



University of Kwa-Zulu Natal (UKZN)

School of Built

Environment & Development Studies

Investigating the impacts of spatial and land use planning on eco-tourism development in local communities: The case for the Shongweni Dam Precinct, eThekweni Municipality in Kwa-Zulu Natal Province, South Africa

This Dissertation is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of admittance to the degree of Masters in Town and Regional Planning in the School of Built Environment and Development Studies.

Malusi Ntsikelelo Khumalo

Student Number: 216072598

Contents

Declaration	
Acknowledgments	
List of Tables	
List of Figures	
List of Graphs	
List of Pictures	
List of Maps	
Acronyms	
Abstract	
1. CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Introduction of Chapter	1
1.2. Background of the Study.....	1
1.3. Problem Statement	2
1.4. The rationale of the study	4
1.5. Aim of the Study	5
1.6. Objectives and Research Questions	5
1.7. Hypothesis	5
1.8. Chapter Outline.....	6
2. CHAPTER TWO: RESEARCH METHODS	8
2.1. Introduction.....	8
2.2. Data Collection	8
2.2.1. Primary Sources	8
2.2.2. Secondary Sources.....	10
2.3. Ethical Considerations	10
2.4. Sampling Methods.....	11
2.5. Data Analysis.....	11
2.6. Research Challenges and Mitigation Measures	12
2.6.1. Lack of responses from the circulation of questionnaires via email	12
2.6.2. Coronavirus CoVID-19 Regulations and Restrictions	12
2.6.3. On-site conflict and violence surrounding the Shongweni Dam Facility	12
2.7. Chapter Summary.....	13
3. CHAPTER THREE: THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK	14
3.1. Introduction.....	14
3.2. Theoretical Framework	15
3.2.1. Strategic Planning.....	15
3.2.2. Communicative Planning	20

3.3.	Conceptual Framework.....	24
3.3.1.	Development and Tourism.....	24
3.3.2.	Sustainability.....	26
3.3.3.	Sustainable Development Tourism and Eco-tourism.....	29
3.3.4.	Spatial planning	33
3.3.5.	Land use planning	36
3.4.	Chapter Summary.....	38
4.	CHAPTER FOUR: LITERATURE REVIEW	39
4.1.	Introduction.....	39
4.2.	Literature Review.....	40
4.3.	Policy and Legislative Framework.....	42
4.3.1.	International Policies.....	42
4.3.2.	South African and Provincial Policy Framework	49
4.3.4.	South African and Provincial Legislative and Framework	57
4.3.3.	Metropolitan Policy Framework.....	62
4.4.	Precedent Case Studies	74
4.4.1.	iSimangaliso Wetland Park (ISWP) of KZN	74
4.4.2.	The Maasai Mara National Reserve, Kenya East Africa.....	87
4.4.3.	Fayoum Oasis, Egypt.....	98
4.5.	Chapter Summary.....	104
5.	CHAPTER FIVE: SHONGWENI DAM PRECINCT C OF THE ETHEKWINI MUNICIPALITY	106
5.1.	Introduction.....	106
5.2.	Background and geographic location of the Shongweni Dam Precinct C (Study Area)	106
5.3.	Planning Informants and interventions applicable to the Study Area	109
5.3.1.	Process outline of establishing the Shongweni FAP and Land Use Scheme for the Study Area	109
5.3.2.	Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats (SWOT) Analysis	110
5.3.3.	Proposed Development Principles and Goals Applicable to Study Area.....	111
5.3.4.	Proposed land use definition for “eco-tourism development” for incorporation into OWS and introduction into the study area	112
5.3.5.	Proposed land use framework, land use zones, and areas of densification identified in the study area	113
5.4.	Chapter Summary.....	120
6.	CHAPTER SIX: SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS APPLICABLE TO THE STUDY AREA. 121	
6.1.	Introduction.....	121
6.2.	Infrastructural Analysis.....	121
6.3.1.	Sanitation	121

6.3.2. Water Supply	122
6.2.3. Electricity	123
6.2.4. Storm Water.....	124
6.2.5. Transport and Movement.....	124
6.3. Physical Environment and Spatial Analysis.....	127
6.3.1. Slope and Elevation Profile	127
6.3.2. Environmental Analysis	128
6.3.3. Land Ownership Analysis	130
6.3.4. Public and Social Facilities Analysis.....	133
6.3.5. Land Use Analysis	135
6.3.6. Misaligned Land Uses to the Municipality’s Eco-tourism Intentions for Study Area	138
6.4. Chapter Summary.....	140
7. CHAPTER SEVEN: RESEARCH FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	141
7.1. Research Findings and Observations	141
7.1.1. Observation 1: Non-Implementation of the adopted FAP	141
7.1.2. Observation 2: Need for Stronger Participation	143
7.1.3. Observation 3: Limited access due to entry fees into Shongweni Dam	143
7.1.4. Observation 4: Opportunities for local communities regarding the Songweni Dam Facility	144
7.1.5. Observation 5: “Not in My Back Yard” (Nimby) from Private Property Owners	146
7.2. Recommendations.....	146
7.2.1. Establishment of an evaluation framework for the FAP & Scheme.....	147
7.2.2. Establish appropriate representation from relevant stakeholders	148
7.2.3. Advocate stronger participation and enhance stakeholder engagements.....	150
7.2.4. Review currently adopted Scheme and FAP.....	151
8. CHAPTER EIGHT: CONCLUSION.....	154
9. REFERENCES	156
Annexure 1: Interview Questions for Study Participants	a
Annexure 2: Email from KZN COGTA	e
Annexure 3: Attendance Register.....	f
Annexure 4: Emailed Correspondence from EMM	g

Declaration

I, Malusi Ntsikelelo Khumalo, declare that:

1. The research reported in this thesis, except where otherwise indicated is my original research.
2. This thesis has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other university.
3. This body of work does not contain other persons' data, pictures, graphs, or other information unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other persons.
4. This thesis does not contain other persons' writing unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other researchers. Where other written sources have been quoted, then:
 - a) Their words have been re-written, but the general information attributed to them has been referenced.
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Student: Malusi Ntsikelelo Khumalo

Supervisor: Dr. Koyi Mchunu

Signature: 

Signature:

Date: 16 May 2022

Date:

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List of Tables

Table 1: Objectives and Research Questions	5
Table 2: KZN PGDS strategic goals and objectives	56
Table 3: EMM Principles, guidelines, and structuring elements	64
Table 4: Key Development Informants aligned to Proposed Development Structure of the Study Area	71
Table 5: Proposed Protected Area Zone in Terms of Mtubatuba Single Land Use Scheme	84
Table 6: SWOT Analysis	111
Table 7: Proposed Development Principle for Study Area	111
Table 8: Proposed Land Use Framework and Zones Applicable to Study Area	114
Table 9: Proposed Nature and Culture-Based Tourism Development Controls.....	117
Table 10: Access to Social Facilities within Study Area	133
Table 11: The criteria for evaluation of a framework for the FAP and Scheme.....	147

List of Figures

Figure 1: Strategic Planning Process	18
Figure 2: Defining Development.....	25
Figure 3: Three Pillars of Sustainability	27
Figure 4: Contextualising Eco-tourism and Mass Tourism.....	31
Figure 5: Sustainable development through eco-tourism.....	33
Figure 6: Sustainable Development Goals	48
Figure 7: Critical Role and Strategic Focus Areas-Mapped Urban Regions, Clusters, and Development Corridors	53
Figure 8: Critical Role and Strategic Focus Area-national ecological infrastructure system as enabling infrastructure for shared and sustainable resource foundation.....	54
Figure 9: Hierarchical Development Framework in EMM.....	63
Figure 10: eThekweni Metropolitan Municipal SDF	65
Figure 11: Local Planning Areas in the EMM OWR.....	66
Figure 12: Conceptual structure, broad land uses, and spatial interventions	68
Figure 13: Proposed development structure.....	73
Figure 14: Locality of ISWP.....	76
Figure 15: Principles and land use objectives applicable to iSimangaliso Wetland Park as per uMkhanyakude DM CCDP	81
Figure 16: Graphic Illustration of gaps between expectations and experience	86
Figure 17: Locality of MMNR within Kenya and Established Conservancies in proximity....	89
Figure 18: MMNR Zone Types and Boundaries	93
Figure 19: Broad challenges facing the MMNR & neighbouring community conservancy areas.....	95
Figure 20: Location of Fayoum Oasis in Egypt.....	99
Figure 21: GOPP development zones in Fayoum Governorate.....	102
Figure 22: Land jurisdiction of lake Qaroun and Wadi El Rayan	103
Figure 23: Process of Developing Draft FAP and Land Use Scheme	110
Figure 24: Proposed development goals for the study area.....	112
Figure 25: Identified Densification Opportunity Area.....	119
Figure 26: Sanitation infrastructure in the study area	122
Figure 27: EMM's electricity area of supply and Eskom area of supply in the study area .	123
Figure 28: Elevation and slope profile	127
Figure 29: Primary recommendation process	146

Figure 30: Proposed LCPIM Model to enhance participation for review of the scheme & FAP	151
Figure 31: Process to be undertaken for the review of the scheme & FAP	152

List of Graphs

Graph 1: Land Ownership Breakdown in Study Area.....	130
Graph 2: Breakdown of land use composition in the study area	135

List of Pictures

Picture 1: Main activities/attractions in ISWP	77
Picture 2: Serengeti/Maasai-Mara animal Migrations	88
Picture 3: Qaroun Lake	100
Picture 4: Wadi-El Rayan.....	100
Picture 5: Whale skeletons of Wadi El Hitan	101
Picture 6: Broad Activities in Study Area	108
Picture 7: Access to Shongweni Dam Facility	144
Picture 8: Land use at the entrance of the Shongweni Dam.....	145

List of Maps

Map 1: Proposed Zones for Mtubatuba Draft Single Land Use Scheme	83
Map 2: Location of Study Area.....	107
Map 3: Land Use Framework as per the Shongweni LAP (2010).....	116
Map 4: Proposed Land Use Zoning Plan	118
Map 5: Transport and Movement.....	126
Map 6: Environmental Plan.....	129
Map 7: Land Ownership/Audit.....	132
Map 8: Social Facilities Plan	134
Map 9: Land Use Plan	137
Map 10: Misaligned Land Uses within Study Area	139

Acronyms

The following list of terms and acronyms are used within this document: -

Term	Acronym
Cluster Corridor Development Master Plan	CCDM
Durban Metropolitan Open Space System	DMOSS
Department of Agriculture Forestry and Fisheries	DAFF
Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism	DEAT
Development Bank of South Africa	DBSA
District Municipality	DM
Ethekwini Metropolitan Municipality	EMM
Environmental Management Framework	EMF
Functional Area Plan	FAP
General Organization for Physical Planning	GOPP
Green House Gasses	GHGs
Gross Domestic Product	GDP
Gross Value Added	GVA
Industrial Development Cooperation	IDC
Ingonyama Trust Board	ITB
Integrated Development Plan	IDP
iSimangaliso Wetland Park	ISWP
iSimngaliso Wetland Park Integrated Management Plan	ISWPIMP
Kwa-Zulu Natal	KZN
Local Area Plan	LAP
Local Community Participation Improvement Model	LCPIM
Local Municipality	LM

Masai Mara National Reserve	MMNR
Masai Mara Development Initiative	MMDI
Millennium Development Goals	MDG
National Spatial Development Framework	NSDF
National Development Plan	NDP
National Environmental Management Act 107 of 1998	NEMA
Non-Governmental Organisations	NGOs
Outer West Region	OWR
Outer West Scheme	OWS
Outer West Spatial Development Plan	OWSP
Permission to Occupy	PTO
Provincial Growth Development Plan	PGDP
Provincial Growth Development Strategy	PGDS
Spatial Development Framework	SDF
Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act No. 16 of 2013	SPLUMA
Strengths Weaknesses Opportunities, and Threats	SWOT
Millennium Development Goals	MDG
Traditional Area	TA
Traditional Council	TC
The International Eco-Tourism Society	TIES
United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change	UNFCCC
United Nations Conference on Environmental and Development	UNCED
United Nations World Tourism Organisation	UNWTO
World Commission on Environment and Development	WCED
World Summit on Sustainable Development	WSSD

World Travel and Tourism Council	WTTC
Zwelibomvu Community Trust	ZCT

Abstract

This master's dissertation attempts to investigate the impacts of spatial and land use planning on eco-tourism development in local communities, using the case study of the Shongweni Dam Precinct. The dissertation presupposes that the use of spatial and land use planning within the context of ecotourism is unsustainable. To test this hypothesis, a range of research methods were used which included primary sources as well as secondary sources. The theoretical framework unpacked strategic and communicative planning, whilst the conceptual framework expanded on the ideas of sustainability, development and tourism, spatial planning, and land use planning. The outcomes revealed that the overarching concept of sustainability emanated as an outcome of the global concerns that dealt with the unsustainable consumption patterns (for example mass tourism) which had negative impacts on the natural environment. The Dissertation progressed to include a literature review that suggested that eco-tourism is a complex and somewhat contentious concept, with a range of obstacles and challenges specific to participatory issues, unsustainable practices (environmental degradation), and diverging views from developers to policy makers. The next chapter investigated the case of Shongweni, with the research findings suggesting that many participants had no prior knowledge of the eThekweni Municipality's (EMM's) spatial intentions toward eco-tourism development for their area. This again reinforced unsustainable practices and the lack of communicative planning. The conclusion suggested that whilst the EMM's attempted to follow the regulatory framework, in terms of the provisions of Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act (SPLUMA) No 16 of 2013, it fell short in understanding, advising, and allowing for participation and engagement with the community. Decisions made by policymakers are sometimes unreflective of the reality of the situation, and it, therefore, suggests that attention needs to be made to ensuring that local communities form part of the planning process. Planning should be regarded as a proactive tool, rather than a reactive tool.

1. CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction of Chapter

The purpose of this chapter is to introduce the context and background of the dissertation. The chapter acts as a guiding framework in which the study is undertaken. This chapter introduces the study along with its problem statement, rationale, aim, objectives and research questions, along with the hypothesis which ultimately guides the trajectory of the dissertation. Furthermore, this chapter further also seeks to give a salient account and outline of each chapter within the dissertation.

1.2. Background of the Study

Over the last three decades, there have been global concerns regarding the degradation of the environment through consumption patterns linked with the phenomena of globalisation (Kiper, 2013). Giddings et al. (2002, pg. 188) suggests that this gave birth to the concept of “*sustainability*”, which intends to bring synergy between social and economic development whilst protecting and preserving the natural environment. According to Angelkova et al. (2012) Sustainability found prominence within the tourism sector through the Manila Declaration of the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) of 1980, which ultimately set up the framework for sustainable development tourism and eco-tourism.

Dede et al. (2012) suggest that tourism activities and their impacts on the environment have spatial implications. Pearce (1989, pg. 16-24) as cited by Harrison (2001) reiterates that such tourist destinations are either aligned to the function of planning in creating the favourable conditions for these destinations to thrive or they are a consequence of spontaneous growth which is inherently linked with a planning response thereafter. Therefore, as demonstrated by Zaman et al. (20122), to achieve sustainable development within the tourism sector, its integration with spatial and land use planning is integral in areas of environmental significance.

Todes (2017) suggests that within South Africa, development has continued unabated, especially in rural areas, which historically relied on predominantly traditional and steward forms of spatial and land-use practices. For a large period, these areas have fallen outside the provisions of a land use scheme and are subject to the provisions of the Subdivision of Agricultural Land Act 70 of 1970, except in Ingonyama Trust Board (ITB) land (RSA, 2013). Oranje (2014) notes that the necessary ingredients to achieve the appropriate implementation of spatial and land use planning within South Africa are generally limited by societal and political buy-in, inclusive of institutional arrangements.

The Republic of South Africa (RSA) (2013) states that with the establishment of the Spatial Land Use Management Act (SPLUMA) No 16 of 2013, there has since been a shift in the spatial and land use planning realm of South Africa, which focuses on providing spatial and land use interventions for both urban and rural areas through the establishment of wall-wall land-use schemes.

The study investigates the impacts of the eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality's (EMMs) attempt to integrate an area that previously fell outside the provisions of a complimentary land use scheme within a formal land use scheme. The EMMs attempted to achieve the same through a Functional Area Plan (FAP) and Land Use Scheme for an identified eco-tourism precinct, namely the Shongweni Dam Precinct ("the study area").

The FAP and Scheme were undertaken in terms of the provisions of SPLUMA and were intended to give effect to its development principles. Nel (2015) suggests that these principles include but are not limited to *spatial justice, spatial reliance, and good governance*. RSA (2013) states that the principle of **spatial justice** advocates the case for addressing historical spatial imbalances and incorporating areas of previous disadvantage into the planning process. de Visser and Poswa (2019) states that the principle of **spatial resilience** in terms of the act promotes flexible spatial and land use plans that respond to environmental and socio-economic shocks for marginalised communities. The Republic of South Africa (RSA) (2013) indicates that the principle of **good governance** speaks to transparency between all spheres of government in terms of meeting the national spatial agenda along with the preparation of spatial and land use plans.

1.3. Problem Statement

The overarching concept of sustainability is embedded in a variety of sectors and disciplines (Metternicht, 2018). Missimer (2015) notes that in terms of eco-tourism development; and spatial and land use planning, these have been documented in various global policies. Similarly, the World Development Bank (2012) and Angelkova et al. (2012) suggest that these policies include amongst others:- the Manilla Declaration of the UNTWO of 1980; Agenda 21 of 1992; the United Nations Kyoto Protocol 1998 and most recently the United Nations Partnerships for Sustainable Development Goals of 2012.

According to Missimer (2015) the central challenge relating to the concept of sustainability is that it is earmarked by policymakers and governments to address a myriad of interrelated global issues concerning the environment, society, and economic development. Metternicht (2018) concurs and indicates that this in turn often leads to uncertainty regarding its implementation. Yttredal and Homlong (2020) further suggest that due to such confusion and

a lack of consensus as to what “*sustainability*” essentially is, the concept has been revised for a period of approximately 30 years and the world is still grappling to achieve its core objectives.

Watson (2013), consequently notes that it stands to reason that the mechanics or tools associated with reaching the sustainability goal for policy makers, governments, and built environment professionals suffer a similar fate. Interestingly, the State of South African Cities Reports (2016), usefully points out that, for spatial and land use planning, the central challenge in South Africa associated with the sustainability framework, in the post-apartheid era, is its application. Todes (2017) indicates that the implementation of sustainable spatial and land use planning initiatives, in the post-apartheid era, is thwarted by inherited structuring elements of uneven institutional capabilities, red lining, spatial inequalities, infrastructural and environmental degradation for example.

Lamont and Ferreira (2015) state that with eco-tourism development, challenges in South Africa include community tensions, institutional and human capacity impediments; poor infrastructural capacity, and the location of poverty-stricken rural communities near eco-tourism destinations. According to Yttredall and Homlong (2020), other challenges within the eco-tourism sector include a lack of financial capital and entrepreneurial skills from rural community members; corruption, and top-down governance.

In terms of spatial and land use planning, the development principles echoed within SPLUMA, particularly that of *spatial justice, spatial sustainability, and good governance*, are commendable. However one cannot remain aloof to the outcomes of a report prepared by the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (DRDLR) (2017) titled “*South African Land Report of 2017*” which notes that melanin-dominant South Africans only account for 4% of the total land ownership. Stats South Africa (2017) further states that a Gini Coefficient, in economic terms, is an income inequality measure where 0 indicates total equality and 1 represents inequality. The World Population Review (2022) interestingly suggests that South Africa’s Gini coefficient sits at approximately 0.63 and is noted as amongst the most unequal societies in the world. Stats South Africa (2017) notes that similarly, the Gini coefficient of the EMM, is 0.63, with Durban, its main city, suffering a similar fate of being identified as the third most segregated city in South Africa.

Zohrabi (2013) usefully points out that this in turn suggests that the process of driving eco-tourism development underpinned by spatial and land use planning requires a deeper nuanced approach. According to Kay Ann Consulting (2018), eco-tourism development and spatial planning practices need to incorporate thorough community participation, education, capacity building, and financial instruments made readily available for rural and marginal communities to enhance their role in sustainable development. Oranje (2014) states that the

failure to develop spatial and land use plans which include these ingredients remains, in fact, unsustainable.

1.4. The rationale of the study

According to Rojon and Saunders (2012), the rationale of the study relates to the justification associated with demonstrating the importance of the research in lending itself useful within the legal framework of SPLUMA in facilitating eco-tourism development and ultimately achieving sustainability agenda. According to Amoaka-Atta et al. (2019), it further lends itself useful in establishing the linkage between the two separate but interlinked concepts, namely spatial and land use planning alongside eco-tourism within the overall sustainability framework. This in turn suggests that the study will be relevant to development practitioners, and town planners, in adding to an existing body of literature in so far as establishing the challenges and prospective opportunities for spatial and land use planning in facilitating eco-tourism development.

The motivation of the study emanates from observations noted by Harrison (2001) that indicate that whilst such eco-tourism destinations are earmarked to unlock social, economic, and environmental development in rural and traditional communities, they often than not, present little to no benefits on the ground. According to the Republic of South Africa (2013) and Kenawy (2015), local communities generally do not identify or have a sense of community ownership associated with such destinations due to historical imbalances associated with land dispossession and the forceful removal of indigenous people. Kiper (2013) and Whitman (2019) state that spatial and land use planning within this context of facilitating eco-tourism development is thus perceived as a tool for reinforcing this through the privatization of such areas for the private sector and capital-related gains. Oranje (2014) also suggests that spatial and land use planning, through being a technical and reiterative process, is generally characterized by planning jargon often misunderstood by local communities thus indicating that these plans are not inclusive or easily deconstructable for local communities.

Effectively the study, through an in-depth analysis, of the study area, intends to firstly establish the various challenges from a spatial and land use perspective in facilitating eco-tourism development and the role of SPLUMA in achieving sustainable development. This research will contribute to the production of knowledge concerning eco-tourism development within the Shongweni Dam Precinct of the EMM, Kwa-Zulu Natal (KZN) Province.

1.5. Aim of the Study

To investigate the impacts of spatial and land use planning on eco-tourism development for local communities in KZN.

1.6. Objectives and Research Questions

Main Research Question: What impacts has spatial and land use planning had on eco-tourism development for the local community of the study area?

The objectives and research questions are hereunder:-

Table 1: Objectives and Research Questions

Objectives	Research Question
To identify the key characteristics of sustainable eco-tourism development inclusive of spatial and land use planning	<i>What are the key characteristics of sustainable eco-tourism development and spatial and land use planning?</i>
To assess how spatial and land use planning could facilitate eco-tourism development.	<i>To what extent does spatial and land use planning facilitate eco-tourism development?</i>
To identify elements that may limit the study area in the implementation of eco-tourism development.	<i>Which elements limit the study area in the implementation of eco-tourism development?</i>
To investigate the extent of stakeholder and community engagement in the preparation of the FAP and Land Use Scheme, as spatial and land use planning tools, in relation to eco-tourism development.	<i>To what extent were the stakeholders and local community involved in the preparation of the FAP and Land Use Scheme for eco-tourism development within the study area?</i>
To investigate the effectiveness of SPLUMA in ensuring sustainable development.	<i>How effective is SPLUMA in relation to ensuring sustainable development?</i>
To provide recommendations that will improve eco-tourism development in South Africa.	<i>What are the possible spatial and land use recommendations that will improve the implementation of eco-tourism development in Shongweni that can be used as best-case examples for other South African eco-tourism initiatives?</i>

1.7. Hypothesis

Spatial and land use planning within the realm of eco-tourism development is merely a mechanical and scientific exercise, riddled with planning jargon, which does not go beyond plan creation. This in essence is unsustainable.

1.8. Chapter Outline

The chapter outline gives a synopsis of the entire dissertation structure and its associated chapters which are intended to address the topic at hand along with the presented objectives and research questions.

Chapter One: This chapter gives the introduction and background of the study. The chapter states the problem statement; rationale; hypothesis, aim and objectives, and research question which are all utilised to provide context and need for the research study.

Chapter Two: Expands on the research methodology adopted for the study, which includes the methods of data collection and analysis used to support its merits. It further highlights the tools that were used to collect the necessary data inclusive of the adopted data analysis process. This chapter details how the research was undertaken in terms of utilising structured and semi-structured interviews as data collection tools. The research methodology chapter delineates the data collection sources, and the sampling methods that were used as well as indicates the data analysis method used to analyse and interpret data. Lastly, this chapter highlights the limitations of the study as well as the ethical considerations that were considered during the data collection phase while interacting with the study participants.

Chapter Three: Presents the theoretical and conceptual framework. It discusses the relevant concepts and theories that underpin the study and expresses the key terminology that will be used throughout the research.

Chapter Four: Speaks to the literature review, legislative and policy framework along with precedent case studies. The literature review presents the different debates on different surrounding ecotourism developments. It then shifts towards highlighting global, national, and provincial policies and the legislative context which speaks to ecotourism developments and the spatial and land use connotations associated therewith. The precedent case studies conclude this chapter by providing a practical experience of the challenges and opportunities surrounding ecotourism development in the African context.

Chapter Five: Gives an account of the planning approach that was adopted towards the development of the FAP and Scheme for the elected study area.

Chapter Six: Provides the foundational understanding of the context in which the project emanated whilst also expressing the spatial and non-spatial characteristics that underpin the study area. This chapter assists in providing a background to the research findings, recommendations, and conclusions.

Chapter Seven: This chapter provides the summary of findings and some discussions that emanate from the data findings against the literature. The provision of recommendations comes from the study's review of literature, the presented data findings, and from addressing the problem statement.

2. CHAPTER TWO: RESEARCH METHODS

2.1. Introduction

This chapter intends to elaborate upon the research methodology. McLeod (2012: 2) defines research as a systematic process of critical inquiry concerned with the need to learn, question received wisdom, and solve problems associated therewith which ultimately yields statements, questions, and findings that are communicated to interested parties.

Cresswell (2006) and Zohrabi (2013) both note that *the adopted research method intends to utilise a pragmatic approach to research (i.e. mixed approach) and qualitative research*. According to McLeod (2012), quantitative research is associated with the positivist paradigm and involves collecting data in numerical form to ensure that statistical calculations and conclusions may be drawn. D'Exelle (2014) suggests that this process, in turn, yields a representative sample where the sampling methods utilised in terms of this research enable the use of data from the sample to make conclusions that are representative of the population in which the sample was taken. Alzheimer (2009) suggests that qualitative research is associated with the social constructivist paradigm and relates to the socially constructed nature of reality through recording, analysing a particular subject matter.

The chapter highlights the methods of data collection; sampling methods, ethical considerations; data analysis, limitations of the study, and recommendations for ultimately improving the study.

2.2. Data Collection

The study relies on predominantly two forms of data collection, namely, primary and secondary sources of data. The two identified forms of data sources are as follows:

2.2.1. Primary Sources

Säfsten (2004) notes that primary sources of data are collected as first-hand data or information which is the foundation for the analysis of the investigation. In terms of the utilisation of primary data sources within this investigation, these include three techniques: - *questionnaire surveys, interviews, and observations* which are discussed as follows:

2.2.1.1. Questionnaires

These include a combination of both close-ended and open questionnaires directed toward key focus groups by way of email. Writing Explained (nd) and Abdullahi (2017) note that the

researcher utilised a combination of *open* (i.e. questions that have unlimited response options) and *close-ended* (i.e. questions that have limited response options) questions. These questionnaires were circulated via email to the selected participants. Such an approach yielded limited responses. Furthermore, the turnaround times associated with obtaining populated questionnaires remained inconsistent and outside the stipulated timeframes (i.e. two weeks). Phellas et al. (2011) note that members of the focus group who were sent emails are those that have access to the internet which also slowed down the progress of the investigation. Members of this focus group included private property owners; ward councillors and individuals with a technical background such as eco-tourism specialists; town planners; project leaders; and environmentalists for example and if these did not respond to emails or the questionnaire within two weeks, an alternative face-to-face interview was requested telephonically, where applicable, to ensure that the study progressed seamlessly.

2.2.12. Interviews

Merriam (1998) and/or Burns (1999) as cited by Zohrabi (2013) suggest that interviews are utilised to obtain first-hand information and are a widely acceptable form of collecting qualitative data. Face-face interviews were utilised for individuals within the focus group, which did not have access to the internet and emails. The identified members of this focus group are predominantly comprised of members from the Dassenhoek/aManganga Traditional Area (TA) that is situated near the study area. Additionally, interviews were also utilised if other members of the key focus groups were identified to receive questionnaires electronically and did not respond promptly to ensure that the study progresses without any adverse impacts.

2.2.1.3. Observations

Phellas et al. (2011) state that observation entails the systematic noting and recording of events, behaviours, and objects within a social setting chosen for the identified study. According to Tuchman (1994), the associated outcomes in terms of observation yield what is referred to as field notes that comprise detailed non-judgemental descriptions of what has been observed.

Crossman (2018) usefully points out that the study used *on-site observations*-which included physically going to the study area and taking field notes inclusive of pictures with physical/spatial characteristics therein, and *participant observations*-which included observing members identified within the focus group during interviews to understand the social phenomenon and problem within the study.

2.2.2. Secondary Sources

Johnston (2014) states that these include a review of previously collected and recorded data in a particular area of interest. The data sources include legislation; policies; journal articles; academic books; internet sources; government documents; memorandums; newspaper articles; Geographic Information System (GIS) Shapefile data extracted from the EMM for the purposes of mapping amongst other things.

In so far as mapping is concerned, Krygier (1996), suggests that it enables the spatial representation of key characteristics within the study area in a readily identifiable manner. Data to develop the associated maps of the study area were sourced from the EMM. These include GIS shapefile data representing the spatial demarcation of the study area inclusive of other spatial characteristics associated with the same including cadastral; environmental; property ownership; transportation; infrastructure for example.

2.3. Ethical Considerations

During the development of this dissertation, the Ethics Department of UKZN identified certain key information that was needed to inform the dissertation whilst obtaining the same. The internal process which allowed the necessary clearances to be obtained includes **participant feedback; declaration consent;** and the **gatekeeper's letter**. The **participant feedback process** commenced shortly before the conclusion of the study and final submission. As noted, the study incorporates a plethora of individuals with various literacy backgrounds and access to information. The researcher intended to tailor-make the associated outcomes of the investigation based on the sample demographic profile (i.e. professionals, non-professionals, and general community members). To this end, the investigator developed a brief newsletter in both isiZulu and English that will summarise the outcomes of the study simplistically and transparently (The Research Ethics Guidebook, nd). The associated newsletter used graphs, pictures, and less technical jargon if the associated sample group is not from a technical and professional background. These were furnished via email where applicable and in other instances hand-delivered. In terms of the **declaration of consent**, these included a short descriptive form for getting permission from each participant to source the necessary data. Subsequently, these were served to every participant identified to form part of the investigation and communicated the title of the investigation, its aims, and that each participant may opt-out of the study at any given point according to their discretion. The form also demonstrated that the identity of all participants for carrying out the study will be withheld, where appropriate and necessary. Lastly, with regard to **the gatekeeper's letter**, this was obtained from the eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality (EMM) and the Dassenhoek/aManganga Traditional

Council (TC). Gatekeeper's letters were obtained on 21 September 2018 and 9 October 2018 respectively. These effectively gave the study the blessing to proceed and unearth the necessary information that formed part of the findings and analysis.

2.4. Sampling Methods

The study utilised snowball sampling, which is a form of non-probability sampling to unearth potential subjects if further information (apart from the identified focus groups) is required to inform the study (Explorable 2009). As far as members who are part of the focus group are concerned, recruitment letters in conjunction with consent forms were utilised, where applicable. The Office of the Human Research Protection Program (OHRPP) (2012) further suggests that, in terms of snowball sampling, the recruitment strategy utilized referrals that rely on non-investigator participants referring prospective participants to the study.

Hu et al. (2016) state that this in turn yielded a form of stratified sampling where members of the focus group were divided into separate groups or strata in which the associated outcomes and merits of the investigation are drawn from each identified group, i.e. technical and non-technical participants.

The study identified a **maximum of thirty participants** that formed part of the focus groups /key informants. According to Shi (2014), the sample size of thirty identified participants is anticipated to ensure the widening of the spectrum for the investigation and reliability of the data collected inclusive of limited room for error. The key informants comprised technical participants and professionals such as town planners, environmentalists, and eco-tourism specialists. These professionals represent organisations such as the eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality (EMM), and the SiVEST Town Planning Division which was commissioned to develop the FAP and Land Use Scheme. In terms of the non-technical groups or focus groups, these included property owners and members of the aManganga TA.

2.5. Data Analysis

Mirkin (2010) states that Data analysis is the process of arranging, collating, and bringing order to the data collected from the investigation based on the research tools and methodology adopted. The adopted research method intends to utilise both primary and secondary sources of data. According to Phellas et al. (2011), with regard to primary sources of data, questionnaires, and interviews were utilised which predominantly included close-ended questions and open-ended questions. In so far as the secondary data sources, these included the review of literature from journals, eBooks, legislation, government documents, and books for example to support the merits and claims of the study.

In so far as primary data sources are concerned, thematic coding was applied in the data analysis process of the study. Thomas et al. (2008) suggest that this enables the researcher to categorise each distinct outcome of questionnaires and interviews. According to Zach (2019), this enabled the researcher to essentially collate information of the same nature into one category, thus allowing for the management of the data, which yields the creation of thematic categories from the collated outcomes. The researcher then was enabled to capture key data relating to each theme by interpreting all recorded data inclusive of the associated responses according to the relevant categories and by capturing pertinent information obtained through fieldwork where applicable.

2.6. Research Challenges and Mitigation Measures

2.6.1. Lack of responses from the circulation of questionnaires via email

A total number of 18 participants were sent emails regarding the study along with the questionnaires. The identified participants did not respond to the circulated questionnaires timeously or within the stipulated timeframes. Michaelidou and Dibb (2006) note that this may be attributed to issues such as a lack of desire to form part of the study, internet connectivity issues, and dormant emails for example. Only a total number of 9 participants responded via email. Such a challenge was alleviated through undertaking on-site surveys and interviews which occurred on 15 November 2020 and the 28th of March 2021 respectively.

2.6.2. Coronavirus CoVID-19 Regulations and Restrictions

The global pandemic of CoVID-19 introduced certain challenges in the completion of the study. This is particularly related to the National lockdown of the country for approximately 4 months. The Republic of South Africa (RSA) (2020) states that the national lockdown led to restrictions on the movements of the researcher to access the study area and undertake the necessary surveys and interviews. This was effectively dealt with by waiting for the conclusion of the phased levels (particularly Levels 5-3) in line with the CoVID-19 regulations. From this point, the researcher proceeded to undertake field and on-site surveys.

2.6.3. On-site conflict and violence surrounding the Shongweni Dam Facility

It was established through interactions between the researcher and the on-site managers of Conservation Guardians, that two of the leaders from the ZCT were murdered. This suggested that there were certain underlying community tensions and conflicts between the traditional local community of aManganga and the owners of the Shongweni Dam Facility. It stands to reason that such an occurrence further exacerbates the timeous completion of the study. Such an issue was dealt with by ensuring that the researcher only interviewed participants that

actively wanted to participate in the investigation. The researcher also reiterated the confidentiality of each participant that formed part of the survey.

2.7. Chapter Summary

The research methodology chapter has given an account of the process the researcher undertook to carry out the research study of the impacts of spatial and land use planning on eco-tourism development. Zohrabi (2013) indicates that this research study adopted a mixed approach to assist in generating an understanding of the contradictions between quantitative and qualitative findings thus reflecting the participant's point of view. The sources of data that were used in carrying out the study included primary and secondary source data. This chapter has also detailed the process of data collection which was informed by non-probability snowball sampling techniques. Data was collected and analysed through thematic data analysis. In terms of ethical considerations, this included participant feedback, a declaration of consent, and a gatekeeper's letter setting out that the research was based on voluntary participation. This chapter has submitted the research methodology which is the overarching guideline for data collection and analysis. The study will now proceed to expand on the theoretical and conceptual framework.

3. CHAPTER THREE: THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

3.1. Introduction

This chapter comprises two components, namely: the *theoretical* and *conceptual* framework for the study. Adom et al. (2018) indicate that the two frameworks' overall goal is to make research findings more meaningful, and acceptable to research field theoretical constructs and to be more generalizable. According to Johnson et al (2021), a theoretical framework is the researcher's blueprint or map which is based on an existing theory in a field that is borrowed to construct a research quest. Inversely, Adom et al. (2018) state that the conceptual framework is a structure that best explains the natural course of the subject under investigation linked to the researcher's conceptions, empirical study, and essential theories for advancing and systemizing their expertise.

Two theories were identified to form part of the study, namely *strategic planning*, and *communicative planning*. Albrechts (2004) and Mattila (2020) both suggest that the theories share linkages with the planning profession. According to Columbia University (2015), planning is a technical and political process embedded in the development and design of land use, the built environment, and infrastructure. Galloway and Mahayni (1977) further note that planning, as a method, is used by planners to inform their decisions on which goals are to be attained and the specific steps to be undertaken in meeting such a goal.

According to Touch and Hanperchan (2019), *strategic planning* has been viewed as the predominant form of planning in the 1800s to early 1900s associated with a top-down approach to development with the view that planning is purely related to the organization of space at varying scales, use of land, transportation, and the creation complimentary plans. The criticism associated with such an approach from scholars such as Habermas (1985) in Mattila (2020), relates to the need for opening the democratic process and incorporating bottom-up development in the face of growing pressure from the civil rights movement in the 1960s and 1970s.

Angotti (2007) states that this inherently saw a wave of planning theories that emerged around the consideration of the voices of the marginalized in the planning process which inherently gave rise to *advocacy planning*. According to Mattila (2020) advocacy planning, in turn, provided the bedrock for *communicative planning* which had a strong focus on not only considering the voices of the marginalized but also on opening the platform to public debate and consensus-building within the planning process. Scholars such as Healey (1997a) and Albrechts (1999) further called for the incorporation of the communicative approach into strategic planning as it was seen as useful in providing a useful trajectory for the organization

of space at varying scales which saw such an approach being adopted across South Africa, particularly the eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality (EMM) and the City of Johannesburg for example as noted by Turok and Todes (2017).

The conceptual framework of the dissertation advances five interrelated concepts that are of relevance to the study. These concepts include *development and tourism; sustainability, sustainable development tourism; spatial planning, and land use planning*. Sumner et al (2018) state that the concept of *development and tourism* is centered on the recognition that *development* is a short-medium-long term process focused on the structural societal transformation. In terms of Telfer and Sharpley (2016), *tourism*, on the other hand, is intended to bolster a region or country's competitive advantage in the context of globalisation, whilst also presenting economic and infrastructural investment and development. The central challenge of *development and tourism*, as indicated by Kiper (2013) and Missimer (2015), is that over the last three decades, there have been growing concerns related to the unsustainable practices associated with mass tourism that saw economic development needs run far ahead of environmental and societal needs. This, according to Yttredal and Homlong (2020), is the context in which the concepts of *sustainability, sustainable development tourism, and eco-tourism* emerged. Oleg et al. (2020) note that these concepts are all aligned to responsible, environmentally, and socially cognisant development or tourism which does not only view development from an economic perspective but also from a societal and environmental perspective. *Sustainability* is an overarching concept for *sustainable development tourism* and *eco-tourism* has also been reiterated in *spatial planning and land use planning* processes as echoed in various policies such as Agenda 21, Millennium Development Goals, and the Sustainable Development Goals (MDGSDG) amongst others (United Nations, 2018). The theoretical and conceptual framework is herein submitted.

3.2. Theoretical Framework

3.2.1. Strategic Planning

Albrechts (2004) states that strategic planning has its roots embedded in Greek military warfare from as early as the early 20th century. The term "*strategy*", as confirmed by Blackerby (2003) along with Granqvist et al. (2021), is derived from the Greek term "*stratēgos*" which means "*general of the army*", who gave strategic advice regarding the management of battles to win wars.

According to Albrechts (2004), within the planning fraternity, the adoption of strategic planning theory rose to prominence in Western Countries around the 1960s and 1970s. Touch and

Hanpachern (2019) state that it evolved into a comprehensive planning system that was adopted at varying administrative levels, across, national, provincial, and local spheres of government. Todes (2017) concurs and suggests that it was intended to shape the spatial trajectory of cities by mapping the desired future growth patterns along with the land use requirements for development. Todes (2107) further notes that during the 1980s, there was general disapproval and a shift away from the utilisation of strategic planning within planning practises. According to Satorio (2005), this was due to the increased criticism promoted by neoconservative disdains for planning inclusive of postmodern skepticism which brought about a strong focus on physical projects, urban regeneration, and land use regulations and a lack of focus on the voices of the marginalised.

Granqvist et al. (2021) note that strategic planning further regained popularity in the early to late 1990s. Scholars such as Healy (1997a) and Albrechts (1999) called for the incorporation of communication, inclusion, and collaboration between various stakeholders. According to Obeng and Ugboro (2008), during this era, it was deemed to provide a useful trajectory for organizing space at varying scales inclusive of addressing complex problems associated with rapid and uncoordinated developments, fragmentation, and increased interests at differing scales (i.e. local to global perspectives) in environmental matters and the growing presence of civil movements.

For Albrechts (2004) along with Granqvist et al. (2021), it is identified as a management tool that determines the path of governments from a spatial and land use planning perspective, i.e. the spatial direction of an area inclusive of an acknowledgment and analysis of its current Strengths Weaknesses Opportunities, and Threats (SWOT Analysis). Todes (2017) indicates that this approach is noted as enabling the favourable conditions for urban and city landscapes to respond in the form of management processes to various dynamics or events such as urbanisation, infrastructure capacity constraints/backlogs, climate change, and disaster occurrences all in an attempt to improve the quality of life of a city's underlying population.

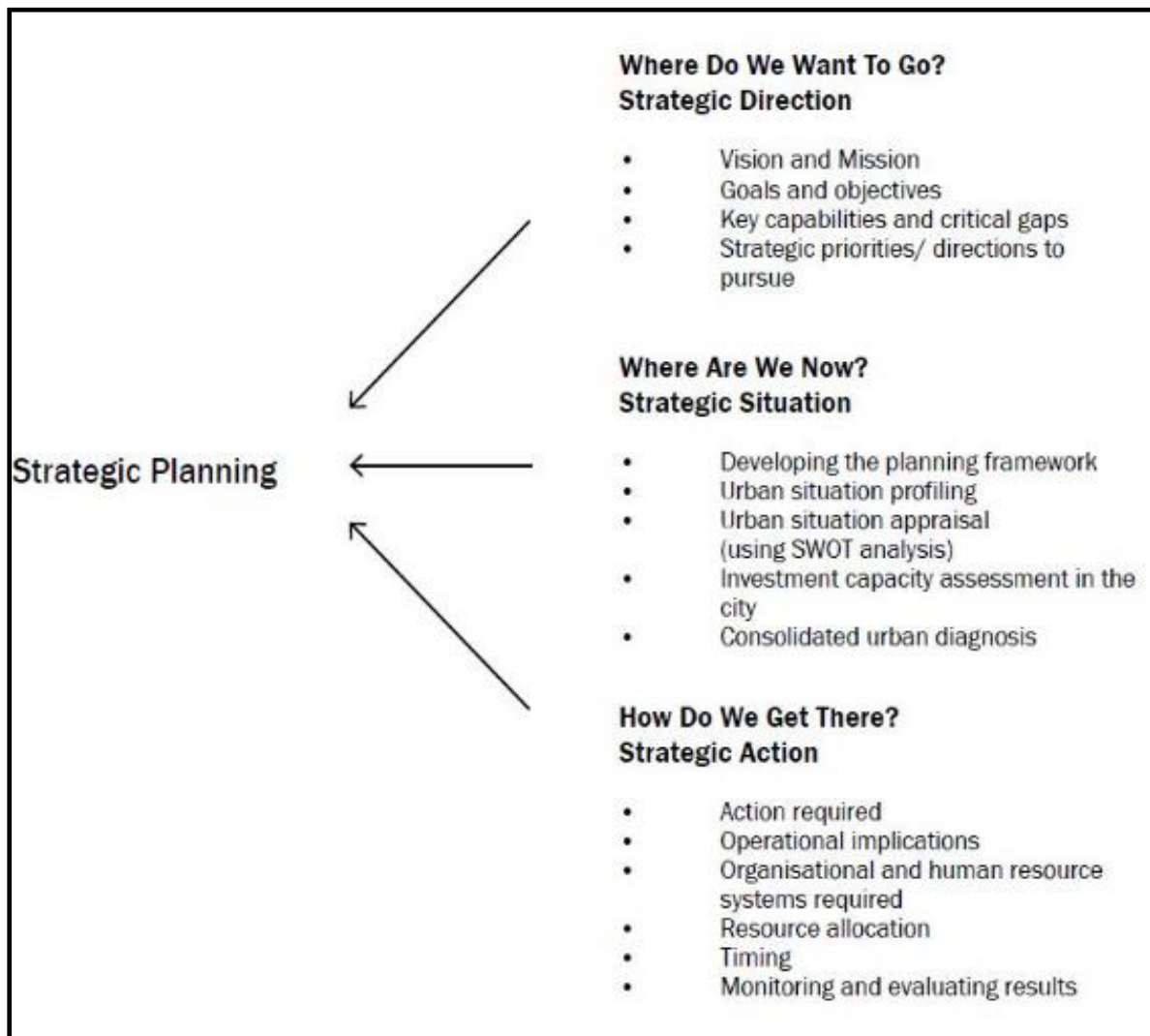
Albrechts (2004), the UN-Habitat (2007) and Obeng and Ugboro (2008) suggest that the following key attributes, when effectively combined lead to a successful and all-encompassing strategic planning process:

- It is a future-orientated process that intends to forecast the future various dynamics that could lead to change in an urban and rural landscape over a five-to-ten-year period. It further attempts to set out the city's development trajectory concerning the anticipated dynamics and challenges with the most likely occurrence.

