the use of media should be significantly improved. The argument here was that media is only used to inform the public about the commencement of the process but not about its unfolding. This should change. Not only print media is to be used, as is usually the case, but also electronic media. Sector Seminars are suggested as a possibly useful form of participation. Here, different organisations specialising in each issue hold seminars to work out sector strategies so that there can be more informed and realistic proposals. The last proposal is for leadership and key stakeholder seminars. The idea is that the main role-players in the region assess work done by different sectors in sector seminars and combine them to produce a development strategy for the region.

Sub-regional consultants suggested that the sector seminars/focus groups could be more useful. In addition, they felt there is a need to develop a strong formalised institutional structure for decision-making. Standing committees at present lack the resources and capacity necessary to be effective decision-making bodies. There is a need to strengthen these structures if sub-regions are to be a working level of government. This problem may however be resolved by the new demarcation proposals, which divide the iNdlovu Region into smaller regions/districts.

The assessment of the level of in/convenience focused on the following aspects: venue, report/documentation, and decision-making. Most respondents felt that the venue was fine and reasons given were either that they were located in town where the venues were and/or the participants had their own transport. But a concern was raised by some respondents that the process always occurred in urban areas thus placing an additional burden on rural people who had to travel long distances. Although councillors get travel allowances, representatives of other organisations (e.g. development committees), lack such support. For sub-regional planning no one gets travel allowances. Travelling distance represents not only a question of financial

cost but time as well. It demands more time for rural people, as they have to travel for long distances, thus by the time a meeting starts they are already weary.

There is also a concern that documentation is always in English and never translated into isiZulu and that no explanation was given for failing to do. Some respondents complained that reports for discussion in workshops are seldom circulated and when this does happen, they are invariably too late. They argued that the process is not well organised in this regard i.e. late documentation and poor recording of meetings.

Summary Statement: Language was not perceived as a serious problem as translations were used but documentation was always in English. Most forms and methods of participation were considered to be appropriate but there were areas of improvement suggested. These were: extending the venue of workshops into rural areas; better use of media; sector seminars; and varying methods depending on the objectives of each phase of the planning process.

5.4.6 THE OVERALL CONTRIBUTION TO EMPOWERMENT

The participation process greatly contributed to an understanding of the meaning of integrated development planning as a concept. This statement is based on respondents' comments when asked to tell of their understanding of the process after involvement in it, compared to their level of understanding before being engaged in it.

From this discussion it is clear that the respondents now have good grasp of the concept of integrated development planning and were able to spell out its intended goals and its key features. Of the respondents who answered this question only one was still confused about the meaning of the concept of integrated development planning and the rest understood at least the basics

of the concept. They understand IDP as:

- concerned with co-ordination and collaborative action between different tiers of government, different government departments and wide ranging service providers in the general provision of services;
- a holistic and co-ordinated approach to socio-economic development;
- focused on addressing rural development;
- providing a framework for sustainable development;
- introducing correct budgeting procedures;
- serving as a guiding tool for development initiatives;
- an all-inclusive process for all stakeholders (providers, clients, and recipients) in the region;
- promoting harmonious development with an appropriate planning and development control framework;
- allowing different stakeholders get a chance to make their input on what they envisage investing in the area;
- co-ordinating resources to have significant impact on society.
- ensuring that duplication is avoided; and,
- allowing stakeholders to share information and work together.

Of the 14 respondents 3 had never been exposed to any form of planning before, let alone an IDP, whilst others had had varying levels of exposure. It is perhaps a point worth noting that the three who had never previously been exposed to planning were black South African councillors from rural areas, and for those at ease with the concept, only one was a black South African. The issue of being exposed or not exposed to planning obviously has great impact on a person's capability to contribute to the IDP. The findings highlighted the need to develop a concrete capacity building program, which should become part of the process of IDP. Such a program should obviously focus on rural community structures (e.g. traditional leadership, community development forums/committees). The results also demonstrated the usefulness of involving organised 'professional structures' because of the level of knowledge and experience of their personnel. Without undermining community-based structures, the latter structures should be fully used in IDP

processes. The concern however is the extent to which those with knowledge might dominate participatory processes leading to a one–sided plan.

Only 2 of the 14 respondents were of the view that the process did not improve their understanding of IDP. It is also interesting that professional town planners also felt they learned something from the process. The large number of respondents who felt that they have come to understand planning shows that the process was successful in its educational role.

Summary Statement:

The large majority of respondents consider the process to have been educational and believe that their knowledge of planning has been enhanced.

5.4.7 THE OVERALL CONTRIBUTION TO CO-ORDINATED DELIVERY

Twelve of the fourteen respondents saw the community/stakeholder participation process in planning as having a positive impact on delivery/development. There is a strong belief that since this is an all-inclusive planning process, which goes to the extent of identifying specific projects, there should be a direct link with delivery and such delivery should be in terms of the principles of integration/co-ordination. Respondents agreed that linking the plan to the particular interests and needs of stakeholders would ensure that this planning process would be much more realistic and outcome related. Unfortunately, the concern raised was that the planning process for iNdlovu Region, as well as other regions in KwaZulu-Natal, had failed to recognise that service providers and government departments have their own plans/programs that do not necessarily relate to the regional development plan.

It became clear that in most issues consensus was reached in workshops and that issues and concerns the participants raised were analysed and

synthesised and then used to inform the plan. In fact, in other regional planning processes some stakeholders went to the extent of submitting their programs, something that is argued to have greatly improved the relevance of those plans. There is a strong belief amongst all involved that, without the contributions of the stakeholders, the plan would have been very different from what it is today. From other regions, the feeling is positive as well.

Stakeholders are positive that tangible results will come out of the process They argued that the plan provides certainty for local stakeholders who would like to invest in the area, and developers also become more committed as they were part of the process. Through the IDP, because of its participatory approach, necessary support from beneficiaries and 'clients', which is critical for development to happen, is gained. Tangible results are also expected from the IDP since it goes to the extent of identifying specific projects and focusing on developing underdeveloped areas and because, to a great extent, the budget is influenced by the plan. Stakeholders were confident that this planning process greatly contributed to planning and development of the region i.e. co-ordinated action, common goal/destiny, and sense of ownership by the target group. All stakeholders except for agriculture were confident that the plan aims at addressing the real development problem priorities of the region. The agricultural sector felt strongly that it was excluded hence they argued that as not everyone was fully involved, some positions/views were not heard. Therefore they saw the plan as not addressing major concerns of the region.

The relationship between the participatory planning process and effective development is however, not seen to be direct. Respondents argued that for this to happen, actions like continuous plan review and proper monitoring are critical. The participation process needs to ensure that it is all-inclusive, that all stakeholders are treated the same and that it is linked both to financial availability, commitment and dedication from the council and to important stakeholders' programmes.

Summary Statement:

It is generally believed that the participation process improved the quality and implementability of the plan by linking it to the priorities of stakeholders and by improving co-ordination of delivery agents. There is, however, still a concern at the lack of linkage or poor relationship between the regional development plan and plans of some service providers.

5.5 CONCLUSION

The Regional Planning process did not involve all the residents or communities of the region, but that is to be expected. It did, however, involve a wide cross-section of stakeholders, and major interests within the regional were represented.