- It is fluid, flexible, and focuses on the larger picture by aligning a city's current environment whilst setting the context for meeting prescribed goals, development framework, and direction to achieve the city's desired future trajectory.
- It sets up a framework that is intended to enhance an area's competitive advantage through its comprehensive analysis, its internal and external environment, limitations, and potential. This enables the area to positively respond to the developing trends, events, challenges, and opportunities within such a framework which are then aligned to the prescribed and agreed-upon vision and mission as an outcome of the strategic planning process.
- It is a qualitative and idea-driven process that integrates other forms of soft data from shared experiences, and institutional and organisational ideas through an ongoing iterative process that involves stakeholder engagement and dialogue thus developing a clear vision and focus for the city.
- It is an ongoing process that enables the monitoring and evaluation of the extent to which the challenges and issues identified inclusive of the vision have been met over a five-to-ten-year period. Upon assessing the extent to which these have been addressed, the plan is then revised and restructured to add creative solutions for tackling the same.

Hamid (2017) notes that ultimately, strategic planning offers a decentralised approach to planning whilst ensuring process and action-orientated mechanisms toward alleviating current and future spatial issues. Albrechts (2004) concurs and states that it further calls for the need for consensus-building from a plethora of stakeholders (i.e. communities, politicians, the private sector, and various government entities) for tackling issues whilst also maintaining a focused and selective approach toward identifying and resolving critical issues through targeting long-term sustainable and balanced urban and rural development. The strategic planning process is reflected in Figure 1: Strategic Planning Process.

Figure 1: Strategic Planning Process



Source: UN-Habitat (2007: 8).

3.2.1.1. Criticism of strategic planning

The core issue of strategic planning is, its applicability, particularly in developing countries. Oelsen (2014) in Todes (2017) states that due to strategic planning's Eurocentric origins, it is rather difficult to find successful strategic planning initiatives that live up to expectations without reinforcing and perpetuating neoliberalism and pro-capitalistic gains in the developing world. Watson (2013) points to the fact that these strategic planning projects, in the developing world, are often driven by the private sector where governments are more reactionary to such developments and consequently endorse these plans to be pro-development. Salleh et al. (2017) indicate that strategic plans, in most cases have a general disregard for societal issues, particularly for the marginalised when it comes to institutional barriers such as access to land, credit, and their ability to make use of such plans. Landman (2006) on the other hand states that in the South African context, the use of strategic plans such as Spatial Development

Frameworks (SDFs) perpetuates sprawl, the privatisation of spaces, and the apartheid city model, through earmarking areas as “nodes” for mixed-use development, only a handful can take advantage, that is the elite.

Kaufman and Jacobs (1987) suggest that for strategic planners, communities exist in a competitive environment in which they must actively compete for resources. As Inglehart (1997) usefully points out, it can thus be deduced that the theory has a general disregard for the heterogeneous composition of society and the voices of “other” groups inclusive of the underlying factors introduced by capitalism concerning the competition for resources.

Furthermore, in the developing world, strategic planning assumes that institutional and political impediments to driving and implementing strategic plans are always present (Watson 2013). This is not necessarily the case. Oranje (2014) reiterates that in the South African context, societal, and political buy-in along with institutional anchoring is not entirely present in local; provincial, and national government spheres. Turok and Watson (2001) suggest that this is sometimes also reinforced by government departments operating in silos, having conflicting or divergent goals associated with development which ultimately leads to confusion as to how the strategic development plans may be implemented and brought to fruition.

3.2.1.2. Relevance of strategic planning to the research study

According to eThekweni Metropolitan Municipal (EMM) Spatial Development Framework (SDF) (2021/2022) the municipality consists of an all-inclusive land use management system in terms of the provisions of SPLUMA which hosts a package of hierarchical plans that occur at municipal wide; regional and local scales. The UN-Habitat (2007) suggests that these plans effectively inform the social, economic, environmental, and infrastructural development trajectory of the municipality and are translated into a series of policies, development strategies, strategic level plans, and detailed local and site-specific plans. Based on Granqvist et al. (2021) observations, the relevance of strategic planning in this context relates to its concerns with the organisation of space at varying levels and creating a synergistic role between various stakeholders and departments to meet a certain goal or objective.

Strategic planning is aligned with the study on the basis that the EMM, through its hierarchical suite of plans, has earmarked the study area for eco-tourism development purposes. According to the EMM (2010), through its establishment of the Shongweni LAP (2010), the study area has been identified as an eco-tourism destination for several years. The EMM (2010) further notes that within the LAP (2010), the Shongweni region is broken down into further geographical precincts that are accompanied by the distinct spatial role each precinct

plays in the region along with land use, environmental, and urban design proposals/guidelines for example.

As an extension to the call for the incorporation of the communicative approach to development, the EMM has availed its hierarchical suite of plans including the Shongweni LAP (2010) for public viewing on its municipal website.

The EMM's attempt to extend the democratic process to members of the public is observed and commendable. However, as an aside, it remains unknown to the extent to which the municipality deemed that its citizenry has internet access. A study by Stats SA (2014) reveals that only approximately 41,2% (394 421 households) within the metro have access to the internet. Notwithstanding the above, the dissertation will now proceed to delve into communicative planning theory.

3.2.2. Communicative Planning

Mittal (2020) suggests that communicative planning owes its origins to advocacy planning which was established due to a growing recognition that the planning model of the 1950s and 1960s or before was embedded in the philosophy of positivism, which was based on a scientific planning approach, associated with physical planning. Touch and Hanpachern (2019) state that during this period, the function of planning predominantly consisted of a top-down approach that lacked societal and democratic buy-in and was largely focused on plan formulation and physical development. Within this era, such a model was embedded in a scientifically orientated view, which inherently suggested that planners had a pre-existing hypothesis of how the world operates and thus developed quantitative tools to test whether such a hypothesis was true or false. The role of planning in this regard is noted as one that solves problems. However, in the period of 1960s and 1970s, various planning theorists, initially schooled in positivism began to challenge the systematic and scientific model of planning as advocated by Rittel and Webber (1973).

Davidoff (1965) and the Planners Network (2007) suggest that advocacy planning was intended to reflect the realities of unrepresented groups such as the marginalised and poor in the planning process. According to the Franciscan Action Network (2020), it is the by-product of the civil rights movement which noted that planners demonstrated a general disregard for social, economic, and racial dynamics amongst other things, underpinning communities when "*planning*" (i.e. urban renewal projects for example) as their focus was only on physical planning or plan development without thorough cognisance related to the implications thereof on communities. Angotti (2007) states that Advocacy planning promoted the establishment of a democratic process where planners are centrally located at balancing a variety of interests

within society whilst fulfilling their role of providing technical expertise. Whilst it is noted that advocacy planning is a quaint and outdated model that is linked to the fallen civil rights movement, communicative planning theory is its by-product.

According to Bedingham (1998), communicative planning theory intends to deepen the democratic process through consensus building and a growing recognition that to successfully develop a plan, a thorough understanding of all stakeholders inclusive of their voices and needs is required. Mattila (2020) states that communicative planning theory argues that one of the shortcomings of the democratic process is the unresponsive nature of government to the needs of society inclusive of the underlying problems of social incoherence. For Watson (2002) the theory suggests that there is a synergistic relationship between the state and society in driving the planning process. Fanstein (2014) further reiterates that argues that the lacuna between society and the state can be bridged through communication, dialogue, discussions, and argumentation consensus to foster the democratic process. The basis of communicative planning theory is informed by Herbas (1984) and (1985) who was concerned with extending and protecting democracy, through interaction between stakeholders and different interest groups.

The aim of planning under communicative planning theory is to form a bridge between society and the state, hence planners are assumed mediators between different stakeholders, the state, and civil society. Furthermore, in this context, social movements are perceived to have the potential to exert pressure on the state to attend to the social needs of communities as a matter of urgency. The key tenets of communicative planning theory, according to Healey (1993) and (1997) in Bedingham (1998) are:

- Acknowledgment that all forms of knowledge are a social construct inclusive of technicians, planners, researchers, and experts and that such knowledge is no different than that of logical reasoning. Therefore, planning is deemed to be an interactive and interpretative process that needs to enable a platform for discourse around planning processes.
- A cognisance that opinions, views, beliefs, and ideas of individuals are governed by the social context in which they emerge and noting that this requires intercommunication that all forms of knowledge are of importance to the planning process whilst exploring possible solutions to issues identified therein.
- To enable a platform related to meaningful debate and input from various individuals and stakeholders with diverse interests and expectations. In this context, planners and experts

are acknowledged as possessing power and influence concerning understanding that the audience in which they act on behalf of, has varying levels of access to information. Where insufficient access to information, technology, and material resources exists, such power is not to be abused to ensure meaningful debate and input.

- Advocating the case for public policies which are concerned with managing coexistence in shared places that seek to be efficient, effective, accountable, and equitable to all those that occupy and utilise the same. Consequently, the core focus of communicative planning or action is ensuring equilibrium or controlling the diverse range of viewpoints whilst finding creative ways of comprising between claims without demonstrating a disregard for the same until they have been adequately tested or explored.

3.2.2.1. *Criticism of communicative planning*

Several criticisms have emerged over the past decades concerning communicative planning theory which appear to vary in extent. According to Harris (2002), some of this criticism is not necessarily targeted toward Habermas's theory but the planning-theoretical applications of its philosophical concepts. In other instances, Mattila (2020) suggests that these criticisms are also targeted toward the theory itself.

Cambell (2006) notes that one of its main criticisms is that Habermasian philosophy is entrenched in Habermas's abstract and broad theories which are not designed to be applied in the micro-scale contexts of everyday planning practices but are relevant to the macro-scale context of renewing institutional and democratic structures of society. Fanstein (2000) and Huxley (2000) as cited by Mattila (2020) further indicate that the theorists of communicative planning, in principle, are concerned with the micro-scaled local and daily function of planning practices but also fail to make a connection with the macro-scale structures and processes in society.

According to Pløger (2001), communicative planning theory has been brought into question regarding Habermasian ideals of open and consensus-orientated communication for real-life planning practice, particularly within the realm of complex power relations which frustrate and distort mutual communication and ultimately the search for mutual agreement. In this instance, Forester (1980) and Healy (1997) in Bedingham (1998) suggest that the ruling elite often utilize their influence or power within the planning process to align with their agendas and objectives whilst ensuring that experts, technicians, and planners are aligned to such through scientific explanations. Hiller (2003) as cited by Mattila (2020) reiterates that Habermasian reliance on counterfactual ideals is not only futile in the context of planning practice but also restricts the progress toward planning goals as it leads attention away from the fact that planning

communication is, in reality, dominated by those whose interests are already well-represented in society. According to Watson (2002), the theory is largely criticised for being a firmly embedded notion of universal citizenship, which undermines heterogeneity within societies, especially within the context of globalisation and capitalism, and the contrast that exists between the developed and developing world.

Mattila (2020) further indicates that it is notable that some urban and planning theorists have also criticized the procedural emphasis that is characteristic of both Habermas' theory and communicative planning theory. Campbell (2006), in this instance, suggests that some planners claim that Habermasian proceduralism and formalism divert our attention away from the specific settings in which planning and reasoning occur, resulting in a belief in the feasibility or desirability of planning communication that is not situated or placeless. Furthermore, for Richardson (1996) and Feinstein (2014) some urban scholars have contended that process-oriented planning scholars, such as communicative planning theory proponents, have failed to demonstrate that the procedural models they support lead to good, equitable, and just cities.

3.2.2.2. *Relevance of communicative planning to the research study*

Communicative planning theory is relevant to the study on the basis that spatial and land use planning practices along with eco-tourism development prescribe the need to communicate and extend the democratic process of development to local communities as a means to enhance public participation and tailor-make development to community needs. In the South African context, the development principles of SPLUMA, particularly that of *spatial justice* and *good governance* become relevant. For Charman et al. (2017) these principles reiterate the case for opening up the democratic process in terms of spatial and land use planning processes but also ensure that these plans need to make provisions for redressing past spatial imbalances through improved access to land to marginalised groups.

In terms of the elected study, not only does it seek to answer the questions regarding the level of stakeholder engagement, but it also sheds some light on how the voices of the “other” or marginalised were considered in the preparation of the draft FAP and Scheme for the study area. As astutely pointed out by Segar (1999), participation is the ability of communities to influence the outcome of development that has a direct or indirect impact on them.

Communicative planning theory is thus seen as a catalyst in enabling the alignment of the EMM's advancement of eco-tourism development with community expectations and development needs whilst also ensuring that from a spatial and land use perspective these needs are upheld.

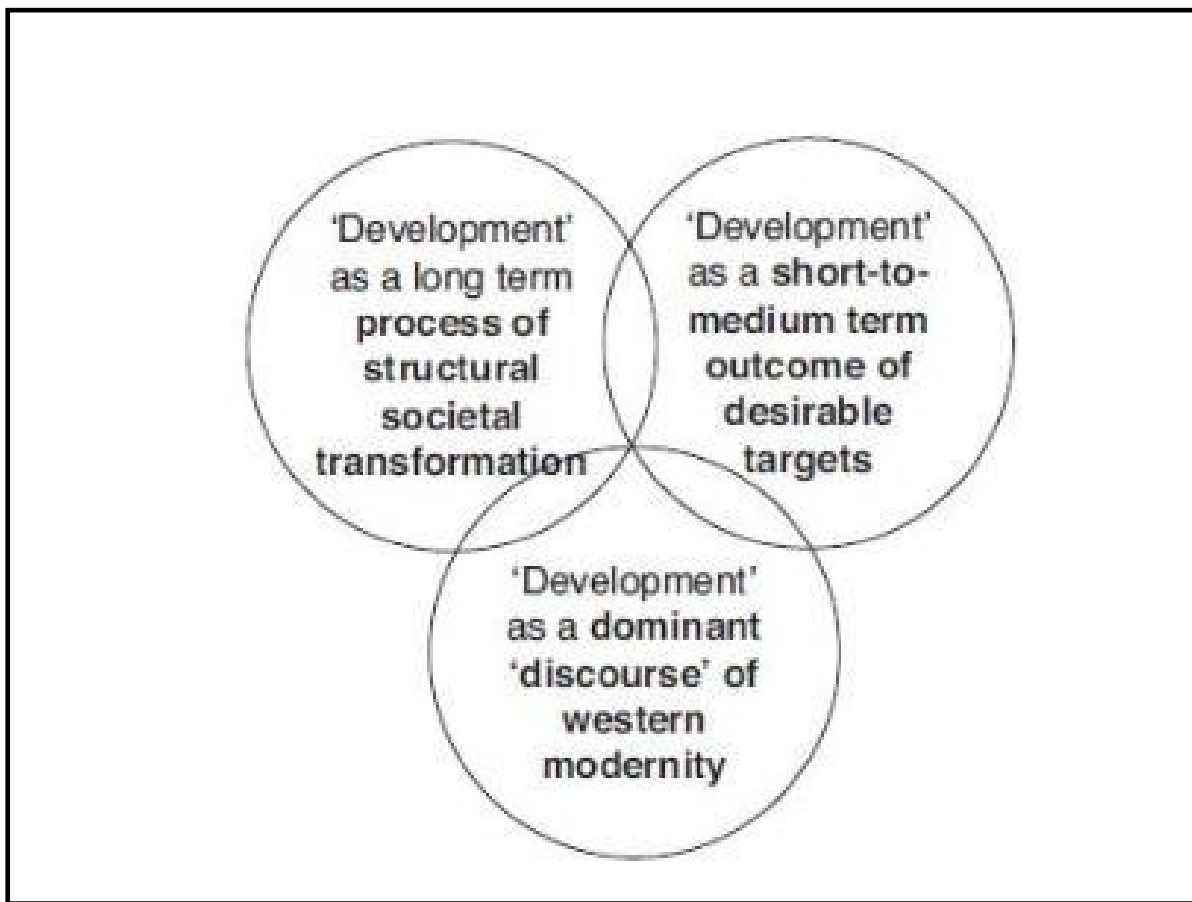
3.3. Conceptual Framework

The review of the concept intends to provide a framework in which the research study will be understood, particularly in the concepts of *development and tourism*, *sustainable development*, *sustainable development tourism*, and *eco-tourism* inclusive of the role of spatial planning in facilitating the same. The aforementioned concepts are summarised and aligned as follows:

3.3.1. Development and Tourism

Thomas (2004) states that the term “*development*” is multifaceted and a highly debated concept in its nature, particularly in the theoretical and political spheres. Three broad definitions pertain to the concept of development and its conceptualisation. According to Sumner et al. (2008), the first is a historical and long-term view, development refers to a process of societal change and a new stage in an implicitly desirable situation. Poston et al. (2004) suggest that the second definition emerges from a policy perspective that is evaluation or indicator based. For Poston et al. (2004) this definition recognizes that development is based on value judgments that are short-medium term orientated and are aligned to the objectives of policy instruments that intend to tackle global poverty such as the erstwhile Millennium Development Goals (MDG) (i.e. now referred to as Sustainable Development Goals) for example. Hickey and Mohan (2003, pg. 38) suggest that the third definition emerges from a post-modernist school of thought which is embedded in the ethnocentric and abstract nature of modernity and western conceptions of development thus raising issues in so far as the exploration of further defining development for the not-so-developed world. Sumner et al. (2008) indicate that ultimately, the concept of development is a culmination of all three of the aforementioned definitions as it is a process comprising of short-medium term goals aimed at structural societal change or transformation linked to a socioeconomic system underpinning the same which is embedded in modernist thinking in its roots. It is thus submitted that development is a construct of western modernity linked with short-to-medium- and long-term goals intended for societal transformation (See Figure 2: Defining Development).

Figure 2: Defining Development



Source: Sumner et al. (2008, pg. 11).

Thomas (2004) suggests that given, this broad nature of development, it is notable that it is multi-dimensional as a concept because any improvement of complex systems such as that of the socio-economic system, can occur at varying extents and speed, depending on the driving forces of the same. Furthermore, the development of one part of a system may be detrimental to the development of other parts, often giving rise to trade-offs and conflicts with the other parts of the system. Therefore, measuring development, according to Bellu (2011) through determining what extent a system is developing is an intrinsically multidimensional exercise.

Tourism, as defined by the Republic of South Africa (RSA) (1996, pg. 5), is all forms of travel, which results in one or more nights being spent away from home for whatever purposes. Pillai (2011) suggests that tourism often lends itself useful to countries or regions which possess significant tourism opportunities for branding purposes by strategically placing these destinations within the global economic context to promote economic development as a direct outcome. Furthermore, for Bhattacharya (2005), tourism as a sector lends itself useful to stimulating

employment opportunities, promoting entrepreneurial and investor appetite, promoting capacity building and skills transfer for the marginalised, earning foreign exchange, and ultimately presenting development opportunities in rural areas among other things.

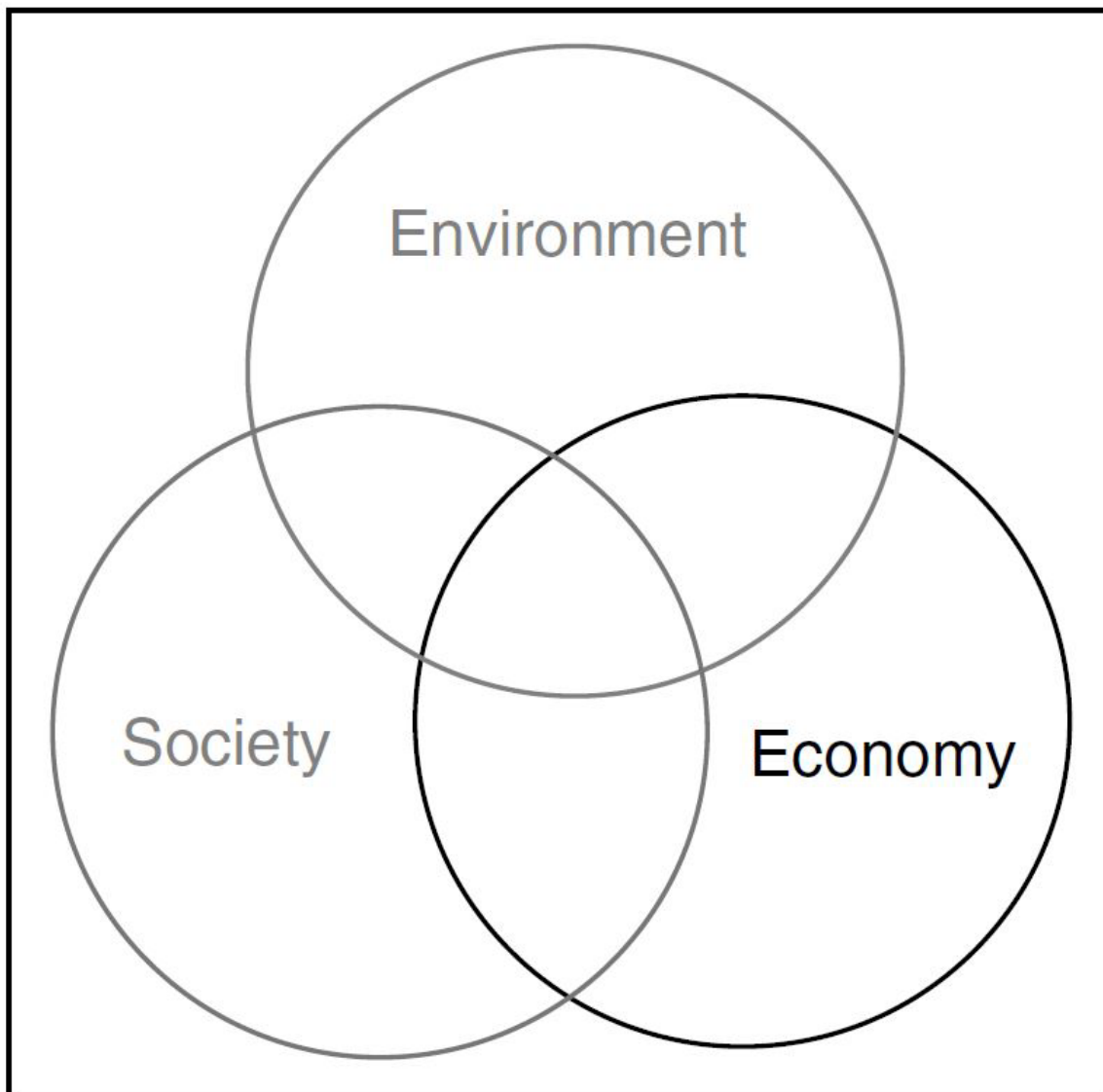
This is particularly the context where the link between development and tourism emerges. Pillai (2011), these are inseparable concepts in that tourism destinations are often earmarked to contribute to not only economic development, but also societal and environmental development (i.e. sustainability) as later prescribed in various policy instruments concerning tourism and the global recognition that tourism operations were merely aligned to consumption patterns and lacked societal and environmental cognisance. Harrison (2001) also states that whilst there is the integration of sustainability in the tourism sector, these are often hijacked and misused in the long term by the very same individuals who are to advance sustainable development in the sector including conservationists, government officials, politicians, local community structures and tourists themselves.

Without having to be exhaustive in the point, several debates have thwarted the study of international tourism over the nature and type of development. Harrison (1992: 10) as cited by Harrison (2001, pg. 7) notes that *“tourism can be seen as a form of modernization, transferring capital, technology expertise, and modern values from the west to less developed countries”* and thus does not always translate into development, as development is also a highly contested and highly ambiguous concept itself. However, for the study, it is well worth noting that tourism and development are inseparable.

3.3.2. Sustainability

According to Oleg et al. (2020), the concept of sustainability emerged as an outcome of the Brundtland Report published in 1987. Elliot (1999) suggests that the report was an effort after the 1983 World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) to set up a framework to promote social development and preserve the natural environment ahead of the objectives of capitalism. The Sustainable Development Advocacy Toolkit Mini-Site (2015) states that the report essentially highlighted three important pillars of sustainable development, namely environmental protection, economic growth, and social equity. According to Giddings et al. (2002, pg. 187), whilst it is noted that the concept of *“sustainable development”* is surrounded by a variety of worldviews that influence environmental, social, and economic development decisions, it is a concept that is usually presented as an intersection between the environment, society, and the economy (Refer to Figure 3: Three Pillars of Sustainability).

Figure 3: Three Pillars of Sustainability



Source: Giddings et al. (2002, pg. 189).

According to the World Commission of Environment and Development (WCED) (1987), the classic definition of sustainable development suggests that it is a model directed toward meeting the needs of the present without limiting the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. Giddings et al. (2022) state that the successful implementation and capturing of the concept is dependent on several issues dealing with the three spheres prescribed therein (i.e. social, environmental, and economic) and requires an economic system that will offer solutions to problems occurring in disharmonious development inclusive of a production system that is obligated to preserve the ecological base.

Within the planning fraternity, Jepson (2011) and Campbell (1996) as cited by Ramsaru (2011) suggest that there has been a growing recognition that the concept of sustainability lends itself

useful to land use and overall community development with planners centrally located in achieving social, environmental and economic development objectives prescribed within the concept of sustainable development. According to the African Policy Circle (2020), it has also been observed that over time that the world's cities are constantly expanding and experiencing pressures associated with economic and population growth, urbanization, and pollution for example which all have implications for existing resources and implicitly the natural environment. Hosey (2017) states that the central challenge in achieving the objectives of sustainability in its entirety on a global scale relates to ensuring that economic growth as a pillar is not separated from the other core pillars (i.e. social and environmental development) of sustainability and that it does not far precede same. Similarly, the World Commission on Environment and Development (1987, pg. 49) suggests that: - *“The world must quickly design strategies that will allow nations to move from their present, often destructive, processes of growth and development onto sustainable development paths”*.

Equally, such a stance is noted within the South African development informant, policy, and legislative framework which essentially calls for a shift in development practices, with a need to demonstrate cognisance and synergy between social, environmental, and economic development impacts. The concept of sustainability is thus reiterated across national, provincial, and municipal/region-specific policy and legislative instruments within the South African context. The National Development Plan (NDP) (2011) advocates the case for development informants and principles such as *“spatial sustainability”* for example, which intends to promote sustainable patterns of consumption and production through promoting compaction and mixed-use developments whilst preserving the natural environment. The Provincial Growth Development Strategy (PGDS) amongst its set of development strategies to unlock development potential, improve the province's competitive advantage, and create employment opportunities therein amongst other things, similarly, calls for a case for *“environmental sustainability”* (i.e. *Strategic Goal 5*). According to The PGDS (2011, pgs. 110-120), this goal intends to increase productive use of land, advance alternative forms of energy generation, call for adaptation measures to climate change and restrict development pressures on biodiversity and the natural environment. Within the municipal/regional context, Integrated Development Plans (IDPs) and Spatial Development Frameworks (SDFs) as policy and investment directive instruments also demonstrate adherence to sustainability in the form of development principles and strategies.

The United Nations (2002) states that the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) was hosted in Johannesburg in 2002. SA News (2022) suggests that Amos Masondo, the erstwhile mayor of the city of Johannesburg, noted that local governance plays an instrumental

role in so far as environmental governance and infrastructural provision which ultimately intends to provide a healthy and clean environment for all to enjoy. Consequently, according to the Republic of South Africa (RSA) (1998), sustainable development filters into various development initiatives and infrastructural developments by ensuring that where applicable, Environmental Impact Assessments (EIA's) processes inclusive of the necessary environmental authorisations are sought through integrating same with town planning requirements, municipal policy instruments of waste management and air quality plans for example.

There are commentaries concerning the effectiveness of sustainable development. Yttredal and Homlong (2020) suggest that sustainability is sometimes misused and is systems maintenance. Consequently, it reinforces the objectives of capitalism through pro-economic development and is associated with the manipulation of laws and policies without demonstrating cognisance for the social and environmental development aspects related therewith. Cullinan (2007) reiterates that sustainable development in South Africa is often thwarted by the very same laws which it ought to promote as it is ironically utilized for unsustainable development practices within the sphere of infrastructural projects and land development.

Drughi (2018) states that the concept of sustainability and its relevance to the investigative study is twofold:-it firstly provides a lens to understand the importance of sustainable development whilst also setting up the background in viewing and interpreting eco-tourism development. Secondly, the concept of sustainability, as echoed by the eThekweni Municipality's Spatial Development Framework (2021/2022), the NDP (2011), and the PGDS (2011), has also been reiterated across various national, provincial, and local governmental plans which ultimately shape the development trajectory of spatial transformation in the South African context.

3.3.3. Sustainable Development Tourism and Eco-tourism

Sustainable development and eco-tourism are inseparable as both owe their origins to the overarching sustainability concept. Angelkova et al (2012) note that sustainability found prominence within the tourism sector through the Manila Declaration of the UNWTO of 1980 as a result of the global recognition that whilst tourism practices were aligned to economic growth, they generally demonstrated a disregard for equitable societal development and environmental preservation needs. Sustainable development tourism, as noted by Sugiartia et al (2020) pertains to all forms of development and management of tourist activities that

demonstrate long-term cognisance of the environment, and natural and cultural assets whilst ensuring equitable social and economic development.

Dede et al (2012) state that eco-tourism is responsible for travel to natural areas that sustains the well-being of the local people, involves education centered on sustainable forms of travel and ultimately conserves the environment. Higham (2007) as cited by Magio et al (2013) suggests that eco-tourism is a nature-based, sustainable, and respectful form of tourism and travel primarily inspired by the environmental history of an area, inclusive of its indigenous cultures. Within this context, Kiper (2013) suggests that eco-tourist visits to such areas are for the sake of appreciation, coexisting with a strong cognisance of participation and sensitivity towards non-consumptive practices concerning wildlife and natural resources. Furthermore, for Kenawy and Shaw (2014) eco-tourism is thus seen as having a specific focus on contributing to the area through labour or financial mechanisms which are anticipated to directly bestow benefits in so far as the conservation of the area and the economic welfare of local residents. Kiper (2013) states that both sustainable development tourism and eco-tourism are aligned with the global recognition that mass tourism in its entirety creates an adverse impact on the environment. Notably, as pointed out by Magio et al. (2013), sustainable development tourism and eco-tourism are an attempt to curtail adverse impacts on the environment whilst ensuring equitable societal development, protecting the environment, and stimulating economic growth inclusive of directing the benefits associated with such growth to residents (See Figure 4: Contextualising Eco-tourism and Mass Tourism).

Figure 4: Contextualising Eco-tourism and Mass Tourism



Source: Erikson (2003) as cited by Kiper (2013, pg. 777).

The drive towards the popularity of eco-tourism facilities from tourist patrons has drastically increased. The International Eco-Tourism Society (TIES) (nd) notes that in 2004, the global consumption of eco-tourism and nature tourism grew three times faster than that of the entire tourism industry as a whole whilst more than 55 million Americans would book a vacation that incorporates key tenets of sustainable travel. Ashley et al (2007) suggest that in trying to ensure that eco-tourist activities meet their directive as per their advanced definition, several prerequisite requirements are to be met. These include:

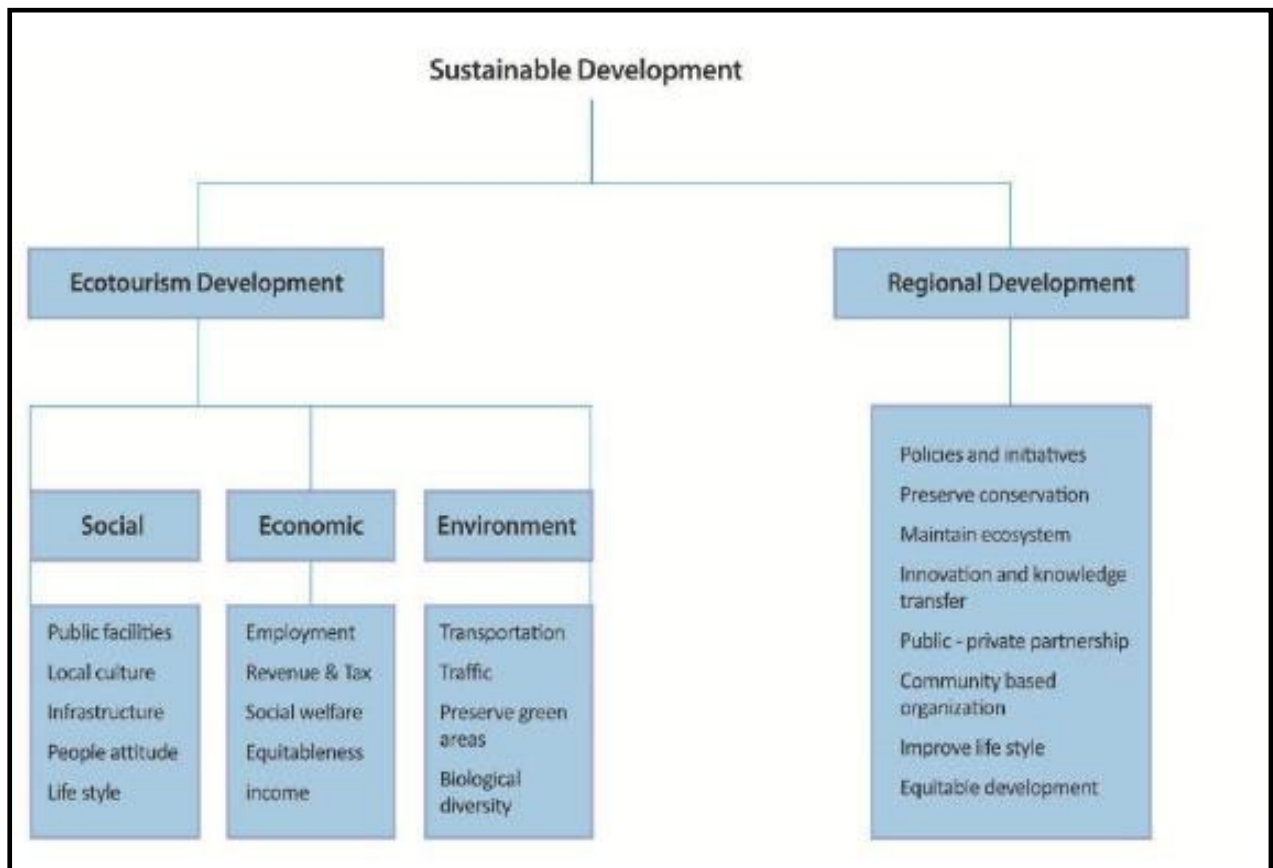
- Proper planning before the development of the destination;
- Sustainable use of resources through ensuring that there is minimal to no negative impact on either the environment and/or local communities;
- The economic viability of all tourism products must be ensured, with a significant focus on ensuring the associated economic benefits flow to local communities;
- The developers associated with eco-tourism facilities must be held responsible and accountable for the environment on which their business is dependent; and
- The tourism industry and tourists must be properly regulated to ensure the protection of the environment.

According to the TIES (nd) the main components of a functional eco-tourism establishment relate to contributing to the conservation of biodiversity; ensuring the sustenance and well-being of local people; inclusive fostering of an educational environment in so far as the importance of conservation is concerned; and promoting the significance of local participation, ownership, and business opportunities, especially to local people amongst other things. The UNEP (2002, pg. 9) notes that several principles form the bedrock for eco-tourism. These include:

- Ensuring minimal disturbance to the natural environment inclusive of historic sites and local culture;
- Encouraging responsible businesses to work synergistically with local authorities and communities to meet local needs and bestow conservation benefits inclusive of revenues to such communities;
- Developing regional tourism zoning and associated management plans which earmark areas that comprise of natural and environmental significance inclusive of environmentally cognisant tourist activities associated therewith.
- Maximising economic benefits for local businesses and communities particularly those that live in proximity to natural and protected areas.
- Ensuring that tourism development never exceeds the social and environmental limits of acceptable change or overuse of the natural environment through the promotion of long-term assessment and monitoring programs associated with the impacts of eco-tourism development on the natural environment.

Eco-tourism and sustainable development are inseparable concepts. Cullinan (2007) states that on a global scale, a large number of countries have aligned their regional development aspirations through policy and plan directives to the concept of sustainability. Drughi (2018) suggests that eco-tourism as a subsidiary of sustainable development, echoes the sentiments of sustainable development, through ensuring social and economic development whilst also maintaining its roots in regional development which effectively informs policy instruments and an area's development trajectory. Kiper (2013, pg. 782) states that this in turn results in the preservation of environmentally sensitive land parcels through spatial planning mechanisms such as land use plans, town planning schemes, and other development plans (Refer to Figure: 5: Sustainable development through eco-tourism).

Figure 5: Sustainable development through eco-tourism



Source: Bhuiyan et al. (2012) in Kiper (2013, pg. 782).

3.3.4. Spatial planning

Cullingworth et al (2006, pg. 1) as cited by the United Nations (2008, pg. 1) suggest that spatial planning is a process concerned with ensuring coordination and integration of the spatial dimension of sector policies through a territorially based strategy. According to the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (2015), spatial planning is understood as an attempt by society, especially through public sector efforts, to control the arrangement and use of land whilst balancing different and most often than not, the conflict between public and private sector interests. Dede et al (2012, pg. 434) define spatial planning as *“methods used largely by the public to influence the future distribution of activities in space”*.

The United Nations (2008) states that the role of spatial planning varies in extent and scope. However, as demonstrated by the United Nations (2015), it may be simply understood as playing an instrumental role in prescribing development strategies to promote the rational arrangement of activities and land uses. Albrechts (2004) suggests that it plays a role in the physical arrangements of space, reconciling competing policy objectives within a medium to the long-term horizon. In Slovenia, spatial planning, according to their Spatial Planning Act

(2002) in the United Nations (2008) is deemed to be an interdisciplinary activity, that is centered on the planning of land use; determining the appropriate location and type of development to occur in these locations and identifying appropriate spatial measures associated with improving the functionality of existing physical structures or territory.

According to the United Nations (2018), spatial planning in essence is linked to the concept of sustainability which has been recognisable over the years with various international policies such as Agenda 21, Millennium Development Goals, and the Sustainable Development Goals for example. For the Food Organisation of the United Nations (2015) it intends to deliver economic, social, and environmental benefits by creating less volatile and predictable conditions for investment and development whilst advocating the case for securing community benefits associated with the development and promoting the productive and environmentally cognisant use of land. There are five overarching goals of spatial planning. According to the United Nations (2008), these include promoting democratic and meaningful governance that is associated with local community needs, facilitating social cohesion and security, promoting market reform in the housing and urban sector, securing private rights in land use, and bolstering land and real estate markets.

Todes and Turok (2017) state that the spatial planning system within South Africa is noted as comprising SDFs that have national, provincial, and municipal government directives. According to the EMM (2021/2022), the system inclusive of its spatial and investment tool in the form of an SDF prescribes development principles and standards that coordinate and guide development proceedings within the sphere of land use management and development. The Republic of South Africa (RSA) (2016) suggests that the system is hierarchical and ultimately filters into a land use management system associated with a town planning scheme which guides and coordinates orderly development through a predetermined development vision and land use guidelines prescribed by the overarching development guideline, i.e. SDF.

The United Nations (2008) suggests that six key principles form the key tenets of spatial planning include:

- **Democratic principle**- which centrally locates all government spheres in spatial planning procedures and decision-making processes aligned to legislation for the betterment of society ;
- **Subsidiarity principle**- which acknowledges that in some instances, decisions regarding planning matters may have to be made at the national level based on the merits of its significance to national, and provincial interests and the benefits associated therewith;

- **Participation principle**- which focuses on community involvement within the planning and decision-making process which ultimately filters into policy informants inclusive of a sense of ownership;
- **Integration principle**-which focuses on coordination and cross-sector alignment amongst different spheres of government thus rationalising often conflicting objectives between same for society (i.e. agricultural or environmental and development needs);
- **Proportionality principle**- which intends to ensure that government policies concerning spatial planning practices are both robust in so far as ensuring economic, social, and environmental development but are flexible enough to catalyse same and are not rigid in their mannerism; and the
- **Precautionary principle**- which ensures that all types of development inclusive of their impacts on the natural environment are carefully dealt with and expound on the mitigation measures associated to deal with same.

According to Oranje (2014), several requirements ought to be met for the successful implementation of the spatial planning system, particularly in developing countries. These as noted by the United Nations (2008) include the following:

- Achieving compatible mixed land uses and densities within the urban fabric provides several urban functions such as employment, housing, and social/service opportunities through settlement-making patterns that reduce the need to travel long distances to such opportunities. The efficient and optimal use of land also needs to be socially and environmentally cognizant.
- To promote urban regeneration in areas of urban decay, thus utilising existing infrastructural capacities inclusive of economic activities present therein and existing population densities to catalyse and unlock development opportunities in the form of compaction thus enabling access to social, economic, and environmental opportunities.
- To enable the support for sustainable human settlements through innovative mechanisms associated with financing, technological, and regulatory initiatives thus eliminating barriers towards investment and facilitating cooperative efforts and self-help initiatives.
- To deepen the democratic process and broaden participation whilst improving community involvement and building sustainable planning policies that advocate the case for community identity through the promotion of meeting spaces, public spaces, pedestrian networks, preservation of historic buildings, and attractive streetscapes.
- To cater to a range of cultural, food security, and recreational opportunities that duly respond to the diverse community needs through promoting the efficient use of natural

areas inclusive of areas of agricultural significance for passive recreation, agricultural and cultural purposes.

- To enable the bolstering of infrastructural developments which accommodate local community and investor needs whilst aligning same to environmental objectives thus increasing infrastructural capacity which is intended to cater for urban growth and intensification.
- To enable the efficient use of land inclusive of a sustainable transport system thus enabling the transport system to meet the challenges associated with urbanisation and sustain the competitiveness of the public transport system.

Kiper (2013) suggests that spatial planning's connotation concerning sustainable development tourism and eco-tourism was first noted around the 1980s. Sugiartia et al. (2020) note that spatial planning is an instrument for coordinating socio-economic development through preventative mechanisms which are anticipated to address environmental problems and simultaneously protect the natural and cultural environment. According to Barclay (2016), the key challenge and role of spatial planning in achieving the objectives of sustainability, sustainable development tourism, and eco-tourism may thus be deemed as threefold, namely ensuring the efficient use of land resources whilst ensuring balanced regional development inclusive of the use of natural resources through long term sustainable development practices.

3.3.5. Land use planning

Sampller (2012) states that land use planning is the process in which society, through its institutions earmarks and allocates land for various socio-economic activities such as agriculture, residential, industrial, and recreation within their associated areas of jurisdiction. The Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) (1995) in GIZ (2012) refers to land use planning as an iterative process based on discourse amongst all stakeholders to give effect to the concept of sustainable land uses inclusive of the monitoring of measures to realise the agreed-upon land uses.

The GIZ (1995) as cited by GIZ (2012) further notes that land use planning intends to create the preconditions to achieve a desirable spatial grouping or categorisation of land uses that are environmentally, socially, and economically sustainable which in turn enables a process of decision making and consensus building in relation to the utilisation of public and private land. RSA (2013, pgs. 12) within SPLUMA, describes "land use" as the legally authorised use of land in terms of the provisions of a land use scheme or "land use management system" which is a system of regulating, managing, and conferring land use rights on a parcel of land through the

utilisation of a land use scheme. According to GIZ (2012), the aforementioned land use planning definitions highlight that it is a technical and systematic process underpinned by a strong need for extending the participatory process. Nel (2015) states that land use planning draws its insights from spatial planning practices as the hierarchical nature of spatial plans filters into a site-specific plan in the form of a land use scheme that confers land use rights thereon. GIZ (2012, pgs. 31-32) and the United Nations (2008) highlight that the central principles relating to land use planning are as follows:

- It attempts to achieve the objectives of sustainability in so far as balancing social, economic, and environmental needs in the utilisation of land parcels.
- Through its complementary land use/zoning plan, it is licit in its roots with land-use rules as prescribed in the underlying town planning scheme and provides formal recognition of its applicability inclusive of legal implications for use of land.
- It is an all-inclusive process that requires social buy-in and representation of a plethora of stakeholders including public authorities, interested and affected parties, private developers, and Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), which are all brought into consideration to the public participation processes associated therewith.
- It has spatial implications and comprises the creation of spaces and places as it translates the spatial intentions of strategic or spatial planning into a more site-specific parcel of land and ensures optimum distribution of investment inclusive of the most adequate use of land whilst limiting land use conflict.
- Land use planning is based on a multi-sectoral approach it enables inter-disciplinary cooperation inclusive of sector coordination in the form of horizontal integration of which the diverse functions and use of land make it necessary to align to same.
- It promotes civic engagement as it enables the sustainability of plans through the involvement of the public in the planning and implementation process thus enabling the sourcing of local knowledge and traditional practices that can be integrated into the planning process for example. Land use planning thus requires both the public and experts to act hand in hand to achieve its objective.
- Land use planning is implementation orientated and considers how the negotiated decisions inclusive of the identified solutions are to be implemented. Furthermore, land use planning is also linked with financial planning which is central to its implementation thus requiring cognisance of designated uses, sector budgets, financial cycles of relevant sector departments, and investor confidence or appetite for example.

Barclay (2016) states that the principles prescribed by SPLUMA which include *spatial justice, spatial sustainability, efficiency, spatial resilience, and good administration* all inform policies and legislation; SDFs, land-use schemes, and ultimately land development applications in South Africa. According to RSA (2013), these development principles are intended to cater to inclusive, developmental, efficient, and equitable development across all three spheres of government whilst also advocating the case for addressing inherited past spatial imbalances. These principles are discussed at length in Chapter 4 of this dissertation.

The relevance of the concept of land use planning to the dissertation essentially emanates from the fact that eco-tourism destinations are centered on environmentally cognisant and sensitive land use activities. Land use planning and the control of the use of land through zoning are associated with the creation of complementary and harmonious land uses within a delineated eco-tourism destination.

3.4. Chapter Summary

The chapter has delved into the theoretical and conceptual framework applicable to the study. It has firstly given an account of strategic planning and communicative planning theories, as echoed by Turok and Watson (2001), which form the basis of plan creation at varying scales (i.e. national, provincial, local, etc), and the need to also incorporate the democratic and bottom-up approach to the planning process. Additionally, the chapter has also highlighted the criticisms associated with each theory inclusive of the relevance and applicability of the theory to the study. Secondly, in so far as the conceptual framework is concerned, it has highlighted the various concepts that are of importance to the study along with the chronology of events that shaped the emergence of each concept.