In general the participation process for iNdlovu Regional and Sub-regional Plans was effective, although it is difficult to measure its level of success in terms of being genuinely representative as the study did not include those who were not participants. For those who were involved, however, there were generally happy, with some exceptions. Organised agriculture, for example, was unhappy.

Respondents were mainly positive about the extent, and forms and methods of participation, and the contribution of the process to empowerment and delivery. There were, however, some areas of concern and debate including among others: the dominant role of consultants, poor attendance at some meetings, the relationship between regional plans and the programs of key stakeholders, influence of service providers representatives in their organisations, inconsistency in attendance, poor involvement of youth, urban biased venues, language problems, and the differing capacity of stakeholders to be properly involved given the various levels of organisation by stakeholders.

The fact that this was a plan for a regional scale influenced the participation process in a number of ways:

- Issues dealt with were generally of a policy or strategic nature and concerned some stakeholders only in a very general way.

- Representation was mainly from the regional representatives of organisations and as a consequence they lacked detailed local knowledge and who dealt with issues in a coarse-grained way.

- Knowledge of the process was often contained in the minds of only one or two members of an organisation who might leave whereas a local IDP process is more likely to be more deeply embedded.

- There were problems relating to venue, transport and organisation which stems from the large size of the area and the diversity of capacities within the region.

- Provincial politics impacted on the process but local politics did not generally interfere (except at sub-regional scale).

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 GENERAL CONCLUSION

The preceding discussion on integrated development planning at regional scale of local government reveals the extreme difficulty of ensuring perfect involvement of all communities and stakeholders of the region. Participation in South African context is fraught with many dilemmas. These include: the question of traditional authorities which are non-elected structures but still have cultural importance for many; the culture of mobilisation and participation which was entrenched during the liberation struggle but which is not always suited to the participation requirements of planning; and, the lack of experience, skills and other resources of the municipalities that are to undertake participatory integrated development planning.

The Apartheid State was characterised by two features - a centralist approach and a policy of racial segregation. These features were especially manifested in relation to local governance. Racially based local governments were established for urban areas, including Black local authorities (BLA), and White local authorities (WLA). Very little attention was given to rural local government and regional/district scale government. This fragmented and highly centralised system became increasingly unsustainable and the state was thus forced to search for new alternatives.

The turning point of this search was provided in the passing of the 1983 "Tricameral" Constitution. On the basis of this Constitution, the government was to reshape its governance not only nationally but at local level as well. This process culminated in the establishment of Regional Services Councils through the 1985 Regional Services Council Act. A reformist agenda had begun to take some shape. The economic crisis that the country was plunged into, was however not to be redressed through this reformist agenda. The damage caused already, combined with international economic isolation, made this impossible.

The manner in which the RSCs were constituted and the way they functioned meant that they were rejected by the same people they were supposedly created to please. Generally speaking, RSCs were the same as today's District or Regional Councils. However, the fact that the RSCs were new structures within the broader apartheid policy meant that they had little legitimacy. The RSCs, also known as Joint Services Board (JSBs) in KwaZulu-Natal, like BLAs and WLAs, acted solely as institutions for the provision and maintenance of services. Some writers even claim that these structures were more concerned about development programmes that enhanced apartheid-created territorial segregation, than they were about development and service delivery per se (Barnes and Morris, 1996).

It should be noted that rural areas never had proper local government. The exception being the Cape Province that had District Councils. In Natal, the DSB was created to cater for developing areas which, while they were not proclaimed municipal areas, had a level of development that necessitated control and management. The RSCs/JSBs on the other hand, were created to cater for both rural and urban areas. It should however be remembered that the political motive for their establishment was to counter the challenge posed by liberation movements in rendering the country ungovernable. This campaign was concentrated in towns and cities, hence the RSCs/JSBs tended to focus on urban areas at the expense of rural people. As already hinted above, the RSC/JSB experiment failed dismally. They failed in terms of both their public as well as their hidden agenda.

By the early 1990s the liberation movement and the state were forced to negotiate the future. A significant result of those negotiations was the 1993 Interim Constitution of the Republic. Through this constitution, proper local government, constituted and operating according to democratic principles, was ushered in. Also, rural areas were for the first time to have local government responsible and dedicated to them. These structures were to be known as District Councils (or Regional Councils in KwaZulu-Natal). There was also to be Transitional Rural Councils operating solely for rural areas, although these were not implemented in KwaZulu-Natal. It was within this context that iNdlovu

Regional Council was established. It replaced the Natal Midlands Joint Services Board.

From the 1993 Constitution and the 1996 Constitution, and a series of legislation and policy documents since then, autonomous and democratic local government was established. The previous system of local government had failed. A new mandate to local government was therefore not a matter of choice but a necessity. Accordingly, the 1996 Constitution mandated local government to be developmentally focussed in its operations. While they were to continue with their traditional role of service provision, local governments were also responsible for poverty alleviation through socio-economic development of their areas of jurisdiction. Integrated development planning was offered as a policy within which local government could pursue its new mandate.

The preceding discussion, especially chapters two and three, outlines at some length, the concept of integrated development planning. Local government was seen to be well located to pursue socio-economic development. It was this idea of integrated development that was extended to the regional/district scale, and contributed to the revival of regional planning in South Africa. In KwaZulu-Natal, regional planning built on previous experience going back to the 1940s and also on the experience in preparing a Provincial Growth and Development Strategy. The arrival of integrated development planning at different scales was associated with a participatory approach. The culture of participation entrenched during the era of a liberation struggle, continued to be at play even beyond the time of the struggle. The government leaders of the day were the ones that gave birth to this culture. Impressed with the power of collaborative action - or perhaps to shift the focus of this power from challenging the state to driving their own development - an emphasis on community involvement in local affairs was promoted. As a result, community/stakeholder participation became the key component of integrated development planning. Within this context, the iNdlovu Regional Development Plan (as regional IDPs are known in KwaZulu-Natal) were formulated.

As it could be observed from the above discussion, there has been a far-reaching transformation of local government institutions and policy within a very short space of

time. Local government institutions as they are today, the policy of integrated development planning, and the involvement of communities and stakeholders in local affairs, is all new. As all this was happening for the first time, problems could be expected. This dissertation aimed to explore these potential problems and difficulties. It sought to confirm the validity of the hypothesis that for a variety of reasons, IDPs formulated at a regional scale have failed to be genuinely participatory and all-inclusive. The study has not completely confirmed the hypothesis as participation was fairly extensive and successful (according to majority of participants) but there were still problems.

The problems are a reflection of the lack of experience, first because the process is new and secondly because of the complexity of the process itself. One of the problems the process suffered from was the unevenness of power relations, although the participants felt that this did not seriously affect the plan. Experience has shown that those with resources are the ones who also possess power and also the ones who can express themselves fluently and therefore have the greatest influence on the outcome.

In this respect, the poor level of organisation of community-based organisations (CBOs) and traditional authorities are a cause of concern. These organisations represent important target groups for socio-economic development. Their poor level of organisation makes communication difficult and limits the contribution they can make. The issue of the venue being always in urban areas was raised by representatives from rural areas. The use of language was also a problem and not all participants were well accommodated in this regard. The planning jargon makes it difficult especially for those with less formal education. These are not easy concepts to translate and thus exact information is not transmitted during translation to the indigenous language.