According to Oleg et al. (2020), the overarching concept of sustainability emanated as an outcome of the global concerns linked with unsustainable consumption patterns which had negative impacts on the natural environment. Drughì (2018) states that this has brought forth concepts such as sustainable development tourism and eco-tourism which are both tasked with creating a conducive setting for responsible and sensitive travel towards the natural environment which is synonymous with societal and economic development. In terms of spatial planning and land use planning, Zaman et al. (2012), note that these are linked to creating sustainable and environmentally responsible land use activities in eco-tourist destinations.

The dissertation will now proceed to Chapter Four which expands on the literature review, legal and policy framework, and precedent case studies.

4. CHAPTER FOUR: LITERATURE REVIEW

4.1. Introduction

This chapter comprises three broad sections. These include the *literature review*; *policy and legislative framework and precedent case studies*. The overall intention of this section, as articulated by Drughi (2018), is to demonstrate that the pursuit of sustainable development tourism and eco-tourism development in developing countries inclusive of the linkages to such destinations with accompanying spatial and land use plans are nothing out of kilter. Yeboah (2020) suggests that developing countries perceive eco-tourism development as a means to preserve the natural environment, catalyse local economic growth, and ultimately present social benefits for local communities near these destinations. Afenyo and Amuquandoh (2017) concur and state that such aspirations from developing countries are often underpinned by supporting legislation, policies, and plans that advocate the case for sustainable forms of tourism accompanied by spatial planning and land use planning responses to conserve these environments.

The chapter starts by giving an account of the literature review expounding on documented evidence and debates relating to eco-tourism, spatial planning, and land use planning, particularly in the developing world. Western Sydney University (2017) suggests that a literature review essentially intends to enable an understanding of the existing research and debates relevant to the research topic inclusive of the body of knowledge in the form of a written report.

The second component of this chapter is the policy and legislative framework comprises four sub-sections, including: ***-International Policies; the South African and Provincial Policy Framework; the South African and KZN Legislative Framework, and the Metropolitan Policy Framework*** which all have relevance to the study. The international policies speak to *Agenda 21 of 1992; the United Nations Kyoto Protocol of 1998 and the United Nations Partnership for Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) of 2012*. In terms of the South African and Provincial (KZN) Policy Framework, the study assesses the *White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa of 1996; the National Development Plan (NDP) of 2011; the Draft National Spatial Development Framework (SDF) of 2018, the KZN Provincial Growth Development Plan (PGDP) of 2013; and Provincial Growth Development Strategy (PGDS) of 2016*. The South African and Provincial Legislative Framework covers the *Subdivision of Agricultural Land Act 70 of 1970; the National Environmental Management Act (NEMA) Act 107 of 1998; Spatial Land Use Management Act (SPLUMA) No 16 of 2013 and the KZN Ingonyama Trust Act No. 3KZ of 1994*. Lastly, the

metropolitan policy framework unpacks the EMMs *Spatial Development Framework 2017/2018-2021/2022*; *the Outer West Spatial Development Framework (2013/2014)*, and *the Shongweni Local Area Plan (LAP) 2010*.

The chapter subsequently refocuses its efforts on giving an account of three identified eco-tourism destinations or precincts within the African context. This backdrop is pivotal in highlighting a broad theme in the pursuance of sustainable development and eco-tourism development in developing countries. The three elected African precedent case studies include the *iSimangaliso Wetland Park (ISWP) of KZN, South Africa*; *the Maasai Mara of Narok and Trans Mara Council, Kenya* and *the Fayoum Oasis of the Fayoum Governorate, Egypt*. In conclusion, the section provides a summary of the outcomes and findings whilst providing a backdrop for unpacking the pertinent information relating to the selected study area.

4.2. Literature Review

Sugiarti and Sunarto (2017) state that the relationship between eco-tourism development, spatial planning, and land use planning is inseparable. According to Pearce (1989) as cited by Harrison (2008) eco-tourism destinations are areas of environmental, historical, and archaeological significance, that are generally accompanied by sustainable development practices associated with environmentally sensitive land use activities. Amoaka-Atta et al (2019) suggest that spatial; and land use planning's core function is maximising the positive benefits associated with these spatial entities and minimizing the negative social, economic, and environmental impacts of tourism. In this regard, Zaman et al. (2012) note that spatial planning and land-use planning create the preconditions for such areas to thrive through the provision of infrastructure (i.e. roads), the organisation of space inclusive of a set of land-use guidelines associated with compatible land-use practices.

The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) (2019, pg. 1) state that travel and tourism, as a sector, was the second-biggest global Gross Domestic Product (GDP) contributor in 2018. Globally, it accounted for 3.9% and was followed by the construction sector which comprises a total of 3.4% of total GDP contribution. According to Trading Economics (nd), Africa is ranked as the fourth growing economy in terms of the travel and tourism sector as it accounts for a 5.6% GDP growth contribution globally and is led by China which has a 7.3-10.5% growth rate within the same segment in 2018. Tiffin et al. (2008) as cited by Magio et al (2013) along with Hirotsune (2011) advance that eco-tourism, as an alternative to mass tourism, was identified as the fastest-growing form of tourism with an estimated growth rate of 10-15%. Pinosof (2009) concurred and anticipated that sustainable tourism and eco-tourism could grow to

approximately 25% of the world's travel market by 2014, which would generate approximately \$46 billion on a global scale. The WTTC (2021) states that Covid 19 brought the tourist sector to a standstill, with an international travel ban occurring from 2020 to 2021. The UNWTO (2020) concurs and suggests that the impacts of Covid 19 put approximately 100 million jobs within the tourism sector at direct risk with women, youth, and workers in the informal economy amongst the most at risk. According to the WTTC (2021) with the ease of these restrictions and the travel ban being lifted, in 2022, it is anticipated that tourism on a global scale will slowly mimic the aforementioned trends before the travel ban.

Harrison (2008) and Drughi (2018) state that developing countries, within the globalised economic context, perceive eco-tourism as a panacea to ensuring the conservation and protection of environmentally and historically significant areas whilst also improving the living conditions of adjacent inhabitants in terms of health, education, and increasing the levels of income. Rodriguez (2010) as cited by Magio et al. (2013) suggests that the implementation of eco-tourism development in developing countries has been often marred with challenges and obstacles. Chellan and Khan (2008) assert that such challenges for developing countries include the coerced removals of the marginalised in these areas which in turn undermines land rights including social and historical linkages associated with these areas. Interestingly, Agyeman and Obour (2015) state that within the context of developing countries, the adoption of eco-tourism is often underpinned by a lack of understanding and capacity constraints concerning implementation and is often flawed as to how it would present the social, environmental, and economic benefits it promises especially to surrounding communities near these destinations. Similarly, Kenawy and Shaw (2014) agree and advance that the inclusion of eco-tourism in developing countries is ironically characterised by environmental degradation through consistent efforts to meet economic development; followed by a lack of understanding and uncertainty in implementation associated with environmental, tourism, and spatial plans; and often divergent developmental aspirations from key authorities or sector departments within the eco-tourism realm. Magio et al. (2013) suggest that the drive towards the incorporation of eco-tourism developments in developing countries is met with limited evidence highlighting the socio-economic benefits for local communities coinciding with language barriers and a lack of understanding or consultation in the preparation of eco-tourism plans, especially for the marginalised and surrounding communities.

According to Ramzy (2013), a useful starting point in understanding the emergence of some of the highlighted challenges or issues for developing countries stems from the conceptual framework of sustainability from which eco-tourism, spatial planning, and land use planning draw inspiration. Yttredal and Homlong (2020) indicate that sustainability is deemed to be an

oxymoron or a paradox as there are several definitions associated with the concept, which inherently creates confusion concerning the implementation of the sustainability agenda for governments in the realm of policymaking, legislation, and ultimately implementation. This, in turn, stimulates a general confusion or lack of consensus in terms of what effectively constitutes sustainability or its desired end goal. Dimitrov (2010, pg. 3) reiterates this and states that:- *“sustainability definitions range from the rhetoric to reality; whether they elucidate a common concern or whether they identify a critical issue – it is not always clear what exactly is being sustained”*. Farley (2007) in a book review further suggests that sustainability is a wicked problem, where various definitions of the concept share similarities but do not look into the same goals and objectives. Kiper (2013) asserts that eco-tourism suffers the same fate and comprises various definitions which lead to misinterpretation and a lack of understanding, especially in its development and implementation. Bedelian (2012) suggests that one cannot remain aloof to the dynamics of resources and power as most eco-tourism; sustainability; environmental and; spatial and land use plans are used by private sector investors and international conglomerates who have the resources to exploit its economic spinoffs. For Chiutsi et al. (2011), this consequently requires a deeper democratic process, further putting in actionable institutional arrangements and policy frameworks that speak to the power relations and how the marginalised are incorporated into eco-tourism development, spatial planning, and land use planning processes.

According to Pinsof (2009), Bedelian (2015), and Kenawy (2015), despite the highlighted challenges, the pursuance of eco-tourism development in developing countries is not out of kilter in developing countries such as South Africa, Kenya, and Egypt. Kenawy and Shaw (2014) suggest that its pursuance is more linked with underlying legislative and policy instruments which speak to mechanisms associated with unlocking environmental, social, and economic development.

This chapter will now present the policy and legislative framework applicable to eco-tourism and spatial and land use planning.

4.3. Policy and Legislative Framework

4.3.1. International Policies

4.3.1.1. Agenda 21 of 1992

According to the United Nations (1992), Agenda 21, is a global action plan that stemmed from the United Nations Conference on Environmental and Development (UNCED) (i.e. Rio de

Janeiro Earth Summit) held on 3 June 1992 which focused on sustainable development within the context of the 21st century. It forms part of the “*global partnerships*” concerning encouraging cooperation amongst all nations inclusive of their associated governments to make the necessary strides towards protecting the environment and promoting economic growth. The Asian Development Bank (2012) notes that whilst it is accepted that the policy is not legally binding as it lacks the enforcement of international law, it has been, adopted by approximately 178 governments across the globe at the Earth Summit. According to the United Nations (1992) and Edmundson (2019), the plan attempts to come up with various strategies to tackle economic disparities between nations, issues of poverty, food security, deterioration of ecosystems, and ultimately ensure the integration of the environment and development concerns to improve the living standards for all. The Sustainable Development Goals Knowledge Platform (nd) states that in essence, Agenda 21 intends to address the current pressing global issues whilst also enabling a systematic approach toward preparing the world for the challenges of the next century by involving governments in creating national strategies, policies, and plans which are aligned to the sustainability agenda.

The action plan, a 350-page document, contains an inventory of strategies that would lend themselves useful towards tackling global issues inclusive of the means to implementation, which may be utilised by governments in each country. According to the United Nations (1992), the strategies are grouped within three sections of the document with the last section detailing how these may be implemented and are summarised as follows:

Section I: Social and Economic Dimensions (Chapters 2-8) relates to the establishment of international cooperation amongst governments with specific reference to creating policy instruments to accelerate sustainable development in developing countries, combating poverty, changing consumption patterns, promoting sustainable human settlement development and integrating the environment and development in the decision-making processes.

Section II: Conservation and Management of Resources for Development (Chapters 9-22) advocates the case for the protection of the atmosphere, an integrated approach within the planning and land resource sector, combating deforestation, managing fragile ecosystems, promoting sustainable agricultural and rural development practices and conservation of biodiversity amongst other things.

Section III: Strengthening the Role of Major Groups (Chapters 23-32) focuses on calling for global action in so far as integrating women, children, and youth in sustainable and equitable development is concerned. The chapter also advocates the case for recognising and

strengthening the role of indigenous people and their communities, creating partnerships amongst non-governmental organisation in the drive towards sustainable development, and centrally locating local authorities in supporting the plan.

Section IV: Means of Implementation (Chapters 33-40) examines the basic resources necessary to push forward a global partnership for sustainable development and encapsulates how the aforementioned strategies and principles ought to be implemented. It further expands on the financial resources and mechanisms, the transfer of environmentally sound technology, capacity building and education within developing countries, the science behind sustainable development, international legal instruments, and mechanisms amongst other things (United Nations, 1992).

The UK Essays (2018) suggest that the relevance of this plan to the study pivots on the acknowledgment that sustainable development practices must filter into eco-tourism development, spatial, and land use planning. Essentially, for Emundson (2019), the plan provides a bedrock for meeting the social, environmental, and economic imperatives of development whilst also demonstrating thorough cognisance of the voices of the marginalised (i.e. women and youth for example) and incorporating such individuals into the development process.

4.3.1.2. United Nations Kyoto Protocol of 1998

According to the United Nations (2018), the Kyoto Protocol is an agreement between developed countries from the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) to impose binding limits on the emissions of Green House Gases (GHG) aligned with minimising the impacts of climate change and global warming. The protocol was adopted at the Third Conference of Parties to UNFCCC (COP 3) in Japan, Kyoto on the 11th of December 1997 (UNFCCC, 2011). The protocol entered into effect on the 16th of February 2005 due to a complex set of ratification processes associated with tasks and specific objectives linked to each country within the agreement (United Nations Climate Change, nd). According to the United Nations (2018), under the rubric of the Kyoto Protocol, 37 industrialised countries along with the European community committed themselves to limit GHGs between 2008 to 2012. Annexure I of the protocol lists all the countries to which the protocol applies whilst quantifying the emissions limitation or reduction commitment average of 5% per annum. For example, these emission reduction rates range from 92-110% for countries such as Germany (92%); the United States of America (93%), and Iceland (110%) amongst others (United Nations, 1998). The United Nations Framework Convention on

Climate Change (2011) suggests that the Kyoto Protocol document comprises 28 articles that set out the responsibilities and tasks associated with each country concerning their commitment to the reduction of GHGs. The United Nations (1998, pg. 2) notes that *Article 2* promotes sustainable development concerning achieving the specified objectives of GHG reduction which calls for the implementation and further elaboration of policies and measures by national circumstances such as:

- a) Improvement of energy efficiency in various sectors of the national economy;
- b) Fortification and enhancement of basins and reservoirs of greenhouse gases that are not controlled by the Montreal Protocol, thus taking cognisance of each country's commitments under relevant international environmental agreements; promotion of sustainable forest management practices inclusive of afforestation and reforestation mechanisms;
- c) Promotion of sustainable agriculture in line with the impacts of global warming and climate change considerations;
- d) Investigations on new forms of sustainable development along with renewable forms of energy and carbon dioxide sequestration technologies whilst calling for innovative environmentally sound technologies;
- e) Advancement of appropriate reforms in relevant sectors through promoting policies and measures that reduce GHG emissions; and
- f) Reduction of methane emissions through the promotion of recovery and use in waste management in the production, transport, and distribution of energy.

In terms of land use, *Article 3*, paragraphs 3 and 4 advocates the case for land use, land-use change, and forestry activities that are aligned with sustainable development practices (UNFCCC 2008). The United Nations (1998) states that *Paragraph 3* of the protocol suggests that the net variations in GHGs by sources resulting from direct human-induced land-use change and forestry activities, restricted to afforestation, reforestation, and deforestation since 1990, quantified as verifiable transmutations in carbon stocks in each commitment period, shall be adapted to meet the commitments of each country under Annexure I. Furthermore, *Paragraph 4* calls for the establishment of guidelines and rules between the listed countries of Annexure I, which speak to additional human-related activities related to changes in GHGs through sources and removals by sinks in the agricultural soils and land-use change and forestry categories which shall either be added or subtracted from the prescribed limitation or reduced rate of GHGs (UNFCCC, 2008). According to the Guardian (2011) advances that whilst some countries and regions, have met or exceeded their Kyoto goals, the United States and China were the largest emitters of GHGs which was enough to nullify the global progress made by the other regions. The United Nations

(2018) state that this has inherently led to a further expanded goal horizon to 2012-2020 which further imposes stricter requirements and tasks for each country to meet their emissions limitation targets. Torres (2012) states that the Kyoto protocol is relevant to the study as it advocates the case for cleaner energy in the face of global warming and climate change. The same sentiments are reiterated in ecotourism developments that call for greener forms of energy and agricultural productivity tasked with reducing GHG.

4.3.1.3. *United Nations Partnerships for Sustainable Development Goals of 2012*

The United Nations (2015, pg. 2) suggests that sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) also referred to as “*Global Goals for Sustainable Development*” are geared toward addressing global challenges such as poverty, inequality, climate change, and environmental degradation amongst others. Stats SA (2017, pg. 8) notes that SDGs build on the bedrock of Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by attempting to ensure a balance in the uneven experience of MDGs as it was notable that certain geographic regions such as Africa were lagging in so far as development is concerned. The United Nations (2015) to this end indicate that SDGs are tasked with enabling an environment for various institutional partnerships and ensuring that all forms of poverty and development issues are globally eradicated by the year 2030.

According to the EMM (2017-2022), SDGs are unique in that they call for action globally from all countries inclusive of the developed and less developed countries to promote prosperity while protecting the planet for a **15-year time horizon**. Furthermore, according to Stats SA (2017), SDGs are cognizant of the fact that ending poverty requires strategies that build economic growth and addresses a range of social needs including education, health, social protection, and job opportunities, whilst also addressing the implications of climate change and protecting the environment. The United Nations (2015, pg. 1) states that SDGs were birthed from the United Nations Sustainable Development Summit which was held over three days in New York, 25-27 September 2015. In anticipation of the Summit, the UN Secretariat, through its Division for Sustainable Development of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA-DSD), established the Partnerships for SDGs, an online platform to catalyse partnerships and engagement in support of sustainable development goals. Hitherto, such a platform comprises approximately 1800 institutional partnerships and initiatives aligned to the promotion of SDGs through the establishment of over 40 strategies and projects specifically tasked with achieving each goal contained therein (StatsSA, 2017). The United Nations (2015, pgs. 3-13) acknowledges that whilst SDGs are not legally binding, it has been recommended that all governments take ownership and establish national frameworks for the achievement of the 17 Goals emphasized therein. It is prudent to note that within a local government context in South Africa, SDFs have generally demonstrated alignment with their development principles and

guidelines with each of the SDGs, that is in the EMM's 2017/2022 SDF and Msunduzi SDF Review (2017/2018) for example. Saliently, the United Nations (2015, pg. 3-13) captures the 17 Goals as follows (See Figure 6: Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs):

Figure 6: Sustainable Development Goals



Sources: United Nations (2015, pg. 3-13)

4.3.2. South African and Provincial Policy Framework

4.3.2.1. White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa of 1996

The White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa was established in democratic South Africa, in 1996. The Republic of South Africa (RSA) (1996) indicates that the document intended to reposition the country in a global economic context as a tourism destination coupled with its favourable conditions such as accessibility to wildlife and oceans, sunny climate, varied and renowned scenery, unspoiled wilderness, and diverse cultures. According to the RSA Department of Tourism (2016), the vision of the white paper is to develop tourism as a national priority sustainably and acceptably in line with positive contributions and improvement to the quality of life of all South Africa's citizens. The Republic of South Africa (RSA) (1996) suggests that the guiding principles associated with the materialisation of the document's vision include:

- Private sector-driven tourism development;
- The establishment of an enabling framework by government-aligned to ensure a flexible and successful tourism industry;
- Strong community involvement is the bedrock that is a stimulus for tourism growth;
- Sustainable environmental practices linked with tourism development;
- Tourism development is associated with strong cooperation and partnerships between key stakeholders;
- The use of tourism as a development tool aligned with the empowerment of previously neglected and marginalised communities with a robust focus on the empowerment of women in such communities;
- Close cooperation with other states within Southern Africa that are aligned with tourism development; and
- They support the economic, social, and environmental goals and policies of the government within the tourism arena.

The foundation set by the white paper has enabled the establishment of the National Tourism Development Strategy (2015) within South Africa. According to the Republic of South Africa (RSA) (2015) the document, as the forerunner to the white paper, similarly echoes the case for globally positioning South Africa as a tourist destination whilst also enabling a conducive environment for stakeholder partnerships, environmentally sound tourism practices, and setting 5-year targets from a GDP attainment perspective in the tourism arena amongst other things.

The white paper is acknowledged as a key policy informant in so far as environmentally and socially aware development practices within the tourism sector are concerned.

4.3.2.2. *National Development Plan (NDP) of 2011*

The National Development Plan (NDP) is a long-term national plan established in 2011. The NDP (2011), amongst other things intends to ensure a decent standard of living for all South Africans through the advocacy of social, economic, and spatial strategies geared towards the elimination of poverty and reduction of inequality by 2030. The South African Government (2020) states that the plan emanates from the acknowledgment that South Africa, despite its liberation from the draconian apartheid regime and being a democratic country with various opportunities, there are various underlying development challenges therein. According to the NDP (2011, pg. 3), the main challenges in the country include:-

1. *“Too few people work.*
2. *The quality of school education for black people is poor.*
3. *Infrastructure is poorly located, inadequate, and under-maintained.*
4. *Spatial divides hobble inclusive development.*
5. *The economy is unsustainably resourced intensive.*
6. *The public health system cannot meet demand or sustain quality.*
7. *Public services are uneven and often of poor quality.*
8. *Corruption levels are high.*
9. *South Africa remains a divided society.”*

The NDP (2011, pgs. 4-6) further suggests that the core elements of a decent standard of living include: - housing, water, electricity, and sanitation; safe and reliable public transport; quality education and skills development; employment; safety and security; quality health care; ensuring a transition to a low carbon economy and food security; and social protection amongst other things. A set of normative principles tasked with bringing its vision to fruition along with meeting its requirement for a *“decent standard of living”* are advanced by the plan. The NDP (2011, pg. 246) states that these principles comprise ***spatial justice, spatial sustainability, spatial quality, and spatial efficiency.***

4.3.2.3. *The Draft National Spatial Development Framework (NSDF) 2018*

The Draft National Spatial Development Framework (NSDF) 2018 is a national spatial response, under the South African democratic dispensation, linked with reversing the spatial

imbalances inherited from the impacts of colonial and apartheid planning (RSA, 2018). According to the Republic of South Africa (RSA) (2018, pg. 57), the plan, aligned with the provisions of Chapter 2 of the Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act (SPLUMA) No. 16 of 2013 and the NDP (2011) envisions that: *“All Our People Living in Shared and Transformed Places in an Integrated, Inclusive, Sustainable and Competitive National Space Economy”*.

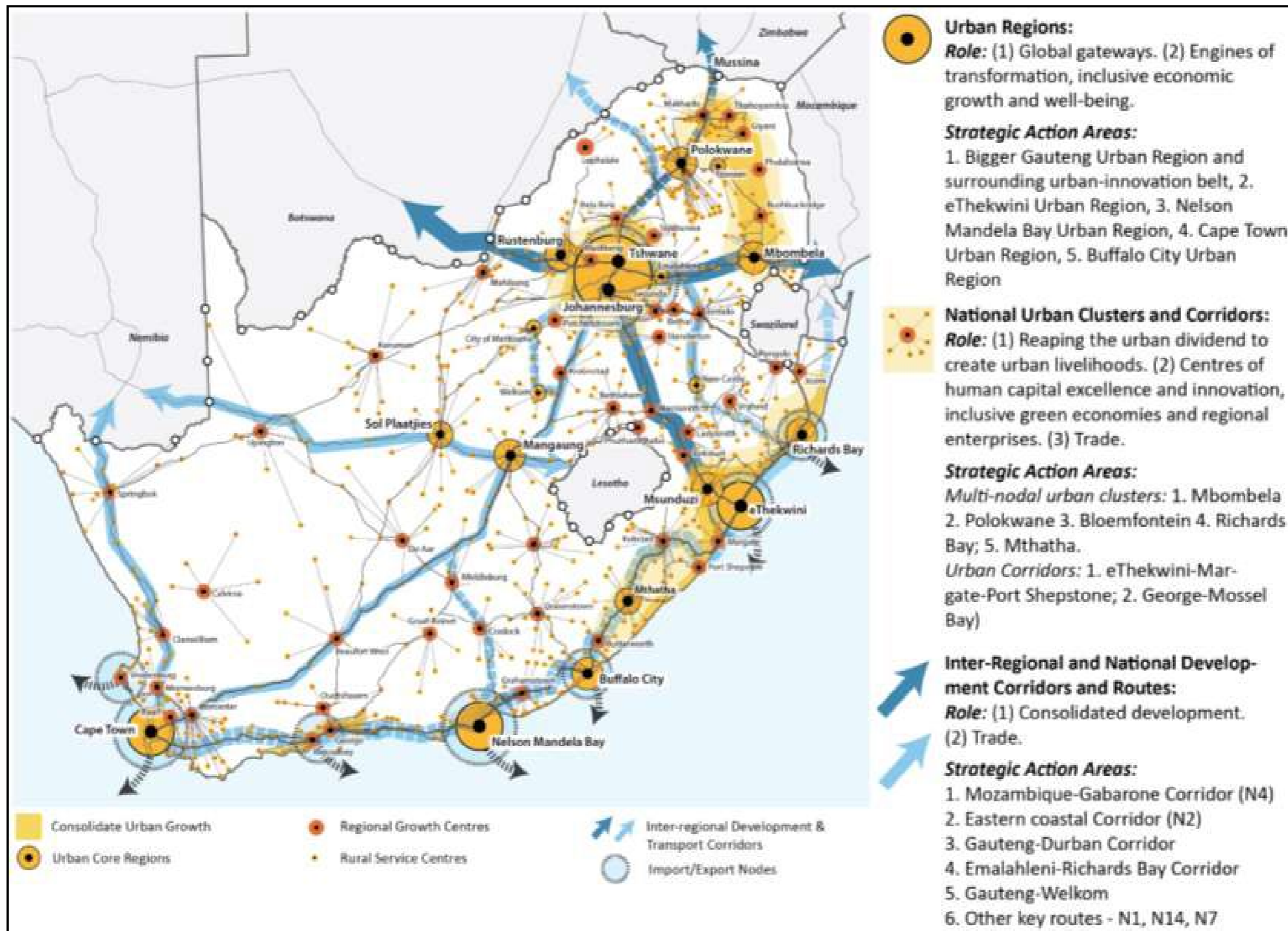
Aligned with such a vision, the NSDF advances a set of frames that advocate the desired spatial form of the country in line with a projected deadline goal of the year 2050. SATPLAN (2017) suggests that the frame’s overall objective is to inform and guide all future infrastructure investment and development spending decisions by both government and the private sector. According to the Republic of South Africa (RSA) (2018), the frames also intend to catalyse the elected set of nationally significant areas thus coordinating and guiding investment in and around these areas whilst creating a monitoring and evaluation framework against the elected objectives and investment projects whilst also protecting and enhancing the natural environment. RSA (2018) states that the frames which are of relevance to the study, as encapsulated in Chapter 6 of the NSDF, are as follows:

- a) **Frame 1: Urban Regions, Clusters, and Development Corridors as Engines of National Transformation and Economic Growth-** promotes and proposes the development of a robust and well-functioning polycentric system that consists of better-connected urban areas amongst functional urban areas and corridors. Within the broader South African context, urban areas are intended to offer a wider range of high order medical, educational, and other social amenities inclusive of consisting of nodes and corridors that act as gateways for trade, tourism, and national political functions. Furthermore, urban-rural nodes are intended to act as regional development anchors accompanied by significant rural-regional reach in so far as the economy, tourism, services, and administrative functions are concerned (Refer to Figure 7: Critical Role and Strategic Focus Areas: Mapped Urban Regions, Clusters and Development Corridors).
- b) **Frame 3: National Ecological Infrastructure System as enabling infrastructure for a shared and sustainable resource foundation-** acknowledges the impacts of climate change and its associated impacts and calls for the restoration and management of national freshwater bodies, and strategic water source production areas. This in turn is anticipated to create water availability, ensure food security, sustainable economic development, and promote the national well-being. These areas of water sources are noted to form part of ecosystem services that support long-term ecological functioning landscapes inclusive of the establishment and protection of ecological infrastructural services that provide

ecological services to the country's citizenry. The frame also reiterates the role of National Protected Areas; *Strategic Water Resource Management Areas*; *International and National Resource Conservation and Regional Landscape Scale Natural Areas*; along with *Critical Biodiversity Areas (CBAs)* in line with the objectives of sustainable development and the protection of the natural environment (See Figure 8: Critical Role and Strategic Focus Areas-Mapping of National Ecological Infrastructure System as Enabling Infrastructure for a Shared and Sustainable Resource Foundation).

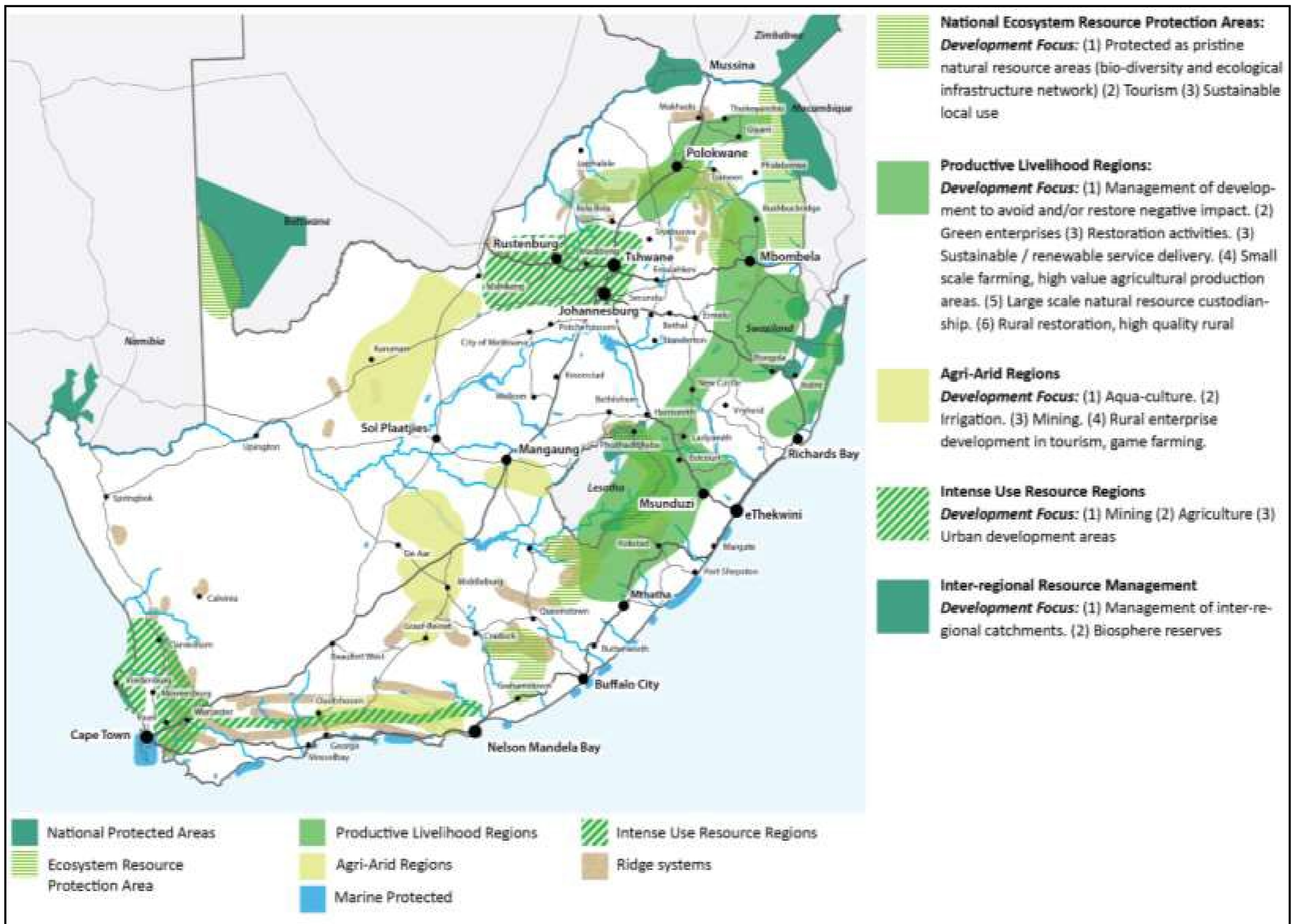
- c) ***Frame 5: National Social Service and Settlement Infrastructure System in support of national well-being-*** which focuses on the consolidation of settlements along with the optimal provision and location of services, particularly in rural areas. The frame also advances the need for maintenance, increasing the service reach whilst promoting the efficiencies of scale, agglomeration of activities, and trade. The central pillar of the frame includes the development of urban-rural anchors and smaller service centers that are well equipped with appropriate level services to their accompanying range and scale.

Figure 7: Critical Role and Strategic Focus Areas-Mapped Urban Regions, Clusters, and Development Corridors



Source: RSA, (2018, pg. 66)

Figure 8: Critical Role and Strategic Focus Area-national ecological infrastructure system as enabling infrastructure for shared and sustainable resource foundation



Source: RSA (2018, pg. 91)

4.3.2.4. KZN Provincial Growth Development Plan (PGDP) of 2013

The KZN PGDP (2013, pg. 11) envisions that “by 2030 KZN will be a prosperous province with a healthy, secure and skilled population, acting as a gateway to Africa and the world.” Aligned with this vision, the PGDP supports itself with the concept of sustainable development which consists of environmental sensitivity, economic potential, social need, and urban accessibility as key supporting pillars. Therefore, the PGDP (2013, pg. 12) advances a set of principles and strategic objectives birthed from the concept of sustainable development which may be summarised as follows:

- a) **Job Creation** intends to unleash the agricultural sector; enhance sectoral development through trade & investment; improve the efficiency of government-led job creation programs; promote SMME & entrepreneurial development; and develop the knowledge base to enhance the Knowledge Economy.
- b) **Human Resource Development** intends to improve early childhood development and primary and secondary education; support skills alignment to economic growth; and enhance youth skills development & lifelong learning.
- c) **Human and Community Development focus on** poverty alleviation & social welfare; enhancing the health of communities and citizens; enhancing sustainable household food security; sustainable human settlements; safety & security; and social capital.
- d) **Strategic Infrastructure** focuses on the development of harbours; development of airports; development of road & rail networks; development of information, communication, and technology infrastructure; improvement of water resource management and supply, and Improve Energy Production and Supply
- e) **Environmental Sustainability** intends to increase the productive use of land; advance alternative energy generation and reduce reliance on fossil fuels; manage pressures on biodiversity and adapt to climate change.
- f) **Governance and Policy** intend to strengthen policy, strategy coordination & intergovernmental relations; build government capacity, and eradicate fraud & corruption; and Promote Participative, Facilitative & Accountable Governance.
- g) **Spatial Equity** intends to actively promote spatial concentration and coordination of development activities; and achieve effective spatial planning and land management systems that may be applied across the province.

4.3.2.5. KZN Provincial Growth Development Strategy (PGDS) of 2016

Similar to the KZN PGDP, the KZN PGDS (2016, pg. 85) envisions that “by 2035 KZN will be a prosperous Province with a healthy, secure and skilled population, acting as a gateway to Africa

and the World". The PGDS (2016, pg. 89) advances a Strategic Framework to duly assist in achieving the advanced vision. The associated Strategic Framework may be summarised as follows:

Table 2: KZN PGDS strategic goals and objectives

STRATEGIC GOAL	No	STRATEGIC OBJECTIVE 2016
1 INCLUSIVE ECONOMIC	1.1	Develop and promote the agricultural potential of KZN
	1.2	Enhance sectoral development through business retention and trade
	1.3	Enhance spatial economic development
	1.4	Improve the efficiency, innovation, and variety of government-led-job creation
	1.5	Promote SMME and entrepreneurial development
	1.6	Enhance the Knowledge Economy
2 HUMAN RESOURCE	2.1	Improve early childhood development, primary and secondary education
	2.2	Support skills development to economic growth
	2.3	Enhance youth and adult skills development and life-long learning
3 HUMAN AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT	3.1	Eradicate poverty and improve social welfare services
	3.2	Enhance the health of communities and citizens
	3.3	Safeguard and enhance sustainable livelihoods and food security
	3.4	Promote sustainable human settlements
	3.5	Enhance safety and security
	3.6	Advance social cohesion and social capital
	3.7	Promote youth, gender, and disability advocacy and the advancement of women
4 STRATEGIC INFRASTRUCTURE	4.1	Development of seaports and airports
	4.2	Develop road and rail networks
	4.3	Develop ICT infrastructure
	4.4	Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all
	4.5	Ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable, and modern energy for all
	4.6	Enhance KZN waste management capacity
5 ENVIRONMENTAL	5.1	Enhance the resilience of ecosystem services
	5.2	Unlock the green economy
	5.3	Adapt and respond to climate change
6 GOVERNANCE AND POLICY	6.1	Strengthen policy, strategy coordination and IGR
	6.2	Build government capacity
	6.3	Eradicate fraud and corruption
	6.4	Promote participative, facilitative, and accountable governance
7 SPATIAL EQUITY	7.1	Enhance the resilience of new and existing cities, towns, and rural nodes, ensuring equitable access to resources, social and economic opportunities
	7.2	Ensure integrated land management use across the province, ensuring equitable access to goods and services, attracting social and financial

Source: PGDS (2016)

4.3.4. South African and Provincial Legislative and Framework

4.3.4.1. Subdivision of Agricultural Land Act 70 of 1970

The Subdivision of Agricultural Land Act 70 of 1970 (Act 70 of 70) came into operation on 2 January 1971. In terms of its preamble, the intention of the act is “*to control the subdivision and, in connection therewith, the use of agricultural land*” (RSA 1970, pg. 1). According to Nagel (2016) the subdivision of agricultural land is subject to consent from the Minister of Agriculture, now referred to as the Department of Agriculture Forestry and Fisheries (DAFF) as prescribed within Section 4 of the act.

Act 70 of 70 defines agricultural land as any land, except land, which falls within the jurisdiction of a town-planning scheme, the traditional council in terms of the provisions of the Ingonyama Trust Land Act, land owned by the state or land which forms part of an established township for example. Section 2 of the Act prescribes instances in which land parcels are exempt from its provisions. The instances in which such land parcels are exempt include the subdivision, sale, or transfer of land to the state or government entity; the passing of an undivided share of any land following a contract entered before the commencement of the act; any subdivision of any land in connection with which a surveyor has completed the relevant survey and submitted the relevant sub-divisional diagram inclusive of the accompanying survey records for approval to the surveyor-general before the commencement of the Act (RSA, 1970).

According to Nagel (2016) and the Free Market Foundation (2018) in its 45 years of existence, the Act has given rise not only to a plethora of litigation, but its provisions and the court decisions given in terms of it have been cited, noted, referred to, or applied and distinguished in more than 40 reported cases of the High Courts. However, the provisions of the act remain relevant as most developments on land parcels that do not fall under a land use scheme and are outside the auspices of ITB, require approval from the minister in terms of the provisions of the act (RSA, 1970).

4.3.4.2. National Environmental Management Act (NEMA) Act 107 of 1998

The role of the environment inclusive of the imperative and right to a non-harmful environment for all citizens was prescribed in, Section 24 of the South African Constitution (RSA 1994). Consequently, as an outcome, emerged the legal framework in terms of the National Environmental Management Act (NEMA) (107 of 1998) which sets out various mechanisms to protect the natural environment with the government centrally located in achieving the same. NEMA is an environmental management legislation in South Africa and globally that assists in

providing the necessary framework as far as decision making for individuals, institutions, and governments are concerned with specific reference to the implications of development on the environment (Gondwana Environmental Solutions 2016). RSA (1998) suggests that the NEMA principles as encapsulated in Chapter 1 are as follows:

- To act as the overall framework within which environmental management and implementation plans are formulated.
- To provide a guideline and reference point to which any organ of state must exercise their associated functions concerning decision-making in terms of the provisions of the Act. To ensure that environmental management places the needs of citizens at the forefront inclusive of physical, developmental cultural, and social interests equitably.
- Any harmful development impacts incurred on the natural environment inclusive of remedying pollution, environmental degradation, or adverse health impacts must be paid for by those responsible for the same.
- Development must align itself to the core principles of sustainability and be socially, environmentally, and economically sustainable.
- The promotion of specific attention in the management and planning procedures relating to sensitive and vulnerable ecosystems (i.e. highly valuable vegetation, coastal shores, wetlands, estuaries, etc), particularly in the context of increased human resource usage and development pressure.

The Act, according to the Republic of South Africa (1998) defines the “environment” as the interaction between surroundings and humans which includes land, water, air, atmosphere, and water for example inclusive of the interrelationship between all organisms and their immediate surroundings. This is the context in which such a broad conceptualisation of the environment ties into the concept of Integrated Environmental Management (IEM) which is typically associated with Environmental Impact Assessments (EIA). The Department of Environmental Affairs (DEA) (1992, pg. 5) as cited by the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT) (2004, pg. 8) notes that IEM as a concept is *“designed to ensure that the environmental consequences of development proposals are understood and adequately considered.... The purpose of IEM is to resolve or mitigate any negative impacts and to enhance positive aspects of development proposals”*. The act sets out the provisions for the preservation of the environment and sustainable development in so far as:-

- National environmental management principles;
- Institutions inclusive of their role and procedures for cooperative governance in facilitating the protection of the environment and sustainable development;

- Decision-making and conflict management procedures;
- IEM;
- International obligations and agreements underpinning the act;
- Compliance and enforcement/administration of the act and specific environmental management acts amongst other things (RSA, 1998).

4.3.4.3. *Spatial Land Use Management Act (SPLUMA) No 16 of 2013*

SPLUMA is an overarching development framework that sets out the legal mechanics inclusive of land development principles concerning spatial planning and land use management within the jurisdiction of South Africa. The Kwa Zulu Natal (KZN) Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs (CoGTA) (2019) suggests that SPLUMA was established for the following reasons:

- An acknowledgment that South Africa's space economy had largely been recognised as comprising of inherited structuring elements as a consequence of apartheid legislation which gave effect to key tenets of red-lining, infrastructural/housing backlogs, mono-functional housing, and environmental degradation amongst others;
- The recognition that South Africa's planning law system comprises various elements of duplication and fragmentation which subsequently called for a uniform legal framework to govern land development and give effect to the constitutional dispensation and imperatives; and
- The decision upheld by the constitutional court as echoed in the supreme courts of South Africa that the establishment of provincial tribunals acting as decision-making authorities in planning-related matters is unconstitutional, i.e. in the *City of Johannesburg vs The Gauteng Tribunal*, CCT 89/09 ZCC11. In this court case, it was established that the Gauteng Tribunal approved two land development applications that were in direct conflict with the municipality's Spatial Development Framework (SDF). The constitutional court advanced that the provisions of the Development Facilitation Act No. 7 of 1995, namely Chapters 5 and 6, which granted the Tribunal to approve land development applications outside the municipality's scope, were unconstitutional.

Within its permeable, according to the Republic of South Africa (RSA) (2013, pg. 3), the act states that its intention amongst other things is to:- *".provide a framework for spatial planning and land use management in the Republic; to provide for the inclusive, developmental, equitable and efficient spatial planning at the different spheres of government; to provide a*

framework for policies, principles, norms, and standards for spatial development planning and land use management; to address past spatial and regulatory imbalances....”

Section 8, as set out by the Republic of South Africa (RSA) (2013) of the act, summarises the development principles which are anticipated to inform development proceedings within South Africa as follows:

- a) **The principle of spatial justice-** promotes the need to address inherited spatial imbalances and improve access to a variety of land uses. The principle focuses on facilitating development frameworks and land-use schemes for areas previously excluded from a town planning scheme, i.e. rural areas.
- b) **The principle of spatial sustainability-** advocates the case for limiting urban sprawl, focusing developments into areas of key development potential in so far as existing infrastructural capacities are concerned. The principle also focuses on ensuring that developments proceed within the fiscal, and institutional means of the country whilst also promoting spatial planning and land use management systems that enable the protection of the environment inclusive of valuable agricultural land.
- c) **The principle of efficiency promotes-** land development that is consistent with the optimisation of existing resources and infrastructure inclusive of decision-making procedures regarding land developments that minimise negative financial, social-economic, and environmental impacts.
- d) **The principle of spatial resilience-** advocates the case for flexibility in spatial plans policies and land use management systems thus ensuring the sustainability of livelihoods of communities that are most likely to be affected by the impacts of environmental and economic shocks.
- e) **The principle of good administration** intends to ensure an integrated approach to coordinating land use and land development amongst all spheres of government that is enabled by the spatial planning and land use management systems prescribed therein (RSA 2013).

According to KZN COGTA (2019), since the act has been enacted, 14 local municipalities have developed single land-use schemes out of 44 within the province of KZN.

4.3.4.4. KZN Ingonyama Trust Act No. 3KZ of 1994

The Ingonyama Trust Board (ITB) (2018) was established in democratic South Africa by the erstwhile KZN Government, a historically self-governed entity. The Act was enacted in terms of the KZN Ingonyama Trust Act, (Act No 3KZ of 1994) to ensure that all land hitherto owned or

under the ownership of the KZN Government remained intact and under the same ownership. According to the Republic of South Africa (RSA) (1994, pg. 2), the Trust intends to hold land for *“the benefit, material welfare and social well-being of the members of the tribes and communities living on the land”* as contemplated in Section 2 (2) in the said act.

Clark and Luwaya (2017) note that the trust land vests in the Ingonyama, the Zulu monarch, as a trustee on behalf of community members. According to RSA (1997), The Act was amended in 1997 to align itself with the imperatives of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, of which the outcome was the KZN Ingonyama Trust Amendment Act (Act No 9 of 1997). Section 2(5) of the Act provides that the Ingonyama *“shall not encumber, pledge, lease, and alienate or otherwise dispose of any of the said land or any interest or real right in the land unless he has obtained the prior written consent of the traditional authority or community authority concerned”*. Section 2(8) of the Act further states that *“the Ingonyama shall not infringe upon any existing rights or interests”* (RSA 1997:2). The act enables the establishment of communally owned land on the bases of customary law. It further enables an environment in which lease agreements and “Permission To Occupy” (PTOs) certificates are offered as a form of security concerning taking occupancy of the land.