These are the types of problems that are experienced in participatory process at all scales. However, some of these problems are more serious at regional scale level because of the number and complexity of issues involved and because of the many stakeholders that must be accommodated.

It became apparent from the study that literally involving everyone in regional planning is not feasible. INdlovu Region for instance, has about 1,5 million people and therefore involving everyone equally is just not feasible. However, this should not be taken as a suggestion that representative democracy is the way to go. It is still maintained that stakeholder and direct citizen participation be broadened. Although involving everyone is not possible, opening representation beyond councillors is important, especially since many councillors are still new in the field and some of them do not know much about development issues. Also councillors do not always represent all particular interests within the region. One should also be cautious of talking about a regional community. A region is composed of a vast range of different communities with conflicting interests. A consensus in this situation is obviously not an easy one to reach. Involving mainly leadership is what happened in the iNdlovu regional development planning process and the alternative does not seem to be feasible and did not happen in any of the other regions.

As shown in the recommendations below, participation does not always mean direct involvement in the process by citizens in general. There are, in fact, also too many *stakeholders* to be involved in a planning process. The main problem with regard to stakeholders is to identify key and relevant stakeholders. However, the nature of development means that all organisations can be regarded as relevant stakeholders, thus making it difficult to select stakeholders to invite to workshops and other participatory processes. The process also tends to be dominated by consultants. For the case study, there was no regional planner employed by the Regional Council at the time of the IDP and that may explain the dominant role of consultants. Nevertheless, this pattern continued in the sub-regional plans and was also the case with other regions. Integrated development planning includes empowerment, as one of its primary goals and it is a continuous learning process. This suggests that, as the process continues, the role of consultants should gradually decrease.

One of the theoretical roots of integrated development planning is Communicative Rationality. It is based on argument and a principle that planning by its nature is not only

for experts but a communicative action where beneficiaries should be recognised as significant stakeholders with useful first hand information. Healey would argue that argumentation, provides a more enduring and effective basis for action than strategies arrived at through abstract reasoning. Effective solutions are arrived at through a negotiated consensus. As the IDP focus is on finding the most appropriate and implementable solutions, the process followed in formulating the Plan is arguably more important than the plan itself.

Communicative Rationality is a useful way to approach regional scale IDPs. However, its limitations should also be recognised. A first problem is a lack of attention to the power relations that have been discussed above. The consensus that is reached in a communicative process is always influenced by power. Planners should not be naive about this and should do everything possible to make the playing field more even (e.g. by addressing the problem of language). Secondly, integrated planning is not entirely communicative and does still involve a technical or instrumental rationality. Whereas Visioning, for example, can happen through a purely communicative process - although it should be informed by technical analysis - project planning is more technical. The appropriate levels of participation at each level should be considered.

6.2 RECOMMENDATIONS

One of the main aims of the study was to recommend some approaches to IDP. This section sets out to do this. The suggestions here include the ideas of the interviewees and some of them are based on the insight gained by the researcher, especially during the study. While some recommendations are applicable during the plan formulation only, the emphasis is on measures to ensure participation in the continuous integrated development planning process. It is recommended that:

1. The planning process should happen in parallel with a properly resourced capacity and training programme so as to counter the capacity problems which, most participants face.

2. There is a need to build popular support for the IDP. This is not achievable by using participation process at a plan formulation stage only, but needs continuous participation, marketing, and proper communication to both popularise it as well as showing its significance and usefulness to people of the region. This could be done by using media, Internet, and pamphlets to make the plan accessible and for people to start talking about it.

3. Participation should be structured into Performance Management and Evaluation.

4. A Council of NGOs and CBOs be set up for each District / Regional Council area.

5. The analysis phase should include a "Stakeholders' Report" which provides an assessment of the views and interests of the different stakeholders in the region (as was done for uThukela Region).

6. Community structures should be assisted with the type of resources that are needed for them to participate effectively in planning process, as this will have great impact in the work they are doing for communities. Government institutions (i.e. police stations, clinics, schools, and tribal courts) are spread over many areas and have necessary resources which these structures lack. As these institutions belong to government, the state should allow them to share resources with community structures where this is feasible. This refers to working space, telephones, faxes, etc. In this way, the level of organisation of community structures, and thus their contribution, would be greatly improved.

7. Co-ordination and integrated action will only be realised if there is proper relationship between development plans and the programmes of service providers. The establishment of Service Providers Forums for each district / regional area, is essential.

8. It should be accepted that the level and nature of participation should vary from

phase to phase. Participation should serve a real purpose rather than being decorative and so it should be linked to the objectives of the planning phase. In this regard it is suggested that:

- the project has an all-inclusive project launch and closure;
- there is all-inclusive participation in the Development Perspective and Visioning phase;
- there are sector seminars for Development Strategy formulation; and
- for the Budget and Implementation phase only relevant participants
- who can cope with the technical nature of this stage are to be involved.

9. Language barriers are to be dealt with by translating documents (at least have executive summary translated) and by translating discussion.

10. The possibility of alternating venues between rural and urban should be seriously considered.

11. Draft reports on different phases to be referred to Project Steering Committee and / or Planning Committee for discussion before sending it to the council for final approval.

12. Councillors should be allocated constituency areas or wards (preferably where they stay), to get mandate from the constituency and act as a voice of the grassroots which is impossible to directly involve.

13. There should be an attempt to balance geographic and sectoral (or stakeholder) participation.

Finally, participation is a complex game and there are always trade offs between involvement, time, budget, speed of delivery, and so on. The aim is to maximise involvement and empowerment within reasonable constraints. At regional or district scale this is especially difficult but the experience of iNdlovu region has shown the

possibilities.

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INDLOVU STAKEHOLDERS

NAME:.....

ORGANISATION:.....

POSITION:.....

1.What is your understanding of Integrated Development Planning (IDP)?

2. Did you have an understanding of planning before you were involved in IDP participation process?**Y / N**

3. Do you better understand planning now compared to the beginning of the process? **Y / N**

4. Do you think sufficient time was given to stakeholder participation process? **Y/N** Please elaborate

5. Does the process of participation impact on delivery? **Y / N** Please elaborate.

6. In your own view, are we as stakeholders adequately organised for participation process? **Y / N** Please explain.

7. Were you comfortable with the language used and issues discussed during the participation process?

1. Lost; 2.Sometimes; 3. Mostly; 4.Always

8. In your view, how representative was the process i.e. (a) institutional/organisational sectors; (b)gender; (c)age group; (d)race; and (e)class? Scale: Poor; Fair; Good

A: B: C: D: E

9. What forms of participation were used e.g. public meetings, workshops, etc.?

10. What is your assessment of the different forms used?

11. Can you suggest any more relevant alternatives?

12. How convenient was the IDP participation process - in terms of venue, documentation/recording, decision-making, etc?

13. Do you think equity prevailed in terms given fair and equal chance to contribute, being listened to, etc? **Y/ N**

14. If no to 13 above, what were the power relations?

15. What were the main concerns and issues you (as participants) tried to put across to planners?

16. Did you have a feeling that your contribution was regarded as valuable? **Y / N**

17. Do you think the decision-making procedure was an all-inclusive one? **Y/ N**

18. In your own assessment, to what extent are the contributions made during the participation process, reflected in the Integrated Development Plan and other recent planning documents of the Indlovu Region?