However, despite the aforementioned provisions of the Act, the Trust itself has been blemished with a large degree of controversy for failing to align itself to the intentions with which it was initially established. Clark and Luwaya (2017) suggest that the Trust has concluded various long-term lease agreements with mining companies to enable the usage of trust land for mining activities which have been underpinned by poor community consultation and further deprivation of use rights inclusive of land. Clark and Luwaya (2017) further note that this is the context in which a department mandated to hold the Trust to account, the Parliamentary Portfolio Committee on Rural Development and Land Reform, suggests that the Trust itself, lacks transparency and accountability concerning the Trust receiving revenue from the government and not directing such to its beneficiaries (i.e. the rural communities). According to an online article advanced by Polity (2018), the authenticity, constitutionality, and credibility of the Trust are currently in question. Polity (2018) suggests that the Act, based on the outcomes of a detailed report and subsequent declaration from the High-Level Panel (HLP), appointed by the Parliamentary Speakers Forum, is unconstitutional and needs to be repealed or further amended in parts. Without having to be exhaustive in highlighting the issues that underpin the mechanics of the act, the procedural defects underpinning same, Polity (2018) notes the Act should be repealed for the following reasons in terms of the outcomes HLP report:

- The Trust's entire existence and function are subject to the provisions of existing land rights as bestowed by customary law. The trust itself has demonstrated a disregard for the mechanics and provisions of customary law and underlying land rights as it generally acts as the outright or sole owner of land under its jurisdiction. Consequently, it has been noted in several cases that the Trust does not consult or engage with communities of which it acts on behalf.
- It was established that most lease agreements over trust land were arranged and organised in a manner that favoured the ITB and put the lessee or members of the community at a disadvantage. Amongst some onerous requirements to secure a lease or to occupy Trust Land, the ITB was also at liberty to terminate any lease agreement it had with a lessee based on non-payment. Furthermore, all buildings and structures that were historically built on such land in the context of eviction would then be left with the Ingonyama when the lessee vacates the premises.
- The ITB has also demonstrated a disregard for the provisions of the act which governs it, particularly in the context of "R293" Townships which is defined as land that falls outside the control of ITB and is controlled by the relevant municipality within the said act. The report found evidence that the ITB continued to hold land in R293 Townships and effectively acted as the outright owner of such land where it exercised exclusive power to allocate, authorise the use and generate revenue from the same.

Section 3 of the Act, as set out by the RSA (1994) acknowledges that the Dassenhoek Community (now referred to as the "aManganga Traditional Council (TC)") is identified as a community that falls under the Mpumalanga District and auspices of the act. The aManganga community as previously noted lies contiguous to the identified study area.

4.3.3. Metropolitan Policy Framework

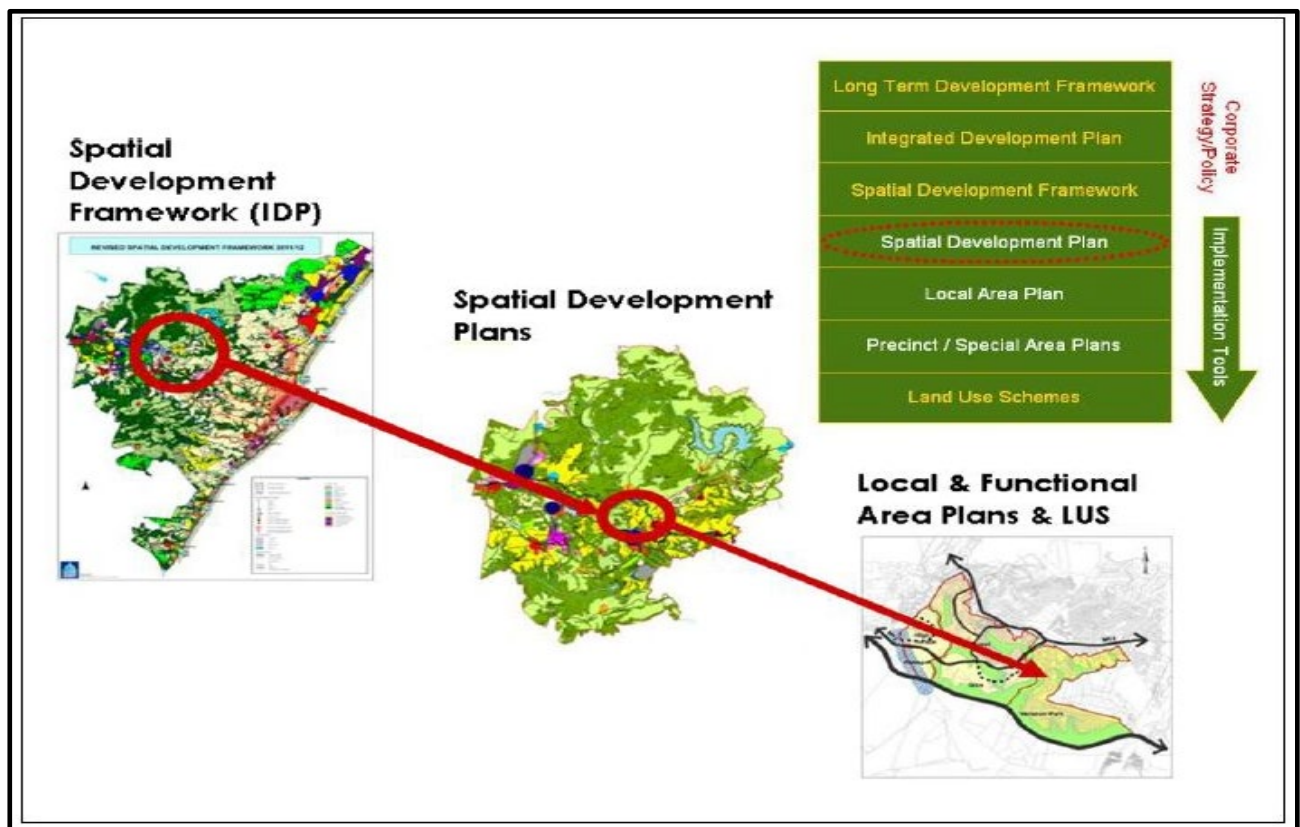
4.3.3.1. EMM's Spatial Development Framework (SDF) of 2017/2018-2021/2022

A Spatial Development Framework (SDF) translates the municipal vision as encapsulated within its Integrated Development Plan (IDP) into a spatial form. Typically, an SDF is the second lower-order plan within a municipality's package of plans. The eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality (EMM) SDF (2017/2022, pgs. 328-329) notes that IT informs all lower-order plans within the municipality which facilitate and lay down conducive environments for the interaction between investors, developers, and spatial planning. According to the EMM SDF (2017/2022, pg. 328-329), the lower-order plans include:

- Spatial Development Plans (SDPs): these are region-specific plans within the municipality that comprise several development projects specific to each municipal region;
- Local Area Plans (LAPs): these are focused on a specific locality within an identified region;
- Precinct Plans/Land Use Schemes: These are spatial and land use interventions focused on a particular precinct and are usually combined for site-specific land use and development regulation intentions.

The hierarchical nature of such plans is demonstrated as follows:

Figure 9: Hierarchical Development Framework in EMM



Source: EMM's SDF (2017/2022, pg. 329).

The EMM SDF Review (2017/2022, pg. 268) asserts that the municipality's spatial vision is: *"by 2030, EMM will be a socially equitable, environmentally sustainable, resilient and functionally efficient Municipality that bolsters its status as a gateway to Africa and the world"*.

The EMM SDF Review (2017/2022, pg. 269) advances a set of spatial principles and development guidelines to meet the municipality's development vision. These are development principles and guidelines that have been drawn and informed by the Sustainable Development Goals, National Development Plan, Vision for 2030 (National Planning

Commission, 2011), National Integrated Urban Spatial Development Framework 2016, and the Provincial Growth and Development Strategy (PGDS 2011). The EMM SDF (2017/2022, pgs. 269-272) furthermore, with the enactment of SPLUMA, the municipality's SDF (2017/2018-2021/2022: 269-272) has since demonstrated adherence to the principles echoed therein, i.e. **Spatial Efficiency, Spatial Justice, Good Administration, and Sustainability**. In addition to the advanced principles, the municipality's SDF translates these into a set of planning and development instruments that comprise further **principles and guidelines, structuring elements (i.e. planning instruments and development filters)**, and complimentary **spatial strategies** prescribed by the municipality. It is prudent to note that the interaction between the same act as an overarching development and land use guideline for the municipality. These are summarised as follows:

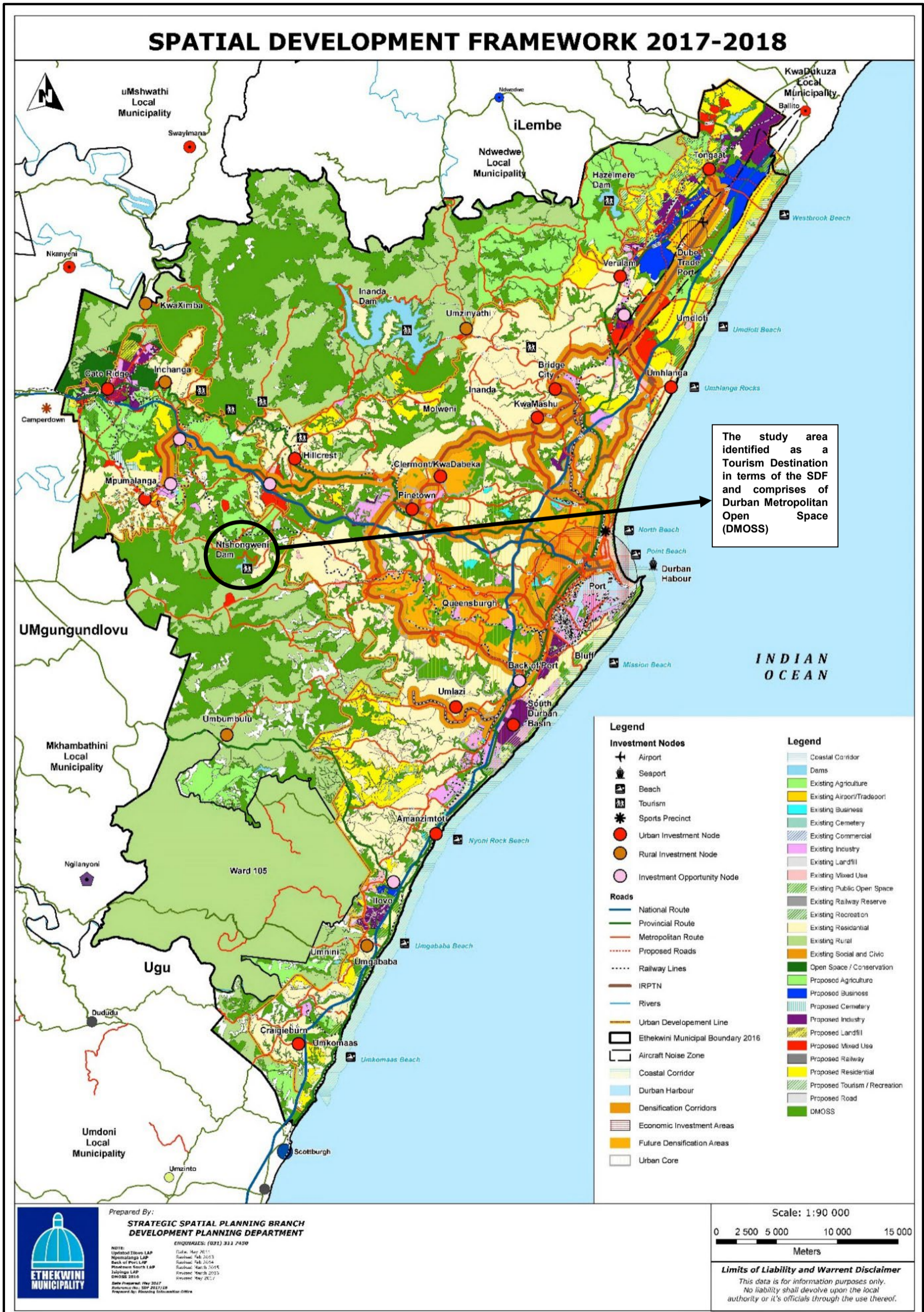
Table 3: EMM Principles, guidelines, and structuring elements

Principles and guidelines	Structuring Elements	Spatial Strategies
Principle of environmental planning	Open Space System & the Built Environment	<u>STRATEGY 1:</u> Manage urban growth, construct and maintain a viable built environment and sustain natural environments and resources, i.e. Durban Metropolitan Open Space System (DMOSS).
Principle of Spatial concentration (efficiency)	Activity Nodes and corridors, UDL, Infill, and Densification	<u>STRATEGY 2:</u> Improve access and movement of people & goods between areas of need /areas of opportunity
Principle of economic potential, coordinated planning, and implementation	Strategic Investment	<u>STRATEGY 3:</u> Build and protect vibrant economic areas and lay a foundation for future economic development
Principle of Balanced and Sustainable urban and rural development (equity).	Areas of need	<u>STRATEGY 4:</u> Ensure EMM's strategies and policies are proactive in responding to and promoting rural development

Source: EMM SDF (2017/2022, pg. 329)

The aforementioned guidelines/principles, structuring elements, and strategies are translated into a medium-term development plan for the municipality that highlights its spatial trajectory in the form of a Spatial Plan. This represents amongst other things where the concentration of development ought to occur inclusive of the areas of environmental significance and land use development. The municipality identifies the study area as hosting environmentally sensitive areas and a tourist destination (Refer to Figure 10: EMM SDF).

Figure 10: eThekweni Metropolitan Municipal SDF

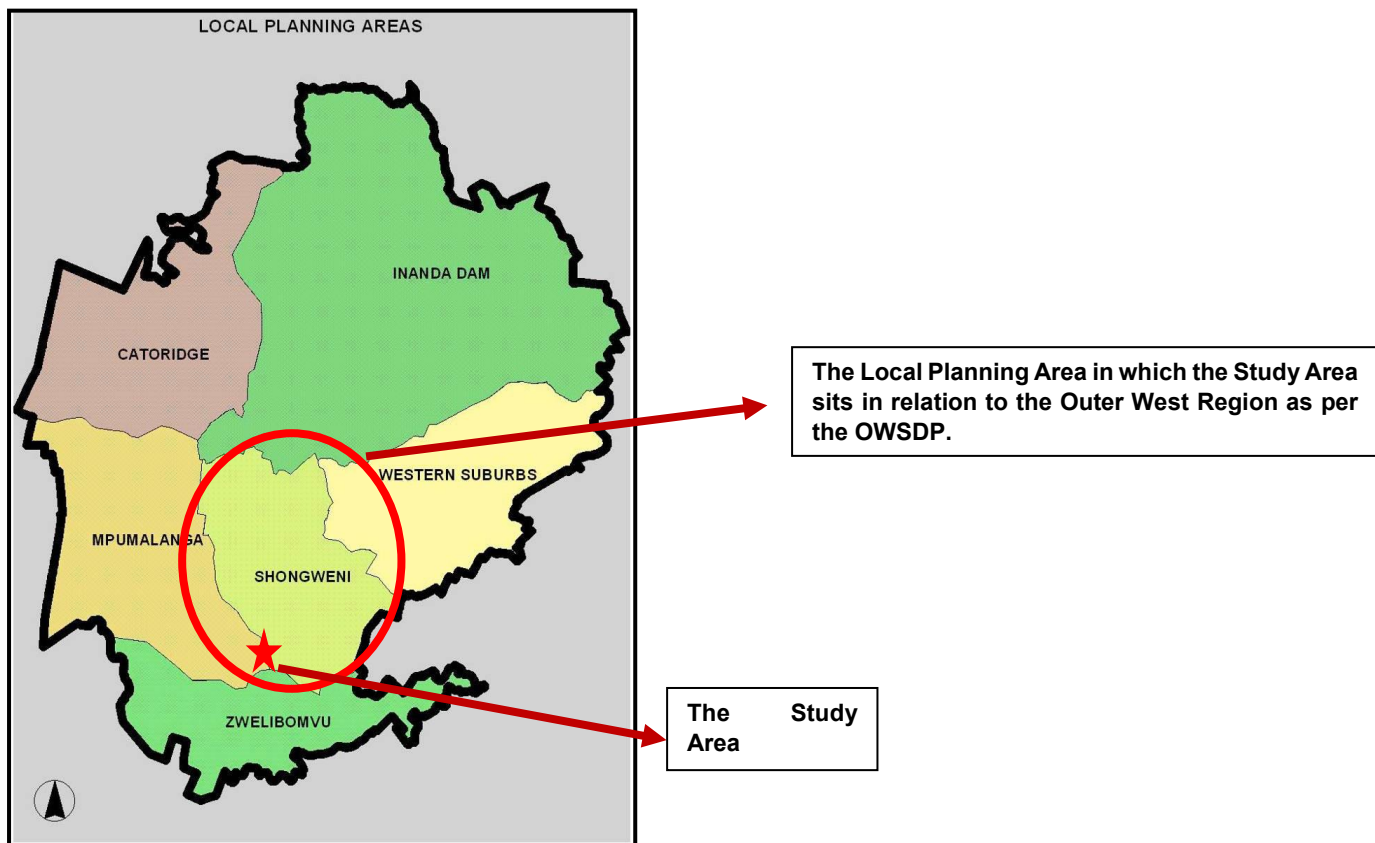


Source: eThekweni SDF (2017)

4.3.3.2. Outer West Spatial Development Framework of 2013

A Spatial Development Plan (SDP) is typically the third-tier plan within EMM's suite of plans. It intends to bring the SDF development visions to fruition through the translation of the SDF's needs and strategic intentions into more geographically specific physical development and land use management guidelines. The Outer West Spatial Development Plan (OWSDP) intends to promote and guide development that is sustainable and responds to the various needs and challenges facing the EMM as a whole. It intends to achieve this by ensuring that development in the Outer West Region (OWR) is aligned with the City's social, economic, and environmental imperatives. According to the OWSDP (2013/2014, pg. 78), it provides the spatial expression for the short-medium- and long-term development of the region that will be achieved by identifying spatial structuring elements aimed at safeguarding the environment; establishing investment points and lines based on local opportunity; establishing the urban development line to guide infrastructure provision; and consolidating local planning areas based on inherent characteristics. The OWSDP (2013/2014, pg. 78) identifies six local planning areas within its jurisdiction. Major topographical features and major barriers such as river valleys and main roads separate these local planning areas from one another (See Figure 11: Local Planning Areas within the OWR).

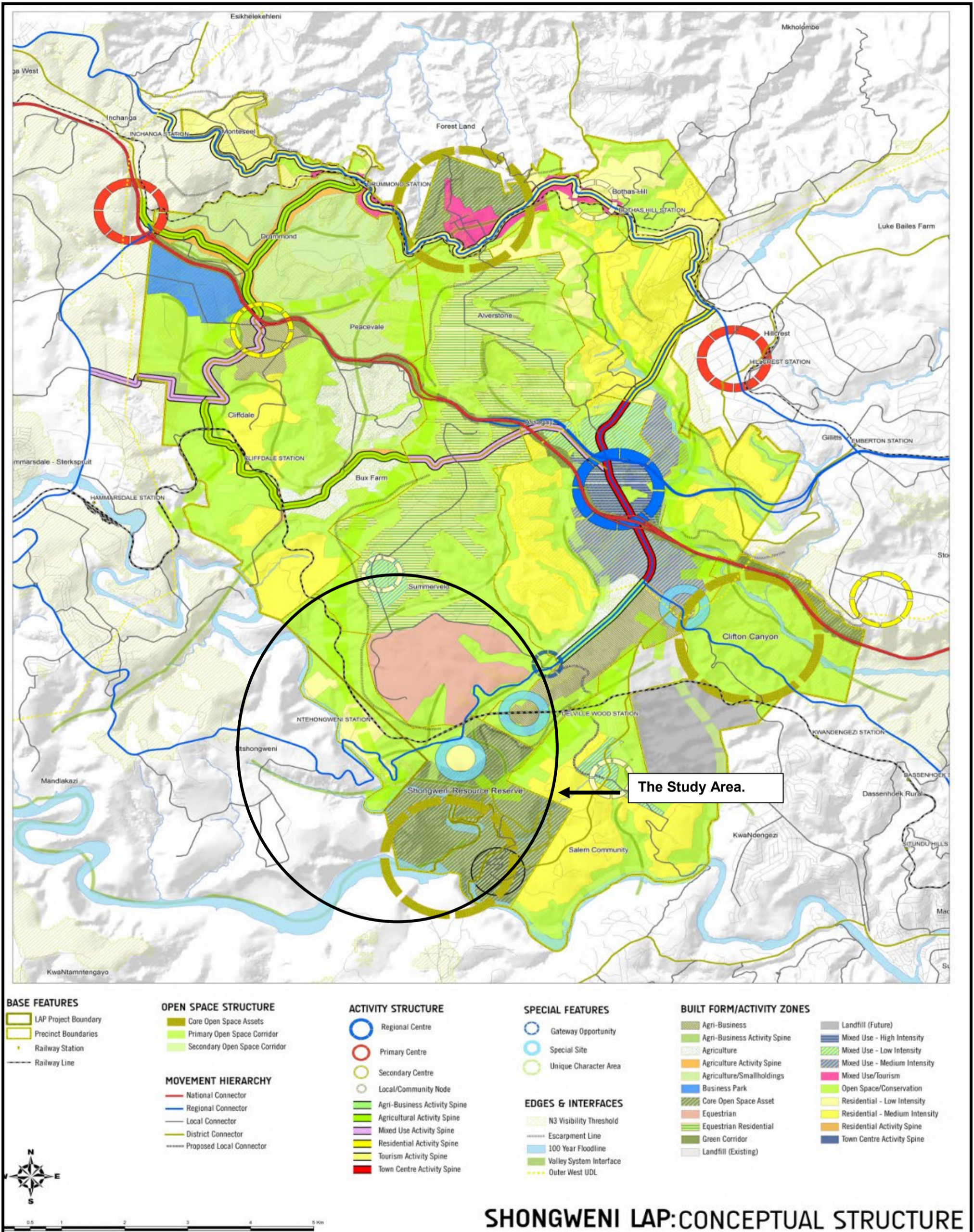
Figure 11: Local Planning Areas in the EMM OWR



Source: OWSDP (2013/2014: 78)

The local planning areas identified in the OWR each have their character and opportunities for development yet play an integrated and distinct role in the broader municipality. The overall spatial interventions and broad land use proposed in supporting the region include agriculture, open spaces, equestrian, residential, mixed uses, urban centers, tourism, and green corridors amongst others (OWSDP 2013/2014) (Refer to Figure 12: Conceptual Structure, Broad Land Use and Spatial Interventions for the OWSDP Region).

Figure 12: Conceptual structure, broad land uses, and spatial interventions



Source: OWSDP (2013/2014, pg. 108)

According to the OWSDP (2013/2014: 52), the role of the OWR within the municipality is as follows:

- **Economic Growth and Development:** it supports tourism through cultural asset development; ensures food security through its subsistence agricultural outputs inclusive of export and domestic commercial agricultural practices whilst also hosting secondary locations for industrial/logistics nodes.
- **Social:** the region comprises suburban, rural, and agricultural (agrarian) residential settlements, recreation destinations inclusive of rural service nodes, and community services.
- **Environmental:** through hosting various metro eco-services such as water supply, estuaries, flood attenuation, and biodiversity elements.
- **Spatial:** due to its strategic location to the N3 Corridor which enables access from the Metro to the national and regional economy of the South.

The study area is identified as falling within the Shongweni Local Planning Area. According to the OWSDP (2013/2014, pg. 98), the Shongweni Local Planning Area is noted as playing the following role in the broader region: environmental asset consolidation and protection; low-density residential and suburban residential expansion inclusive of sub-metropolitan/commercial/service expansion opportunities; and hosting a national equestrian center. The OWSDP (2013/2014) further identifies a variety of key structuring elements that are of relevance to the study area, namely:

- **Open Space System (D'MOSS)**- is a major spatial and functional component within the Outer West Region that performs a wide range of ecological, educational, agricultural, tourist, recreational, and stormwater management functions.

The OWSDP (2013/2014, pg. 57) advances the need to *conserve riverine systems*, of the UMaas River; and the need to *conserve functional ecosystems* particularly the Shongweni Dam and Resources Reserve in the study area.

- **Nodal Hierarchy**-comprises of a clear hierarchy of nodes, as investment and access points which will be consolidated and distributed throughout the Outer West region including, urban nodes; rural nodes; industrial nodes; tourism, and recreation nodes.

The study area is identified as a tourism and recreational node within the OWSDP (2013/2014: 64-66) and is earmarked to present local economic development opportunities, particularly to the provision of integrated local services for the surrounding communities, i.e. in so far as social, economic and traditional facilities are a concern.

4.3.3.3. *The Shongweni Local Area Plan (LAP) of 2010*

The Shongweni LAP (2010: 95) suggests that the key role of the study area relates to that of being an eco-tourism precinct. It prescribes various key interventions and Local Economic Development (LED) initiatives to create a conducive environment for the articulation and realisation of its desired objective. The Shongweni LAP (2010, pg. 81) notes that the study area contextually sits in “*Precinct C: Southern Precinct (Shongweni Dam Precinct)*”. The Shongweni LAP (2010: 95) proposes the following key interventions and LED opportunities for the study area, which are as follows:

- a) The traditional council had recently successfully claimed a large part of the precinct. The area possesses full tourism, the recreational and environmental potential that may be exploited particularly through the Ntshongweni dam. The area presents opportunities for accommodation, water sports, and adventure sports development that could also encompass mountain biking, 4x4, and equestrian trails extending into the valley.
- b) The management plan for the dam is to be prepared in consultation with all stakeholders (with the Traditional Council taking full ownership of the plan) considering linkages to the Equestrian Precinct. The possibility of attracting major private sector investors/developers to the Shongweni Dam Precinct needs to be investigated.

It is also worth noting that the Shongweni LAP identifies various precinct and land use management guidelines for the development of the various focal areas or precincts within the broader Shongweni Planning Area. According to the Shongweni LAP (2010, pgs. 95-99), These precinct and land use management guidelines include key structuring elements; environmental guidelines; land-use responses; urban design guidelines; traffic; and bulk infrastructure key investment areas and constraints. With regard to the study area, the key development informants aligned to the proposed development structure are set out in Table 4.

Table 4: Key Development Informants aligned to Proposed Development Structure of the Study Area

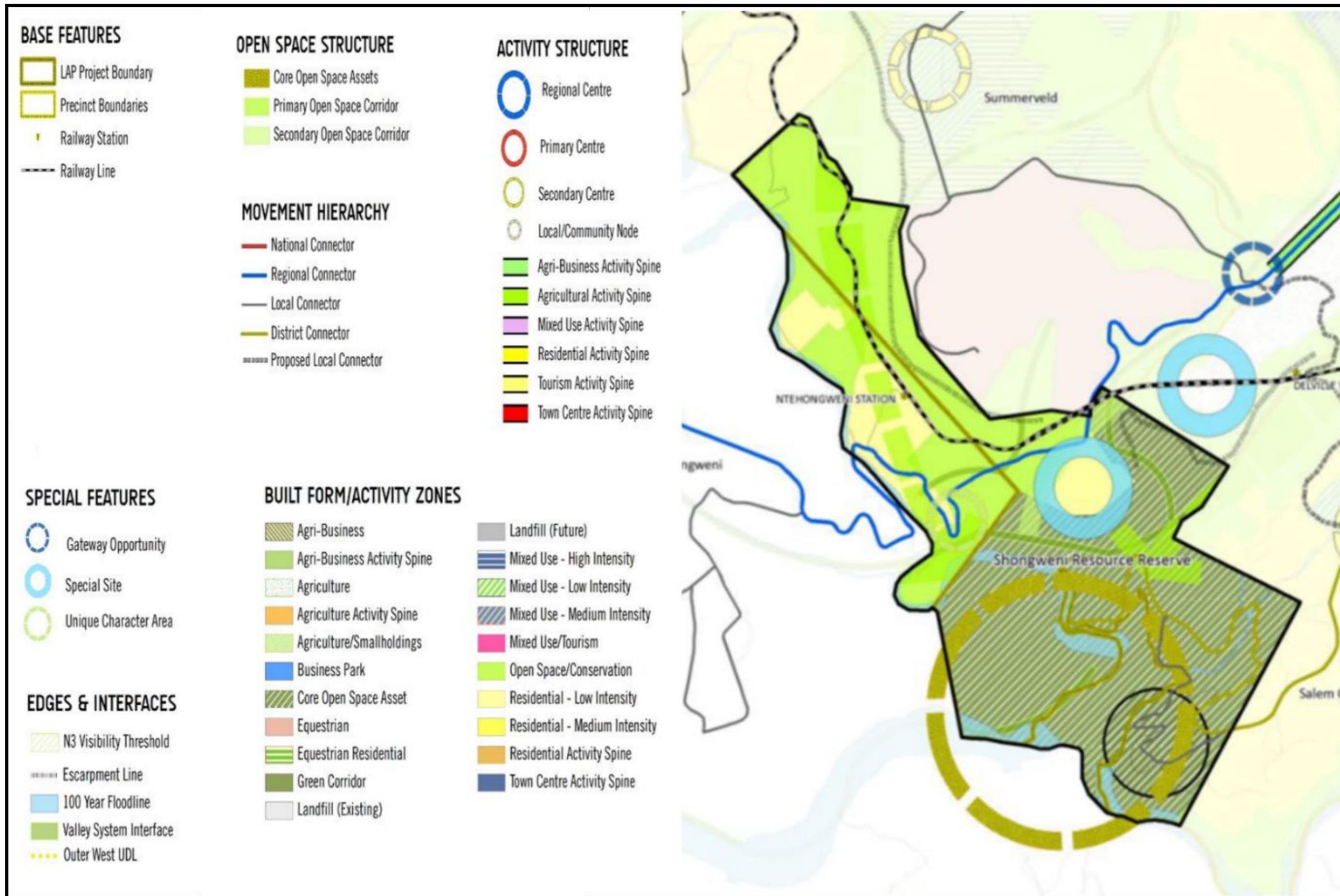
Key Development Informants for Proposed Development Structure	
Structuring Elements	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Shongweni Dam; b) Valley lines; c) Escarpment Zone; d) Railway Line; and e) Railway Station at Ntshongweni.
Environmental Guidelines	<p>Advancement of a management zone (including Msinsi Resorts and Game Reserves - a private wildlife and eco-tourism management company) and improved industrial, domestic, and agricultural pollution control are encouraged with the following priorities:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) An integrated approach to aquatic weed management; b) Continued support for riparian weed eradication efforts initiated by the Working for Water Programme; c) Appropriate operating rules for water releases from all the larger dams, to improve the health of downstream river ecosystems and thus improve the levels of goods and services provided by the river; and d) Manage sewer surcharges in the lower reaches. Potential for a “<i>significant ecological corridor</i>” to be identified by the EMM’s Environmental Planning and Climate Change Department (EPCPD) as the primary open space corridor linking Shongweni and Clifton Canyon Core Open Space Assets for continued conservation and controlled recreational use.
Land Use Response	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Formalise existing settlements, and densify areas around the stations; b) Protect and enhance open space corridor along the valley and escapement zones; c) Promote tourist activities around the Shongweni Dam; d) Promote, encourage, and enhance primary and secondary open space corridors; and e) Promote identified special or unique sites.
Urban Design Guidelines	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Increase densities within the precinct, particularly around the stations; b) Encourage eco-friendly tourism facilities within open space corridors and dams; c) Encourage activity zone along the lower portions of Kassier Road; d) Promote a node at the “<i>special site</i>” overlooking Shongweni Dam (strict control should be put in place for this site).
Transport and Infrastructure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) The precinct proposes land uses that are not typically major trip producers/ attractors of trips. b) In addition, the LAP focuses on the management of the area rather than the intensification of land uses, with minimal changes in density. c) Management of residential development on the eastern portion should focus on densification and the provision of on-street public transport stops.

	d) Local road pavement conditions are poor and required investment.
Bulk Infrastructure	a) <u>Water</u> : The residential area in the precinct does have access to potable water. b) <u>Sewer</u> : No conventional waterborne sewage system is in place and other forms are being used. If a new Wastewater Treatment Work is built near the dam, then the area could be serviced. c) <u>Stormwater</u> : Most areas are undeveloped, and there are rivers and streams which make it better for water flow paths. d) <u>Electricity</u> : It is in the Eskom supply area, with very few smallholdings. There are no identified capacity problems.

Source: Shongweni LAP (2010, pgs. 95-99).

As an outcome of the advanced key development informants, the study area as encapsulated within the OWSDP and Shongweni LAP is aligned to the objectives of environmental preservation (i.e. riverine systems and environmental networks) inclusive of environmentally sensitive land which is represented in its accompanying development structure (See Figure 13: Proposed Development Structure).

Figure 13: Proposed development structure



Source: Shongweni LAP (2010, pg. 98).

According to Ramzy (2013), the advanced legislative policy framework has demonstrated the alignment and commitment across various levels (i.e. international, national, provincial, and local) toward achieving the sustainability paradigm. According to the Republic of South Africa (RSA) (2008), it is prudent to note that policies and legislation provide the essential bedrock for eco-tourism development inclusive of the spatial and land use responses linked with its fruition. According to Kenawy and Shaw (2014), whilst within the policy and legislative realm there are certain challenges and anomalies, they do provide a useful platform for achieving the desired state of environmental, economic, and social development. This chapter will now unpack the practical experiences of eco-tourism development in developing countries.

4.4. Precedent Case Studies

White et al (2013) suggest that the advantages of case studies include: the expansion of an existing body of knowledge regarding a specific subject matter; the comparison of specific situations and the extraction of ideas/data surrounding a specific area of study.

4.4.1. iSimangaliso Wetland Park (ISWP) of KZN

iSimangaliso Wetland Park (ISWP) is located in the coastal and inland regions of north-eastern KZN. “iSimangaliso” simply denotes “*miracles*” or something “*wondrous*” in the isiZulu language (ISWP, nd) which is the predominant language within the province.

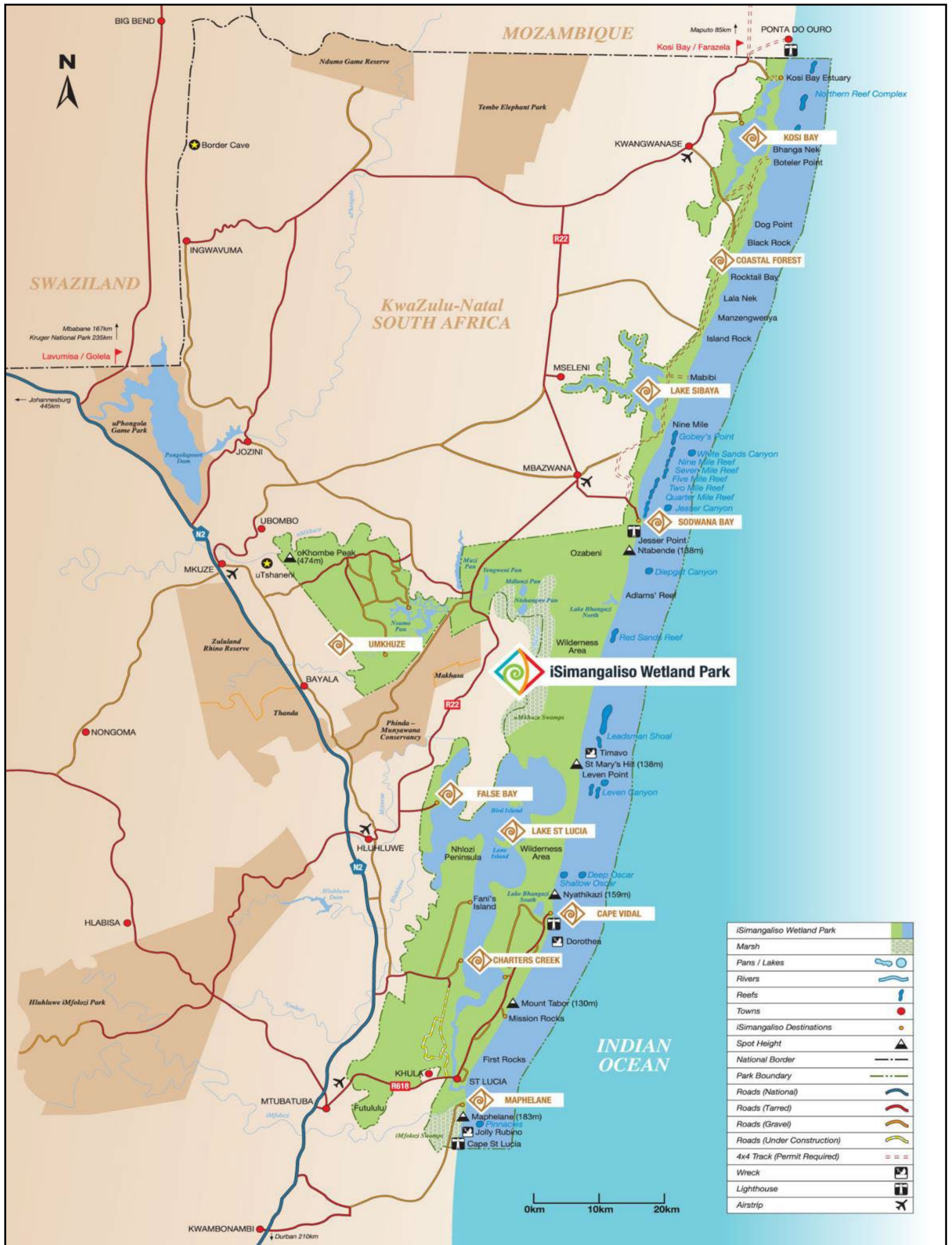
According to the iSimngaliso Wetland Park Integrated Management Plan (ISWPIMP) (2017, pg. 2), ISWP has been declared a world heritage site in terms of the World Heritage Convention Act (WHCA) No. 49 of 1999. ISWP possesses 15 different ecosystems, unique estuarine and aquatic systems, coastal areas, and environmentally significant landscapes and offers biodiversity services to the broader north KZN region. According to Govender (2013), ISWP is also a proclaimed protected area in terms of the provisions of NEMA which marked the South African government’s commitment from a legislative perspective to conserve its ecological and biological significance.

Chellan and Khan (2008) submit that ISWP comprises a consolidation of sixteen fragmented land parcels into a composite area which accounts for approximately 350 ha in extent. The ISWP (nd) states that these land parcels host the “*ten jewels*” or focal areas within its confinements, namely: *Coastal Forest, Lake Sibaya, Sodwana Bay, Umkhuze, False Bay, Lake St Lucia, Eastern Shores, and Cape Vidal, Western Shores and Charters Creek, Kosi Bay, and Maphelane.*

ISWP covers a distance of approximately 200km from Kosi Bay to the north, which lies contiguous to the Mozambican boarder, Maphelane south of St Lucia, and the Indian Ocean to the east. The

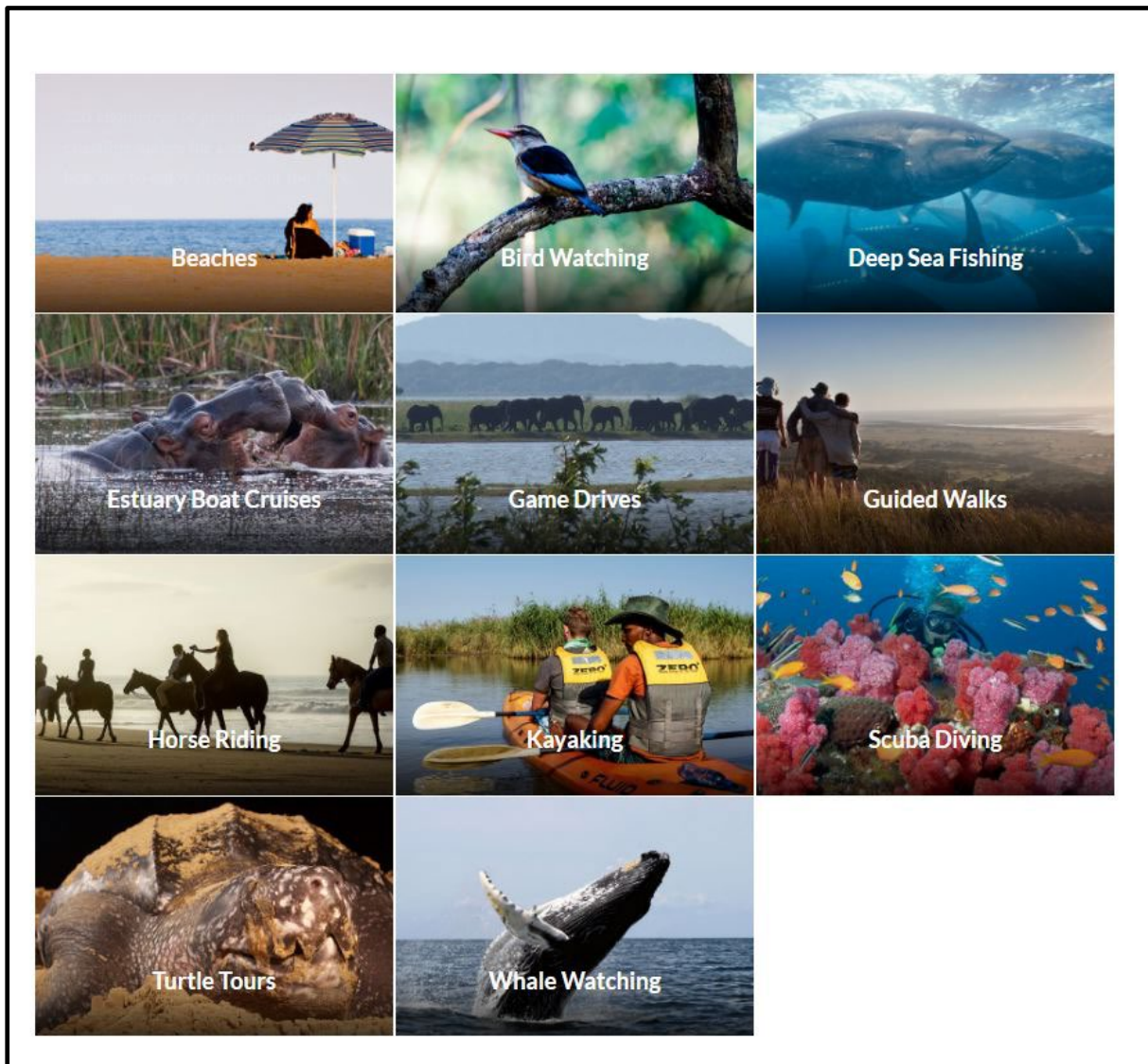
ISWP falls within the jurisdiction of four local municipalities, namely Mtubatuba, Big 5 Hlabisa, Jozini, and uMhlabuyalingana Local Municipalities (LM's) all of which make up the uMkhanyakude District Municipality (DM) (Refer to Figure 14: Locality of ISWP). The ISWP (nd) suggests that the park's most sought-after activities and attractions include kayaking, scuba diving, guided walks, whale watching, horse riding, turtle tours, estuary boat cruises, beaches, game drives, 4x4 trails, and deep-sea fishing (See Picture 1: Main Activities in ISWP).

Figure 14: Locality of ISWP



Source: ISWP, n.d. Available: <https://isimangaliso.com/downloads/maps/> (Last Accessed 20 November 2019).

Picture 1: Main activities/attractions in ISWP



Source: ISWP (nd), Available: <https://isimangaliso.com/activity/> (Last Accessed 21 January 2020).

Stats SA (2016) submits that the uMkhanyakude DM comprises approximately 689 090 residents across its four local municipalities which are underpinned by a population growth rate of 9.2%. According to the uMkhanyakude District Municipal (DM) IDP (2018/2020), the district has a smaller size in provincial comparative economic terms. It accounts for less than 5% of the EMM's economy with the two dominant local economies within the district belonging to Mtubatuba and Jozini LM's who accounted for approximately R1.9 and R1.7 billion of Gross Value Added (GVA) in 2011 respectively. The key sectors as noted by uMkhanyakude DM IDP (2018/2020: 18) include retail, catering, and accommodation which contribute approximately R1.45 billion yearly. Xaba et al. (2018) further suggest that eco-tourism

initiatives within the uMhlabuyalingana LM contributed to the alleviation of poverty and unemployment in areas such as Mtubatuba (40%), Hlabisa (30%), and Umhlabuyalingana (20%) whilst it was established that eco-tourism in Jozini was predominantly underdeveloped and under-resourced which was further exacerbated by low community perceptions regarding its benefits.

According to the Republic of South Africa (RSA) (1996), (1999), and (2008) South Africa's drive towards establishing the legislative framework regarding the protection of areas of biodiversity importance in South Africa has been documented in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act 108 1996, the WHCA, and NEMA amongst others. Such a legislative framework, as pointed out by RSA (2008), has given rise to various other laws on a provincial scale and underpinning policies or plans which speak to the case of the protection of the natural environment, and economic and socio-economic development through eco-tourism development. The ISWPIMP (2017-2021), as a legal requirement, in terms of the provisions of WHCA and National Environmental Management Act (NEMA) amongst others, is a five-year strategic plan that was developed by the iSimangaliso Wetland Authority (IWA) to form succession with the previous ISWPIMP of 2011-2016. According to the ISWPIMP (2017-2021, pg. 59), it envisions the ISWP to be *"Africa's greatest conservation-based tourism destination driven by community empowerment"*. As a plan and policy instrument, ISWPIMP (2017-2021) intends to ensure that World Heritage values and conservation are consistently met and adhered to with an emphasis on development for conservation, of which in this context, economic empowerment and job creation, through suitable and palatable tourism development are of central importance to achieve conservational goals. The plan unpacks a range of development and planning-related issues and guidelines specific to the park which are succinctly captured as follows:-

- a) **A Situational Analysis**: highlighting the biophysical environment characteristics of the park; the socio-economic environment which comprises population, land use, regional infrastructure services; economic opportunities through agricultural and tourism-related activities; cultural heritage, and progress in terms of the land restitution within the region.
- b) **Policy and Strategic Planning Framework and Implementation Plan**: This unpacks the vision and mission from a strategic and future-orientated perspective applicable to the wetland area; management goals and the implementation and budgetary plans associated therewith.
- c) **Environmental Management Framework**: comprises three sections including:
 - ***Spatial Planning Measures and Controls*** that include zonation, development nodes framework, permissible and non-permissible activities framework;

- **Policies, Strategies, and Plans** which speak to conservational operational plans, species management policies, estuary management plans, LAPs; and
- **General Planning Tools and Controls** accounting for environmental authorisations inclusive of other types of assessments; environmental management programs; site development guidelines; and other general planning tools and controls for example.

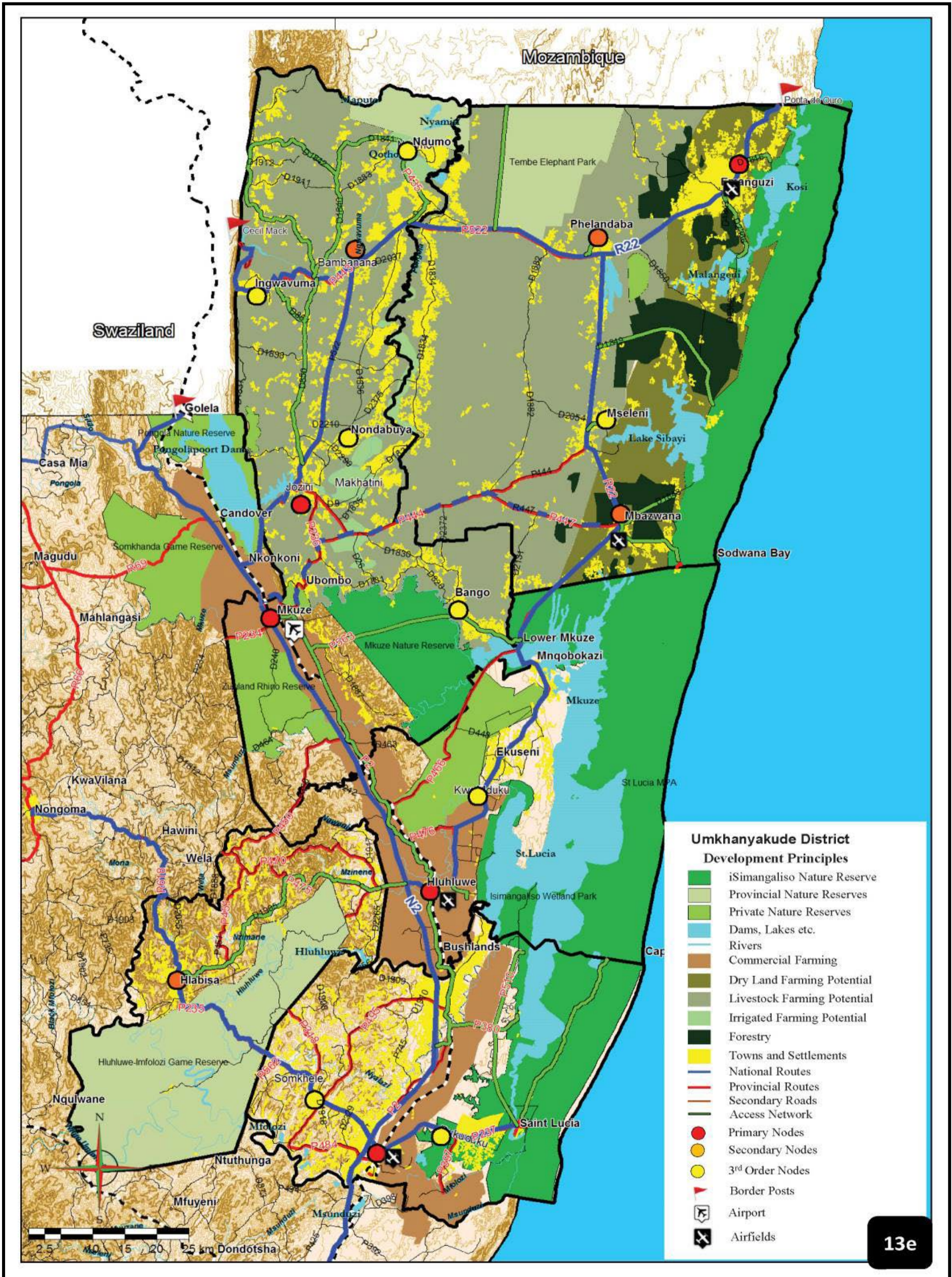
From a spatial and land use perspective, two significant plans speak to the ISWP at a district level which also filters into the LM's SDFs, Environmental Management Frameworks (EMFs), LAPs, and ultimately land use schemes. The two plans include *uMkhanyakude Cluster Corridor Development Master Plan (CCDMP) (2013)* and the *Integrated Development Plan (IDP) (2018/2019)* which set out the spatial strategic development interventions and development rationale for the DM and ISWP. The uMkhanyakude CCDMP (2013, pg. 1) draws its insight from the KZN PGDS 2030 which intends to address key strategic challenges or focus areas within the DM about health, education, and rural development for example. According to the uMkhanyakude DM IDP (2018/2019, pg. 184), the district CCDMP hosts several development principles that are aligned with its spatial objectives. These include but are not limited to:

- **Principle 1:** maintain and protect all natural environmental resources in the uMkhanyakude DM and manage these as a coherent ecosystem.
- **Principle 3:** establish the ISWP as the international tourism anchor in the district, supplemented by the provincial and private reserves and cultural heritage precincts.
- **Principle 5:** define and establish a functional hierarchy of nodal service centers in the DM, to consolidate human settlement, and optimise the delivery of social and engineering services whilst stimulating local economic development and protecting valuable agricultural land.

The outcomes of the plan resulted in spatial responses accompanied by five identified corridors and nodes which are earmarked to drive future-orientated development within the DM. Out of the five identified corridors, there are two which speak to unlocking development prospects within the ISWP boundary or its vicinity, namely: **Corridor Number 3: Border Heritage Corridor** which includes Cecil Mack Pass–Ingwavuma–Bambanani–Ngwanase–Kosi Bay areas (i.e. from P443; P522 and R22); and **Corridor Number 4: Zulu Ocean Corridor** comprising of the Richards Bay–St Lucia–Hluhluwe–Kosi Bay to Maputo (i.e. N2 and R22). The CCDMP (2013, pg. 41) further spatially identifies the ISWP as a nature reserve that comprises dams and lakes that lie contiguous to primary, secondary, and 3rd order node residential settlements such as Dukuduku, St Lucia, Ekuseni, Mseleni, Mbazwana, Kosi Bay

and Manguzi (Refer to Figure 15: Development Principles Applicable to ISWP as per uMkhanyakude DM CCDPM).

Figure 15: Principles and land use objectives applicable to iSimangaliso Wetland Park as per uMkhanyakude DM CCDP



Source: uMkhanyakude CCDMP (2013, pg. 41)

As the ISWP lies within the KZN Province, which is one of the provinces in South Africa, it stands to reason that the area is subject to the provisions of SPLUMA. In terms of an email dated 31 January 2020, from the spatial planning and land use department of the KZN Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs (CoGTA), within the uMkhanyakude DM, uMhlabuyalingana LM is the only municipality in possession of a completed wall-wall land use scheme whilst the Mtubatuba LM has a draft land use scheme still awaiting adoption (See Annexure 2: Email from KZN CoGTA).

It remains unknown as to why since the inception of the act (i.e. 2013) there are only two municipalities within the uMkhanyakude DM that have made notable strides in establishing their accompanying schemes. Be that as it may, section, 55(1) of SPLUMA further makes provision for the exemption of various municipalities who have not met the deadline to adopt a single land use scheme for their areas associated area of jurisdiction by no later than 2023 (KZN CoGTA 2019). According to the Republic of South Africa (RSA) (2019), this inherently allows for flexibility for the municipalities that are lagging in so far as the establishment of single land use or wall-wall schemes is concerned. Nonetheless, wall-wall land-use schemes speak to the land-use interventions applicable to the ISWP concerning catalysing eco-tourism development which is in line with the district SDF and the protection of the environment.

With regard to the Mtubatuba Draft Single Land Use Scheme (2019), the ISWP is zoned “Protected Area” with many land parcels within its boundary zoned as “Agriculture 1”. In terms of the Protected Area zone, several land uses are freely permitted which include but are not limited to the bird sanctuary, conservation areas, camping areas, dwelling units, eco-tourism facilities, shops (limited to the sale of activities associated with tourism, recreation, souvenirs, books or magazines on environmental conservation) and restaurants for example. From a special consent usage perspective, these include caravan parks, chalets, and chalets for example (See Map 1: Proposed Zones for Mtubatuba Draft Single Land Use Scheme and Table 5: Proposed Protected Area Zone in Terms of Mtubatuba Single Land Use Scheme).

Map 1: Proposed Zones for Mtubatuba Draft Single Land Use Scheme



Source: Mtubatuba Local Municipality Draft Single Land Use Scheme (2019).

Table 5: Proposed Protected Area Zone in Terms of Mtubatuba Single Land Use Scheme

STATEMENT OF INTENT: To provide for the conservation and sustainable use of land declared as a Protected Area under the National Environmental Management: Protected Area Act No 57 of 2003 (NEMPAA) and/or other relevant legislation.				SCHEME MAP NOTATION:									
				<table border="1"> <tr> <th>FILL</th> <th>BORDER</th> </tr> <tr> <td>036;093;019</td> <td>0;0;0</td> </tr> </table>		FILL	BORDER	036;093;019	0;0;0				
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USE OF LAND AND BUILDINGS													
COLUMN 1 PERMITTED USES		COLUMN 2 CONSENT USES		COLUMN 3 PROHIBITED USES		ADDITIONAL CONTROLS							
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Bird Sanctuary Conservation Land/Area* Camping Area Dwelling Unit Eco-tourism Nature Reserve Office Building (limited to the administration of conservation research and ancillary activities) Proclaimed Protected Area Residential Building (limited to staff accommodation) Restaurant Shop (limited to the sale of activities associated with tourism, recreation, souvenirs, books, or magazines on environmental conservation) Waterbody 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ancillary Use Caravan Park Chalet (limited to providing eco-tourism-related accommodation to guests and ablutions facilities) Place for Overnight Accommodation Place of Instruction (limited research and training) Special Building 		Buildings and land use not listed in this table.		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No work, including the erection of a building or structural alteration to a building, or the erection or establishment of any sign, shall be executed without the prior consent of the Municipality having first been obtained therefor. *Conservation areas shall not be utilised for any activity, nor shall any work be permitted, unless specifically authorised by the Municipality to further the aims of conserving the land. Provided that the Municipality may take such steps, including the control and/or prohibition of entry, as it may deem fit, to secure the preservation and enhancement of the area concerned. Land uses to be aligned with an approved Protected Area Management Plan or land uses approved by the provincial department responsible for environmental affairs and/or Conservation Authority. If a Protected Area does not have a management plan, the municipality is to consult with the relevant provincial department responsible for environmental affairs and/or conservation agency before approving a change in land use. The erection of any building within conservation areas shall be subject to environmental appraisal or EIA application. Consent use or formal authority applications must obtain authorisation from Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife, and must, where required, have been granted environmental authorisation and/or a permit from the National Forest Act and the National Water Act. Only ancillary land uses complementary to the primary aim of the conservation of the natural environment shall be permitted. Buildings must be clustered to limit the impact on ecosystems and the natural environments as far as possible and must be placed on less environmentally sensitive portions of the erf. Any development shall be subject to the Municipality being satisfied regarding the arrangements for the disposal of sewage. All developments within this land use zone shall be aligned with the development objectives of the Environmental Management Overlay. 							
DEVELOPMENT CONTROLS													
MINIMUM ERF SIZE	UNITS PER HECTARE	FRONTAGE	BUILDING LINE	SIDE AND REAR	HEIGHT	COVERAGE	FAR						
At the discretion of the Municipality					1 storey	N/A							

Source: Mtubatuba Local Municipality Draft Single Land Use Scheme (2019).

The challenges to eco-tourism development within the ISWP stem from a historical context. In democratic South Africa, the drive towards securing land in areas of opportunity and natural biodiversity prompted interest from an array of groups. According to Govender (2013), these groups include private investors, government, conservationists, and the inherently marginalised and dispossessed under the Natives Land Act of 1913 in the South African apartheid era.

Historically, Richards Bay Minerals (RBM) was amongst the first to secure land within the park around 1989. Chellan and Khan (2008) state that RBM operated a mining establishment therein for approximately 27 years. The mining operation provided more than 1750 permanent jobs, contributed approximately R760 million in company tax for the 2007 financial year, and contributed approximately R2.5 million in social responsibility programs for local communities in the vicinity of the park.

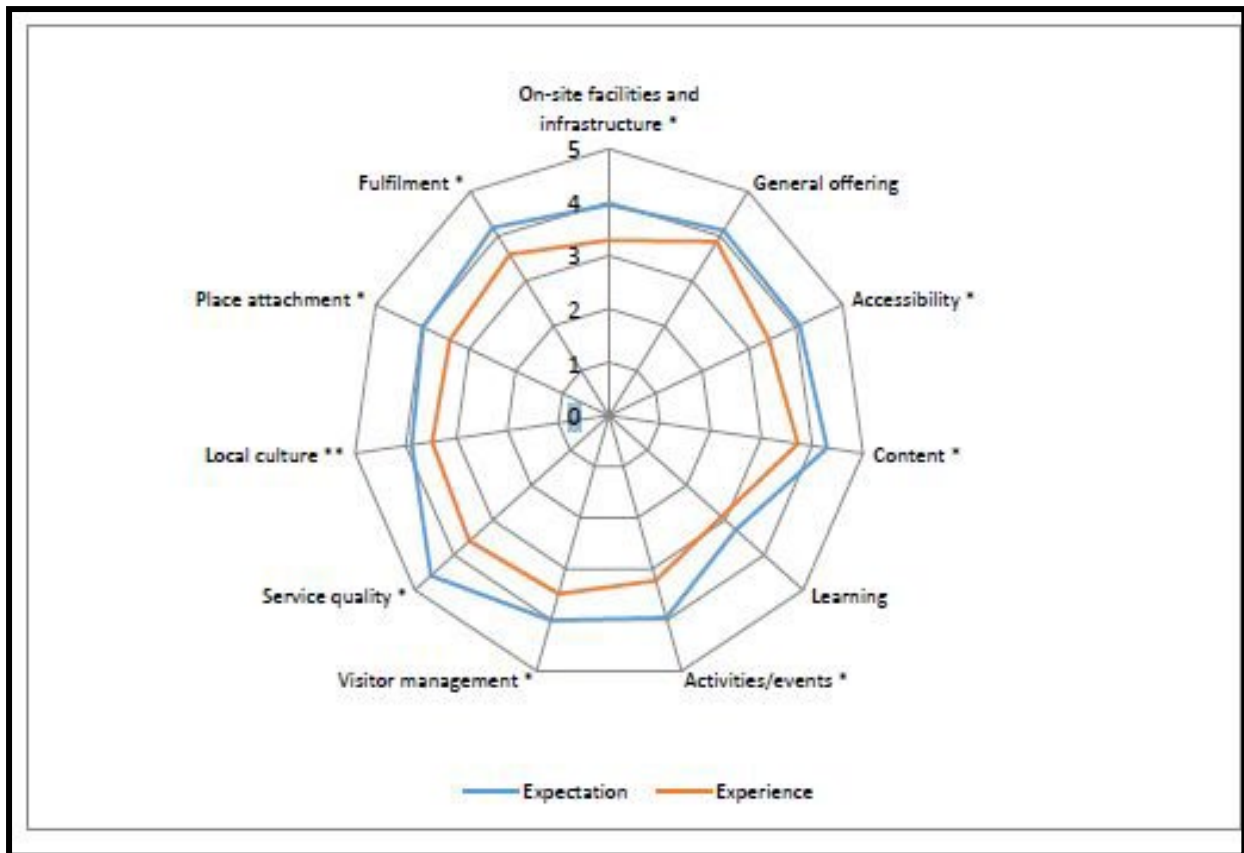
Govender (2013) suggests that in 1996, mining operations ceased due to a variety of environmental concerns associated therewith, and subsequently, there were no signs of visible development within the region due to the park being declared a world heritage site. ISWPIMP (2017) states that in response, various environmental groups and governments opted to entrust the deployment of eco-tourism as a development theme within the park after it was identified as a world heritage site in 1999.

Chellan and Khan (2008) note that in 2003, approximately 3000 Kosi Bay community members protested due to the lack of development and jobs within the region inclusive of the emergence of illegal lodges which led to criticism that eco-tourism did not deliver the benefits of economic development for the surrounding community members. According to Govender (2013) local communities, adjacent to the park suggest employment opportunities are limited to the accommodation sector and the sale of crafts during peak seasons.

Naude and McCoskey (2000) further suggest that apart from the government's investment injection of R630 million into the region associated with infrastructure through the establishment of the Lubombo Spatial Development Initiative (SDI), the sentiment regarding the park was that it did not bestow all the necessary benefits aligned with eco-tourism development. Whilst the SDI earmarked the conversion of the ISWP into a buoyant area of economic growth and job creation associated with responsible forms of tourism development, a study conducted by the University of Pretoria (2017) reveals that there is a disjuncture between the expectation and experience of the patrons and local communities to the park. The study assessed eleven factors which included on-site facilities and infrastructure; fulfillment, learning, local culture, and service quality amongst others which all received an

approximate score of 3 out of a total of 5 (Refer to Figure 16: Graphic illustration of gaps between expectations and experiences).

Figure 16: Graphic Illustration of gaps between expectations and experience



Source: University of Pretoria (2017, pg. 3)

Various stakeholders including the national government, the KZN provincial government, the Industrial Development Corporation (IDC), the Development Bank of South Africa (DBSA), and Khula Enterprise established a memorandum of agreement concerning the park. Since its inception, there have been several approved and exclusive tourism sites which include beach resorts and lodges. Chellan and Khan (2008) state that the precondition associated therewith, particularly with private investors, is that when the concession period ends, the buildings become the property of the ISWP thus preventing any real opportunity for surrounding residents to secure land or buildings therein.

Furthermore, according to the ISWPIMP (2017, pg. 24), the land claims related to those local communities who were historically removed from the park, under the government in the democratic dispensation account for a success rate of 64% with 5 pending land claims. These include the Mbila (Triangle) claim on *Sodwana Triangle*; *Coastal Forest Reserve claim on the Coastal Forest Reserve* *Dukuduku claim on Dukuduku Forest and surrounding area*; *Western*

Shores claim on the Western Shores of Lake St Lucia and Ngwenya claim on uMkhuze. Nonetheless, Bedelian (2012) notes that the pending land claim applications present further challenges with securing land and providing security of tenure which further enables access to financial institutions and acquisition of credit that may assist in so far as creating economic opportunities for local communities are concerned.

Nonetheless, the ISWP is a significant world heritage site that presents several opportunities for eco-tourism and sustainable development practices. The issues associated with the park present a further opportunity in so far as understanding the issues underpinning eco-tourism development. The section will now proceed to the Maasai Mara National Reserve of Kenya, East Africa.

4.4.2. The Maasai Mara National Reserve, Kenya East Africa.

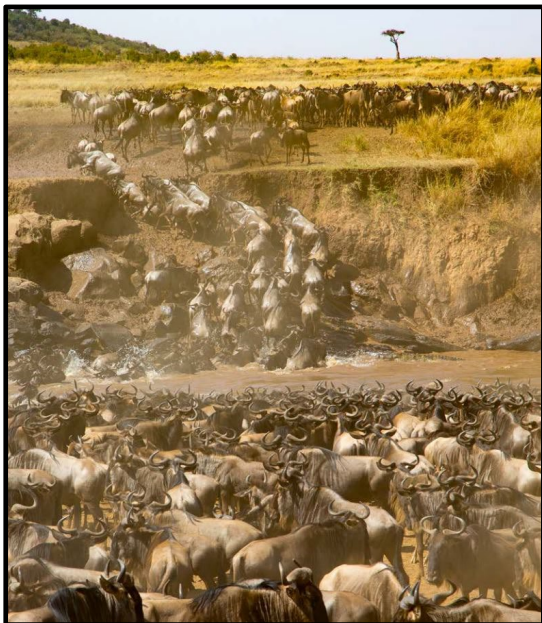
Ayiemba and Owour (2015) state that the Maasai Mara National Reserve (MMNR) is named after the Masai people of Kenya who have inhabited the area for many years. The Maasai people owe their ancestral and historical ties to the region (Onchwati et al., 2010). According to the Kilima Camp (nd) The term “Mara” means “spotted” in the Maa language of the Maasai people which signifies the various trees and animal species that spot or are dispersed throughout the area.

Okech (2008) suggests that Kenya is well accomplished with regard to its natural resource base and eco-tourism activities. Burdett (2018) states that about 7.5% of the country is designated for wildlife conservation. Onchwati et al. (2010) note that the country consists of 23 National Parks, 28 National Reserves, 6 marine reserves along with 6 World Heritage Sites. MMNR, as one of the national reserves and world heritage sites in Kenya, hosts the Mara River Basin and is located in the southwestern portion of the country. According to the Maasai Mara Strategic Plan (2017/2020) the reserve covers an area of 1672 square kilometers.

The MMNR is located in the jurisdiction of the Council of Narok and Trans Mara in Kenya. The WWF (2019) states that it lies east and contiguous to the Serengeti National Park of Tanzania, with the Mara River running through both the park and reserve. According to Onchwati et al. (2010), the area is prominent for its wildlife and game, the annual migration of wildebeest which is facilitated by the Mara River Basin, and its role in sheltering a plethora of endangered species including the African elephant and black rhino. The Maasai Mara Science and Development Initiative (MMSDI) (2015, pg. 6) notes that MMNR is a “*world unique ecosystem*” that hosts the largest and most diverse mammal species migration in the world which

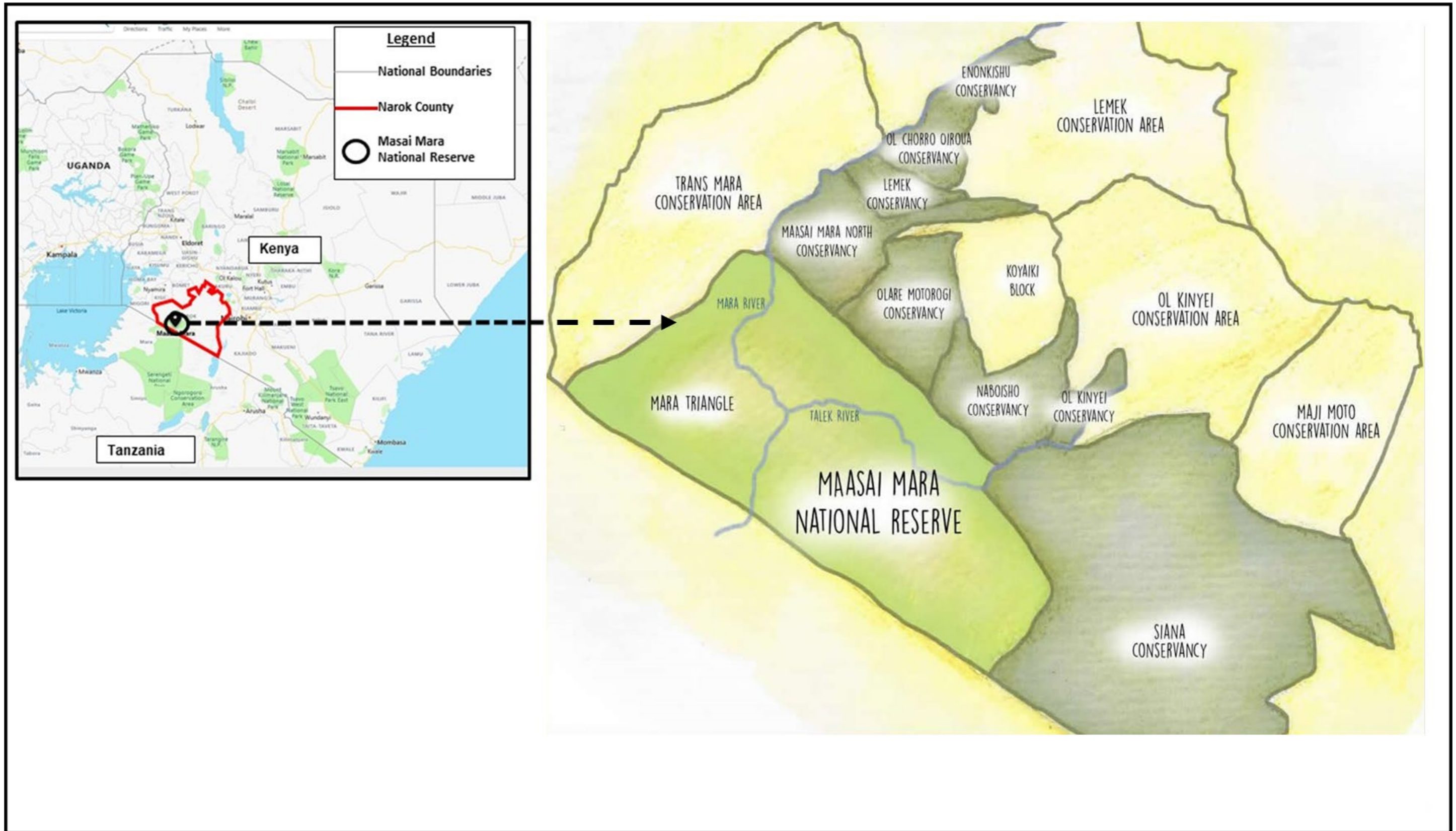
comprises approximately 1.3 million wildebeest, 200 000 zebras, and hundreds of thousands of Thomson's gazelles. The MMSDI (2015) suggests that the MMNR shares a common boundary with the Serengeti National Park, the reserve is also renowned for forming part of Africa's unique and irreplaceable natural heritage through the Serengeti/Maasai-Mara animal migrations (See Picture 2: Serengeti/Maasai-Mara animal migrations). According to the Maasai Mara Strategic Plan (2017-2020, pg. 4), the MMNR falls within a primary ecosystem boundary and shares a common boundary with the Serengeti National Park of Tanzania to the south and seven other established community conservancy areas which include: *Oloisukut, Mara North, Olare Orok, Naboisho, Nashulai, Siana* and *Olderkesi* conservancies that flank the MMNR in a north-southeastern direction. MMNR comprises two towns, namely, Keekorok and Serona Mara (Refer to Figure 17: Locality of the MMNR of Kenya and Established Conservancies in its proximity).

Picture 2: Serengeti/Maasai-Mara animal Migrations



Source: MMSDI (2015).

Figure 17: Locality of MMNR within Kenya and Established Conservancies in proximity



Source: Google Maps (2018) and Google Images (2020).

Okech (2008) along with Ayiemba and Owuora (2015) state that not only is the MMNR a global tourist attraction, but it was also declared a world heritage site in 1989 in an attempt to protect the existing wildlife within its jurisdiction. Burdett (2018) suggests that the MMNR is identified as an accomplished major economic contributor to Kenya's economy and its role in earning foreign exchange. It is currently estimated that the area receives approximately 200 000 visitors per year. The Maasai Mara Strategic Plan (2017/2020, pg. 2) suggests that the reserve receives approximately US \$5.5 million alone for entrance fees relating to tourists' access which translates into approximately US \$3,500 per square kilometer. According to the WWF (2019), the region comprises approximately 700 000 people which accounts for 1.4% of the national total population which currently sits at 48 million. Bedelian (2012) states that the Maasai people are typically pastoral people in nature who place economic and cultural importance on both livestock and land.

From a legislative, policy, and planning perspective, the pursuit of eco-tourism development inclusive of supportive mechanisms focused on its accomplishment in the MMNR is spearheaded by several stakeholders such as the Kenyan Government, the Councils of Narok and Trans Mara, and the Maasai Mara Wildlife Conservancies Association (MMWCA) amongst others. According to the Republic of Kenya (2016), the Kenyan government enacted the Community Land Act No 27 of 2016 which intends to recognise, protect and register community land rights with ensuring the management and administration thereof. Vogelsang (2019) states that the act provides latitude and a route for historically marginalised groups to legally claim, own and manage land which they depend on for their sustenance, livelihoods, culture, and associated individuality. This act, inclusive of other similarly related laws or its predecessors, such as the 'Land Group Representatives and Land Adjudication Act' of 1968 and the Land (Group Representatives) Act of 2012; enabled a conducive environment for the Maasai people to privately own land either through community partnerships or individually. This inherently stimulated demand for the leasing out of land parcels to private investors for eco-tourism practices in and around the MMNR (MMWCA, 2017). Bedelian (2012) suggests that the Maasai people thus derived transactional payments associated with the land leases inclusive of security of tenure. The MMSDI (2015) states that in 2009 approximately 750 Maasai landowners leased their land parcels for conservancy purposes.

The Council of Narok and Trans Mara developed the MMNR Management Plan for 2009–2019. According to the Council of Narok and Trans Mara (2009/2019, pg. 3), its objectives include ensuring the conservation of a globally significant biodiversity area; supporting increasing

community livelihoods alongside the reserve management needs whilst forming a sustainable basis of revenues associated with the reserve; and providing a practical and applied tool for the reserves' managers daily management operations.

The Council of Narok and Trans Mara (2009/2019, pgs. 43-103) notes that big-ticket items for the plan in so far as any eco-tourism destination is concerned which contain but are not limited to: - ***The ecological Management Program; Tourism Management Program; Community Outreach & Partnership Program; Protected Area Operations Program*** which are all aimed at improving the functionality and sustainable productivity of the reserve whilst meeting local community needs. A distinguishable component of the plan is the inclusion in the ***Zonation and Visitor Use Scheme***. According to the Council of Narok and Trans Mara (2009/2019, pg. 14), the scheme defines specific activities and developments that are permitted in different zones within various parts of the MMNR with the primary objective being the protection of the reserve's areas of ecological significance (i.e., the Mara River, breeding areas, and ecological habitats for example) along with strengthening its tourism product for consumption. The scheme proposes three zones which encompass a ***High Use Zone; Low Use Zone*** and the ***Mara River Ecological Zone*** whilst also representing the placement of lodges, eco-lodges, eco campsites, roads, and concession/lease areas within the reserve's jurisdiction (See Figure 18: MMNR Zone Types and Boundaries). The Council of Narok and Trans Mara (2009/2019, pg. 21-25) suggests that the three zones are succinctly captured as follows:

- **The High Use Zone:** is anticipated to be the powerhouse of the reserve by offering budget and economical tourism products. It intends to present limited impacts on the natural environment. The primary focus of the zone is on proactive management efforts to improve the visitor experience and the development of additional road or track networks, anticipated to reduce congestion and enhance off-road driving. The total accommodation cap herein is 659 beds. The zone precludes off-road driving and permits balloon safaris, vehicle-based wildlife viewing, and bush dinners for example.
- **Low Use Zone:** proposes to host premium tourism products coinciding with low-density eco-lodges and eco camps alongside wildlife viewing. Under this zone, permitted uses to include vehicle-based viewing, off-road driving, balloon safaris, and bush dinners whilst it precludes the access of two-wheel drive vehicles and all vehicles with a seating capacity of more than 12 people. Overall, the zone intends to deliver the best tourism products which will enhance

revenue generation while ensuring minimal environmental impacts thus strengthening the image of the MMNR as a leader in eco-tourism services.

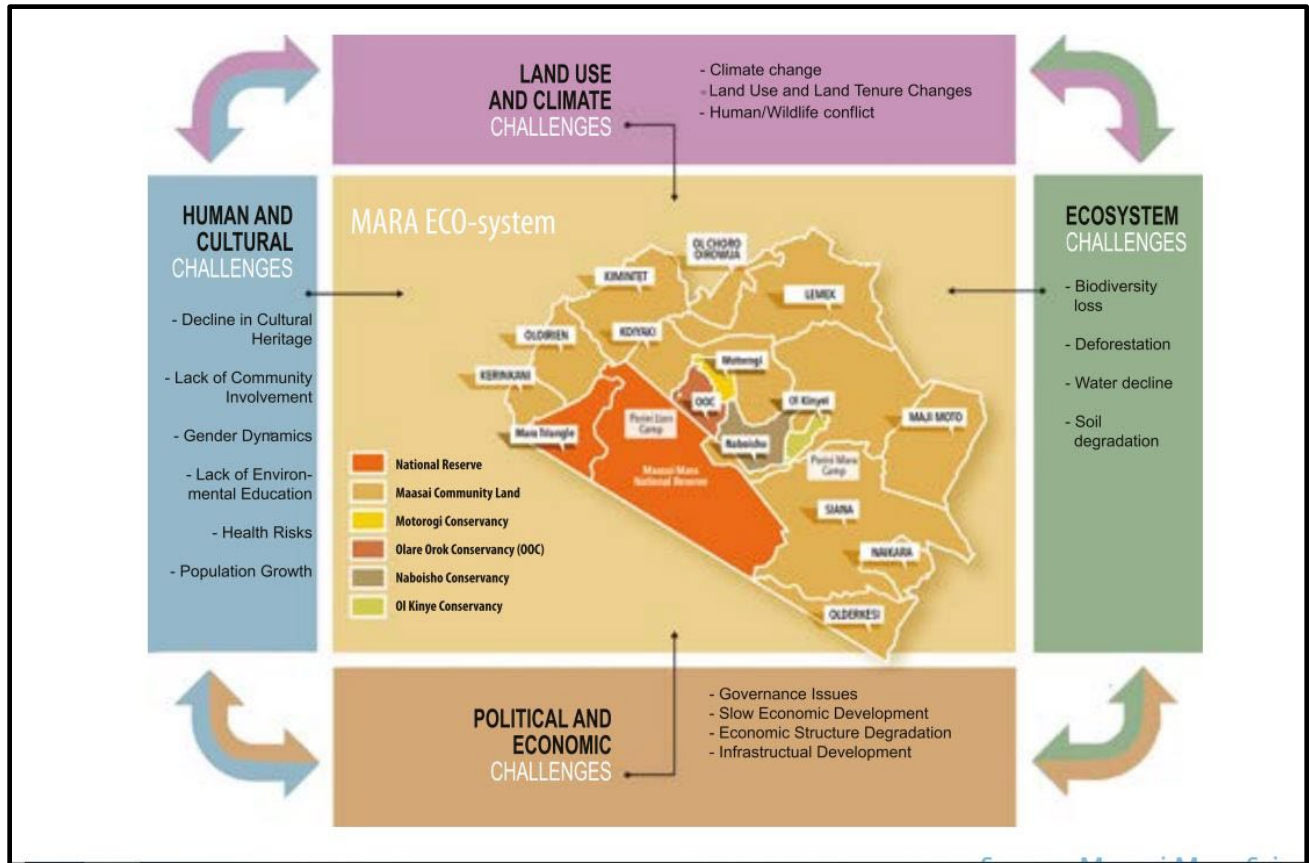
- **Mara River Ecological Zone:** is earmarked to encompass a limited number of suitably located high-end lodges and inclusive eco camps. It also intends to ensure the protection of riverine forests, and areas for rhino breeding inclusive of the wildebeest passage points along the Mara River, and limit the impacts of tourism on the environment. A maximum of 456 beds associated with eco-lodges and camps are proposed for the zone. The zone permits vehicle-based wildlife viewing, permanent or temporary viewpoints along the Mara River at wildebeest crossing passages, and balloon safaris but precludes off-road driving and bush eateries.

The Maasai Mara Wildlife Conservancies Association (MMWCA) is a prominent stakeholder in so far as the eco-tourism development agenda within the MMNR is concerned. According to the Maasai Mara Strategic Plan (MMSP) (2017-2020, pg. 1), the MMWCA was established in 2013 and its primary objective is to provide a clear direction for providing a guiding framework and resource allocation along with filling critical lacunae in the overall conservancy umbrella for the MMNR. The MMWCA developed the MMSP (2017-2020) as a three-year strategic plan. The MMSP (2017/2020) speaks to a variety of implementation strategies that are of paramount importance in conserving the feasibility of a landscape that supports both wildlife and traditional Maasai culture, whilst optimizing the community benefits from the reserve. The MMWCA (2017/2020, pg. 7) suggests that its core mission is to *“conserve the greater MMNR through a network of community protected areas for the prosperity of biodiversity and wildlife, the regional Maasai population, recreation, tourism, and the nation of Kenya.”* The MMWCA (2017/2020, pg. 1) identifies the following goals within the MMSP:

- **Goal 1:** Operationalize a robust ecological and social monitoring system;
- **Goal 2:** Ensure conservancies secure land for conservation use;
- **Goal 3:** Action and support conservancies to enhance and diversify sustainable revenue;
- **Goal 4:** Bolster conservancy governance, management, and the benefits associated therewith to motivate landowners to renew their conservation leases;
- **Goal 5:** Promote land use planning that fosters conservation and accompanying land use;
- **Goal 6:** Facilitate the establishment and management of conservation areas in critical wildlife corridors adjacent to existing conservancies;
- **Goal 7:** Promote public and government support for the Mara conservancies and wildlife conservation as land use;
- **Goal 8:** Coordinate and action technical expertise inclusive of funding to pilot projects to address critical environmental and social challenges ;
- **Goal 9:** Establish MMWCA as a high-functioning organization to effectively execute MMWCA’s 2017 - 2020 strategy.

Kindred to most less developed countries, the pursuance of eco-tourism development is met by a variety of encumbrances. The MMSDI (2015: 11) notes that the challenges facing the MMNR, and its neighbouring community conservancy areas include four broad issues, namely: - *land use and climate; ecosystem; political and economic; and human and cultural challenges* (Refer to Figure 19: Broad challenges facing the MMNR and neighbouring community conservancy areas).

Figure 19: Broad challenges facing the MMNR & neighbouring community conservancy areas



Source: MMSDI (2015).

According to the Council of Narok and Trans Mara (2009/2019); Bedelian (2012); the MMSDI (2015) and Drughy (2018) the four broad challenges are summarised as follows:

- **Land use and climate challenges** consist of *vulnerability towards climate change, land use, and tenure change* along with *human-wildlife conflicts*. Climate change is noted as comprising unpredictable and various seasonal fluctuations which have resulted in an inability of the reserve to cope with extreme weather conditions consisting of flooding and droughts.

Indirectly, this has led to severe impacts on wildlife and their migratory patterns which is further exacerbated by the encroachment of human activities and accompanying land uses for illegal operations such as poaching on natural ecosystems and environmentally significant corridors. Furthermore, this thwarts tourism opportunities as climate change negatively affects biodiversity and exacerbates its degradation along with local communities, livelihoods, and infrastructure. For example, in 2012, the main road highway to the reserve was blocked off due to flooding and landslides for approximately 3 days which restricted access to the MMNR and thus led to the loss of revenues. Land use and tenure change in the region are linked with a weak cash economy along with limited job opportunities which have contributed to an unabated land subdivision. The subdivided land parcels are sold to individuals that are not aligned with the sustainable management of natural resources. Additionally, the subdivisions have led to widespread fencing and conversion of land uses from traditional grazings to lodges, settlements, and ranches. Land parcels have become increasingly fragmented which increases risks associated with climate change and severe weather conditions coinciding with the inaccessibility of wildlife to contiguous landscapes which host migrations and areas of cultivation significance. Human-wildlife conflicts emerge due to the ever population growth which places significant pressure on the reserves land and accompanying environmental resources.

- **Ecosystems challenges:** relates to soil degradation, water level decline, deforestation, and biodiversity loss. Soil degradation within the MMNR is attributed to various factors. Deforestation and the clearing out of vegetation for agricultural purposes have led to the exposure and erosion of topsoil through surface water runoff. Additionally, the intensive use of land for agricultural purposes has asserted further pressure on soil resources which often yields degradation and erosion which is linked with overuse and surface runoff. With regard to water decline, extreme weather conditions associated with climate change and droughts have contributed to the decline in water levels in the Mara River. Furthermore, the rapid deforestation within the region in recent decades has led to a 32% loss of forest cover which also exacerbates the runoff of rainwater along with greater rates of erosion. This in turn leads to changes in the hydrological structure of the upper tributaries which adjoin the Mara River thus resulting in higher occurrences of flash floods and prolonged low flows. In so far as biodiversity loss is concerned, there has been a stark decline in the wildlife species in the MMNR due to intensified human activity associated with increased cultivation, expanding human settlements, and pastoral activities.

- **Political and economic challenges:** these encompass *governance issues, slow economic development, economic structure degradation, and infrastructural encumbrances*. The governance issues underpinning the reserve and its surrounds are related to the various government spheres which are key role players in eco-tourism development in the region. It is established that these various spheres have different and divergent interests which are manifested in sometimes conflicting policies and laws that are exacerbated by capacity constraints, corruption, and a lack of political goodwill. The slow economic development in the region is mostly aggravated by a rise in human-wildlife conflicts for competition for scarce natural resources alongside the increased terrorism and related attacks in Kenya. This stifles the branding image associated with the MMNR and yields lower revenues for the area. Linked to the economic structure degradation, the Council of Narok and Trans Mara have also been selling land at faster rates to non-Maasai communities who are wealthy. These communities often purchase the most fertile land parcels which implicitly pushes the Maasai to peripheral areas thus leading to overgrazing, land degradation, and poverty entrapment areas. From an infrastructural perspective, whilst the recent road network developments in and around the reserve provide the benefit of improved access to amenities such as markets, and schools, thus reducing transportation costs, there is little understanding of the negative environmental impacts of such developments on the Maasai Mara ecosystem.
- **Human and cultural challenges** include the decline in cultural heritage, lack of community involvement, health risks, population growth, limited environmental education, and gender dynamics. With the ever-growing urbanisation and modernisation there has been a significant decline in the cultural heritage of the Maasai people which is linked to the weakening of ties related to traditional indigenous medicine and food along with traditional crafts. The Maasai people are generally pastoralists who depend largely on their livestock and the environment for their food needs. Recently, there has been a notable dependence of the local community on food produced elsewhere due to sustained periods of drought and a decline in local medicinal knowledge. Maasai women are renowned for their beadwork which is also largely sold to tourists for income generation purposes. However, this is threatened by non-Maasai people who imitate and sell the beadwork at cheaper rates to tourists thus denying Maasai women their traditional art and crafts heritage. In terms of community involvement and gender dynamics, the women of the Maasai are generally part of identified eco-tourism projects at the planning stages but due to various maternal roles and obligations, they generally do not form part of the implementation of the projects. The MMNR also faces challenges that are

linked with a lack of environmental education which is further exacerbated by human-wildlife conflicts and a misunderstanding of conservation by local communities. In terms of population growth and health risks, the increase in demographics linked with urbanisation presents further pressures on natural resources and land associated with slums and also on infrastructural services such as health institutions and clinics.

The MMNR has its own set of encumbrances regarding the implementation of sustainable development tourism and eco-tourism which are part and parcel of any eco-tourism destination. However, one cannot deny the role of spatial planning and land use planning which is spearheaded by the government and other significant stakeholders in terms of creating an overall framework for the conservation of environmentally significant land parcels within the reserve whilst also layering down the favourable conditions for social and economic development.

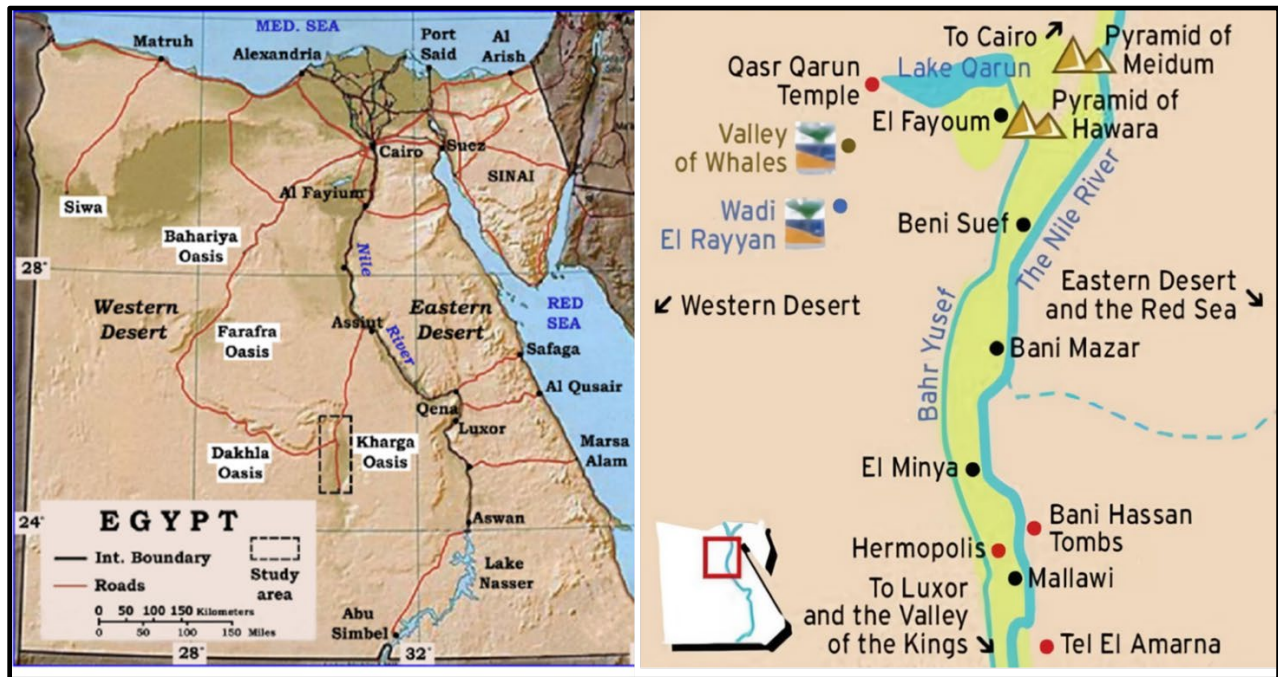
4.4.3. Fayoum Oasis, Egypt.

Fayoum is an oasis and governorate that is centrally located between the Nile Delta and the Upper portions of Egypt. It lies approximately 90 kilometers southwest of Cairo and north of the Western Desert (See Figure 20: Location of Fayoum Oasis). Fayoum hosts approximately 3 million inhabitants and comprises a total extent of 6068 km². According to Ramzy (2013), from an administrative perspective, Fayoum is divided into six districts, namely:- *Markaz, Tamiah, Senores, Faiyum, Abshway, Etsa, and Yosuf El Siddique*. All six main districts or cities host approximately 150 rural villages. According to the UNDP Human Development Index as cited by Khalifa and El-Khateeb (2011) the GDP per capita is reported to be approximately US \$ 3,301.8.

Ramzy (2013) suggests that the region of Fayoum in its dubbing owes its origins to the original Coptic name "Efiom" which means the "sea" "or "lake" and was later changed by those of Arabic origin, as the predominant language to translate the same. Khalifa and El-Khateeb (2011) state that the region, during ancient times, was a sea and is archeologically known for findings relating to great ancient whale fossils.