19. Are you positive that tangible results will come out of the IDP participation process? **Y / N** Please Elaborate.

20. How has this process contributed to planning and development of the region? i.e co-ordination, common destiny, sense of ownership by the target group, etc.

21. Are you satisfied that the Indlovu Region IDP is aimed at addressing the real development problem priorities as identified in the process? **Y / N**

22. What is your feeling about the involvement and role of council officials, consultants, and facilitators?

23. Who do you think should spearhead the process i.e. council**(1)** or consultants**(2)**?Please substantiate your answer.

24. Drawing from your experience, which institutional framework can effectively drive the process (consultants; planning committees - including CBOs, councillors, officials, business; etc.)?

25. Do you think the plan is realistic and achievable? Y / N - Please elaborate

26.What would you say regarding the link between your department=s programme and those identified in the regional plan?

27. What do you think should be done to forge relationship between the regional plan and those of service providers?

28. Are you prepared to be involved in such an exercise in the future? **Y / N**

29. Please identify important strengths and weaknesses of the IDP participation process?

30. In your view, how can the process of community/stakeholder participation in IDP be improved to be more relevant and useful?

OTHER KWAZULU-NATAL REGIONS

NAME:.....

ORGANISATION:.....

POSITION:.....

1.In your view, how representative was the process (a) institutional/organisational sectors; (b)gender; (c)age group; (d)race; (e) class? Scale: Poor; Fair; Good

A: B: C: D: E

2.Do you think sufficient time was given to community/stakeholder participation process? **Y / N** Please elaborate

3. Do we need varying emphasis on participation process at different stages of Integrated Development Planning? Y / N

4. If yes to question 3 above, please specify

5. From your observation, were all the participants well capacitated to meaningfully participate ?

1. Poor,2. Fair, 3. Good, 4. Excellent

6. Did politics by any means got in the way? **Y/ N**

7. If yes, to question 7 above, please elaborate

8. What is it that government planners do in IDP at present?

9.Government town and regional planners are expected to run the process on their own, what should be done to enable them to take this position?

10.What was the role of the consultants during the formulation of the regional IDP?

11.What should be the role of consultants in IDP process?

12.In your opinion, what are more relevant institutional structures that can effectively drive the process (from planning to implementation and monitoring)e.g. Project Steering Committees, Development Forums, etc.?

13.Do you find communities/stakeholders well organised to participate in the process? **Y / N**

14. Did you experience any significant delays in the IDP schedule caused by the participation process? **Y / N**

15. What are significant differences of community/stakeholder participation in Integrated Development Planning at regional, sub-regional and local level?

16. What forms of participation were used during community/stakeholder participation e.g. public meetings, boardroom/leadership meetings, workshops, etc.?

17. What is your assessment of the different forms used in the process?

18. Please provide more relevant alternatives, if necessary, and substantiate for each?

19. Please name different methods of participation used in the participation process?

20. What is your assessment of the different methods used the participation process?

21. Please provide more relevant alternatives if necessary, and substantiate for each?

22.Please briefly describe how community/stakeholder participation process at various stages of regional IDP, occurred?

23.In your view, how community/stakeholder participation at different levels of local government and various stages of IDP should happen?

24.What is your assessment of the perception of different role players about community/stakeholder participation in IDP?

25. Who do you think should actually be involved in the local IDP participation process with regard to communities?

A. Ordinary members

B. Local leadership

C. Top leadership i.e regional or equivalent

D. a and b

E. a and c

F. b and c

G. Other (specify)

26.What kind of organisations should be participate in IDP?

27. Do you think participation process in IDP add any improvement in planning in terms of issues identified being more relevant, better plans being produced, and better implementation -please elaborate your answer? **Y / N**

28. What is the impact of the scale i.e. local, sub-regional and regional scale on the IDP community/stakeholder participation process?

29.To what extent are the contributions made during the participation process, reflected in the IDP other planning initiatives of the region?

30. To what extent does IDP helps in transforming local government from its traditional role of service provision, into developmental local government?

31.What were general problems encountered in the community/stakeholder participation in IDP process?

32.What can be regarded as strengths and weaknesses of the community/stakeholder participation process in IDP?

33. In your view, how can the process of community/stakeholder participation in IDP be improved to become more relevant and useful? (special focus on regional scale)

COMMUNITY LEADERS

NAME:.....

ORGANISATION:.....

AREA/DISTRICT.....

POSITION:.....

1.What is your understanding of Integrated Development Planning (IDP)?

2. Did you have an understanding of planning before you were involved in IDP participation process?**Y / N**

3. Do you better understand planning now compared to the beginning of the process? **Y / N**

4. Do you think sufficient time was given to community participation process? **Y/N** Please elaborate

5. Does the process of participation impact on delivery? **Y / N** Please elaborate.

6. In your own view, are community structures adequately organised for participation process? **Y / N** Please explain.

7. Were you comfortable with the language used and issues discussed during the participation process?

1. Lost; 2.Sometimes; 3. Mostly; 4.Always

8. In your view, how representative was the process i.e. (a) institutional/organisational sectors; (b)gender; (c)age group; (d)race; and (e)class? Scale: Poor; Fair; Good

A: B: C: D: E

9. What forms of participation were used e.g. public meetings, boardroom/leadership meetings, workshops, etc.?

10. What is your assessment of the different forms used?

11. Can you suggest any more relevant alternatives?

12. How convenient was the IDP participation process - in terms of venue,documentation/recording, decision-making, etc?

13. Who do you think should actually be involved in the Regional IDP participation process?

A. Ordinary members; B. Local leadership, C. Top leadership i.e. Regional or equivalent, D. a and b, E. a and c, F. b and c

14. Do you think equity prevailed in terms given fair and equal chance to contribute, being listened to, etc?

Y/ N

15. If no to 14 above, what were the power relations?

16. What were the main concerns and issues you (as participants) tried to put across to planners?

17. Did you have a feeling that your contribution was regarded as valuable? **Y / N**

18. Do you think the decision-making procedure was an all-inclusive one?

Y/ N

19. In your own assessment, to what extent are the contributions made during the participation process,

reflected in the Integrated Development Plan and other recent planning documents of the Indlovu Region?

20. Are you positive that tangible results will come out of the IDP participation process? **Y / N** Please Elaborate.

21. How has this process contributed to planning and development of the region? i.e coordination, common destiny, sense of ownership by the target group, etc.

22. Are you satisfied that the Indlovu Region IDP is aimed at addressing the real development problem priorities as identified in the process? **Y / N**

23. What is your feeling about the involvement and role of council officials,consultants,and facilitators?

24. Who do you think should spearhead the process i.e. council**(1)** or consultants**(2)**?Please substantiate your answer.