Paleczyny et al. (2007) along with Ramzy (2013) state that Fayoum hosts three protected areas identified by the Egyptian government in 1989 and three UNESCO World Heritage Sites all declared in 2005.

Figure 20: Location of Fayoum Oasis in Egypt



Source: Salman et al. (2010).

The three protected areas and UNESCO World Heritage Sites include **Lake Quroun and Wadi El Rayan**. Lake Quroun, accounting for 1155 km² in extent, is located approximately 20km from Fayoum and 80km from Cairo and is largely considered one of the most significant ancient and natural lakes within the governorate. The lake is ideal for bird watching, fishing, and practicing water sports (Haron and Wang 2011) (See Picture 3: Qaroun Lake). Wadi El-Rayyan covers approximately 1795 km² in total area and is located in the western desert of Egypt. Wadi El-Rayyan is a natural depression that is 42m below sea level and comprises two lakes that are adjoined by Egypt's only Waterfall (Khalifa and El-Khateeb 2011) (See Picture 4: Waterfalls of Wadi-El Rayan). Wadi El Hitan is a natural reserve that lies about 200km west of Cairo. Wadi El Hitan hosts a variety of fossilized flora and fauna inclusive of skeletons of some of the earliest whale species which are approximately 40 million years old (Refer to Picture 5: Whale Skeletons of Wadi El Hitan). This has led to the area being world-renowned as the "whale valley" due to its archaeological significance and opportunities for paleontological study (Paleczny et al 2007).

Picture 3: Qaroun Lake



Source: Khalifa and El-Khateeb (2011, pg. 5).

Picture 4: Wadi-El Rayan



Source: Khalifa and El Khateeb (2011, pg. 5).

Picture 5: Whale skeletons of Wadi El Hitan

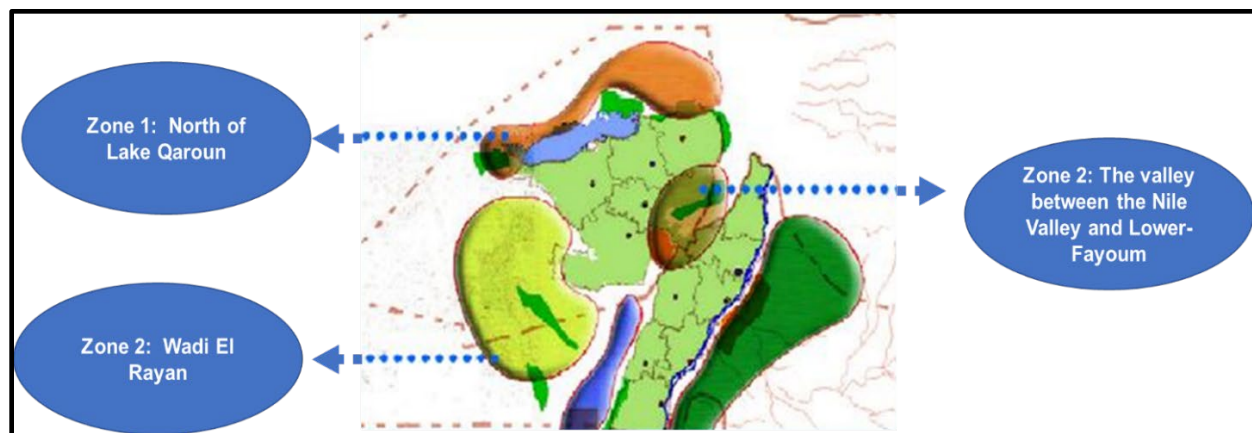


Source: Mosaad (2017).

There have been several development plans and policies aligned toward unlocking eco-tourism development and potential within the Fayoum Governorate. Ramzy (2013) states that the Egyptian Government, Fayoum Governorate in conjunction with spatial planning, environmental and eco-tourism specialists in private practices and academia spearheaded these plans and policies. These attempts started as early as 1991 and 2004. Khalifa and El Khateeb (2011) suggest that the most recently developed plans in this regard are “*The Tourism Development Plan For the northern Coast of Lake Qaroun*” which was prepared by the Tourism Development Agency (TDA) and “*The preparatory phase for eco-tourism in Fayoum*” which was established by the Fayoum Governorate in conjunction with North-South Consultants Exchange (NSCE). Kenawy (2015) notes that the TDA-spearheaded plan promoted the identification of new growth centers and investment opportunities areas which yielded approximately 2850 hotel rooms and 4200 tourist housing units focused therein along lake Quroun. According to Ramzy (2013), akin to the plan/policy prepared by the Fayoum Governorate and NSCE largely focused on testing the applicability of many eco-tourism activities whilst also promoting the establishment of micro-enterprises for residents. From a spatial planning perspective, the General Organization for

Physical Planning (GOPP), as articulated by Khalifa and El-Khateeb (2011), prepared a comprehensive development plan relating to the development trajectory of the northern governorates of Egypt. The GOPP (2015) notes that it is responsible for driving the overall policy frameworks governing urban planning and sustainable urban development through strategic planning on a national, regional, and local level. According to Kenawy (2015), Fayoum was identified as central in such a plan which was accompanied by three development zones that highlighted the distinct role each zone played within the overall northern governorates of Egypt inclusive of future land usage potential. **Zone 1: the North of Lake Qaroun** which was identified as hosting agricultural reclamation areas on the northern shores of the lake, was also earmarked for future potential in tourism and services, reclamation of land, and further industrial opportunities (Kenawy, 2015). Khalif and El Khateeb (2011) suggest that **Zone 2: The area between the Nile Valley and Lower Fayoum** is identified as hosting various archaeologically significant sites which are of significance to paleontological study. **Zone 3: Wadi El Rayan**, as stated by GOPP (2015) was identified as having eco-tourism potential, industrial activities, and land reclamation (See Figure 21: GOPP Development Zones in Alfayoum Governorate).

Figure 21: GOPP development zones in Fayoum Governorate

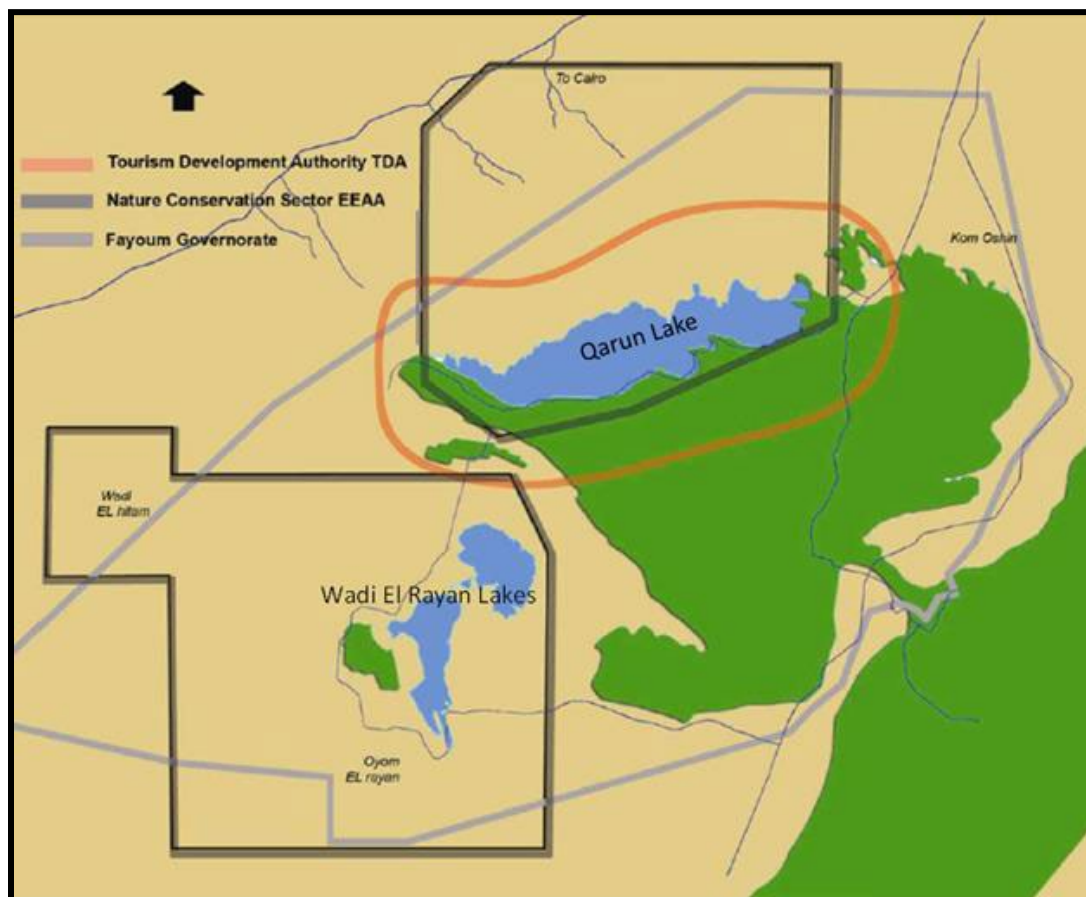


Source: Khalif and El-Khateeb (2011).

Ramzy (2013) notes that whilst there have been several plans and policies related to unlocking the eco-tourism development potential in the Fayoum Oasis region, very few have been implemented. This is due to issues regarding regional economic constraints, the conflict between authorities, capacity challenges, lack of awareness from the public, and language barriers for example. Likewise, Kenawy and Shaw (2014) concur and note that from a spatial planning perspective, a few regional development plans have been commissioned without being implemented. The central challenge within this regard is identified as fragmentation between

government agencies underlined by conflicting spatial plans for the very same locations accompanied by an absence of negotiations between various stakeholders (Kenawy 2015). According to Khalifa and El Khateeb (2011), despite the presence of three globally recognized World Heritage Sites within the Fayoum Oasis, there are further identified broad impediments in developing its eco-tourism potential which include **land ownership conflict**, **water pollution**, **illegal fossil excavations**, and **lack of tourism opportunities**. Ramzy (2013) suggests that the key challenge relates to land ownership and the appropriate governorate department to assume the authority of Lake Qaroun and Wadi El Rayan (See Figure 22: Land Jurisdiction of Lake Qaroun and Wadi El Rayan). Kenawy (2015) states that the boundaries applicable to the two protected areas are shared between various authorities or government spheres. This inherently yields various cross-boundary alignment issues, conflicting laws, divergent interests, and a development vision associated therewith.

Figure 22: Land jurisdiction of lake Qaroun and Wadi El Rayan



Source: Kenawy (2015).

According to Khalifa and El-Khateeb (2011), the Fayoum Oasis area is encumbered by water pollution characterized by chemical pollutants in the Wadi El Rayan area which eventually reach the Fayoum lakes. Ramzy (2013) states that due to the area's archeological significance, there have been several prehistoric artifacts from the Pharaonic, Christian, and Islamic eras that have been illegally excavated by visitors and people from the neighbouring areas of Fayoum. Gad-Elrab (2007) as cited by Khalifa and El Khateeb (2011) and Kenawy (2015) further suggests that the region comprises a shortage of accommodation and accompanying services in the region.

Paleczny et al (2007) state whilst Fayoum Oasis faces several challenges in terms of eco-tourism development, it is identified as an area of eco-tourism significance and opportunity in Egypt. Ramzy (2013) advocates the case for an eco-tourism management plan for the Oasis which is anticipated to address the emergent issues. Such a plan is earmarked to maintain the sustainability agenda in ensuring environmental, economic, and socio-economic development that is linked with strong participation between various stakeholders including communities, the private sector, and the government.

4.5. Chapter Summary

In light of the advanced discussions within this chapter, it can be concluded that eco-tourism is a complex and somewhat contentious concept in terms of its understanding and associated implementation. Kenawy and Shaw (2014) note that apart from the consensus amongst practitioners that eco-tourism development is synonymous with areas of natural significance, the concept is blemished by a misunderstanding of what essentially it comprises. According to Weaver (2001), as cited by Magio et al. (2013) without a sound basis associated therewith, it stands to reason that eco-tourism in its essence is a paradox and one cannot remain aloof to its ties with the concept of sustainability which also suffers a similar fate.

Zaman et al. (2012) reiterate and need for infrastructural planning and development, provision of accommodation facilities, transportation, and other akin services in so far as eco-tourism development is concerned, whilst Drughi (2018), interestingly discourage such activities and note that these protected areas should remain unaltered. This complexity and uncertainty should be approached with caution and a common vision of what essentially constitutes eco-tourism development.

In terms of developing countries, according to Ramzy (2013), it is settled that there are some obstacles and challenges regarding the implementation of eco-tourism which include a lack of

participation and involvement of host communities and key stakeholders, environmental degradation, divergent interests and visions in so far as government policies are concerned. Khalifa and El-Khateeb (2011) state that the elected precedent case studies have demonstrated these challenges and reiterate the case that the development of these eco-tourism destinations goes far beyond policy and plan-making.

Furthermore, Kenawy and Shaw (2014) suggest that there is also a need for the deepening of the democratic process in so far as local communities are concerned which would then enable a more concrete trajectory in terms of meeting the social, environmental, and economic pillars associated with eco-tourism. According to Ramzy (2013), much of the latter is intrinsically linked with the education of local communities in so far as eco-tourism coinciding with various partnerships and coordination between the government and the private sector among other stakeholders. As Vargas el Río and Brenner (2013) in Magio et al. (2013, pg. 484) put it, *“it is impossible to conserve and protect natural resources, especially in developing countries while excluding planning for human needs of the local communities”*. Inherently this point of departure in assessing and alleviating the current challenges in developing countries is of paramount importance.

This chapter has demonstrated that the pursuit of eco-tourism development in developing countries is nothing out of the ordinary and it is humbly submitted that it has successfully summarised the key pertinent discussions regarding developing countries and the spatial and land use implications associated with the same. The dissertation will now proceed to the selected study area and shed light on the process linked with the development of the draft FAP and scheme.

5. CHAPTER FIVE: SHONGWENI DAM PRECINCT C OF THE ETHEKWINI MUNICIPALITY

5.1. Introduction

The role of this chapter is twofold. It firstly provides a brief background and locality of the study area. Secondly, it speaks to the applicable planning process undertaken by the EMM in terms of the proposed draft FAP and Scheme. The draft FAP and scheme were prepared in terms of the provisions of SPLUMA. The core objective of this chapter is to highlight the planning initiatives undertaken by the EMM against the backdrop and outcomes of the preceding chapter but also set up a continuum with the following chapter which is focused on presenting the situational analysis underpinning the study area.

5.2. Background and geographic location of the Shongweni Dam Precinct C (Study Area)

Morris (1969) suggests that the “Shongweni” is an anglicized version of a name derived from the Zulu word “Ntshongweni” which is the name given to the steep-sided and cone-shaped mountain that is surrounded by precipices and thick forest within the broader Shongweni Area. According to the eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality (EMM) (2010), at the base of this mountain sits the Ntshongweni River, which supplies the Ntshongweni Dam. The area is noted as one that consists of various soil, aquatic, and vegetation elements which lend it to be an area of environmental significance and prominence.

The study area is situated within the Outer West Region (OWR) of the EMM. It lies approximately 35 km west of the Durban CBD and 26 km outside the uMgungundlovu DM. According to the EMM (2011), the study area is approximately 968 Hectares (Ha) in extent and is located in the valley between the Summerveld and the Mpumalanga areas. It falls within Ward 7 of the EMM. Primary access to the study area is obtained via the MR551 which is a provincial road that emerges from JB McIntosh Drive and Kassier Road. Kassier Road forms the primary link within the broader Summerveld and Shongweni areas to the N3 Freeway. The study area is located some 5.4 km Southwest of the N3 Freeway, which plays a significant role in connecting the EMM on a national and provincial scale (See Map 2: Location of the study area).

According to the EMM (2010), the study area is identified as an eco-tourism node within the EMM's strategic suite of development plans, namely the Shongweni LAP. The Shongweni LAP is the fourth plan in the municipality's hierarchy of plans and draws its development trajectory from the municipality's IDP (2020/2021); SDF (2021/2022) and OWSDP (2013/2014) which are all strategic documents that provide land use, development, and investment direction specifically to the study area. The study area hosts a variety of uses that are aligned with the spatial objectives of the municipality in terms of eco-tourism development. These activities are centered on the presence of the Shongweni Dam, the most prominent feature in the study area, and include kayaking, rock climbing, and trail walks for example. Other distinguished activities within the study area include the Shongweni Farmers Market, wedding venues, pottery making, and 4x4 trails which are all indicative of its eco-tourism function within the Outer OW Region and the greater EMM (See Picture 6: Broad Activities within the study area).

Picture 6: Broad Activities in Study Area



Source: Authors Own (2016), Ntshongweni Dam (2021), and Google Images (2020).

5.3. Planning Informants and interventions applicable to the Study Area

In 2015, the EMM undertook the preparation of the Draft FAP and Draft Land Use Scheme for Precinct C (i.e. the study area) (“the project”). The main role of this project was to create regulatory land use and development framework for the study area as such a guideline previously did not exist. The project intended to give effect to the municipality’s strategic development plans which earmarked the study area for eco-tourism development purposes (Shongweni LAP, 2010). According to the Republic of South Africa (RSA) (2013) the project, in terms of establishing a land use scheme for the study area, also marked an incremental approach in incorporating areas previously located outside a formal town planning scheme within a land use scheme thus giving credence to the legal imperatives of the Spatial Land Use Management Act (SPLUMA) No 16 of 2013.

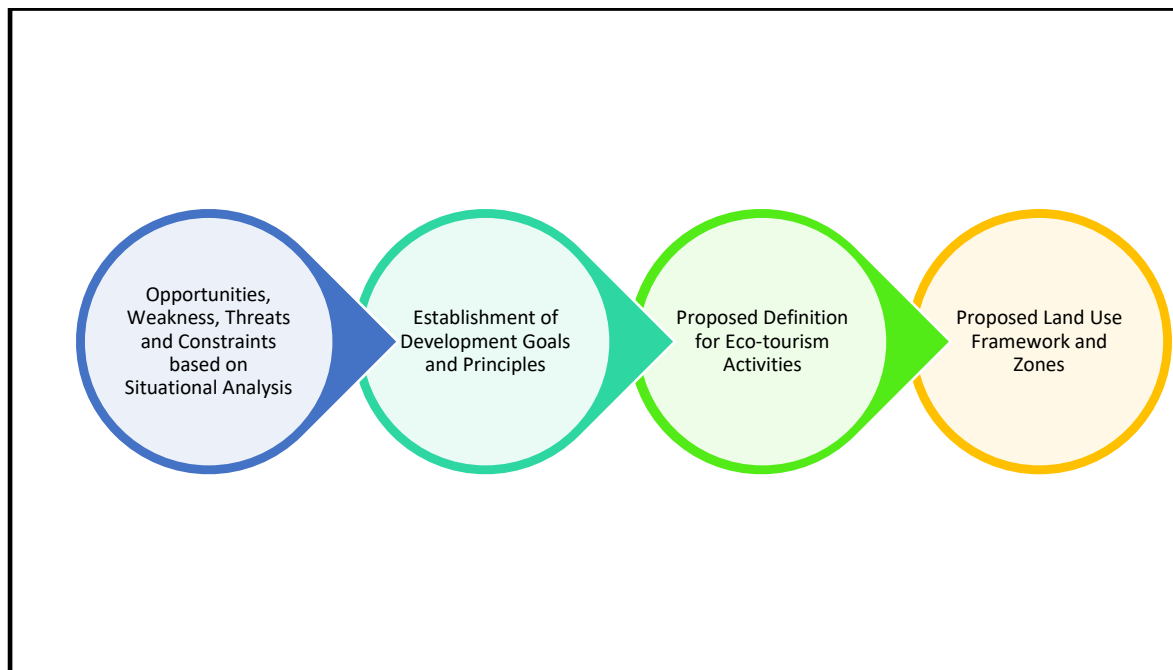
According to the EMM (2010), due to the study area not having a regulatory development framework, it experienced an emergence of a range of misaligned land uses and challenges that were out of sync with the municipality’s spatial directive of eco-tourism development. These land use and challenges included industrial creep inclusive of a decline in the nature and environmental-based value the study area presented (EMM, 2010). Within this context, the FAP and draft Land Use Scheme for the Shongweni Dam Precinct were birthed. From a development informant perspective, according to the EMM (2016) it effectively intends to align the municipality’s spatial development vision of “*promoting eco-tourism uses*” as per the municipality’s directive to a more site-specific development framework applicable to the study area.

5.3.1. Process outline of establishing the Shongweni FAP and Land Use Scheme for the Study Area

The process of developing the Shongweni FAP and the draft scheme was focused on the EMM’s approved strategic and spatial development plans which earmarked the study area for eco-tourism development purposes.

In terms of the municipality’s approach to developing the FAP and draft scheme, the following process was undertaken:

Figure 23: Process of Developing Draft FAP and Land Use Scheme



Source: EMM (2016).

According to the EMM (2016) the preparation of FAP and draft scheme for the study area, included:

- A SWOT analysis further refined the prevalent opportunities and challenges and a guiding framework to establish development goals associated with the study area.
- From the SWOT Analysis, the municipality undertook a policy and strategic planning assessment related to its adopted OWSDP (2013/2014) and Shongweni LAP (2010) which yielded a broad set of development principles and goals for the study area.
- The introduction of a land-use definition for incorporation into the OWS catered and layered favourable conditions for eco-tourism-related activities. The outcome of the proposed land use definition was identified as **“Adventure Tourism Activities”**.
- A land-use management framework and a new land-use zone were subsequently proposed for incorporation into the OWS.

The aforementioned process unfolded in the following manner:

5.3.2. Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats (SWOT) Analysis

Ommani (2011) suggests that a Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats (SWOT) Analysis provides a framework for helping researchers and planners to prioritise development goals and identify further strategies to achieve such goals. According to the EMM (2016),

SWOT analyses related to the study area include:

Table 6: SWOT Analysis

SWOT Analysis	
Strengths	Weaknesses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The study area is strategically located as it lies some 4km away from a national transport corridor, i.e. the N3, and can entrench itself as a tourism destination. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Unauthorised land uses like industrial creep within the study area characterised by a transport/trucking depot, and a general factory is misaligned with the municipality's future development intentions for the area.
Opportunities	Constraints
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Eco-tourism potential which can generate economic productivity, particularly around Shongweni Dam; Development scenarios within neighbouring precincts, namely Precincts B and F offer future possibilities for the expansion of tourism activity due to such precincts being earmarked for commercial and mixed land use activities. The study area is located within two precincts that are earmarked for mixed-use intentions by the municipality 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Topographical features underlying the study area inhibit development potential and infrastructural provision; Only some 4% of the total study area presents development potential as a result of environmental elements (i.e. wetlands, D'Moss, and rivers) therein; and The lack of infrastructural capacity in terms of bulk infrastructure proves to be problematic in terms of catering to future development scenarios in the study area.

Source: eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality (EMM) (2016).

5.3.3. Proposed Development Principles and Goals Applicable to Study Area

According to the EMM(2016), the development principles and goals applicable to the study area were drawn from the OWSDP (2013/2014) and Shongweni LAP (2010). The development principles and goals advanced by the Draft FAP, and Scheme are:

Table 7: Proposed Development Principle for Study Area

Development Principle	Description
Access	Improving access to opportunity; improving pedestrian access and routing through the introduction of traffic calming measures within the precinct particularly along the MR 551; creating safe access routes, and maximising and exploiting current metropolitan access routes.
Environmental and Social Sustainability	refers to creating an environment that is socially and environmentally sustainable in terms of the built and ecological spheres; Areas of ecological importance and the potential these areas present in terms of the incorporation of culture-based tourism activities from the surrounding areas.

Opportunity	Providing and expanding the potential for opportunities within the study area and designing responsive land use controls that encourage a particular form of land use activity whilst at the same time preserving the character of the area.
Land Use Compatibility and Densification	Land use compatibility refers to the appropriate mix and interaction between the proposed and existing land uses to ensure consistency with the municipality’s vision of eco-tourism-type developments; and densification refers to the process of meaningfully increasing residential units within the study area in a manner that is environmentally conscious and responsive to future residential demand, particularly within the low-middle income housing spectrum.

Source: EMM (2016).

The proposed development goals from the Draft FAP and Scheme, are noted as:

Figure 24: Proposed development goals for the study area



Source: EMM (2016).

5.3.4. Proposed land use definition for “eco-tourism development” for incorporation into OWS and introduction into the study area

According to the EMM (2016), after the conceptualisation of the study area’s development principles and goals, the municipality proposed a land-use definition that is consistent with its

spatial objective eco-tourism development purposes in the OWS and the study area. The proposed land use definition associated with such was termed “**adventure tourism activities**” (ibid).

The EMM (2020, pg. 33) defines adventure tourism activities as: “.....*activities which are undertaken as recreational travel to a specific area to enjoy the area's physical challenges inclusive of its natural and environmental attributes. Adventure tourism activities may include zip lining; rap jumping; abseiling; rock-climbing; paragliding; hiking; mountain-biking; trail running; birding; orienteering; inflatable obstacle courses; inflatable sports park; canoeing, kayaking; fishing, and windsurfing for example*”.

5.3.5. Proposed land use framework, land use zones, and areas of densification identified in the study area

According to the EMM (2016), The premises of the land use framework was based on three factors that include:- the prevalent land use activities occurring on each individual property in the study area along with the existing and approved set of land use zones to cater for such land-use activities as encapsulated by the OWS. Furthermore, the United Nations (2020) and the EMM (2016) note that the other factors included the need to propose a new land-use zone to cater to the municipality’s eco-tourism development vision for the study area.

According to the EMM (2016), most of the proposed zones advanced by the FAP remained consistent with the OWS except for one, namely the proposed “*Nature and Culture-Based Tourism*” zone (See Table 8: Proposed Framework and Zones Applicable to Study Area).

Table 8: Proposed Land Use Framework and Zones Applicable to Study Area

PROPOSED ZONE	STATEMENT OF INTENT
AGRICULTURE 3	To provide, preserve, use land or buildings for Agricultural productivity, and to an extent, applicable depending on the Municipal approval used for industrial development and uses ancillary to agricultural activity.
CONSERVATION	A zone where the protection of the natural environment is of primary importance and land ownership is to remain with the private sector, albeit with limited rights subject to the approval of the municipality. Not suitable for Council or public body-owned land. The zone is normally imposed on the site that carries a primary zone, i.e. split zoning. The final "set-back line" to be determined on the ground before development.
*NATURE & CULTURE-BASED TOURISM (Proposed Zone)	This zone is intended to manage the development of land and buildings for eco-tourism and nature-based tourism developments. The focus will include accommodation in the form of lodges, conference facilities, caravans, and tented accommodations. In addition, this zone caters to eco-educational facilities; outdoor recreation, and participatory travel experiences to both natural as well as to cultural environments that contribute to the sustainable use of these areas, respect for the integrity of the host communities which produce economic opportunities that contribute to the long-term conservation of the resource base and reinforce the concept that conservation can bring meaningful benefits.
SPECIAL RESIDENTIAL 900	To provide, preserve, and use land or buildings for single residential use in a form of a dwelling house and ancillary uses. Protection of the quality and character of a residential neighbourhood and the well-being of its residents by limiting multiple uses of buildings to minimize adverse impacts on the residential environment. The business complies with residential amenities such as a Bed and Breakfast Establishment, Guest House Establishment, and Home Business at the discretion of the EMM.
TOURIST	The purpose of this zone will be to accommodate a wide range of recreational, entertainment, residential, and commercially related activities, in such a way that the uses contribute towards the creation of a dynamic, harmonious, and well-balanced tourism-related zone of the highest aesthetic, landscaping and urban design quality.
WORSHIP	To provide, preserve, and use land or buildings for a church, mosque, temple, chapel, or another place for practicing faith or religion and ancillary uses ordinarily associated thereto.

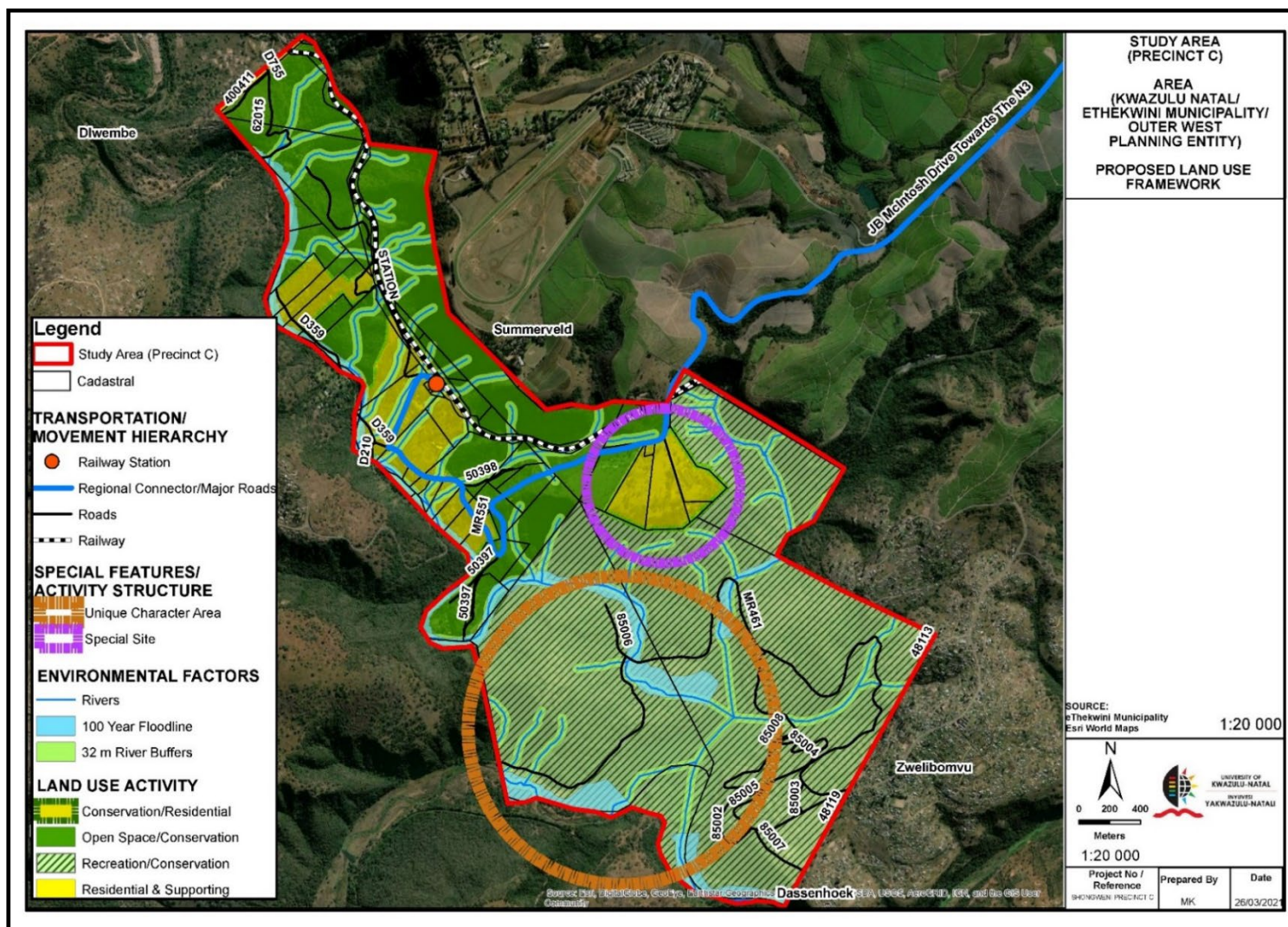
Source: EMM (2016).

The nature and culture-based tourism zone, as articulated by the EMM (2010, PG. 97) were proposed to cater to the "unique character area" (i.e. the Shongweni Dam Facility) and the "special site" (i.e. the Shongweni Farmers Market) and to provide for further latitude in terms of catalysing eco-tourism development within the study area. The spatial structure of the study area emerged from the predecessor of the proposed FAP and Draft Scheme, namely the Shongweni LAP (2010). The plan noted that the study area, at a cursory level, consisted of

“open space/conservation;” “conservation/residential;” “recreational/conservation” and “residential/supporting” activities (EMM, 2016) (See Map 3: Land Use Framework as per the Shongweni LAP 2010).

In terms of the proposed “nature and culture-based tourism” zone, the zone hosted a list of primary, special consent, and precluded uses along with a set of development controls (See Table 9: Proposed Nature and Culture-Based Development Controls). The proposed zoning for properties in the study area included *Agriculture 3*; Conservation; Nature and Culture-Based Tourism, Special Residential 900, and Tourist and Worship zones (Refer to Map 4: Proposed Land Use Zoning Plan).

Map 3: Land Use Framework as per the Shongweni LAP (2010)



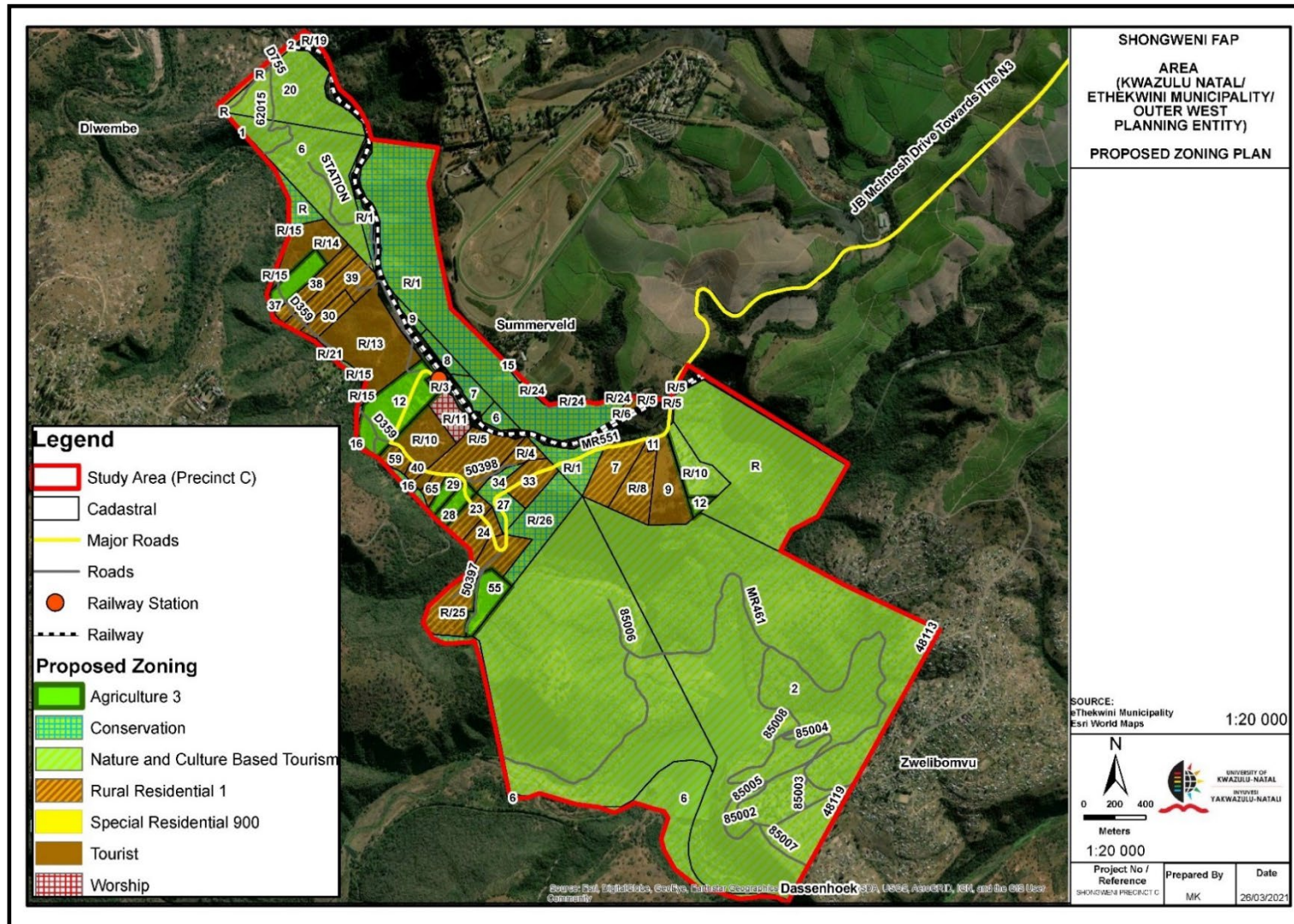
Source: eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality (2016).

Table 9: Proposed Nature and Culture-Based Tourism Development Controls

		ZONE: NATURE AND CULTURE-BASED TOURISM					
<p>SCHEME INTENTION: This zone is intended to manage the development of land and buildings for eco-tourism and nature-based tourism developments. The focus will include accommodation in the form of lodges, conference facilities, caravans, and tented accommodations. In addition, this zone caters to eco-educational facilities; outdoor recreation, and participatory travel experiences to both natural as well as to cultural environments that contribute to the sustainable use of these areas, respect for the integrity of the host communities which produce economic opportunities that contribute to the long-term conservation of the resource base and reinforce the concept that conservation can bring meaningful benefits.</p>							
PRIMARY		SPECIAL CONSENT		PRECLUDED			
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •*Adventure Tourism Activities • Chalet Development • Conservation area • Dwelling House (Restricted to use by a caretaker or conservation manager only) • Private Recreation Area 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Arts and Crafts Workshop • BTTS • Caravan Park • Chalet Development • Convention Centre • Educational Establishment • Extended Residential Building • Flea Market • Garden Nursery • Government/Municipal • Health & Beauty Clinic • Health Studio • Hotel • Institution • Mobile Home Park & Camping Ground • Place of Public Assembly • Place of Public Entertainment • Place of Public Worship • Residential Building • Restaurant/Fast Food Outlet • Shop • Special Building • Tavern 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Agricultural Activity • Action Sports Bar • Adult Premises • Agricultural Land • Airport • Animal Facility • Bar • Betting Depot • Boarding House • Builder's Yard • Car Wash • Cemetery • Container Depot • Crematorium • Direct Access Service Centre • Display Area • Drive-in cinema • Escort Agency • Flat • Fueling and Service Station • Funeral Parlor • Industry - Extractive • Industry – General • Industry – Light • Industry – Noxious • Museum • Mortuary 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Laundry • Motor Garage • Motor Display Area • Motor Workshop • Museum • Multiple Unit Development • Night Club • Parade • Pet Grooming Parlor • Recycling Centre • Reform School • Refuse Disposal • Restricted Building • Retirement Centre • Riding Stables • Sand-winning • Scrap Yard • Special Industrial Building • Transport Depot • Truck Stop • Veterinary Clinic • Veterinary hospital • Warehouse • Zoological Garden 	
ADDITIONAL CONTROLS							
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Any use proposed in terms of this zone shall be aligned with the principles and intent of the environmental management plan, existing or contemplated for this area to minimize the impacts on the purposes and integrity of the area under the D'MOSS layer. All proposed land uses must be accompanied by specialist reports as may be required by the Head: of Development Planning, Environment, and Management in consultation with the Environmental Planning and Climate Protection Department of the Municipality. 2. Development is subject to all related environmental and infrastructural authorizations. 							
DEVELOPMENT PARAMETERS							
SPACE ABOUT BUILDINGS		UNITS PER HECTARE	MINIMUM ERF SIZE	HEIGHT IN STOREYS	COVERAGE	FLOOR AREA RATIO	
BUILDING LINE	SIDE & REAR SPACE						
7.5 m	3.0 m	N/A	5000 m ²	2	20%	N/A	

Source: eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality (2016).

Map 4: Proposed Land Use Zoning Plan

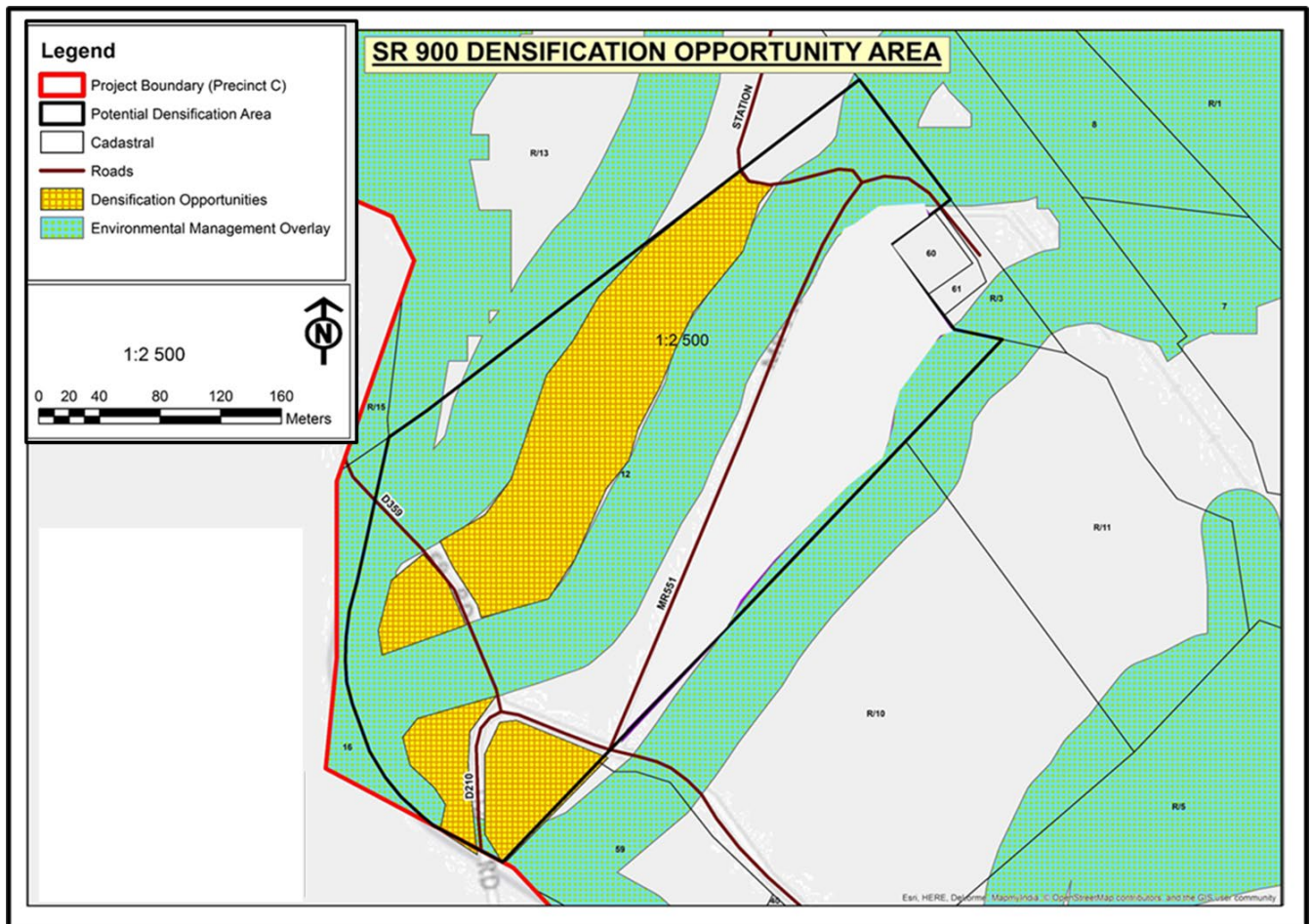


Source: eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality (2016).

In so far as the areas identified for densification, the EMM (2016) suggests that much of it hinged on the availability of municipal and government-owned land parcels within the study area or land parcels that were suitably located in proximity to the railway line and the existing train station.

Whilst there were certain municipal or government-owned land parcels, in terms of site size, they were not suitable to cater for densification opportunities in the study area (ibid). This led to the identification of "Portion 12 of Zigzag No 9064" as a land parcel that was suitable and capable to cater for such due to its proximity to the railway line. According to the EMM (2017), the criterion to identify this land parcel for densification was based on it being bisected by three municipal roads, demonstrating its accessibility, and because it had the least environmental constraints (i.e. rivers, D'MOSS, etc) (See Figure 25: Identified Densification Opportunity Area).

Figure 25: Identified Densification Opportunity Area



Source: EMM (2017).

5.4. Chapter Summary

The chapter has highlighted the key ingredients that were considered in the preparation of the draft FAP and scheme. According to the EMM (2016), these included a SWOT analysis, establishing the development principles and goals applicable to the study area; and the proposed land use framework, land use zones, and areas of densification opportunity. The EMM (2010) notes that the proposed project and the ingredients that ultimately influenced the FAP and scheme drew insights from the hierarchical nature of plans within the EMM which ultimately earmarked the site as an eco-tourism destination for several years.

Nel (2015) notes that the project intended to create a regulatory land use framework and land use zones which marked an incremental approach towards the establishment of land use schemes for areas that were previously without schemes. According to RSA (2013, pg. 36), this essentially is reiterated in Section 24 (2) (c) of SPLUMA which states that: it *“permits the incremental introduction of land use management and regulation in areas under traditional leadership, rural areas, informal settlements, slums and areas not previously subject to a land use scheme”*. Barclay (2016) further suggests that the identification of certain land parcels for densification purposes near transportation networks also demonstrated that the project was adherent to the principles of **spatial justice** and **spatial sustainability** echoed within SPLUMA.

The project through aligning itself with the OWSDP and Shongweni LAP managed to align itself with the development of a FAP and land use scheme that was SPLUMA compliant but most importantly a plan that was consistent with the objectives of the municipality and ultimately the OWS. According to the EMM (2016), this was achieved through retaining most of the land use zones that exist in the current OWS but also through the FAP advancing the proposed “Nature and Culture-Based Tourism” zone to cater to the existing Shongweni Dam and the establishment of adventure tourism activities in the study area. The study will delve into the situational analysis applicable to the study area.

6. CHAPTER SIX: SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS APPLICABLE TO THE STUDY AREA

6.1. Introduction

According to the International Atomic Energy Agency (2022), a situational analysis aids in the development of a foundational understanding of the context in which the project emanated and also demonstrates the spatial and non-spatial characteristics that underpin the study area. The chapter highlights the infrastructural and spatial analysis underpinning the study area. This component of the chapter assesses *sanitation, water supply, electricity, stormwater, and transport and movement* as part of the *infrastructural analysis*. Subsequently, the chapter assesses the physical environment and spatial analysis which covers *the slope and elevation profile; environmental analysis; land ownership; public and social facilities; and land use analysis* along with the identification of *misaligned land uses* that conflict with the ecotourism development agenda.

6.2. Infrastructural Analysis

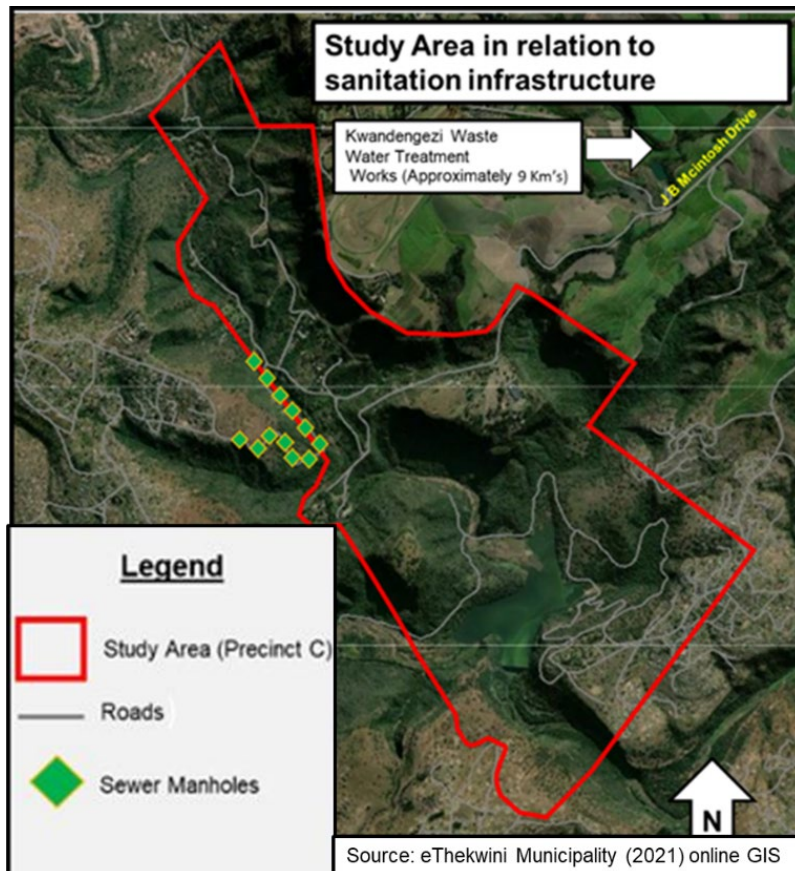
According to ESRI (2014), the assessment and analysis of infrastructural data are imperative for urban geographers and professionals in the built environment in terms of making informed planning and development decisions. Barbero et al. (2019) suggest that these forms of data assist in understanding the key development opportunities and challenges that shape our cities, rural areas, and countries at large. The infrastructural analysis was undertaken through an assessment of existing GIS Shapefile data, Online GIS information from the EMM (2013), (2016), (2020), and (2021). Furthermore, in other parts of the analysis, Google Earth (2020) and on-site observations were utilised to ensure an all-inclusive analysis.

6.3.1. Sanitation

The supply authority is EMM's Water and Sanitation Department. The area is not covered by any reticulated network of water-borne sewage. The closest sewage treatment works are the Kwandengezi wastewater treatment works, located approximately 9 km downstream, and due to the steep terrain of the study area, the servicing costs associated with laying additional sewer pipes are largely uneconomical. Furthermore, according to the EMM (2016) even if this were a contemplation, the capacity details of Kwandengezi wastewater treatment works are unknown at this time. According to EMM (2016), any future additional developments in the study area need

to be discussed on an individual basis with EMM's Water and Sanitation Department with particular regard to an outfall and pipe capacity solution. Furthermore, an assessment of the municipality's Online GIS Data (2021) also suggests that outside the southwestern portion of the study area lies sewer manholes, however, little is known of their operational status (See Figure 26: Sanitation infrastructure in the study area).

Figure 26: Sanitation infrastructure in the study area



Source: eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality Online GIS (2021).

6.3.2. Water Supply

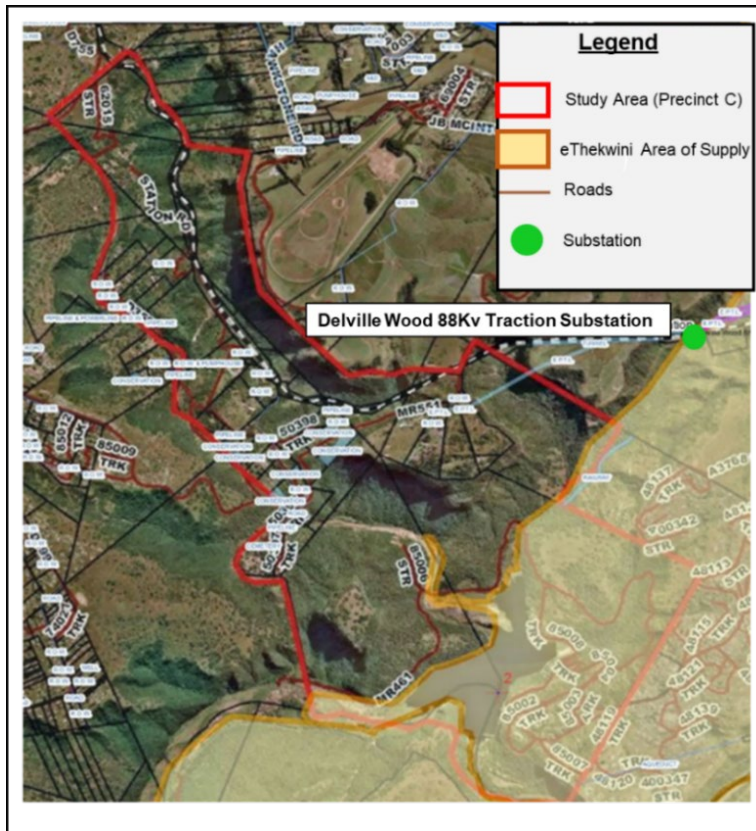
The EMM (2016) states that the responsible supply authority is EMM's Water and Sanitation Department, and the study area is noted as falling within 2 reservoir supply zones, namely: the Hammarsdale LL Reservoir which supplies approximately 35% of water to the study area, and the Salem Res which services a small portion of the study area. According to the EMM (2016), both the Salem and Hammarsdale Reservoirs do not have any spare capacity at present and are planned for an upgrade in the EMM's 25-year master plan.

Consequently, any future additional developments in the study area require to be addressed with the municipality on an individual basis.

6.2.3. Electricity

The EMM (2016) notes that the respective supply authorities are both Eskom and the EMM Electricity Department. The blanked-off area depicted in an orange-yellowish colour in Figure 27 is EMM's Electricity area of supply whilst the remainder belongs to Eskom.

Figure 27: EMM's electricity area of supply and Eskom's area of supply in the study area



Source: eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality (2016).

There are no EMM High Voltage substations within the study area and of the existing ones, Hillcrest and Kloof are the closest (i.e. 8-12km north of the study area) (EMM, 2016). The EMM (2016) suggests that in Hillcrest, there is a 132/11 kilovolt (kV) Substation - currently, loading is 57.7 Mega Volt Ampere (MVA), and the associated design capacity is 60 MVA. In terms of Kloof, there is a 33/11 kV substation currently fully loaded with no spare capacity. Any future additional

developments in the study area will need to be discussed on an individual basis with Eskom and EMM Electricity Department for a demand and capacity solution (EMM, 2016).

6.2.4. Storm Water

The supply authority is EMM's Coastal and Drainage Department. There is no stormwater capacity information on record at EMM's Coastal and Drainage Department. The EMM's Coastal and Drainage Department, according to the EMM (2016), notes that work on the basis that if the land is developed in an area, then from as-built /GIS information that specific isolated network is checked with assistance from that appointed design consultant. The current policy is that post-development discharge rates are limited to those matching pre-development conditions. EMM's Coastal and Drainage Department, therefore, do not have a full network analysis for the study area and cannot address any demand and available capacity queries. According to the EMM (2016), Any future additional developments in the study area will need to be discussed on an individual basis with EMM Coastal and Drainage Department for an outfall and pipe capacity solution.

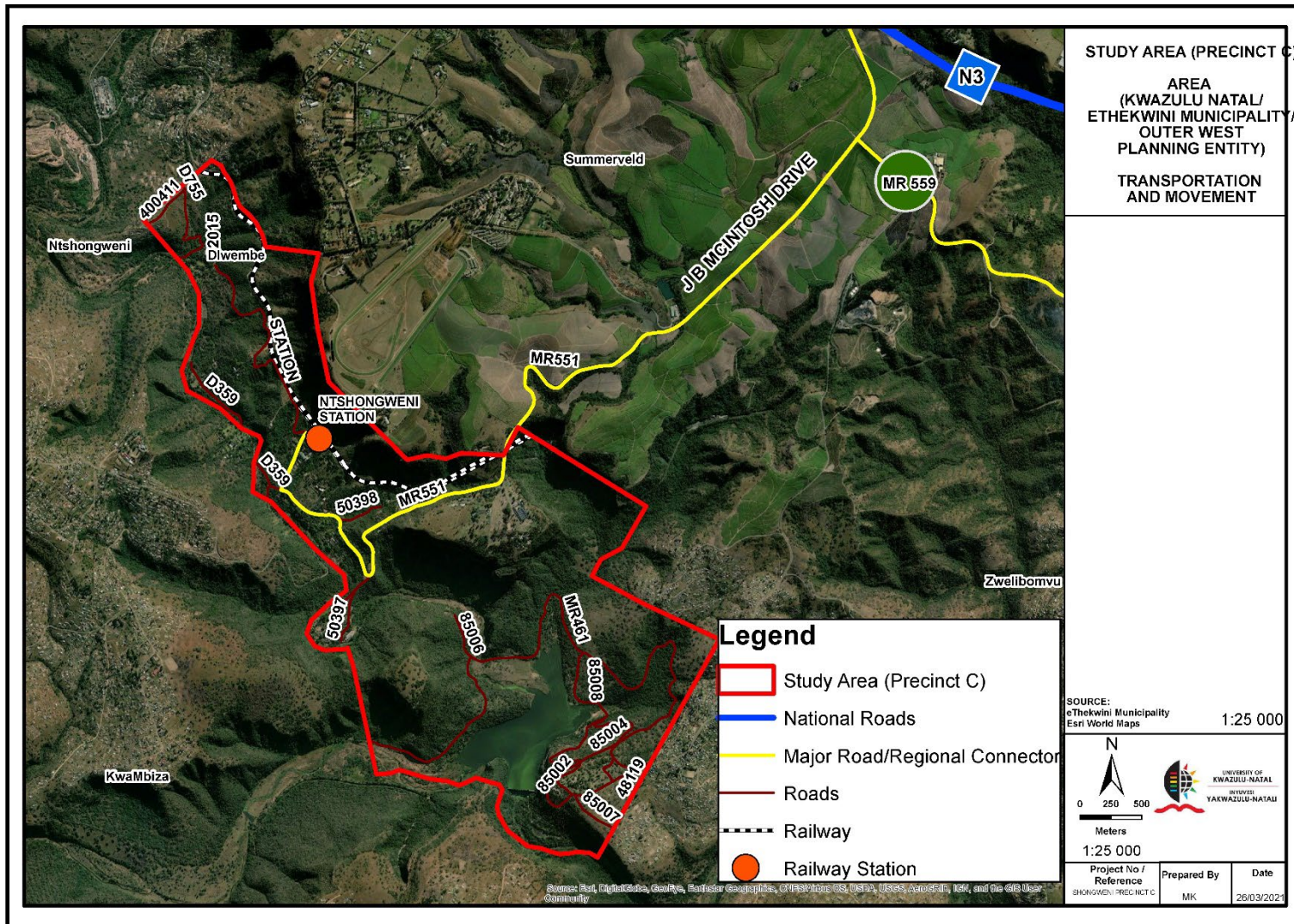
6.2.5. Transport and Movement

Tralac (2018) suggests that the role of a movement network in the process of settlement-making is essentially to provide the basic spatial framework within which a number of processes involve the physical movement, and reticulation of people, goods, and services. The study area consists of 2 types of movement networks i.e. roadways and a railway. In terms of roadways, the study area is in proximity to a variety of major surrounding road networks. It is located some 5.4 km from a National-Provincial corridor in the form of the N3 and some 6.7 km from the M13, a metropolitan route that facilitates traffic through the Hillcrest area, and some 4.5 km from the MR 599, another major road that facilitates traffic to the neighbouring aManganga community. In the study area, the following road network can be noted:

- a) The primary access route to the area is the MR551 which is a Provincial Road that emerges from JB Mcintosh Drive and Kassier Road. Moreover, the MR 551 is a district connector linking the study area to the eastern parts of the OWR.
- b) Kassier Road forms the primary link within the broader Summerveld and Shongweni areas to the N3 Freeway.

Other roads within the study area include Station Road, the MR 461; the D 359 which adjoins the MR 551 DR 359, and Various track roads serving as direct access roads to the existing developments within the study area. The study area comprises fairly low pedestrian activity along the aforementioned routes. In terms of railway, the study area consists of rail infrastructure that runs on the northeastern side of the study area and connects to the Ntshongweni railway station. The transport and movement system in the study area is represented as follows:

Map 5: Transport and Movement



Source: ESRI Online Imagery (2020); EMM (2020)

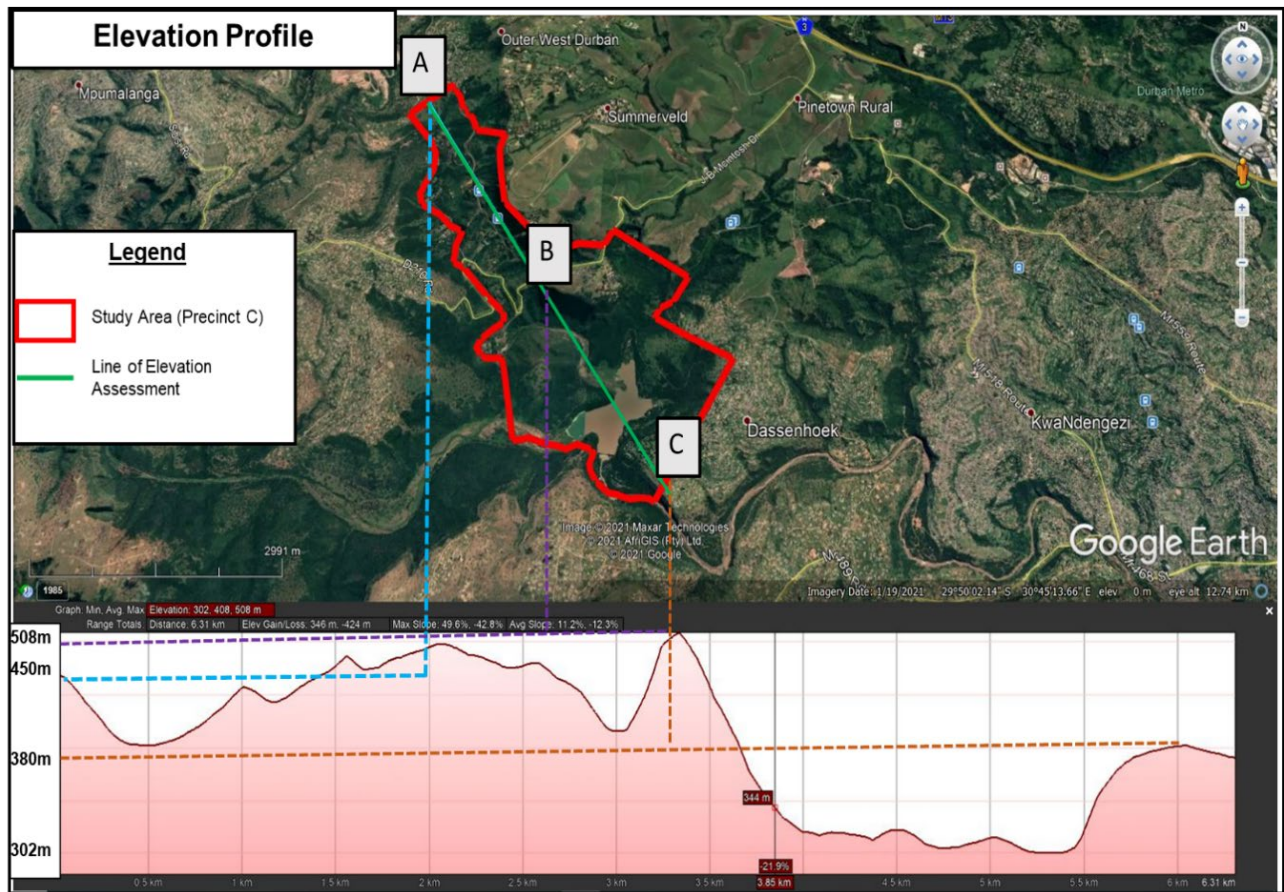
6.3. Physical Environment and Spatial Analysis

6.3.1. Slope and Elevation Profile

Queensland Government (2020) suggests that a slope is defined as the rise and fall of the land and terrain surface which ultimately shapes the layout of a settlement and location related to the provision of houses, roads, and educational and social facilities for example.

A desktop analysis was conducted on Google Earth (2020) to evaluate the slope and elevation profile of the study area. The evaluation suggests that it is a hilly area comprising of an elevation peak of approximately 508m located at the center of the study area (i.e. highest point) whilst on the west it has an elevation of approximately 450m and approximately 380m on the east which is the study areas lowest point (See Figure 28: Elevation and Slope Profile of Study Area).

Figure 28: Elevation and slope profile



Source: Google Earth (2020).

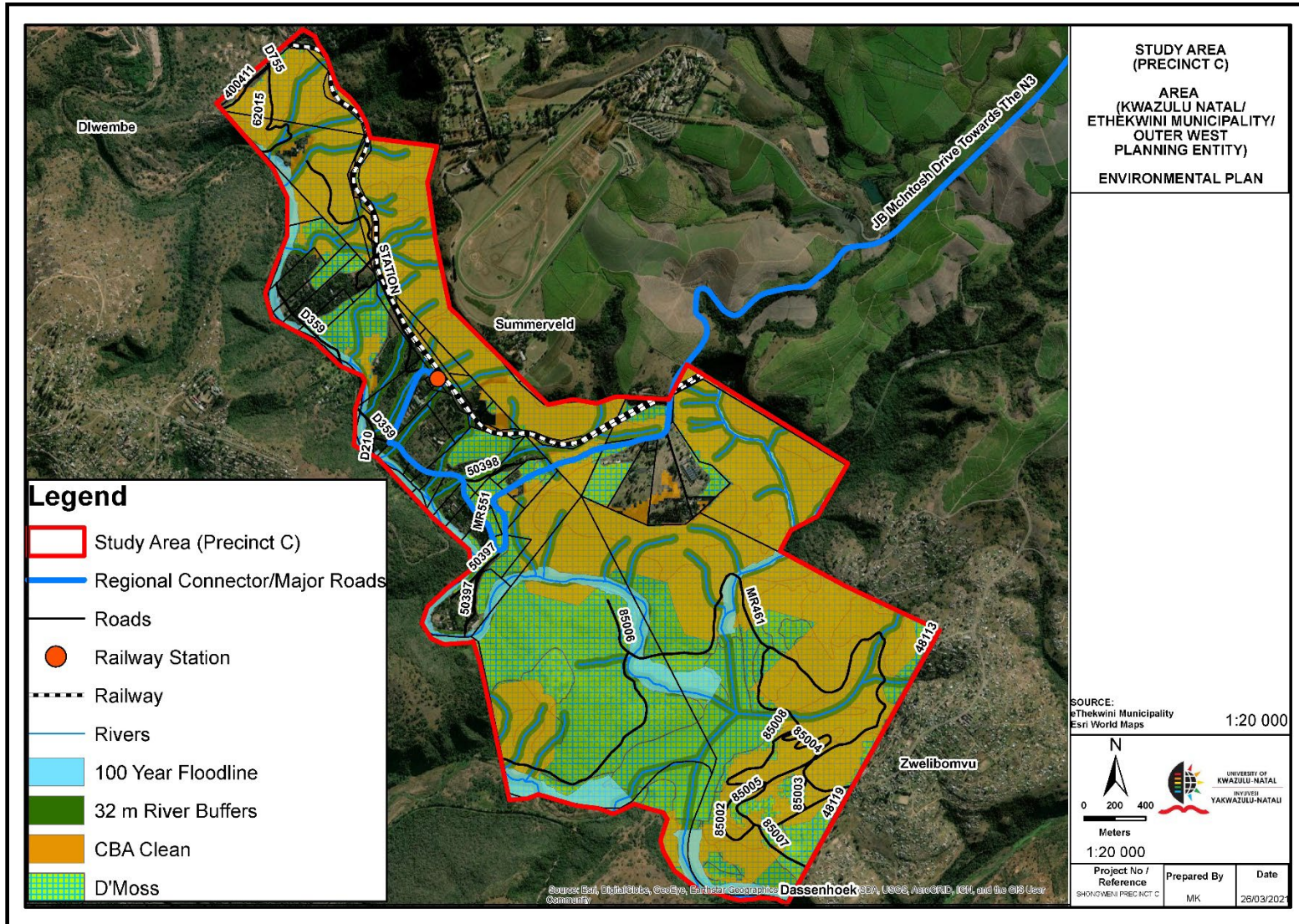
The elevation and slope analysis suggest that the study area is steep and is composed of an undulating character.

6.3.2. Environmental Analysis

According to the EMM (2010), the study area has a significant number of environmental features and networks that need to be protected in light of any development proposals applicable to its area of jurisdiction. It hosts rivers; 32m river buffers; 1:100-year flood lines; Durban Metropolitan Open Space System (D'MOSS) and Critical Biodiversity Areas (CBA) Irreplaceable Areas. With regard to rivers and 32m river buffers, these are located throughout the study area whilst the 1:100-year flood line is located in the southern portion of the study area.

According to the EMM (2010) and (2020) is made up of a series of interconnected open spaces that incorporate areas of high biodiversity value, grasslands, flora and fauna, topography, and other environmental elements. These are mapped by the EMM Environmental Planning and Climate Change Department (EPCCD). The study area encompasses some 816 ha (i.e. 84 %) of D'MOSS of which any development thereon will require environmental authorisation that will need to be obtained for development from Economic Development, Tourism and Environmental Affairs (EDTEA) within these areas and in conjunction with the EMM EPCCD. The South African National Biodiversity Institute (SANBI) (2021) suggests that CBA area delineations are required to meet biodiversity targets for ecosystems, species, and ecological processes, as identified in a systematic biodiversity plan. The study area hosts approximately 497 ha (i.e. 51%) of CBA-Irreplaceable areas. These are located in the northern and southwestern portions of the study area and further, restrict development (EMM, 2020). The overall environmental elements applicable to the study area are as follows:

Map 6: Environmental Plan

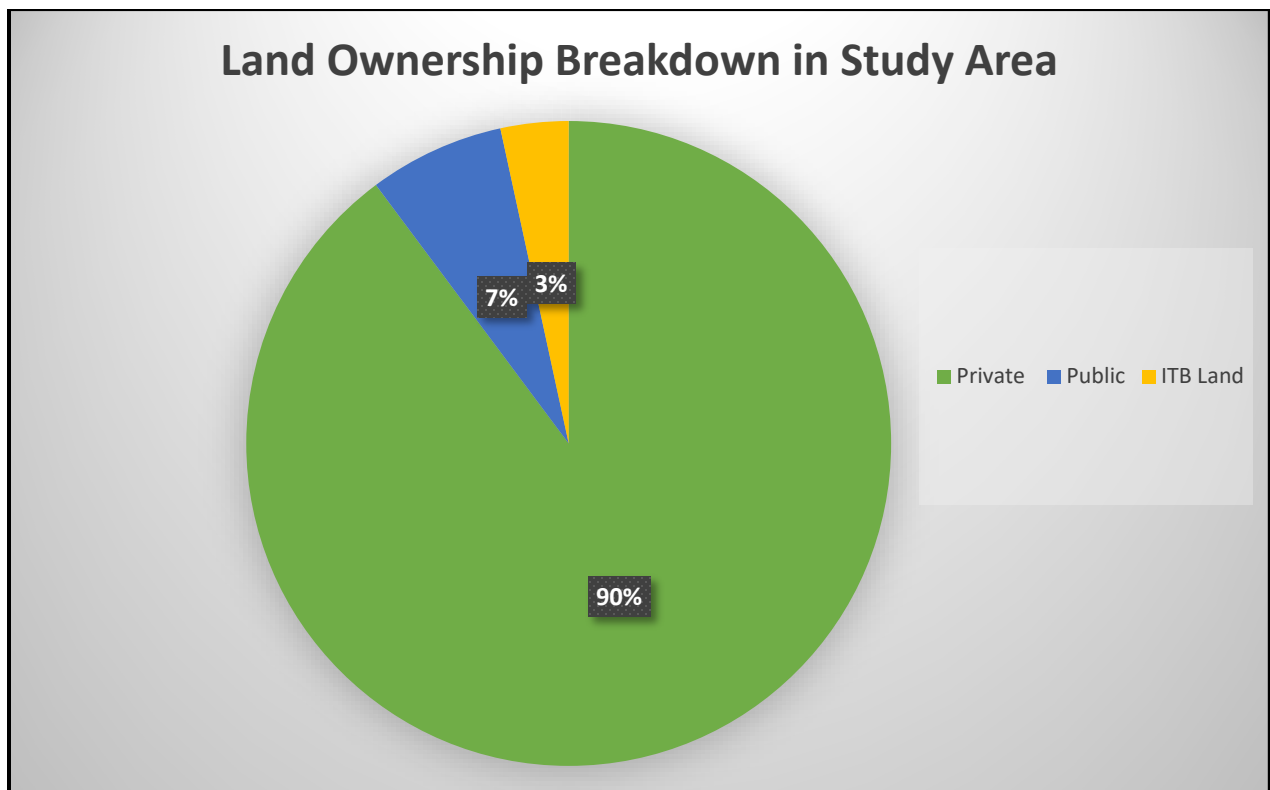


Source: ESRI Online Maps (2021) and EMM (2016)

6.3.3. Land Ownership Analysis

There are a total of fifty-nine properties in the study area. The underlying investigations and analysis associated with the ownership details from the EMM's Valuation Roll Data (2013) revealed that the bulk of the land parcels within the study area is privately owned. The remainder of the properties falls under the auspices of the Ingonyama Trust Board (ITB) and Government Ownership. The preliminary investigations revealed that approximately 898 ha (i.e. 89.8%) falls under private ownership; 68 ha (i.e. 6.8%) falls under government ownership and 34 ha (i.e. 3.4%) is under the auspices of the ITB. The breakdown in land ownership is represented in the following pie chart:

Graph 1: Land Ownership Breakdown in Study Area

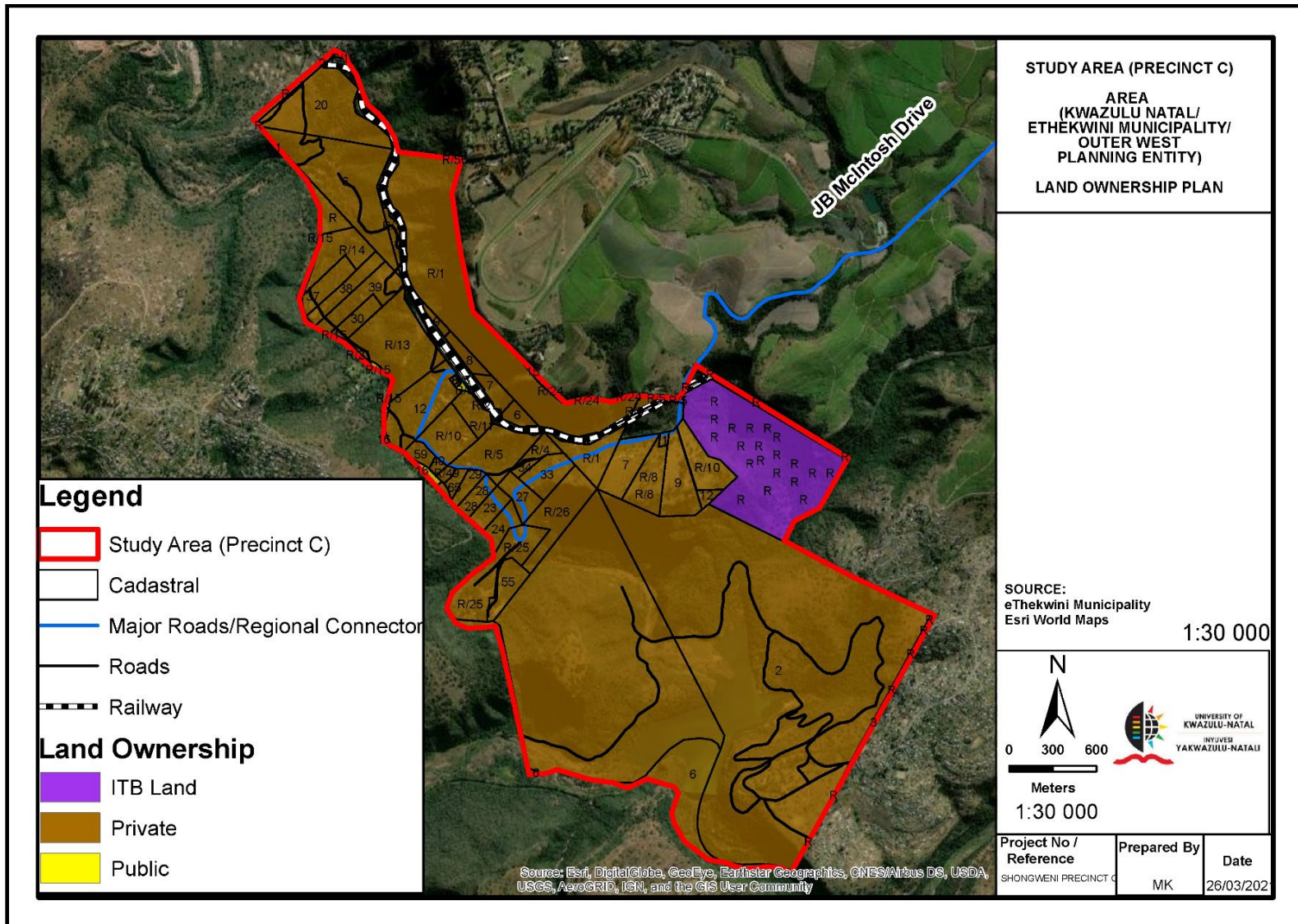


Source: EMM (2016).

The above graph demonstrates that the majority of land parcels within the study area are under private ownership. This, from a South African perspective, is not dissimilar to the findings of the National Department of Rural Development and Land Affairs Land Audit Report (2017) which

notes that approximately 82% (i.e. 114 223 273 ha) of agricultural land, in South Africa, is privately owned. A spatial representation of the landowners within the study area is as follows:

Map 7: Land Ownership/Audit



Source: ESRI Online (2020) and EMM (2013 and 2016)

According to the Global Africa Network (2021), the Shongweni Dam had been the subject of a land claim in terms of the Restitution of Land Rights Act (22 of 1994) which led to the Zwelibomvu Community Trust (ZCT) successfully acquiring the facility and being the legal owners of the dam. Mackenzie (2018) states that the ZCT comprises approximately 160 families and is assisted by the Conservation Guardians to manage the day-day ecotourist functions of the dam within the study area.

6.3.4. Public and Social Facilities Analysis

An on-site survey conducted within the study area revealed that it has a limited number of social facilities. The only social facility identified in the study area is a place of worship/missionary, located at the end of MR 551. Further investigations relating to a cursory social facilities analysis, using the EMM (2016-2020) GIS Shapefile data, suggested that most social facilities lie outside the study area. These facilities are located within neighbouring areas such as Dassenhoek and kwaMbiza communities, respectively. Notwithstanding this, there are a number of facilities that are absent from the study area and its surrounding areas such as libraries; fire stations, hospitals, sports facilities, parks, etc. The CSIR Guidelines (2015, pgs. 20-41) suggest that a travel distance of 1-3.5 km is acceptable for settlements comprising a catchment size of 25000-60000 people (i.e. Ward 7). Consequently, the analysis was undertaken within a 1.5km- 3.5km Radius of the study area. The outcomes reveal that the following facilities are found within a 3.5 km radius of the study area:

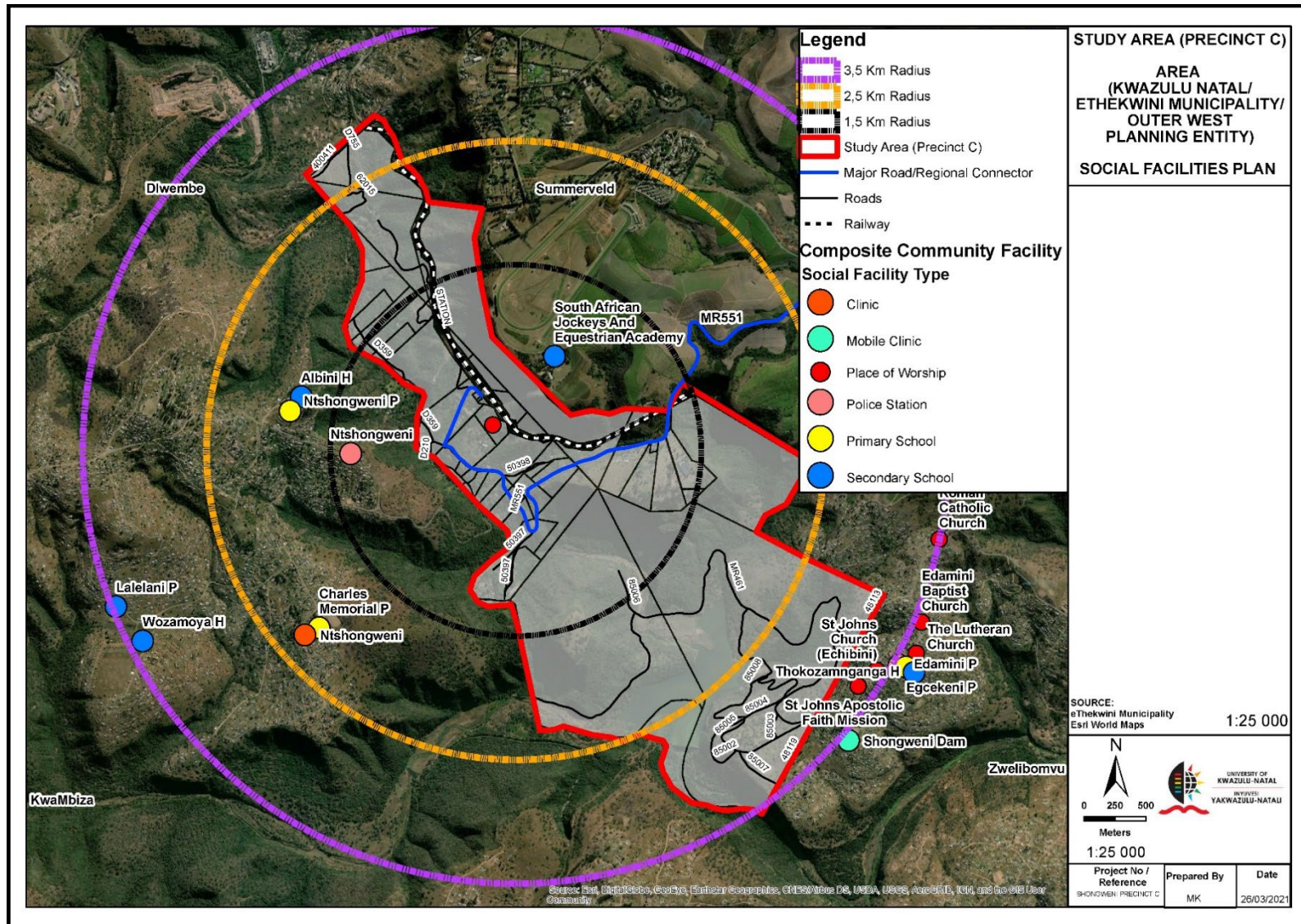
Table 10: Access to Social Facilities within Study Area

Type of Facility	No. of Facilities	Approximate Distance
Clinic	1	2.5 Km Radius
Community Hall	4	2.5 Km-3.5 Km Radii
Police Station	1	1.5 Km Radius
Place of Worship	6	1 Located in Study Area & five others within a 3.5 Km Radius
Mobile Clinic	1	3.5 Km
Secondary School	5	1.5 Km -3.5 Km Radius
Primary School	4	2.5 Km-3.5 Km

Source: eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality, 2020.

The distribution of social facilities in proximity to the study area is represented as follows:

Map 8: Social Facilities Plan

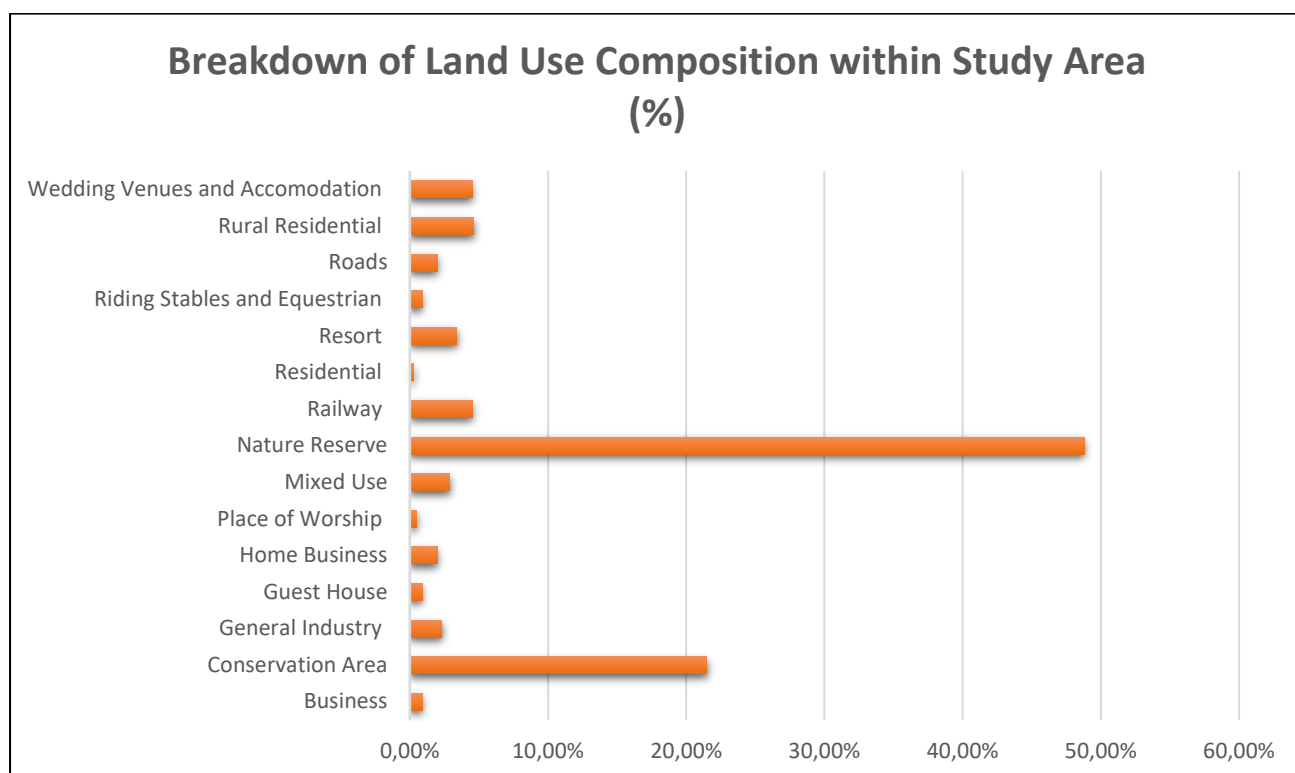


Source: Esri Online Maps (2020) and EMM (2016) and (2020)

6.3.5. Land Use Analysis

A desktop analysis of the EMM Online GIS (2020) suggests that the study area currently falls outside any adopted town planning scheme. Ordinarily, such land, by default, is deemed un-zoned and consequently requires permission from the Minister of Agriculture in terms of the Subdivision of Agricultural Land Act Number 70 of 1970, except if such land falls under the auspices of the Ingonyama Trust Board which is not subject to such provisions. According to the Republic of South Africa (1970) on privately owned land, any development initiative would ordinarily be required to obtain the consent of the Minister for a change in land use and or subdivision first. An on-site land use verification was conducted in the study area in which each property was inspected. According to the EMM (2016), the study area comprises a variety of land-use activities which include rural residential; flea or farmer’s market; cattery and kennel sales; place of worship; duck farming; wood processing plant; Pottery sales; truck depot; horse riding and workshops; wedding venues; and a nature reserve. The breakdown in land use composition is represented as follows:

Graph 2: Breakdown of land use composition in the study area



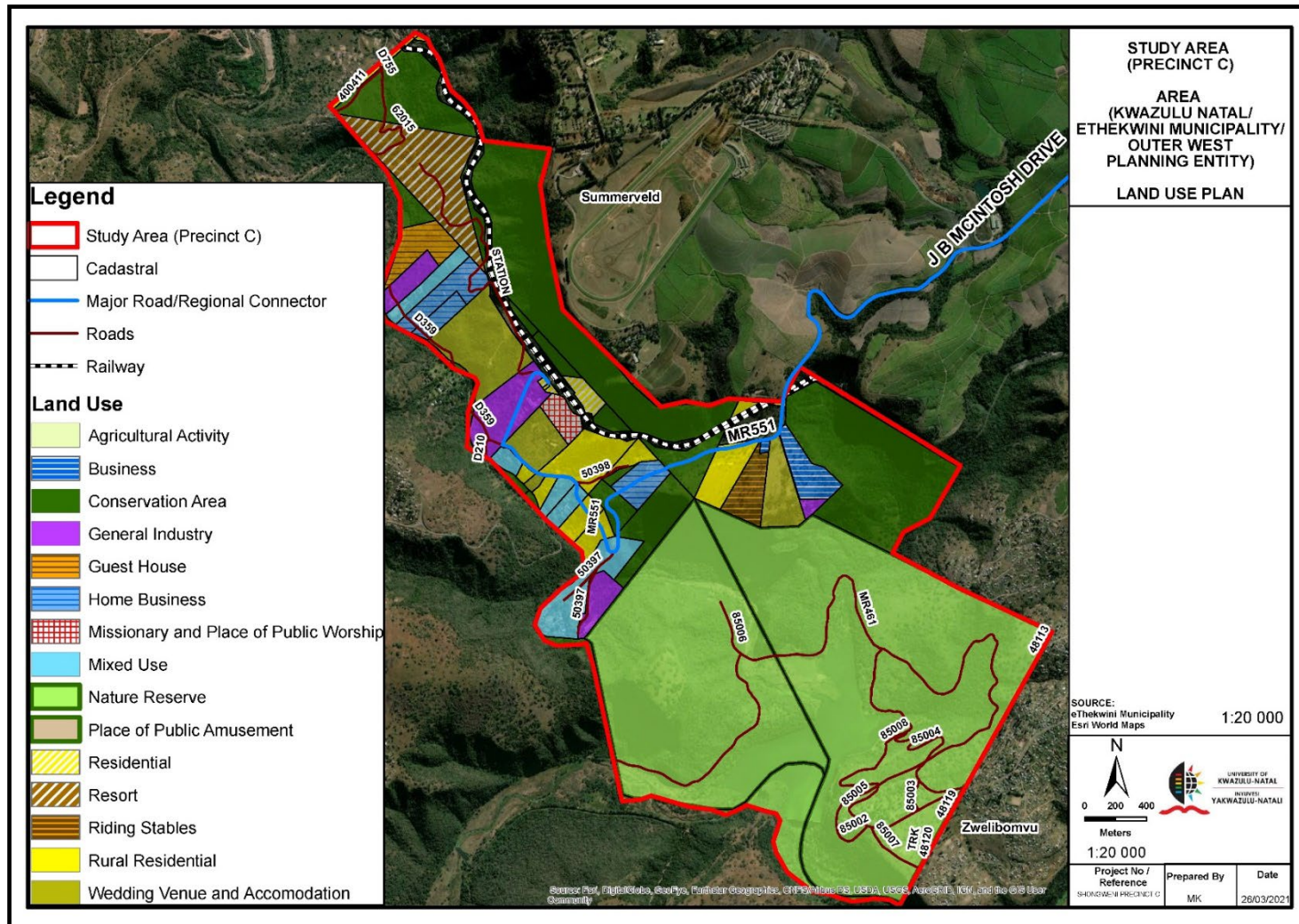
Source: eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality (2016).

The preceding graph demonstrates that the predominant land use is the nature reserve which accounts for approximately 48% and the conservation area which accounts for approximately 22% of the study area respectively.

Broadly such land uses are located along 4 distinct transportation networks, namely, the MR 551, Bushbuck Road, MR 461, and DR 359. It is observed that these land uses occur (albeit in varying intensity) along transportation routes. One of the reasons for these activities occurring at these locations could be a result of the undulating terrain. The bulk of the land uses (including non-residential and mixed-use land uses-land uses occurring ancillary or in conjunction with a primary land use on the respective land parcel) and activities occur along with MR 551. The MR 551 comprises the following land uses Shongweni Farmers Market; Two Truck Depot; Three Wedding Venues (i.e. Olivanders Estate, the Treehouse River Lodge, and Stonehaven Castle); kennels and Cattery Shop; Wood Processing Plant; Place of Worship; Workshop; and Rural Residential Uses enclosed within Pickford Estates; Missionary; Andrews Pottery ancillary to a Rural Residential use; and Rural Residential land uses.