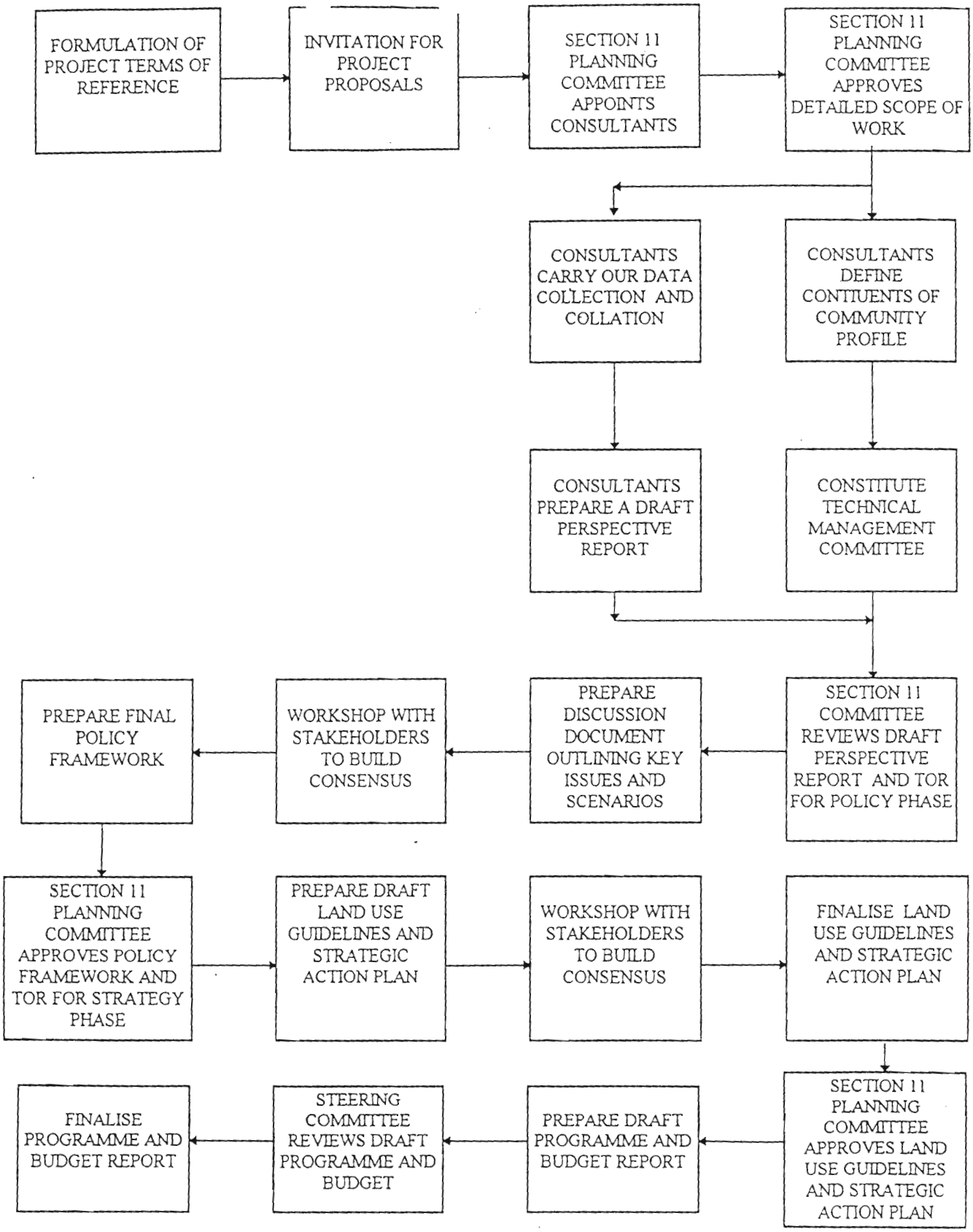
25. Drawing from your experience, which institutional framework can effectively drive the process (consultants; planning committees - including CBOs, councillors, officials,business; etc.)?

26. Are you prepared to be involved in such an exercise in the future? **Y / N**

27. Please identify important strengths and weaknesses of the IDP participation process?

28. In your view, how can the process of community/stakeholder participation in IDP be improved to be more relevant and useful?

Figure 2: PLANNING PROCESS

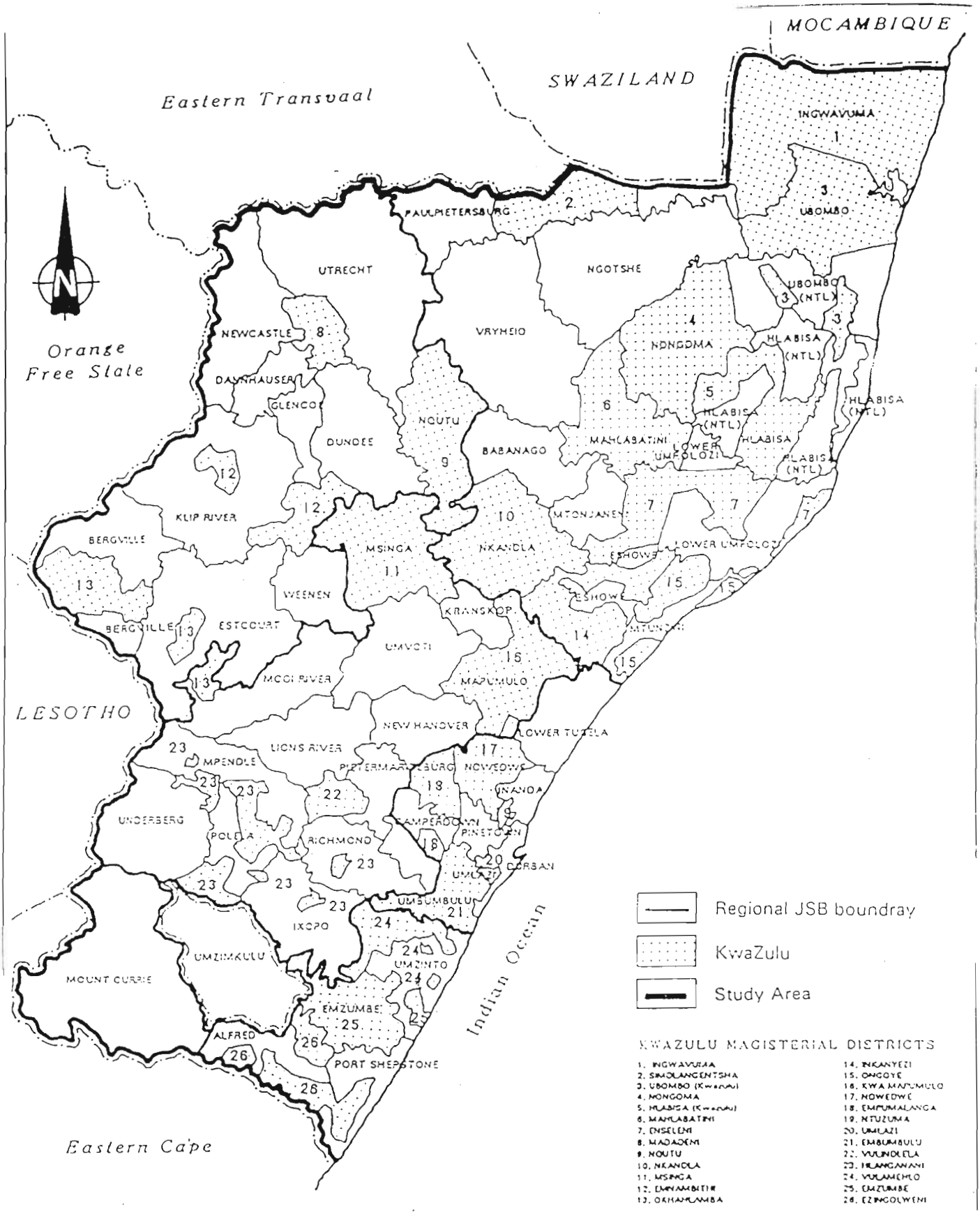


SUMMARY DATA		SUB-REGION 1	SUB-REGION 2	SUB-REGION 3	SUB-REGION 4	SUB-REGION 5	TOTAL
HOUSING DATA 1995	Total Households	40598	116352	22009	24549	8486	211994
	Formal Households	17227	85142	6483	2416	4859	116127
	% Formal Households	*42%*	*73%*	*29%*	*10%*	*57%*	*55%*
	Informal Households	2653	5610	1751	460	650	11124
	% Informal Households	*7%*	*5%*	*8%*	*2%*	*8%*	*5%*
	Traditional Households	20710	25614	13764	21675	2979	84742
	% Traditional Households	*51%*	*22%*	*63%*	*88%*	*35%*	*40%*
GGP TRENDS 1980 - 1991	*Average Annual Growth Rate : Primary Sector*	*9%*	*7%*	*14%*	*8%*	*3%*	*10%*
	Average Annual Growth Rate : Secondary Sector	*-3%*	*-1%*	*-3%*	*8%*	*4%*	*-2%*
	Average Annual Growth Rate : Tertiary Sector	*4%*	*3%*	*3%*	*6%*	*3%*	*3%*
	Average Annual Growth Rate : All Sectors	*4%*	*2%*	*4%*	*7%*	*3%*	*3%*
EMPLOYMENT TRENDS 1980 - 1991	Absolute Increase in Primary Sector Employment	-5207	-636	2767	345	-440	-3171
	Absolute Increase in Secondary Sector Employment	2132	27649	-1223	872	-48	29382
	Absolute Increase in Tertiary Sector Employment	2593	38468	-524	3168	-2446	41259
	Absolute Increase in Total Employment	-481	65482	1021	4382	-2934	67470
INFRASTRUCTURAL & HOUSING BACKLOGS 1996	Absolute Backlogs : Housing	39374	61603	20318	32379	4274	157948
	Absolute Backlogs : Water	10752	14497	6859	9585	1753	43446
	Absolute Backlogs : Sanitation	13486	16369	8656	12578	2033	53122
	Absolute Backlogs : Road Access	13353	16306	7982	12046	2085	51752
	Absolute Backlogs : Waste Disposal	23429	36208	12062	17785	3488	92972
	Absolute Backlogs : Electricity	19381	25525	11860	16776	3076	76618
	Absolute Backlogs : Telecommunications	21874	29321	14055	19921	3515	88686
COSTS OF ADDRESSING BACKLOGS 1996	Total Annual Costs : Housing	R 114,073,566	R 138,045,358	R 54,102,479	R 108,948,675	R 10,661,210	R 425,851,288
	Total Annual Costs : Water	R 21,044,957	R 20,451,709	R 12,651,648	R 21,745,424	R 3,076,212	R 78,969,950
	Total Annual Costs : Sanitation	R 23,887,166	R 21,410,882	R 13,708,846	R 25,405,924	R 3,326,883	R 87,739,701
	Total Annual Costs : Road Access	R 24,475,261	R 21,991,019	R 13,558,982	R 25,412,115	R 3,412,033	R 88,849,410
	Total Annual Costs : Waste Disposal	R 6,447,604	R 6,890,645	R 2,961,191	R 5,701,747	R 812,389	R 22,813,576
	Total Annual Costs : Electricity	R 28,572,798	R 24,481,406	R 14,352,958	R 28,305,250	R 4,101,491	R 99,813,903
	Total Annual Costs : Telecommunications	R 41,577,008	R 43,125,595	R 25,309,726	R 43,771,455	R 6,080,738	R 159,864,522
	Total Annual Costs : Infrastructure	R 146,004,793	R 138,351,255	R 82,543,350	R 150,341,915	R 20,809,746	R 538,051,059
	Total Annual Costs : Housing & Infrastructure	R 260,079,495	R 276,400,558	R 136,640,808	R 259,283,715	R 31,486,652	R 963,891,228

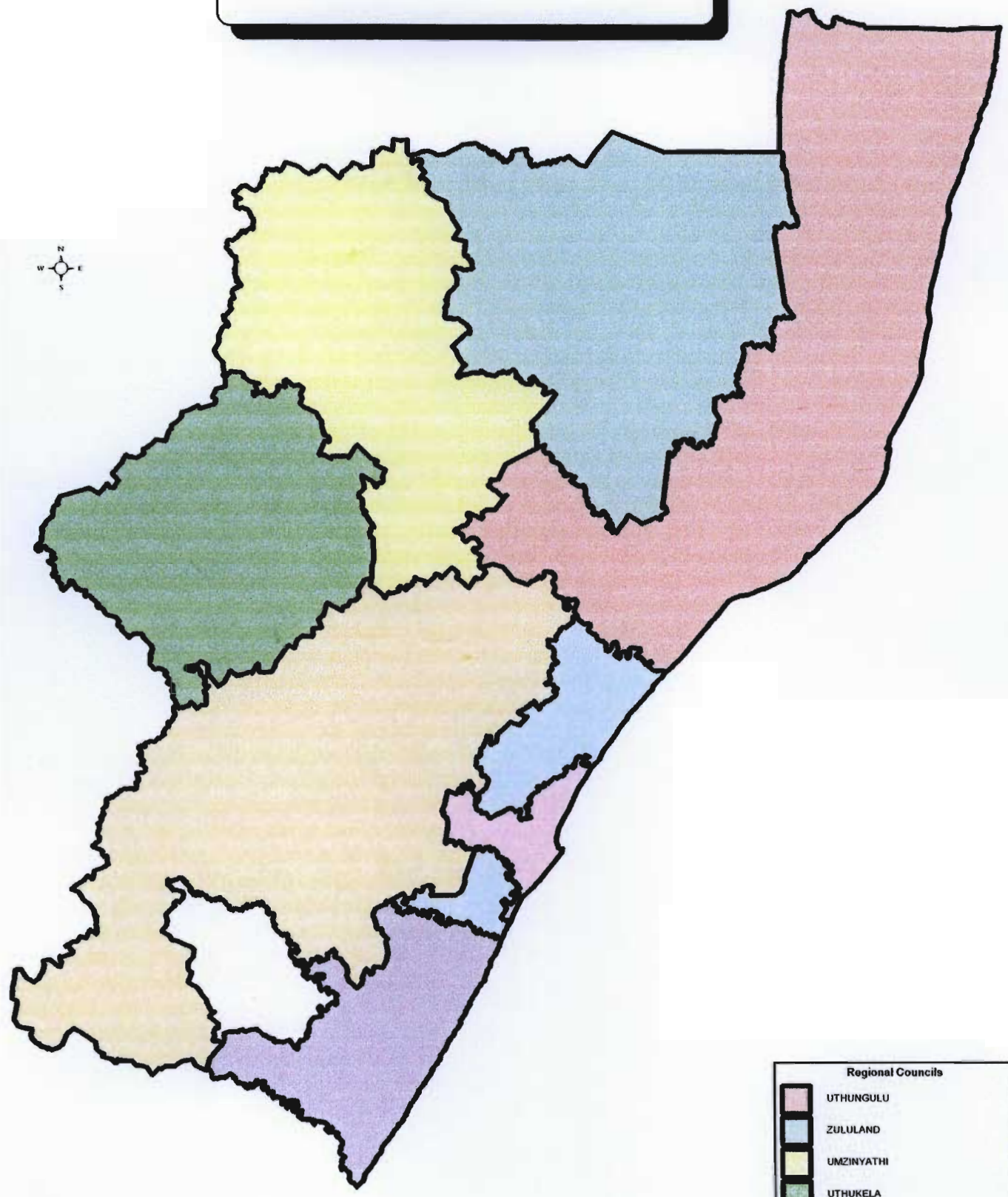
INdlovu Regional Council : Data Summary (1)