Other notable land uses including industrial, a Wedding Venue, Home Business, and a 4 x 4 Trail occur along Bushbuck Road which is partly gravel and some 2.5 km in length. In addition, development potential is limited along such a gravel road, particularly in terms of the sharp fall or escarpment that runs parallel to the road and railway line. Another, noteworthy gravel road within the study area is the D359 Road which adjoins the MR 551. The DR 359 is characterised by predominantly rural residential; home business and guest house accommodation uses. In terms of the main economic activity within the study area, the Shongweni Dam and Msinsi Nature Resort play a dualistic role in so far as the promotion of tourism and economic activities. These are located on the eastern portion of the study area with access to such a facility granted off the MR 461 Road. The MR 461 Road is a major transportation route that runs through the aManganga TA respectively. The land uses applicable to the study area are represented as follows:

Map 9: Land Use Plan



Source: Online GIS (2020) and eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality (2020)

6.3.6. Misaligned Land Uses to the Municipality's Eco-tourism Intentions for Study Area

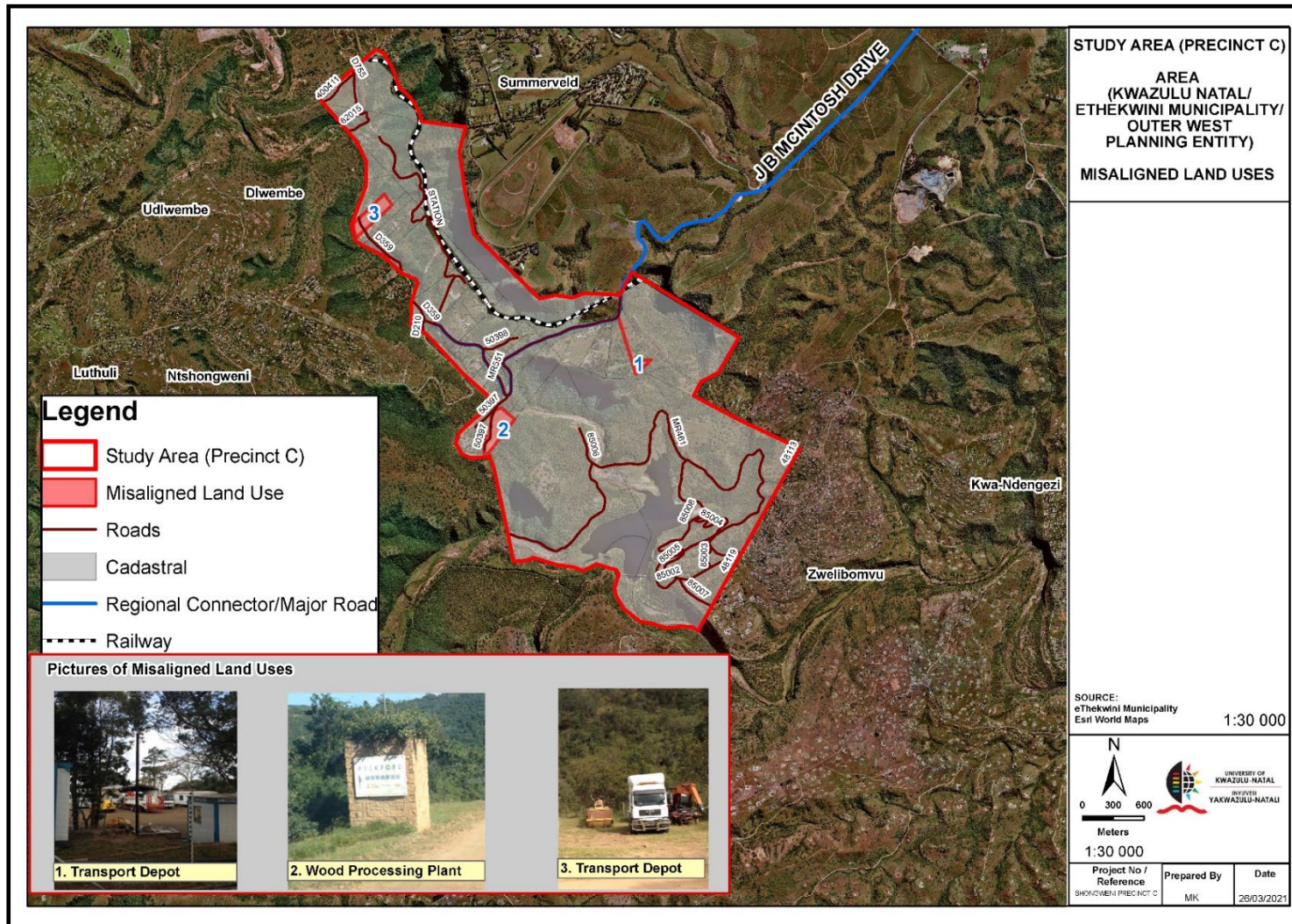
Based on the outcomes of the land use survey, the study area, from a development trend perspective, has been characterised by an emergence of industrial land uses that incidentally are out of kilter with the EMM's eco-tourism development vision for the area (EMM 2016). According to the EMM (2010), most of these industrial uses do not appear to have any necessary authorisations as there was no legal and land use development framework coordinating development within the study area. The industrial land uses also appear to conflict with the development vision as encapsulated within the OWSDP and the Shongweni LAP, hence they are deemed "*misaligned land uses*".

Both the OWSDP (2013/2014, pg. 101) and Shongweni LAP (2010, pg. 95) earmark the study area for eco-tourism purposes and conservation management of the dam, where the full tourism, the recreational and environmental potential of the dam is exploited. The existence of industrial uses conflicts with the land use intentions for the area. The following land parcels were observed as comprising industrial-type land uses which include:- Portion 12 of Salem No. 1052; Portion 37 of Zigzag No. 9064; and Portion 55 of Zigzag No. 9064; (Refer to Map 10: Misaligned Land Uses).

Furthermore, upon liaison with the municipality, it was established that Portion 55 of Zigzag No. 9064 generally referred to as "Pickford Estates" comprises a historical title deed condition that permits the use of the land for industrial purposes. EMM (2016) states that whilst such title deed conditions may be deemed antiquated, their provisions, from a legal perspective, supersede the provisions of the proposed land use scheme.

The misaligned land uses (i.e. industrial uses) are represented as follows in the study area:

Map 10: Misaligned Land Uses within Study Area



Source: ESRI Online (2020) and EMM (2016).

6.4. Chapter Summary

This chapter has given an account of the status quo applicable to the study area. This is useful in providing context in so far as the planning approach adopted towards the development of the scheme and FAP.

From an environmental perspective, the study area is predominantly characterised by various environmental features such as rivers, river buffers, wetlands, 1: 100-year flood lines, D'MOSS with CBA. Of the total 968 hectares present within the study area, only some 36 hectares have development potential.

In terms of transport, there is limited congestion and pedestrian activity within the study area particularly as it is sparsely populated primarily due to the existing terrain.

In so far as the socioeconomic characteristics of the study area, it is noteworthy that there are no new residential developments that are occurring within the study area. It is however anticipated that the demand for housing within and around the study will grow over the next 15 years, with the biggest demand expected from low-income households.

From a land-use perspective, most of the uses are in line with the municipality's broader strategic intentions in that they are linked to tourism and conservancy activities. However, there is evidence of industrial creep within the project in the form of transport/trucking depots, a brewery, a general industry, and a wood processing plant. The only real potential that the area has to sustain itself relates to tourism-related activity that should form the primary focus and trajectory for future economic growth and development.

The dissertation will now proceed to expand on the research findings, recommendations, and conclusions.

7. CHAPTER SEVEN: RESEARCH FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter comprises two components. It seeks to present the research findings and recommendations and the conclusion underpinning the study. In terms of research findings, the chapter starts by presenting the underlying research outcomes and observations associated with the investigation. Alexander (2017) suggests that the research findings allow the researcher to report upon the most notable findings of the research work whilst relating these to the research questions and objectives as set out in the introductory chapter of the dissertation. The recommendations and conclusion sections of the chapter attempt to bring the dissertation full circle by providing direction for the issues identified in the research findings and ultimately concluding the study.

7.1. Research Findings and Observations

Several stakeholders were identified by the municipality as forming part of the consultative process which took place on the 10th of May 2017 at the Hillcrest Library, Hilldene. The stakeholders included: - the eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality (EMM); SiVEST SA Pty Ltd (i.e. its appointed service provider in terms of the project); iNkosi Shozi of the aManganga TA; Councillor Phewa of Ward 7; Councillor Sibisi of Ward 103; Councillor Noyce; Enviroserve; The Durban/Shongweni Pony Club; Keep Hillcrest Beautiful; and the Hillcrest Rates Payers. Three Ward Councillors and four organisations attended the meeting (See Annexure 3: Attendance Register).

Whereas, the overall consensus was of the project was welcomed and supported, it was suggested that there may be a need for further studies to expand on the current situation of the Shongweni Dam as far as Msinisi Resort (the erstwhile on-site tourism management company) and its inability to keep the dam facility clean and maintain its existing infrastructure. Other areas of concern that emanated from the consultative process dealt with environmental and infrastructural challenges. The environmental concern included issues surrounding alien vegetation, and the need to have these removed and replaced with the planting of indigenous vegetation. From an infrastructural perspective, challenges included the maintenance of road infrastructure and accessibility to the dam.

7.1.1. Observation 1: Non-Implementation of the adopted FAP

Despite the project being adopted by the EMM in 2018, little is known about its implementation. An assessment of the EMM's online suite of hierarchical spatial plans applicable to the OWR of the municipality, suggests that the project is not available for download and public viewing

(See Figure 29: View of OWR hierarchical suite of plans applicable to OWR). Furthermore, in terms of the EMM's online GIS (2022), it appears that in the proposed zoning and spatial recommendations for the study area, only one land parcel is zoned. This property relates to the existing Shongweni Farmer's Market which is zoned "Tourist" in terms of the provisions of the OWS (Refer to Figure 30: Zoning information applicable to study area). The remaining properties in the study area remain unzoned.

Figure 30: View of EMM Online Adopted Plans Applicable to OWR

Outer West Spatial Planning Region	
Cato Ridge LAP Final Consolidated Report	September 2018
Cato Ridge Map_SDF 2019_2020_May	September 2018
Greater Waterfall FAP - Consolidated Report	September 2018
Hillcrest Gillits Kloof Land Use Management Plan	July 2010
Molweni Nodal Precinct Plan	May 2012
Mpumalanga LAP	September 2014
Mpumalanga Northern FAP & Draft Scheme:	
Corridor Plan	October 2018
FAP Draft Scheme Report	
Functional Area Plan	
Outer West Development Corridor Study & Cato Ridge LAP	May 2012
Shongweni LAP	October 2010

Contact Us

Telephone Details
Phone: 031 311-7450
Fax: 031 311-7279
Email: nangamso.majiba@durban.gov.za

Physical Address
City Engineers & Planning and Development Building
 166 KE Masinga (Old Fort) Road
 Durban 4001
 Second Floor – Room 226

Source: EMM (2022).

As evidenced in the above figure (taken from the EMM's municipal website), no reference or indication of the Shongweni FAP exists.

One of the main concerns of spatial planning in South Africa deals with governmental and institutional support (capacity constraints) and the inability of the public to access adopted plans for use which is the sentiments of authors such as Oranje (2014) and Coetzee (2012). Oranje (2014) suggests that spatial and land use plans are marred with undertones of top-down governance and red tape whilst Coetzee (2012) refers to the dreadfully wordy and non-user-friendly for various development stakeholders.

7.1.2. Observation 2: Need for Stronger Participation

The South African Legislative Sector (2013) submits that the core objective of effective public participation is to obtain the views of the public; and to impart or gain knowledge from communities regarding a specific project, policy, service delivery, and other governmental actions. Maphazi et al. (2013) concur and state that there is a need for enhanced community consultation and participation is well enshrined in the South African Constitution where community members are anticipated to play a crucial role in their involvement in civic matters.

Of the 30 participants, only 37% (i.e. 11) of the participants in the interview and questionnaire process were aware of the development of the FAP. These included ward councillors, the tourist facilities manager of Conservation Guardians, and some residents or private property owners within the jurisdiction of the study area. This suggests a breakdown in the lines of communication between the municipality's intentions for eco-tourism development along with those that are to be making use of the FAP. This is reiterated by Quick and Bryston (2016) whose view on participation and communication goes beyond the myopic view that only concerns councillors, businesses, and individuals with a technical background. According to Maphazi (2013) and Innes (2014), there is a definite need for stronger participation which is reiterated for marginalised groups.

7.1.3. Observation 3: Limited access due to entry fees into Shongweni Dam

From the interviews conducted, one of the respondents suggested that before privatisation of the dam, access to such a facility was free. However, since its privatisation, the local community no longer resonates and identifies with the dam as the entrance is strictly based on a fee basis. Approximately 43% (i.e. 13) of participants from the neighbouring aManganga TA indicated that entrance to the dam facility was on a fee basis which marks that its privatization promoted social exclusion of community members that we're unable to afford such fees.

It is commonly accepted that with any eco-tourism destination, especially in privatized areas, revenues from gate entrances are required for the upkeep of tourist-related infrastructure (Kenawy and Shaw 2014). Consequently, eco-tourism destinations are deemed to be notorious for promoting social exclusion, particularly among the poor and marginalized groups (Brennan and Allen 2001). In other parts of the African continent, the privatisation of such facilities is linked with sparking social tension, community unrest, and violence (Global Africa 2021).

Picture 7: Access to Shongweni Dam Facility



Source: Authors Own, 2020.

These dynamics obviously fuel and create a “*them*” vs “*us*” setting which is unsavoury for the current Dam Facility, the local community, and the branding image for the study area. Mackenzie (2018) along with Global Africa (2021) indicate that whilst the Dam has changed ownership in favour of the ZCT and the management of the dam facility under the auspices of Conservation Guardians, the violence surrounding the dam has continued.

Francis et al. (2018) suggest that this issue requires a further refinement process in that the local community needs to be first educated on the benefits and opportunities of eco-tourism development. Secondly, such a process needs to incorporate a program or work plan that promotes synergy between the local community, the ZCT, Conservation Guardians, and the municipality.

7.1.4. Observation 4: Opportunities for local communities regarding the Songweni Dam Facility

Approximately 56% (i.e. 17 participants) suggested that the dam as the main attraction within the study area ought to create more employment opportunities and community upliftment programs centred on the premises of eco-tourism development. According to Sharma and Kumar (2020) such opportunities exist and include amongst others:- the sale of arts and crafts,

small-scale farming, and agritourism which is a business focused on sustainable farming for the enjoyment of visitors for example (Sharma and Kumar 2020). Francis et al (2018) indicate that eco-tourism destinations are to create environmental, social, and economic opportunities for their associated inhabitants and surrounding local communities. This in effect, as articulated by Gumede and Nzama (2019) meets the sustainability criterion.

It has been observed that a large portion of the study area already hosts land use activities that are in line with eco-tourism development. These activities include 4x4 trails, pottery making, wedding venues, and the farmers market for example. The exemption in the study area exists in relation to the emergence of industrial-related land use activities on approximately three land parcels. However, the biggest area of concern relates to, the surrounding community, where not a single land use activity that is eco-tourism development related, particularly along the MR461 Road (i.e. the route that grants entrance to the dam facility) was noted. Much of the activity in this portion of the study area, relates to small businesses such as tuckshops and taverns for example (See Picture 8: Land Uses in the entrance of the Shongweni Dam Facility).

Picture 8: Land use at the entrance of the Shongweni Dam



Source: Authors Own, 2020.

A stronger focus is encouraged between the ZCT, Conservation Guardians, and the EMM to undertake a tourist management and evaluation plan which would speak to the issue of

strengthening synergy between all stakeholders and the local community inclusive of the identification of further opportunities within the dam (Nugroho et al., 2018).

7.1.5. Observation 5: “Not in My Back Yard” (Nimby) from Private Property Owners

Sharon (2019) and Engel (2013) indicate that “Nimby” is an acronym for the phrase “*not in my back yard*” which is generally characterised by the opposition to proposed developments by residents in the vicinity of their communities based on strict land-use regulations.

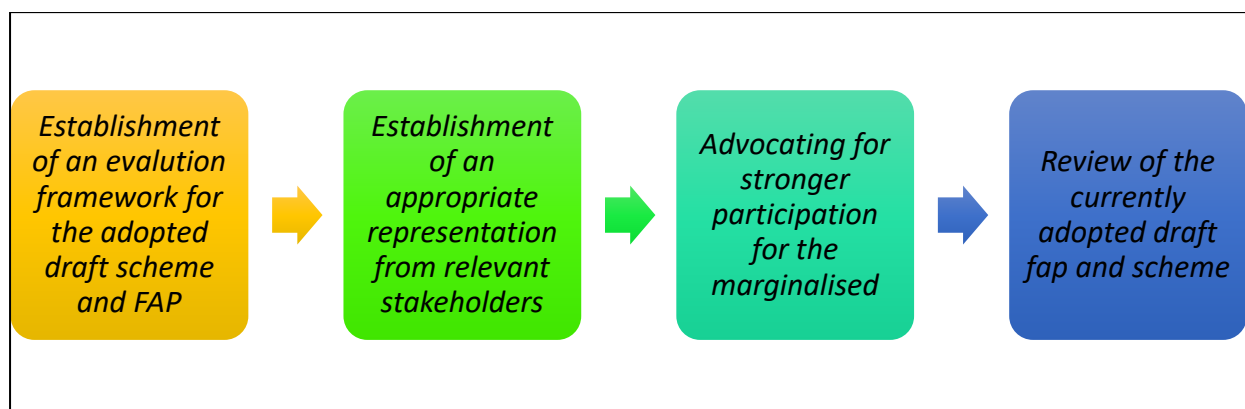
According to the EMM (2019/2020, pg. 164), this remains a concern as most cities continue to grapple with the rising demand for the provision of low-middle-income housing development in areas of opportunity, particularly with the EMM’s housing backlog currently sitting at 380 000 dwellings.

The remainder of the participants demonstrated cognisance of the municipality’s efforts to meet the social development pillar in terms of eco-tourism development. The EMM’s approach to earmark a portion of the study area for low-middle income housing is commendable and through its proposed scheme and FAP, effectively, met the spatial principles prescribed by SPLUMA such as spatial justice and spatial sustainability.

7.2. Recommendations

The recommendations advanced in this dissertation emanate as an outcome of the identified issues and observations in the preceding chapter. The recommendations are intended to provide direction in so far as identifying alternatives to mitigate against the identified challenges. In essence, the dissertation advances recommendations across four themes. The primary recommendation process is as follows:-

Figure 29: Primary recommendation process



Source: Authors Own, 2020.

7.2.1. Establishment of an evaluation framework for the FAP & Scheme

The establishment of an evaluation framework should be undertaken concurrently with the review of the currently adopted FAP and scheme. This process should be an afterthought and must be built into the design of the overall advanced process from the inception. Kenawy (2015) notes that whilst cyclical, the evaluation process must comprise three main layers which include the pre-planning process, planning, and the evaluation of the planning deliverables or outcomes. According to Innes and Booher (1999), an account of two main principles must be brought into consideration, when applying the evaluation framework:- i) it should be based on clear criteria depicting the full spectrum of the potential benefits from the communicative and collaborative process and outcomes, and ii) the legal imperatives and regulations that should mandate an evaluation committee including the relevant stakeholders identified as part of 7.2.2. The criteria of an evaluation framework for the FAP and Scheme are as follows:-

Table 11: The criteria for evaluation of a framework for the FAP and Scheme

Pre-Process	Process	Outcomes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Define the main reasons for the implementation inability, consider and then solve them in the new process to enhance the chance of implementation. ▪ Examine the validity and reliability of the information and existing databases to identify areas that require attention ▪ Map out stakeholders, their roles, and the appropriate level of performance and function, to mitigate the deficiencies during building a strong stakeholder network. ▪ Examine the fragmentation and conflicts between different stakeholder groups. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Representation and involvement of broader stakeholders. ▪ Drive communicative and collaborative processes with the aim of consensus building. ▪ Enable the organisation of stakeholders to decide on procedures regarding goals, ground rules, and agenda-setting. ▪ Maintain stakeholder involvement, keeping them interested in learning from informal interactions and discussions. ▪ Each participant has equal opportunity and resources to participate in consensus decision-making and negotiation. ▪ Respect the diverse and divergent values, interests, and knowledge of all stakeholders. ▪ The process must be flexible to allow for adjustments as circumstances change. ▪ Time limits to reach a consensus and develop a plan are reasonable and realistic (i.e. 2–3-week periods) ▪ Integrate high-quality information of many types and assure agreements based on its meaning. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Reach consensus. ▪ Terminate stalemate. ▪ Produce innovative ideas. ▪ Increase the participants, particularly local community knowledge and skill set. ▪ Build intellectual, social & political capitals. ▪ Produce high-quality information that stakeholders understand and accept. ▪ Produces flexible government practices, and integration thus enabling the local community to be more actively respond to changes and conflicts.

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Draw up the stakeholder involvement processes. ▪ Identify the financial resources for the planning and implementation phases. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Enable participants to attain a sense of ownership and commitment towards the plan and feel a responsibility towards implementing the final agreement. ▪ Independent facilitation ▪ Building consensus after in-depth discussions has fully examined the issues and interests, and great efforts have been made to find innovative responses to differences. 	
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Source: Kenawy (2015: 310) as cited by Innes and Booher (1999).

7.2.2. Establish appropriate representation from relevant stakeholders

Nugroho et al (2018) state that because there are so many relevant stakeholders in the ecotourism domain, choosing the right people to represent all interests is difficult. According to Drughi (2018), it takes a lot of experience in ecotourism planning to choose the right people to represent all stakeholder groups. As a result, Gumede and Nzama (2019) note that an experienced planner should be assigned to the convening team to help with this duty and provide technical advice to the other team members. Kenawy (2015) reiterates the same and suggests that a yardstick for identifying the relevant stakeholders should include mainly five groups. These groups include:- the **public sector; the private sector; educational and research institutions; NGOs** and **local communities**. Synergy and partnerships are recommended between these groups to ensure a successful implementable plan and development framework for the study area. The function of the noted stakeholders in the review process of the scheme and FAP include:-

Public sector: representation across key government departments is encouraged. These government entities, apart from the EMM, should also include the ITB; DAFF, DEAT, and Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife for example. According to Araujo & Bramwell (2002), the role of the public sector or government departments should be across both provincial and local spheres of government. Representation within the planning process will ensure the bridge in lacunae achieves better consensus for a development vision, shared development strategy, and developmental decisions.

Private sector: Sharma and Kumar (2022) advocate the case for the private sector in the recommended review of the scheme and FAP, which could lend itself useful to creating a conducive environment for investment in improving the physical characteristics associated with infrastructure for example, and employment creation linked with agri-tourism and sustainable farming opportunities which may be explored in the study area. The EMM needs to ensure that in terms of the intended review of the FAP and scheme, further businesses in

the study area must be consulted and remain involved throughout the planning process of the project.

Educational and research institutions: the EMM consists of many educational and research institutions. A stronger focus should be on universities that are well-versed in tourism, engineering, architectural, social development, and town planning educational aspects. This ensures that the specialist's input devoid of the planner tasked with bringing the review to fruition incorporates scientific research linked with exploring more development opportunities throughout the study area. According to Drumm & Moore (2002), the incorporation of representation from these institutions could also assist, in raising awareness for other stakeholders and building bridges between the local communities and the government departments.

NGOs: the planning process in this regard requires seasoned NGOs in the ecotourism realm. The role of NGOs in terms of the review of the scheme and FAP is to provide financial and technical support (King 2019). Telfer and Sharpley (2016) also reiterated that NGOs play a role in lobbying governments, assisting local communities with various community projects, and building community capacity and human capital. The role of NGOs in terms of the review of the scheme and FAP is twofold. According to King (2019), this could also mitigate the conflict between various stakeholder groups due to their neutrality within the sphere of competing interests and also act as a source of funding and technical expertise linked with the preparation of integrated plans to manage and evaluate the progress made in terms of ecotourism development.

Local communities: representation from local communities is also required. Such representation should not be limited to the iNkosi of the aManganga TC but also include members in this council; members of the ZCT; Conservation Guardians (representatives of the ZCT), and residents near the Shongweni Dam Facility; along with private property owners residing in the study area. According to Global Africa (2021), The intention in this regard is to not only resolve the prevalent community tensions linked to the prevalent violence in recent years surrounding the dam facility but it could also lend itself useful for the sharing of local and indigenous knowledge in terms of local resources and conditions. Kenawy (2015) calls for iterative communication and education which could potentially resolve the Nimby sentiments shared by private property owners regarding the densification intentions of the municipality within the study area.

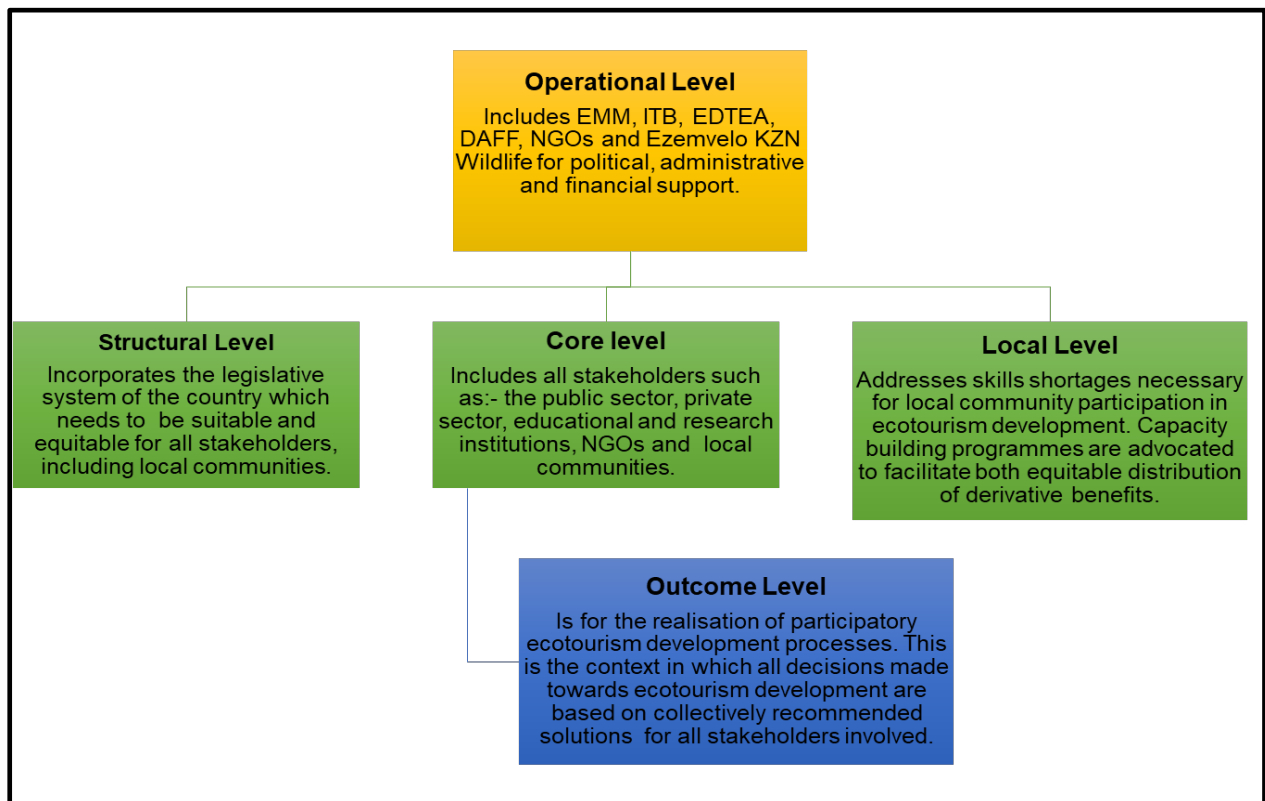
7.2.3. Advocate stronger participation and enhance stakeholder engagements

The identified stakeholders provide a decent platform for the review of the FAP and scheme. It is submitted that before the commencement of the new review, regular meetings and workshops are held to lay down a conducive environment for communication and consensus-building as pointed out by Puren et al. (2012). Araujo & Bramwell (2002) further states that this should be followed by reports that are open and accessible to all the parties concerned. King (2019) suggests that this not only assists in the creation of an open dialogue between all relevant stakeholders but also assists in the establishment of an understanding relating to the rationale of decisions and ultimately the development of a vision for the study area. Kenawy (2015) states that to enhance interaction and participation between the relevant stakeholders, the convener is required to:-

- Describe the role of each stakeholder in the planning process to ensure that each role is fulfilled and realised;
- Provide stakeholders with minutes and reports summarising the outcomes of each engagement which will assist in the dissemination of key issues and opportunities for their respective organisations;
- Where conflicts arise between two or more of the stakeholders, it is recommended that the convener should mediate and request consultative meetings between these stakeholders inclusive of their respective organisations to resolve these conflicts; and
- Utilise various forms of language (i.e. isiZulu and English), mind-maps, diagrams, and images to integrate local communities within the planning process and ensure that their voices are considered particularly in terms of decision-making. It is within this context that Gumede and Nzama (2020) advocate the case for the Local Community Participation Improvement Model (LCPIM) within the sphere of ecotourism development and planning.

Botes & Van Rensburg (2000) suggest that The LCPIM emerged as a result of an acknowledgment that most of the participatory frameworks are predominantly based on western-centric orientated which is not well suited in the context of the developing world (). According to Gumede (2019), LCPIM effectively forms a conceptual basis for the formulation, planning and implementation, and management of policies concerned with the participation of local communities in tourism-related initiatives. The advanced model is depicted as follows:-

Figure 30: Proposed LCPIM Model to enhance participation for review of the scheme & FAP



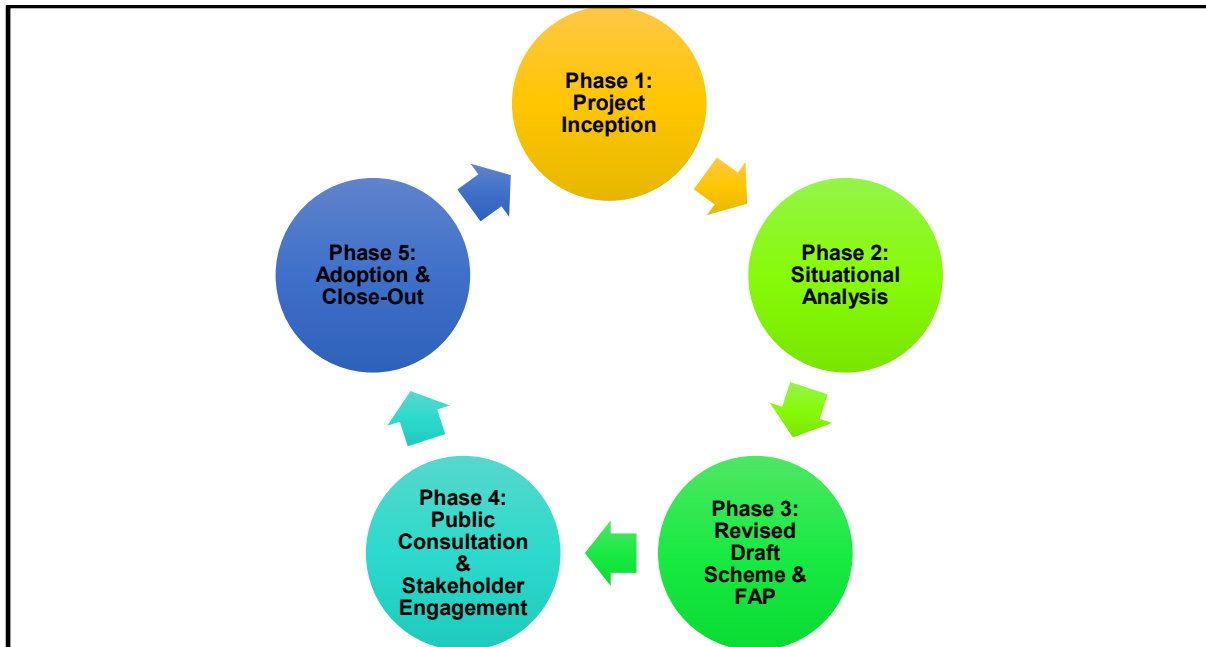
Source: Gumede (2020, pg. 1263-1266).

7.2.4. Review currently adopted Scheme and FAP

It has been noted that the EMM approved the scheme and FAP in 2018 which was deemed to be implemented and used in the study area to direct development proceedings therein. As demonstrated in the previous section of this chapter, no mention of the scheme and FAP is made in terms of the adopted plans on the EMM's online website. Apart from this, the only zoned property in the study area is the existing Shongweni Farmers Market, zoned "Tourist" (EMM, 2022). This calls for an understanding of the impediments that have led to its implementation. Oranje (2014) and Coetzee (2012) suggest that this could be due to a plethora of issues such as institutional capacities and red tape. However, it may also be attributed to the anomalies associated with the flawed consultative process which limited stakeholder engagements to councillors, the EMM, the iNkosi of the amaNganga TC, and certain community organisations which excluded representation from the amaNganga local community. Therefore, it is submitted that a review of the scheme and FAP be actioned with a core focus on building stronger stakeholder personnel, more extensive than the stakeholders initially involved in the project. Section 27 (1) of SPLUMA makes provisions for the review of a land use scheme for each municipality within five years after adoption (RSA, 2013). Given that the plan was adopted in 2018, it stands to reason that the plan ought to be reviewed by

the EMM by 2023. It is proposed that the review of the Scheme and FAP for the study area be undertaken in a five-step process depicted hereunder:-

Figure 31: Process to be undertaken for the review of the scheme & FAP



Source: Authors Own (2022) based on EMM (2016, pg. 3-15).

The aforementioned process is required to incorporate extensive stakeholder engagements across all five phases of the project and not limit these engagements towards the tail end of the project cycle. The process, based on the author's view as adopted from Nel (2015); EMM (2016), and CoGTA (2019), is anticipated to be carried out as follows:-

Phase 1: Project Inception- this phase forms the bedrock for the review. It essentially needs to establish the impediments that led to its predecessor (i.e. the first scheme and FAP) not being available for public viewing and use. The EMM is also required to establish a much broader list of stakeholders to provide guidance and direction toward the completion of the project as previously articulated in 7.2.2. Furthermore, this phase should also assist in establishing: -the role of each stakeholder in terms of the project; the desired developmental aspirations and goals for the project; project time frames; communication schedules between the revised stakeholders, and ultimately the project methodology.

Phase 2: Situational Analysis- this stage of the project needs to incorporate an analysis of the status quo relating to the site. It comprises an infrastructure; socio-economic, environmental; and policy legislative analysis. The analysis needs to speak to the challenges present within the study area and how these may be mitigated particularly with a focus on development projects that are consistent with budgetary commitments which may be sourced

from NGOs. Furthermore, the situational analysis should also speak to prospective community projects which may lend themselves useful to employment creation and poverty alleviation.

Phase 3: Revised scheme and FAP- this phase needs to refine the land use framework through an interactive forum through workshop engagements with all stakeholders to get a well-coordinated set of permissible and non-permissible land uses for the study area. It then needs to reevaluate the current zoning of properties and identify key projects and urban design proposals for priority action areas. The zoning must also demonstrate cognisance for local indigent practices or uses which areas of historical significance, areas for grazing and subsistence farming for example. Furthermore, it also needs to identify and map short, medium, and long-term priorities in terms of the overall development framework and within action areas across environmental, social, and economic spheres. The phase should also develop cost estimates for identified key projects including an understanding of the associated cost implications in so far as infrastructure (i.e. roads, ranks, sidewalks, street furniture, etc) is concerned. Lastly, it must also consider areas located outside the study area and how these may be considered for cross-border alignment purposes in terms of identifying additional areas for agritourism, the sale of arts and crafts, market areas, etc which could also layer down favourable conditions for local community development.

Phase 4: Public consultation and circulation to stakeholders- this stage of the review comprises two processes. The review of the project deliverables to the identified stakeholders and an advertisement process to interested and affected parties. The main objective of this phase is to essentially obtain final comments on the reviewed FAP and scheme to incorporate these in the final documents of the project.

Phase 5: Final Scheme/FAP for adoption and close out-involves closing the project and incorporating all relevant comments from the previous phase into the final scheme and FAP for adoption by the EMM. It essentially pulls together all work undertaken during the project period including all stakeholder reports, presentations, and records of the consultation process into a single, standalone document. Furthermore, it also comprises a final document summarising all of the above processes and outcomes, inception reports, final FAP, and scheme, along with the associated GIS mapping for the study area and immediate surroundings.

8. CHAPTER EIGHT: CONCLUSION

The objective of this chapter is to merge the central elements of the study into a concise conclusion.

Chapter one has highlighted the research problem, the aim of the study, the objectives, and the hypothesis.

Chapter two expanded on the research method associated with bringing the investigation to fruition.

Chapter three presented the various themes of the study which comprised the theoretical and conceptual framework. Emanating from this were the strategic and communicative planning models which have relevance to the study through advocating the case for development that considers the voices of the marginalised and the allocation of resources and commitments towards planning for these communities. This chapter further considers the conceptual framework of development and tourism within the confinements of sustainability; sustainable development tourism and ecotourism. This cannot coexist without effective spatial and land use planning.

Chapter four unpacked the literature review which indicated that the pursuit of ecotourism developments in developing regions generally does not meet the entire sustainability criterion (i.e. social, economic, and environmental development). The chapter subsequently refocused its efforts on presenting the legislative and policy instruments linked to ecotourism development, and spatial and land use planning. Thereafter it proceeded to present precedent case studies to support its claims.

Chapter five presented the study area and the planning process associated with developing the scheme and FAP (as a spatial and land use planning response) linked to facilitating ecotourism development.

Chapter six highlighted the situational analysis underpinning the study area. This provided a useful base to provide clarity on the planning responses emanating from the prepared scheme and FAP. It further assisted with providing a useful backdrop for the research findings and proposed recommendations for the investigation which were provided in Chapter Seven.

In bringing the dissertation to completion, it is necessary to point out that the study intended to investigate the impacts of spatial and land use planning on eco-tourism development in local communities. In terms of its objectives it intended to:

Identify the key characteristics of sustainable ecotourism development which were dealt with in Chapter Two.

Assess how spatial planning and land use planning could facilitate ecotourism development. This was addressed by the investigation in terms of providing precedent case studies where complimentary land-use frameworks were developed to advocate the case for sustainable and environmentally cognisant land use practices. This objective was addressed in Chapters Four and Five.

Identify the elements that may limit the study area in the implementation of ecotourism development. This objective was met through the provisions of situational analysis (i.e. Chapter Six) which unearthed the specific study area encumbrances along with Chapter Seven which expanded upon the research findings and observations.

In terms of the remaining three objectives, **(i.e. the extent of stakeholder engagement; the effectiveness of SPLUMA; and providing recommendations for improving ecotourism development)** these were met through Chapter Seven which indicated that the eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality (EMM) was limited in its efforts of stakeholder engagements the preparation of the scheme and FAP. It is recommended the Local Community Participation Improvement Model (LCPIM) as advocated by Gumede (2019) expands the level of stakeholder engagement. The LCPIM is noted as advocating the case for a collaborative effort concerning ecotourism development. Botes Van Rensburg (2000) also suggests that it places a strong focus on the role of each stakeholder and would also be useful in resolving potential fragmentation among diverse stakeholders by enforcing collaborative problem-solving and decision-making.

In terms of SPLUMA, Nel (2015) states that it is commendable in its attempts to develop a single spatial planning and land use management system that is tasked with addressing South Africa's inherited spatial challenges and calls for **justice, access, sustainability, and efficiency**. It is submitted that the scheme and FAP met the constitutional objectives of SPLUMA, however further focus must be placed on creating an enabling environment for the review of the FAP and the Scheme should speak to creating a land-use framework that is consistent with the imperatives of community development and LCPIM.

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Annexure 1: Interview Questions for Study Participants

Local Residents and Private Property Owners

1. What is your understanding of ecotourism development?

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.....

(Ecotourism is a sub-component of the field of sustainable tourism. It is based on the nature experience, which enables the economic and social development of local communities).

2. What are the key characteristics of ecotourism development?

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.....
.....

(Ecotourism is generally conscientious, it has low-impact visitor behaviour, sensitivity towards, and appreciation of local cultures and biodiversity. It also supports local conservation efforts).

3. Do you have any understanding of spatial and land use planning? Yes/No

(Yes)

4. Please substantiate your previous response.

.....
.....
.....

(Spatial planning is a key instrument for establishing long- and medium-term frameworks for territorial development, promoting spatial organisation of land uses and reconciling competing policy goals. It aims to balance demands for development with the need to protect the environment and to achieve social and economic objectives. Whereas land use planning is the process of regulating the use of land in an effort to promote more desirable social and environmental outcomes as well as a more efficient use of resources).

5. How does spatial and land use planning facilitate ecotourism development?

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.....

(By preparing strategic documents that outline how sustainable development will be implemented in the mere future).

6. Were stakeholders and local community members involved in the preparation of the Shongweni Local Area Plan for ecotourism development within the study area?

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.....
.....

7. Did you know that the study area is identified as an ecotourism destination? Yes/No

8. Please substantiate your previous response.

.....
.....
.....

9. Do you have any understanding of the Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act (No. 16 of 2013)? Yes/No

(Yes)

10. If yes, how effective is this legislation in terms of ensuring sustainable development?

.....
.....
.....

(The implementation and compliance to SPLUMA is limited in South Africa. Chapter 2 Section 7 (b) Principle of Spatial Sustainability outlines that development needs to be sustainable from an economic, environmental and social perspective; however, one may argue that it is ineffective when it comes to implementation).

11. What would you recommend that will improve the implementation of ecotourism development in Shongweni?

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.....

(Involve and include local stakeholders, so that they can also benefit from ecotourism development).

12. How can eThekwini Municipality assist in terms of improving the conditions of the study area?

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.....
.....

(eThekwini Municipality can improve the conditions of the study area through effective service delivery as well as working together with community members to ensure that the ecotourism development in Shongweni has great returns).

Members of the EMM, CoGTA, Ward Councillors and Conservation Guardians

- 1. What are the key characteristics of sustainable ecotourism development and spatial and land use planning?*
- 2. To what extent does spatial and land use planning facilitate ecotourism development?*
- 3. Which elements limit the study area in the implementation of ecotourism development?*
- 4. To what extent were the stakeholders and local community involved in the preparation of the FAP and Land Use Scheme for eco-tourism development within the study area?*
- 5. How effective is SPLUMA in relation to ensuring sustainable development?*
- 6. What are the possible spatial and land use recommendations that will improve the implementation of ecotourism development in Shongweni that can be used as a best case examples for other South African ecotourism initiatives?*

Annexure 2: Email from KZN COGTA

Malusi Khumalo

From: Malusi Khumalo <malusik@sivest.co.za>
Sent: Thursday, 21 April 2022 1:39 PM
To: Malusi Khumalo
Subject: FW: Re: Progress of uMkhanyakude District Municipality in terms of Developing Single Land Use Scheme for all local Municipalities
Attachments: UMKHANYAKUDE FAMILY SCHEME.docx

From: "Mswankile Zithutha" <Mswankile.Zithutha@kzncogta.gov.za>
Date: 31/01/2020 at 11:05:29
To: "Malusi Khumalo" <MalusiK@sivest.co.za>
Subject: Re: Progress of uMkhanyakude District Municipality in terms of Developing Single Land Use Scheme for all local Municipalities

Hi, kindly receive the attachments as per requested and feel free to contact at anytime, I wish you a good like in your studies. If you need additional information contact me.

Thanks

>>> Malusi Khumalo <MalusiK@sivest.co.za> 2020/01/30 06:20 PM >>>

Dear Mr Zithutha,

I trust you are well?

The matter in the above subject line refers:-

As you may be aware, I am currently a registered student with the University of Kwa-Zulu Natal (UKZN) Howard College, for the Masters in Town and Regional Planning, under student number 216072598.

In order to complete and attain my masters in same field, I am required to submit a dissertation.

I am aware that you may have an understanding with regard to the number of municipalities that have completed their single land use schemes in terms of the provisions of the Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act (SPLUMA) No 16 of 2013 within the uMkhanyakude District Municipality (UDM) (DC 27).

The purpose of my email is to solicit a succinct update with regard to the progress made by the four local municipalities therein?

May you kindly assist within this regard?

Your assistance will be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Annexure 4: Emailed Correspondence from EMM

Malusi Khumalo

From: Malusi Khumalo <malusik@sivest.co.za>
Sent: Thursday, 21 April 2022 12:19 PM
To: Malusi Khumalo
Subject: FW: RE: COUNCIL DECISIONS - 2018-09-27

From: "Justin Rajan" <Justin.Rajan@durban.gov.za>
Date: 02/11/2018 at 12:40:08
To: ""Kavi Soni" <KaviS@sivest.co.za>,""Malusi Khumalo" <MalusiK@sivest.co.za>
Subject: RE: COUNCIL DECISIONS - 2018-09-27

Hi Kavi and Malusi,

Just wanted to let you know that our project has (finally!) been approved by full Council and will now start being used to direct development in the area!

Well done guys!

Kind regards

Justin

From: Justin Rajan
Sent: Thursday, November 01, 2018 3:56 PM
To: Rayven Moodley
Cc: Claire Norton
Subject: FW: COUNCIL DECISIONS - 2018-09-27

Hi Rayven,

Apologies for not forwarding sooner, I was querying the typo in the resolution.

Nevertheless, please find attached Council approval for Shongweni Precinct C FAP and Draft Scheme (Page 14, item 2.8) for your information, and the approved document for your records and distribution.

The project area is still subject to 70 of 70 approval (a separate process is under way for release) so the only possible scheme inventions for now, as per the document proposals, is the introduction of the "Nature and Culture Based Tourism" zone and new Land use definition of "Adventure Tourism Activities" (I will insert into the scheme and forward through shortly). I'm sure the FAP can still be used as a guiding "policy" document though.

Please let me know if there's anything else you require.

Regards

Justin

From: Lihle Phewa
Sent: 28 September 2018 03:28 PM
To: Helene Epstein; Justin Rajan; Jayant Dwarkadass; Claire Norton; Chantel Palayan; Ashena Ramloutan; Emmanuel Letebele
Subject: FW: COUNCIL DECISIONS - 2018-09-27

Hi

Please receive Council minutes for the Spt meeting.

regards

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<http://www.durban.gov.za/Pages/edisclaimer.aspx>

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