	SUMMARY DATA	SUB-REGION 1	SUB-REGION 2	SUB-REGION 3	SUB-REGION 4	SUB-REGION 5	TOTAL
DEMOGRAPHIC DATA	Total Population 1995	278799	676779	132846	172242	43576	1304242
	Total Population 2015	375499	1031487	171528	238123	54900	1871537
	Absolute Population Increase 1995-2015	96700	354708	38682	65881	11324	567295
	% Adult Literacy	*62%*	*79%*	*62%*	*53%*	*60%*	*71%*
URBANISATION & SETTLEMENT DYNAMICS	Urban Population 1995	28205	382494	6560	2696	19353	439308
	Urban Population 2015	42760	643116	10757	4787	30833	732253
	Rural Population 1995	250594	294285	126286	169546	24223	864934
	Rural Population 2015	332740	388371	160770	233336	24067	1139284
	% TLC Urban Population	*7%*	*57%*	*39%*	*1%*	*44%*	*37%*
	% Non-TLC UrbanPopulation	*13%*	*2%*	*13%*	*26%*	*10%*	*9%*
	% Non-urban Population	*79%*	*41%*	*48%*	*73%*	*46%*	*54%*
MONTHLY HOUSEHOLD INCOME 1995	Households Earning R0 - R840	20132	34692	9546	12368	2408	79146
	% Households Earning R0 - R840	*50%*	*30%*	*43%*	*50%*	*28%*	*37%*
	Households Earning R840 - R1 400	6783	18399	3574	4775	1679	35210
	% Households Earning R840 - R1 400	*17%*	*16%*	*16%*	*19%*	*20%*	*17%*
	Households Earning R1 400 - R3 650	9008	28797	5292	5441	2315	50853
	% Households Earning R1 400 - R3 650	*22%*	*25%*	*24%*	*22%*	*27%*	*24%*
	Households Earning > R3 650	4673	34472	3595	1964	2088	46792
	% Households Earning > R3 650 +	*12%*	*30%*	*16%*	*8%*	*25%*	*22%*
LAND USE PROFILE	*% Total Area Classified as "Formal Urban"*	*2%*	*8%*	*1%*	*0%*	*4%*	*3%*
	% Total Area Classified as "Closer Settlements"	*3%*	*4%*	*3%*	*7%*	*10%*	*6%*
	% Total Area Classified as "Sugar Cane Cultivation"	*14%*	*7%*	*16%*	*0%*	*0%*	*7%*
	% Total Area Classified as "Afforested"	*25%*	*8%*	*43%*	*6%*	*0%*	*15%*
	% Total Area Classified as "Mixed Cultivation"	*20%*	*39%*	*15%*	*34%*	*81%*	*38%*
	% Total Area Classified as "Subsistence Agriculture"	*25%*	*8%*	*4%*	*27%*	*0%*	*17%*
	% Total Area Classified as "Other"	*11%*	*26%*	*19%*	*26%*	*.5%*	*13%*

Scott Wilson


MOCAMBIQUE
SWAZILAND
Eastern Transvaal
Orange Free State
LESOTHO
Eastern Cape
Indian Ocean
INGWAVUMA
UBOMBO
PAULPIETERSBURG
UTRECHT
NEWCASTLE
DANNHAUSER
GLENCOE
DUNDEE
VRYHEID
NGOTSHE
NONGOMA
UBOMBO (NTL)
HLABISA (NTL)
NQUTU
BABANANGO
MAHLABATINI
LOWER UMFOLOZI
KLIP RIVER
BERGVILLE
WEENEN
ESTCOURT
MSINGA
NKANDLA
MTONJANENI
ESHOWE
KRANSKOP
UMVOTI
MOOI RIVER
MAPUMULO
NEW HANOVER
LOWER TUGELA
LIONS RIVER
MPENDLE
PIETERMARITZBURG
NOWEDWE
INANDA
UNDERBERG
POLELA
RICHMOND
CAMPERDOWN
PINETOWN
DURBAN
UMLAZI
UMBUMBULU
IXOPO
UMZIMKULU
UMZINTO
MOUNT CURRIE
EMZUMBE
ALFRED
PORT SHEPSTONE
Regional JSB boundray
KwaZulu
Study Area
KWAZULU MAGISTERIAL DISTRICTS
1. INGWAVUMA
2. SIMDLANGENTSHA
3. UBOMBO (KwaZulu)
4. NONGOMA
5. HLABISA (KwaZulu)
6. MAHLABATINI
7. ENSELENI
8. MADADENI
9. NQUTU
10. NKANDLA
11. MSINGA
12. EMNAMBITHI
13. OKHAHLAMBA
14. INKANYEZI
15. ONGOYE
16. KWA MAPUMULO
17. NOWEDWE
18. EMPUMALANGA
19. NTUZUMA
20. UMLAZI
21. EMBUMBULU
22. VULINDLELA
23. INLANGANANI
24. VULAMEHLO
25. EMZUMBE
26. EZINGOLWENI

Regional Councils
Kwa-Zulu Natal



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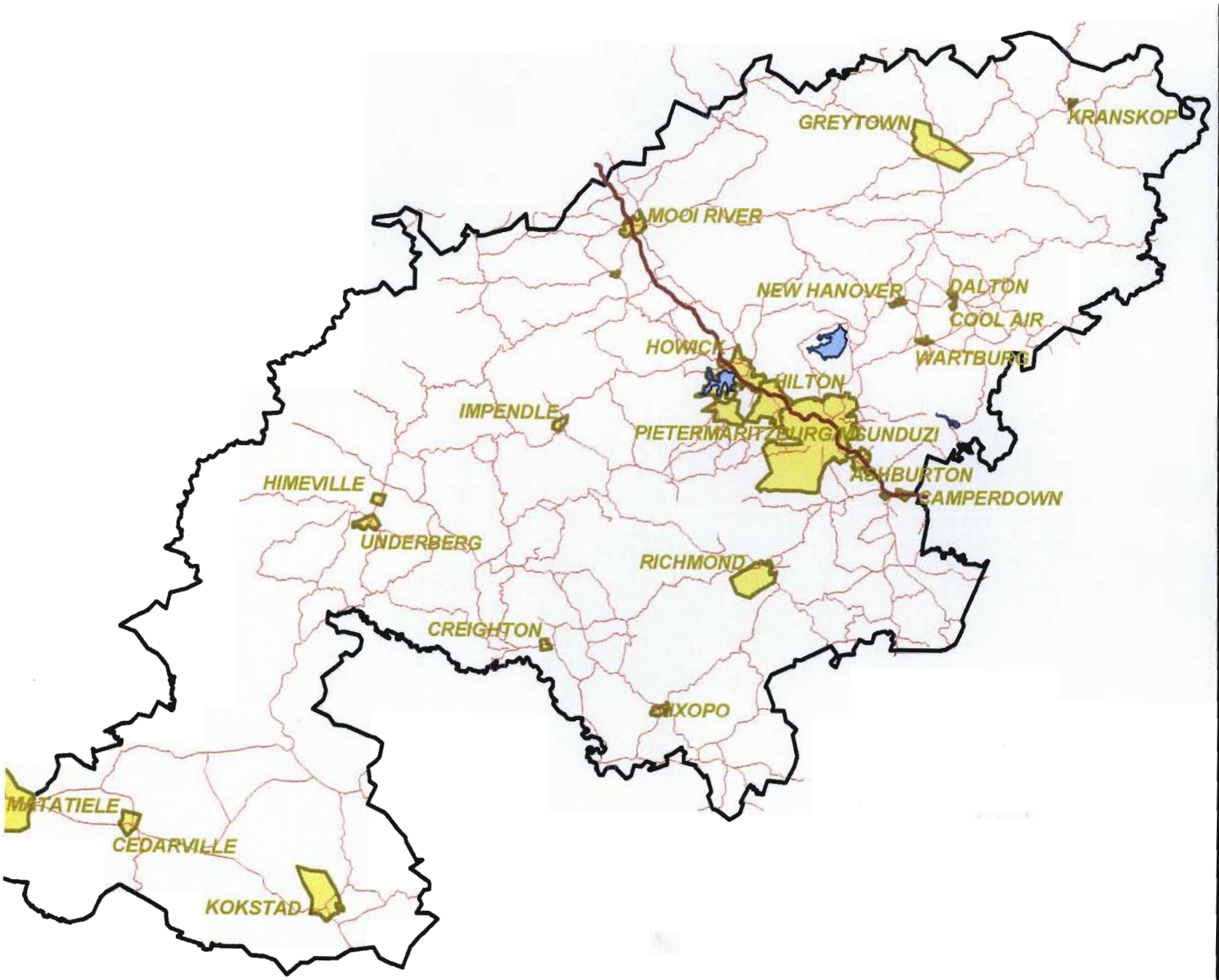
GIS Centre



COUNCIL

Showing TLC's, Dams and Major Roads

LEGEND

- Indlovu Boundary
- N3 National Road
- Provincial Roads
- TLC's
- Dams

N

20 0 20 40

Kilometres

Date: ***08/12/99***
Reference: INDL/01.1

Land, Planning and Survey
Inland Region
KwaZulu-Natal
Tel: (033) 355-6442
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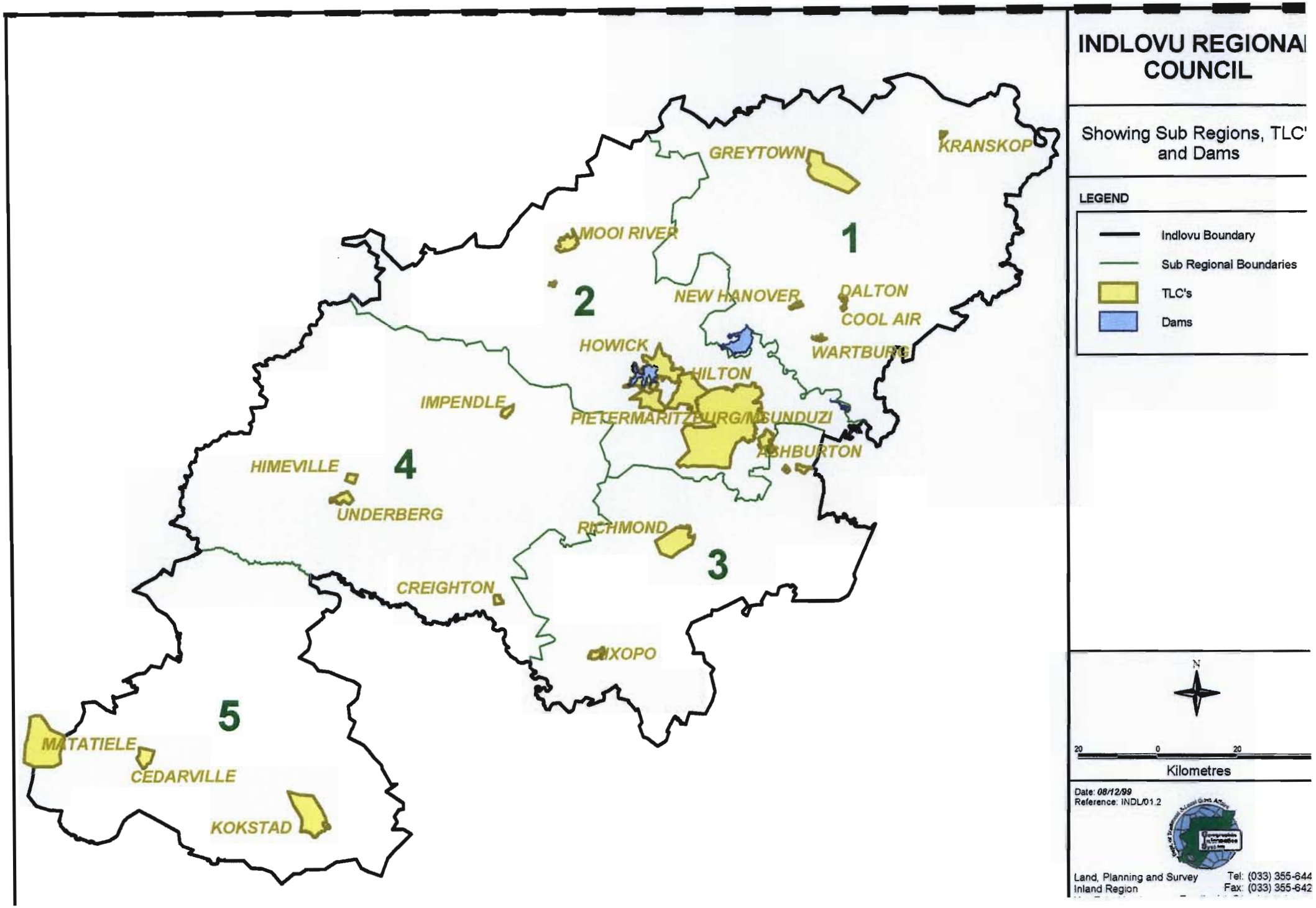
Email: gisir@kznlghd1.lghsibp

Disclaimer:


INDLOVU REGIONAL COUNCIL
Showing Sub Regions, TLC's and Dams
LEGEND
Indlovu Boundary
Sub Regional Boundaries
TLC's
Dams
GREYTOWN
KRANSKOP
MOOI RIVER
1
2
NEW HANOVER
DALTON
COOL AIR
HOWICK
WARTBURG
HILTON
IMPENDLE
PIETERMARITZBURG/MSUNDUZI
ASHBURTON
HIMEVILLE
4
UNDERBERG
RICHMOND
3
CREIGHTON
IXOPO
5
MATATIELE
CEDARVILLE
KOKSTAD
N
20
0
20
Kilometres
Date: 08/12/99
Reference: INDL/01.2
Land, Planning and Survey
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